ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP

Enhancing School Effectiveness

MARMAR MUKHOPADHYAY

ROUTLEDGE

ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP

This book provides contemporary knowledge on school effectiveness and proposes strategic interventions for enhancing it. It focuses on improving academic leadership to enhance the effectiveness of schools and discusses how national education policies are helpful in providing a vision for improving school effectiveness.

It highlights the role of teachers as academic leaders in the implementation of policy recommendations at school and classroom levels. It offers methods and mechanisms for academic leaders to measure the learning of students for school assessment. The author also discusses how academic leadership involves creating a vision and mission based on science and research data for the organisation, inspiring innovation and creative ideas, developing teamwork, and creating a safe environment for staff to express their views. While providing an understanding of school as an organisation, the volume outlines its management functions such as processes and quality of planning, management of curriculum, learner evaluation, institutional networks, and human resource management, among others. The volume is a guidebook for training and capacity building for school-level practitioners and leaders in education management.

Embedded with real-life cases and episodes, this volume will be of interest to teachers, students, and practitioners of education, management, and education management. It will also be useful for academicians, educationalists, practitioners, management professionals, educational leaders, and policymakers.

Marmar Mukhopadhyay is Chairman of Educational Technology and Management Academy, Gurgaon, India. He represents a unique blend of experience in educational management as a researcher, trainer, institution builder, and author spread over more than four decades. He completed more than forty research and consultancy assignments commissioned by agencies like UNESCO, UNICEF, World Bank, USAID, British Council, and COL. Marmar has trained a few thousand heads of academic institutions from India and more than fifty other countries. He has served in academic leadership positions (as a head) in two major Indian national institutions and in international organisations like ICDE and IMAGE. Two of his notable publications include *Total Quality Management in Education*, *Quality Management in Higher Education*, and *Leadership for Institution Building in Education*.

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Routledge
Taylor & Francis Group
LONDON AND NEW YORK

Designed cover image: Getty image

First published 2023
by Routledge
4 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon OX14 4RN

and by Routledge
605 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10158

Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business

British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data
A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

ISBN: 978-1-032-15889-1 (hbk)
ISBN: 978-1-032-45348-4 (pbk)
ISBN: 978-1-003-37654-5 (ebk)

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545

Typeset in Sabon
by Deanta Global Publishing Services, Chennai, India

In memory of my father

Late Sri Nrisinhaprasad Mukhopadhyay,

Former Headmaster of Udang High School.

At his feet, I learnt the concept and dynamics of School Effectiveness.

And my mother, Late Srimati Umashashi Mukhopadhyay, whose care and love have sustained all of us till today.

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FOREWORD

The art of communicative academic writing that is tailored towards different segments of the education community – may they be educational policymakers, planners, practitioners, leaders, managers, researchers, teacher-trainers, parents, and learners – is not a given professional gift. Professor Marmar Mukhopadhyay can claim to have such an art, being a prolific writer with a very rich track record of educational writings which are meant for a broader and inclusive education community at home in India and across the world. His recently published book *Educational Technology for Teachers: Technology Integrated Education* is a case in point.

Our world is constantly exposed to different societal crises where the triad of equity–quality–efficiency in educational access, provision, and success remains key to sustainable developmental progress. In this book, the author has successfully retained our keen interest and increasing awareness of the importance of academic leadership for school effectiveness when it is properly understood, designed, and implemented by school principals and leaders. The author cogently argues that such an understanding can significantly contribute to school effectiveness, where all educational inputs, processes, outputs, and impacts are considered in an integrated and holistic manner. To reach such an important objective, the author presents in this book an extremely well-designed pedagogical structure for each chapter, starting with its expected outcomes and concluding with its takeaways. The communicative and simplistic skills of the author in the presentation and organisation of the subject matter of each chapter deserve special mention. For practitioners and frontline implementors at the school level, this book brings an increasing amount of knowledge that is needed to address school effectiveness from the vantage point of academic leadership.

The author offers in his book a comprehensive and thorough review of the existing literature on academic leadership and school effectiveness. While addressing all the different concepts and their application, this book also maintains a water-tight relationship between contents and contexts.

There is a built-in focus in the book on very specific but down-to-earth, pragmatic needs and use for school principals and school leaders in their day-to-day situational contexts. In this way, it is a unique contribution to the existing literature as it relates with great success to the international scene (global) with rural village India (local), hence adopting a global approach for a better understanding of academic leadership and school effectiveness. I, for one, cannot think of anybody who has so skilfully established, and with such determination, a pathway for improved learning through academic leadership and school effectiveness. This book, *Academic Leadership: Enhancing School Effectiveness*, paves the way for broader and deeper action research and scholarship.

Finally, I must salute the continued efforts made by Professor Marmar Mukhopadhyay through his continued and outstanding contributions to our academic *cum* pedagogic world. This book is yet another breakthrough from within his legacy. I, therefore, strongly recommend this book for use and application by the broader spectrum of the educational community and, more specifically, among school principals, school leaders, and their trainers.

Professor (Emeritus) Vinayagum Chinapah
International and Comparative Education
Stockholm University
Sweden
June 2022

PREFACE

Inspired and informed by global and national education policies, schools function as the last-mile service units of human development, educating billions of children and young people worldwide. However, only a small proportion of schools perform at the level of their potential. There are, though rare, inspiring cases of few schools that outwit their known possibilities with their sterling performances. However, a vast majority of the schools in all countries, especially in Africa and Asia, perform far below the level of their capacity and potentiality, costing the futures of billions of young people and the quality of life of millions of teachers, school staff, and members of the school leadership team. The under-performance or poor school effectiveness is a serious concern expressed by all nations and international agencies led by the UN agencies. Indeed, this lack of school effectiveness is the most serious challenge for SDG4 and national educational policies.

However, collective wisdom generated by a robust body of research and successful innovations by institution builders gives confidence that school effectiveness is not a fait accompli. School effectiveness can be improved. Based on collective wisdom and experiences, this book provides evidence-based strategic options for enhancing the effectiveness of schools of all kinds – public or private, rural or urban, denominational and non-denominations, mission- or motive (commercial)-driven coeducational or gender-segregated and Asian, African, or Euro-American.

The book has departed from the traditional frame of students' performance as the indicator to propose a self-fulfilment model of school effectiveness. In this model, students find opportunities to enhance performance and optimise talents. Teachers and staff who spend more than three decades of life find new ways of excelling, optimising talents, and realising life's unfulfilled dreams and desires. Academic leaders excel in leading students, teachers, staff, parents, and the community to achieve excellence with satisfaction and happiness in a vibrant school charged with enthusiasm and innovations.

This book is a handbook for the practising academic leaders of schools. The necessary theoretical inputs have been restricted to a few chapters on school effectiveness, academic leadership, and understanding of school as an organisation. The rest of the chapters provide tips and practical wisdom on enhancing school effectiveness through school-based educational policy implementation, developing the school as a learning organisation, practising professional learning for continuous professional development, nurturing leadership for collective leadership, effectively managing resources, networking for organisational learning, retuning administrative management to improve academic management, student services and parental involvement, and school effectiveness audit. The last and the concluding chapter deals with developing a quality culture for sustainable school effectiveness and the evolution of academic leadership from transactional to zero leadership.

In authoring this book, I have blended my nearly six decades of professional experience as a teacher, staff trainer, educational management professor and researcher, consultant, educational policymaker and planner, and institution builder. I began my career as a village schoolteacher and have been deeply engaged with public and private schools all these years ever since then. As a staff development professional, I designed and implemented training programmes for a few thousand schools and college principals from India and other countries. The book carries theoretical inputs and tips for practice from practical experience.

I thank Prof Vinayagum Chinapah, Professor Emeritus and former Director of the International Institution of Education of Stockholm University, Sweden, for his graceful foreword to this book. I immensely benefitted from his scholarly observations and suggestions on each chapter while authoring this book. Prof Chinapah's foreword has added unique value for the readers.

I thank Prof Madhu Parhar, then Director of the Centre for Educational Media in Commonwealth Asia, for reviewing the book end to end and suggesting improvements. I have addressed this book to the principals. I consider their assessment and review comments to be necessary. I thank Ms Anita Makkar, Director of HDFC Group of Schools, and Dr CS Shivananda, Principal of DPSSTS, Dhaka, for reviewing the book and sharing their very useful observations. I am also thankful to Dr Mrityunjoy Kaibarta for providing academic assistance in authoring this book.

I hope academic leaders passionate about change and enhancing school effectiveness will find this book helpful.

Prof Marmar Mukhopadhyay
30 June 2022, Gurugram (India)

ABBREVIATIONS

ASPNET	Active Server Pages Network Enabled Technologies
BALA	building as learning aids
BLD	blended learning design
CASE	Centre of Advanced Studies in Education
CBSE	Central Board of Secondary Education
CCSSO	Council of Chief State School Officers
CEO	chief executive officer
CISCE	Council for the Indian School Certificate Examinations
COL	Commonwealth of Learning
COSN	Consortium for School Networking
CQI	continuous quality improvement
CTE	Career and Technical Education
DAV	Dayanand Anglo Vedic
DPS	Delhi Public School
ESN	European School Network
ESSA	Every Student Succeeds Act
ETMA	Educational Technology & Management Academy
EUN	European Schoolnet
FIAS	Flanders Interaction Analysis System
FR	financial rules
HOD	heads of the department
HR	human resource
HRD	human resource development
IBO	International Baccalaureate Organization
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IEP	Individualised Education Plans
IGCSE	International General Certificate of Secondary Education
IIT	Indian Institute of Technology
IQAC	internal quality assurance cell
JRF	junior research fellow

K–12	kindergarten to 12th grade
KSCA	knowledge, skills, competence, and attitudes
KVS	Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan
LCS	loosely coupled system
LGBT	lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender
LO	learning organisation
LOS	learning organisation schools
LS	learning school
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MIS	Management Information System
NCERT	National Council of Educational Research and Training
NCLB	No Child Left behind
NEA	National Education Association
NEN	National Education Network
NEP	National Education Policy
NGO	non-governmental organisation
NIEPA	National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration
NIOS	National Institute of Open Schooling
NRCC	The National Research Council of Canada
NSE	Networking for School Effectiveness
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OER	Open Educational Resource
PDSA	plan–do–study–act
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
PLET	Professional Learning for Empowerment of Teachers
PMOST	Programme for Mass Orientation of School Teachers
PPT	PowerPoint presentation
PTA	parent–teacher association
PVC	pro-vice chancellor
QI	quality intervention
SCERT	State Council of Educational Research and Training
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SEEK	School Effectiveness Enhancement Kendra
SEPIM	School-Based Educational Policy Implementation Model
SOPT	student perceptions of teaching
SRAMS	School Resource Audit Management System
SSC	Sahodaya School Complex
TIMMS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TLRC	Teachers Learning Resource Centre
TPR	total physical response
TQM	total quality management
TTTI BHOPAL	Technical Teacher's Training Institute Bhopal

UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNESCO-IBE	UNESCO International Bureau of Education
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VISN	Virtual School Network

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SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

An Introduction

Introduction

The global community realised the need for "quality education for all" for global development. The country leaders promised to meet Goal 4.1 of Sustainable Development Goals: "By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes."[1] The world leaders also realised the futility of "education for all," which they flagged at the Jomtien Conference in 1990 without referring to the quality of education. Opening schools and increasing access to indifferent quality of education are not enough to achieve national and global development. What is needed is quality education. There came the question of whether schools are effective and whether they can optimise learning and students' development.

James Coleman's (Coleman et al., 1966) report on Equality of Educational Opportunity was probably the first evidence-based eye-opener. The socioeconomic backgrounds of students better explain their school achievement than schooling. Jencks, et al. and Husen, both in 1972, flagged the question of school effectiveness further.

School effectiveness, ever since then, has emerged as a subject of public interest. Many researchers have focused their attention on school effectiveness. The basic assumption is schools can do better than what they are achieving. Researchers defined school effectiveness operationally, studied factors affecting school effectiveness and tools and techniques to measure effectiveness, and eventually conceptualised models and ways and means of improving school effectiveness.

Arguably, school effectiveness should be concerned with setting performance targets and achieving the desired goals. These goals need to be contextualised as there are traditional K–12 private and public schools, open schools, and residential elite private and public schools for talented ethnic and rural children. There are denominational and non-denominational schools and single-gender and coeducational schools. A common set

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-1

of educational goals and targets will not be universally applicable. Every school needs to set its improved target, retune its processes, and improve its performance, as measured against a set of specific criteria.

This chapter will deal with the concepts and definitions of school effectiveness, indicators and characteristics of school effectiveness, factors affecting school effectiveness, models of school effectiveness, and school effectiveness framework. Finally, we will propose an innovative, inclusive self-fulfilment model of school effectiveness.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Define school effectiveness and describe an effective school.
b. Identify parameters of school effectiveness.
c. Identify factors affecting school effectiveness and measures of school effectiveness.
d. Propose a conceptual framework of effectiveness for your school.

Goals of Education and Schooling

The states and funding agencies make general statements about the purpose of school education. Schools would have a unique set of objectives in their respective contexts indicated in their vision and mission statements. While many public schools do not have specific vision and mission statements, almost every private school has a vision and mission statement. These are school specific. The vision and mission statements communicate to the parents and the community about the school's uniqueness and what to expect from the school as its impact on their children.

Chris Drew (2021) compiled a list of 79 vision and mission statements of schools and 47 vision and mission statements by teachers based on desktop research. Drew (2022) summarised that the vision and mission statements convey important themes to a school's community. For example, the preschool education mission "explores themes of safety, development and love; high school vision is preparing for the world."

The most commonly occurring words in the vision and mission statements are: Community, Safe, Excellence, Potential, Skills, Global, Prepare, Achieve, and Life-long (Drew, 2021). High school vision and mission statements focus on helping students achieve independence, build confidence, and gain academic knowledge; to gain admission to the colleges or universities of their choice as well as to succeed in those institutions through a sound academic foundation; prepare students for future endeavours; and

cultivate excellence in every student (Drew, 2021). The detailed statements often include life skills and graduate attributes like critical and creative thinking. The reference point of school effectiveness should be a school's vision and mission statements.

There is a gap between the vision and mission statements and the school practices. Although the school vision and mission statements are inclusive of the holistic development of students, the school practices focus on curriculum transaction, teaching–learning, and examination. Though there are sprinklings of co-scholastic and co-curricular activities, these activities do not form an integral part of the academic framework. Students' performance in these areas is neither targeted nor evaluated and recognised for excellence awards. Social and emotional learning and physical and spiritual development are peripheral to schooling. To prepare 21st-century learners, we need to revisit and construct school effectiveness models.

School Effectiveness: The Concept

"Effectiveness refers to an organisation accomplishing its specific objectives" (Beare et al., 1989:11). A school that achieves its goals is considered effective (Botha, 2010).

The discourse on school effectiveness often begins with educational effectiveness. Educational effectiveness refers to system effectiveness. Indicators are dropout or retention rate, transition rate, graduation rate, graduate attributes, and employability. Educational effectiveness is how an educational system and its constituents achieve the desired goals. Since goals and effects are represented by achievement in educational systems, an educational system that contributes more to better student achievement is considered more effective than some other educational systems (Burusic et al., 2016).

Since a school is a component of the larger educational system, school effectiveness needs to be studied within the system's backdrop. The visible goal of the system is helping students learn certain content prescribed by the regulatory authority, and the reference point of school effectiveness is often considered students' performance in examinations (Westbrook, 1982, p7). Preference for academic achievement as the criterion may also be because it is easily measurable in quantitative terms, and quantification gives an impression of accuracy and transparency.

Setting higher targets is one of the guiding principles for school effectiveness. Seychelles, one of the small population countries on the Indian Ocean, defined performance criteria across schools – as higher than what the students were performing (COL, 2021). Determining school effectiveness against a common expected level of performance is sound for intra-school

assessment but not across the schools, as the performance targets can vary from one school to another.

Evolution of the Concept: History of Research in School Effectiveness

The history of research on school effectiveness owes its origin to three research publications during 1966–72 – on equality and inequality of educational opportunity (Coleman et al., 1966; Husen, 1972; Jencks et al., 1972) and on education and productivity (Schultz, 1971). These studies ignited the minds of researchers to examine whether or how effective schools are in assuring equality of educational opportunity. Though the research evidence in this field is somewhat scattered, some meaningful efforts have been made to document the history of research on school effectiveness (Fleisch, 2007; Teddlie and Stringfield, 2007).

Coleman et al.'s (1966) survey's most startling findings were that "negro students and teachers are largely and unequally segregated from their white counterparts. The average minority pupil achieves less and is more affected by the quality of his school" (p1). As per Coleman's report:

> One implication stands out above all: that schools bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context…the inequalities imposed on children by their home, neighbourhood, and peer environment are carried along to become the inequalities with which they confront life at the end of school.
>
> (p225)

However, caution is necessary. One reviewer (anonymous) wrote in 2009:

> In truth, however, neither Jencks et al. nor James Coleman nor the numerous others who contributed to this genre argued that schools made no difference. They seemed to take for granted that schools promoted academic achievement, teaching students things they otherwise would not learn. However, their troublesome and controversial finding was that schools did not make some of the differences Americans had long assumed. Specifically, schools are not effective agencies of upward social mobility, nor are they powerful agencies of progressive social reform.[2]

Schooling did not explain more than 10% of people's earnings (Jencks et al., 1972). The school dropout and performance data of scheduled caste

and scheduled tribe students and girls in Indian education in the 2020s echo Coleman's findings. Since the publication of these two reports, many researchers have shown interest in school effectiveness research, especially since the 1980s.

Husen (1972) raised some fundamental questions of equality of educational opportunity with implications for school effectiveness. He adopted the "presage–process–product" model. The presage model implied equality of students at the school entry point. Different genetic inheritance, socio-economic conditions, and parenting cannot guarantee equality at the school entry point. Equality of process may mean a standard schooling system or the same kind of schooling. Schools may adopt a similar procedure under the same administrative system without guaranteeing the same procedure. Product equality implied equality of knowledge and skills. Coleman et al.'s (1966) study focused on literacy or reading and numeracy as the product criteria. The differential input through a similar process cannot lead to product equality.

Schultz (1971), a Nobel laureate economist in 2021, concluded that the rate of return on investment is highest in primary education, and high school ranks higher in higher education. However, the caveat is "the *realised* rate of return." The realised rate of return is the indicator of school effectiveness.

Burusic et al. (2016) classified the trend of research into four phases:

- *The first phase (beginning of the 1980s)*: Flagged the importance of teachers and the school environment for students' achievement, especially for the socio-economically disadvantaged groups from ethnic minorities.
- *The second phase (end of the 1980s to the early 1990s)*: Identified specific characteristics of teachers and schools that positively impacted students' achievement (Levin and Lezotte, 1990; Scheerens and Bosker, 1997).
- *The third phase (middle of the 1990s and beginning of 2000s)*: Developed models of educational effectiveness (Creemers, 1994; Scheerens, 1992) encompassing factors associated with the students, teachers, classes, and schools. This phase is also characterised by cross-cultural research examining the relevance and applicability of the models.
- *The fourth phase (middle of the 2000s till date)*: Included the dynamic nature of school effectiveness, including the changing nature of its components, especially national and school policies, quality of teaching, and several personal attributes of learners for assessing the impact on cognitive, affective, psychomotor, and new learning outcomes (Creemers and Kyriakides, 2006; Creemers and Kyriakides, 2010).

Students Achievement as a Measure of School Effectiveness

Pupil achievement has been the most popular measure of school effectiveness. Students' achievement as a measure of school effectiveness clusters around three sets of criteria (Frederick, 1987):

- Achievement scores are higher than the city-wide average grade equivalent (Lezotte et al., 1974; Clark and McCarthy, 1983) and the national average (Brookover, 1981).
- The percentage of high-achieving students increases, decreasing the percentage of low-achieving students (McCormack-Larkin and Kritek, 1982); pupils perform above the 75th percentile (Frederiksen, 1975); the observed average exceeds the predicted mean achievement.
- The achievement gap for initially low-achieving students reduces over time (Clauset and Gaynor, 1982); or gaps based on race and socio-economic status remain stable or are reduced (Dorman, 1981); and the proportion of low-income children obtaining minimum mastery is equal to the proportion of middle-income children achieving minimum mastery (Edmonds, 1982).

There are several unresolved issues in using pupil achievement as a measure of school effectiveness. The measure of academic achievement is a function of assessment tools. Schools use teacher-made tests. The teacher-made tests are developed only on that proportion of the syllabus taught in the class (the learning gap). The syllabus coverage varies among well-managed and poorly managed schools. The construct and difficulty level of the tests vary from one school to another and from one teacher to another in the same school. Many schools do not set achievement targets, leaving a significant gap in reference points to compare performance. Hence, using academic achievement on a teacher-made test as an indicator of school effectiveness leads to an unreliable conclusion.

Some researchers have defined school effectiveness as performance against preset higher targets. Target setting is guided by the mindset of the academic leadership and teachers; schools vary in target setting. Hence, the evaluation of performance against targets can also be non-conclusive. Such performance measures can be restrictively used for intra-school effectiveness assessment but not interschool. Interschool comparison of effects on the student achievement criteria needs a common examination across the schools. Examinations conducted by school boards can provide a comparative basis. However, since the school boards may not use standardised tests, the conclusions must be cautiously taken.

India presents an interesting case for study. India has several examining agencies like Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE), National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS), International General Certificate of Secondary

Education (IGCSE), Indian Certificate of Secondary Education (ICSE), and International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO) conducting examinations across the country; then, there are more than 40 state boards conducting examinations in regional languages. The criteria for pupil performance vary.

India and Norway conduct National Assessment Surveys at different levels of schooling using standardised tests to give "a system-level reflection on the effectiveness of school education. Findings help compare the performance across the spectrum and the population to find the desired direction for improvements."[3] The contemporary research on performance assessment prefers standardised objective-type tests. Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) and Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMMS) are the tests that provide the opportunity for intercountry comparison of educational effectiveness.

School effectiveness is not easy to define as there are multiple criteria. According to Oxford Languages, effectiveness is "the degree to which something is successful in producing the desired result," school effectiveness should be examined against the purpose of setting up the schools and intended results expressed through mission, goals, and objectives.

Further, students' performance is an output criterion of school effectiveness. The outputs are functions of inputs and processes. The student performance-referenced school effectiveness is exclusive of even the variables that impact performance, resembling 1920s' quality control instead of the contemporary emphasis on quality assurance, e.g. six sigma, quality circle, and total quality management. Other factors and criteria are students and parents (home), teachers, technology and infrastructure, classroom processes, schools, and the immediate community (Bosker and Scheerens, 1994).

- *Students*: Hattie (2017) found 256 variables associated with students' performance with differential impact factors. Intelligence, socio-economic status, peer group attributes, and motivation influence students' performance. Motivation can be intrinsic or induced by instructional strategies, mentoring, and feedback on efforts and learning outcomes.
- *Homes*: Home environment, technology facilities like study room and furniture, access to computing devices and broadband internet connectivity, and parent involvement in child's education.
- *Teacher quality*: Mastery of contents, pedagogy and technology, affective qualities (Williamson, 2019), dedication, professional learning, and professionalisation.
- *Classrooms*: Physical environment of classrooms, duration of class hours, content coverage and depth of contents covered, the pedagogical choices of blended learning, contemplative pedagogy, self-regulated learning, mastery learning techniques, etc., and formative assessment and feedback.

- *School*: Shared achievement orientation among staff and school leadership; aligning teacher quality with student quality while assigning teachers; coordination among subunits and subcultures; and achievement incentives for school performance.
- *Immediate community*: Culture and aspiration of the immediate community and its involvement in the school.

Factors Affecting School Effectiveness

There are several studies differentiating effective schools from non-effective schools on certain criteria. A few variables are teacher attendance and teacher quality, effective teaching, and capable school leadership (Teddlie et al., 1989). The school effectiveness research aimed to determine the difference in the process attributes between effective and non-effective schools (Creemers and Scheerens, 1994). Many research studies have chosen students' academic and social outcomes as the criteria for school effectiveness (Ramberg et al., 2018). The studies shed light on student, teacher, principal, alumni, and parent variables determining school effectiveness.

Students' socio-economic condition (high) is a significant influencer of students' achievement (Coleman, 1966; Atchia and Chinapah, 2019; Mirowsky and Ross, 2017; Benner et al., 2016; Berkowitz et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2015; Kahlenberg, 2006; Kirkup, 2008; Palardy, 2013). Atchia and Chinapah (2019) also cited a study by Pedrosa et al. (2007) that found students from disadvantaged socio-economic and educational homes perform relatively better than those from higher socio-economic and educational strata. Students' time management, motivation, engagement, behaviour, etc., are significant determinants of their academic achievement (Kang and Keinonen, 2018; Lemberger et al., 2015).

Teacher effectiveness is a decisive factor in student achievement (Vizeshfar and Torabizadeh, 2018; Adnot et al., 2016; Hattie, 2017). Teaching basic skills, high expectations of pupils' progress, an orderly and safe climate, and frequent evaluation differentiate effective schools from the rest (Edmonds, 1979). In effective schools, teachers work longer hours and a greater number of days in a year and receive feedback more often (Dobbie and Fryer, 2011).

Studies further indicate that collective teacher efficacy is the key to students' performance and school effectiveness (Hattie, 2017). As students perceive, caring teachers are another differentiator between effective and non-effective schools (Dobbie and Fryer, 2011; Ramberg et al., 2018). Continuous professional learning is an inseparable component of effective schools. School effectiveness increases when teachers regularly engage in self-regulated learning, focusing on continuing self-learning and development.

Effective schools demonstrate a continuous and emphatic focus on the learning–teaching process – structured lessons and intellectually challenging teaching (Levine and Lezotte, 1990; Mortimore et al., 1989). Teachers in effective schools adopt flexible blended learning designs to suit students' learning needs and styles to achieve excellence and adopt differentiated instruction (Utami, 2017; Obiedat et al., 2014; Cole, 2020; Oweis, 2018). In effective schools, students engage in group learning four or more times per week (Dobbie and Fryer, 2011). However, lesson plans do not differentiate high-achieving schools from other schools, though lesson plans are given high importance in schools (Dobbie and Fryer, 2011).

The school leadership directly or indirectly influences the teaching–learning process, involves parents and the external resource persons and systems, and helps develop a positive climate (Dobbie and Fryer, 2011; Edmonds, 1979; Levine and Lezotte, 1990; Mulford et al., 2009; Supovitz et al., 2010; Mortimore et al., 1989), which eventually impacts students' achievement. The principal creates a proactive environment in the school, facilitating school effectiveness (Allen et al., 2015; Beare et al., 2018; Day et al., 2016; Hitt and Tucker, 2016; Leithwood et al., 2008; Pont et al., 2008).

School climate characterised by safety and a positive growth mindset contributes to school effectiveness (Zintz, 2018). This positive growth mindset contributes to enhanced expectations for students, staff, and parents. The school environment shapes students' beliefs about their future, enhancing features of school effectiveness (Alm et al., 2019).

The positive and productive involvement of parents is another factor in school effectiveness. Effective schools competently use student data to monitor their progress with parents. There is a direct relationship between parental involvement in a child's education as a teaching partner and the school's developmental efforts and effectiveness. Alumni involvement in school enhances school effectiveness (Dolbert, 2002; Dickmann, 2007; Tulankar and Grampurohit, 2020; CREATE, 2019). Students learn practical things from their alumni; alumni feel happy to stay connected with their alma mater.

Key Characteristics of an Effective School

There have been studies that identified the influencers of school effectiveness. Döş (2014) identified certain attributes of schools and called them models, like ethics and values of students, students' ability to acquire basic social skills, students' adaptability to the programmes offered by a school, comparability with other schools, the dedication of teachers and leadership team to their jobs, students' ability to find sources and access information, teacher absence compared to other schools, the happiness of students, students' ability to find jobs, students attaching importance

to social life and playing their roles effectively, school's ability to implement decisions taken at administrative levels, and parents' participation in school activities. Lezotte (1991), reconfirmed by Kirk and Jones (2004), found a safe and orderly environment, a climate of high expectations for success, instructional leadership, clear and focused mission/vision, opportunity to learn and the time devoted to the learning task by students, frequent monitoring of student progress, and home–school relations as some of the key characteristics that make a school effective. Edmonds (1982 and 1979) added some other criteria for effective schools. Some of these are strong administrative leadership, particularly in the area of curriculum and instruction; a pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus emphasising a commitment to basic skills; teacher behaviours that convey the expectation that all students are expected to obtain at least minimum mastery; and the use of measures of pupil achievement as the basis of program evaluation.

Models of School Effectiveness

The concept of models of school effectiveness emerged largely out of interest in measuring school effectiveness – whether some models work better than others. Bosker and Scheerens (1994) constructed a few models. They contrasted them in sets of two on their effectiveness, like additive vs interactive, direct vs indirect causal, additive vs interactive models, contextual vs genuine effects, additive vs synergetic interpretations, and recursive vs non-recursive models. Bosker and Scheerens could not conclude which model was best; a somewhat tentative conclusion was that the least productive was the indirect model and the most promising was the synergistic model.

School effectiveness research has come a long way. Yet, defining effectiveness in terms of students' academic achievement alone needs reconsideration. School effectiveness must be judged against the school's vision, mission, and goals and from the perspectives of all stakeholders. It deserves an inclusive system model.

Self-fulfilment Model of School Effectiveness: An Inclusive Framework

The basic system model provided the initial school effectiveness framework. Later, the importance of contextual process for schools – the socio-economic settings, rural and urban, public and private, denominational and non-denominational, etc. – was recognised. The input-contextual process and output model became the modified basic system model. Creemers and Kyriakides (2010) proposed a dynamic model with modified students' learning outcomes to include cognitive, affective, psychomotor, and new

learning. It was inclusive yet student centric. Though it improves upon the sole criteria of cognitive outcomes, the model excludes other stakeholders. The organisational effectiveness demands quality culture, quality everywhere, involvement of everyone, and the opportunity for the self-fulfilment of everyone.

The studies on school effectiveness indicate that leadership, teacher effectiveness, and parental involvement contribute to students' learning outcomes. Considering all stakeholders' contributions to students' academic achievement, the singular criterion of students' academic achievement as the sole criteria for school effectiveness framework is untenable.

Since teacher effectiveness, principal's leadership, and parents' participation, for example, contribute to students' academic achievement and quality of campus life, all these should be included in the school effectiveness framework. In other words, effective teacher and school leadership, parental involvement in children's education, and school development are also indicators of school effectiveness.

Just as students spend 15 formative years (K–12) of their life in school, teachers, staff, and leadership teams spend 25 to 30 years of their prime adult life in schools. Should an effective school not be judged by how it adds to the quality of life – happiness, satisfaction, self-fulfilment, and lifelong learning – of all involved in schooling? Parents and the immediate community, management, and regulatory authorities have expectations. School effectiveness must adopt a dynamic, inclusive model to include all stakeholders' outcome variables and the quality assurance of contextual processes in the given inputs (Figure 1.1).

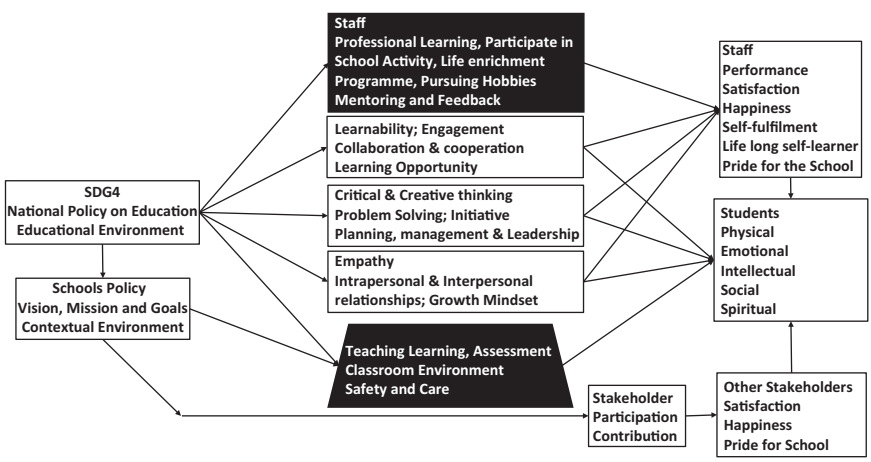

Figure 1.1 Self-fulfilment Model of School Effectiveness

The dynamic features of the inclusive effectiveness framework are:

1. *Reference to SDG4*: Boundary lines between education and employment are increasingly becoming thinner and weaker in a steadily emerging global world. With the cross-border delivery and evolution of online education, learners from one country are taking courses from various countries. Online education service providers are providing opportunities for collecting micro-credentials, leading to certification from one or more universities globally. The young people being educated in one country seek employment anywhere in the world. Hence, there is a need for global standardisation of education and learning outcomes of students, teacher and managerial effectiveness, and all that contributes to students' achievement and all-round development as global citizens. The Washington Accord is an important landmark in the global standardisation of knowledge and skills. Hence, an inclusive framework for school effectiveness must refer to international goals (Creemers and Kyriakides, 2010). The SDG4 best represents the global concern and goals of education.
2. *National policies on education*: The national educational policies provide broad directions indicating national aspirations of and from education. Schools are part of the national system. They are guided and governed by the state. Schools and classrooms are the ultimate units of implementation of national policies (please refer to Chapter 3). Hence, any framework for school effectiveness must consider the concerns, aspirations, and policy guidelines of the national policies on education.
3. *Educational environment*: Schools are situated in a particular environment. Decades earlier, schools were influenced mainly by the immediate environment and community. The development of technology and ease of communication across communities and countries have changed the contour of the environment. The environment makes a Norwegian or Finnish school different from a Shanghai-China or Singapore school (Crehan, 2016). Schools have influencers from the local, national, and global environments.
4. *School policy on education*: School policies are reflected in the vision, mission, and goal statements. A glimpse at Drew's (2021) vision statement compilation indicates the school policies' focus. The focus is more on the graduate attributes and is not limited to students' academic performance.
5. *Immediate environment*: Within the larger global and national environments, every school has an immediate environment that shapes its culture. The characteristics and educational quality of the immediate

environment vary widely among rural and urban schools; single-gender or co-education schools; ethnic minority schools, denominational and non-denominational schools; and private schools with philanthropic missions and commercial motives. School effectiveness must factor in the attributes that are likely to have an impact on the immediate environment.

6. *Staff (development) processes*: The teacher and leadership effectiveness are essential determinants of students' performance and school effectiveness. Instead of considering teachers, staff, and the leadership team as a means to an end (student's performance), a more humane angle is considering their happiness, satisfaction, self-fulfilment, etc., as complementary ends. The school experience substantially influences the quality of life of the staff. Hence, it is a good business to improve the process of people management – providing professional learning experiences to develop them as lifelong self-learners, engage in school development as partners with a stake, take life enrichment programmes, and pursue hobbies for self-fulfilment and self-actualisation.
7. *Student development process*: The student development process is often described in terms of scholastic, co-scholastic, and co-curricular activities that include the teaching–learning process, assessment and development of certain life skills, and talent optimisation. Including classroom environment, physical facilities, and a caring and safe environment are equally important.
8. *Other stakeholder (involvement and development) processes*: The parents, immediate community, alumni, and the regulatory authorities are also stakeholders in school effectiveness. Parents' participation in the child's education, participation of parents and members of the immediate community in school development, and the alumni, as much as compliance with statutory obligations of the regulatory authorities and getting approval and appreciation, add value to school effectiveness.
9. *Intervening variables*: There is a set of common attributes of both students and staff; we may call them life skills, like learnability, communication, engagement, collaboration and cooperation, critical and creative thinking, problem solving, initiative, planning, management and leadership, empathy, intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships, and growth mindset, which need to be factored into the framework of school effectiveness, though these variables are often treated as incidental factors.

Outcome Criteria

1. *Staff outcomes*: Staff includes teaching and non-teaching staff and the leadership team. The staff-related outcomes are satisfaction,

happiness, self-fulfilment, lifelong self-learning, and pride for the school.
2. *Student outcomes*: Student-related outcomes should match the parameters of all-round development – physical, emotional, intellectual, social, and spiritual developments. Academic performance is one component of intellectual development. The student outcome must include happiness and pride for the school.
3. *Other stakeholder outcomes*: Satisfaction, happiness, and pride for the school are the outcomes of involvement and participation in school development of the parents and the immediate community, alumni, and the regulatory authorities.

The primary contention of this inclusive framework of school effectiveness is treating everybody in their roles and locations with rights and provisions for self-fulfilment without excluding student achievement as the criteria for school effectiveness. The framework should be further spelt out in terms of inputs, processes, outputs, and outcomes separately for students, teachers, other staff, academic leadership team, management, parents and the immediate community, alumni, and the regulatory authorities. An illustrative list of items for each category of the stakeholders is given in Appendix 1 (Tables 1.1A, 1.1B, and 1.1C), followed by an exemplar list of items for other staff, management, parents and the immediate community, alumni, and regulatory authorities.

Thus, an effective school involves and satisfies the expectations of all stakeholders. An effective school facilitates excellence and optimisation of talents and performance of students, teachers and staff, and the leadership team in a warm, healthy, and happy working environment. Everyone involved in the school finds an opportunity for self-fulfilment. In contrast, the schools that extract students' performance through pressure and stress by an overstressed team of teachers and school leadership teams are ineffective. All stakeholders' satisfaction, happiness, and performance are necessary criteria for school effectiveness.

Key Takeaways

1. School effectiveness is how its vision, missions, and goals are achieved.
2. Although school effectiveness is often referred to as students' achievement, analysis of vision, mission, and goals indicates that desired reference points are graduate attributes – physical, social, emotional, intellectual, and spiritual developments.
3. Interest in school effectiveness research grew with the reports of Coleman et al. (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972), and Husen (1972).

Coleman concluded that a school's effect is not independent of his/her background and the general social context.

4. Research in the 1980s flagged the importance of teachers and school environment for students' achievement, especially for the socio-economically disadvantaged groups from ethnic minorities.
5. From the late 1980s to the beginning of the 1990s, the research identified specific characteristics of teachers and schools that positively impacted students' achievement.
6. Research in the middle of the 1990s and the beginning of the 2000s focused on models of educational effectiveness encompassing factors associated with the students, teachers, classes, and schools.
7. Contemporary research included the changing nature of its components, primarily national and school policies, quality of teaching, and several personal attributes of learners for assessing the impact on cognitive, affective, psychomotor, and new learning outcomes.
8. Researchers set different reference points for comparisons of students' achievement like city and national average, reducing gaps and steadily increasing performance, and percentage of students achieving mastery learning.
9. Research indicates that the learner's socio-economic condition and home environment, teacher effectiveness, school leadership, school climate, and involvement of parents and alumni influence school effectiveness.
10. School effectiveness needs an inclusive framework that includes outcomes of all stakeholders, e.g., satisfaction, happiness, self-fulfilment of staff, all-round development of students, happiness, satisfaction and sense of pride among the parents, immediate community, alumni, and others.

Please Assess Your Learning Outcomes

1. How would you define school effectiveness?
2. Against what parameters would you judge the effectiveness of your school?
3. What are the factors that influence the effectiveness of your school?
4. How would you enhance the effectiveness of your school?

Appendix 1 (Chapter 1)

As an illustration, for school effectiveness, a school should be able to provide appropriate classroom facilities and physical ambience and ensure every child has minimum educational facilities at home – whether a small quiet corner or a well-equipped study room, depending upon the economic capability of the parents and geographical location of the house (for internet connectivity).

Table 1.1A School Effectiveness Indicators: Students

Locations ⟹ / *Systems* ⇓	*Home*	*Classroom*	*School*	*Community*
Input	Physical facilities	Provide appropriate and rich classroom facilities and physical ambience	School infrastructure, safety, and trust	Acceptability and reputation of the school
Process	Parental involvement in a child's education	1. Engage students in setting higher achievement targets 2. Engage in learning tasks. 3. Develop self-regulated learning skills, mastery of learning, and metacognitive skills 4. Motivate students to set higher achievement targets and improve performance 5. Provide an opportunity for formative assessment, feedback, and mentoring for improvement	1. Inculcate life skills 2. Provide an opportunity for students to excel in co-scholastic and co-curricular activities according to their talents	Develop skills and attitudes among students to fulfil their social roles, intended behaviour, and social and moral values
Output	School and learning readiness	Improved academic achievement	Happy future-ready students proud of their school	Helpful community members with a behavioural reputation

Table 1.1B School Effectiveness Indicators: Teachers

Locations → / *Systems* ↓	*Home*	*Classroom*	*School*	*Community*
Input	Physical facilities and time for self-regulated learning	Physical ambience and infrastructure	Facilities for pursuing a passion for self-fulfilment	Support to teachers
Process	Prepare at home to discharge their roles in school	1. Identify, curate, and prepare learning material 2. Help students learn and practise self-regulated learning 3. Engage in student-centric activity-based blended learning 4. Conduct formative assessment and provide feedback	1. Care and guide students 2. Participate in professional learning 3. Participate in life-enrichment learning for self-fulfilment 4. Participate in school activities 5. Develop life/employability skills 6. Periodically receive mentoring and performance feedback	Develop skills, attitudes, and values for providing community leadership
Output	Well prepared for the role	Teacher effectiveness.	Satisfied, happy, enthusiastic teacher with a growth mindset	Guide and lead the community

Table 1.1C School Effectiveness Indicators: Academic Leadership Team (Supervisors and Principal)

Locations → / *Systems* ↓	*Home*	*Classroom*	*School*	*Community*
Input	Physical facilities and time for self-regulated learning	Physical ambience and infrastructure	Facilities for pursuing a passion for self-fulfilment	Support the leadership team
Process	1. Sets pace (pacesetting) with personal scholarship and Academic Leadership 2. Identify, curate, and prepare learning material	Take classes, innovate, and practise all that a teacher is expected as the pacesetter	1. Observe classrooms, provide feedback to each teacher, and mutually discuss the leadership team 2. Participate and practise professional learning in academics and management 3. Participate in school activities with teachers and staff as a team member 4. Encourage staff to innovate and appreciate their performance 5. Actively participate and practice life-enrichment activities 6. Actively ensure safety and care for students and a joyful environment for all 7. Coordinate with supervisors to ensure safety and care for students and create a joyful environment for all	Maintain academic and behavioural reputation among parents and the community
Output	Role preparedness	Teacher effectiveness	Leader effectiveness, motivation and enthusiasm, satisfaction, and happiness	Community leadership

Similar indicators for non-teaching staff, school management, parents and immediate community, alumni, and regulatory authorities are listed below:

Non-Teaching Staff

1. Able to actively participate in professional learning.
2. Pursue hobbies and life-enrichment programmes for self-fulfilment.
3. Demonstrate employability skills.
4. Team up with teachers and students in conducting school activities.
5. Receive performance feedback and monitoring.
6. Are satisfied and happily performing staff with pride for the school.

School Management

1. Mobilises expert human, material, and financial resources.
2. Demonstrates trust and respect for the principal and staff in the school.
3. Provides advice and proactive leadership support to the school.
4. Is happy and proud of their school.

Parents and Immediate Community

1. Actively participates in the education of the child.
2. Partners with teachers for child's education.
3. Actively participates in school activities.
4. Mobilises financial and non-financial resources and provides support for school improvement.
5. Helps build school reputation.
6. Is satisfied and happy with the school.

Alumni

1. Delivers extension and enrichment lectures.
2. Provides counselling, guidance, and support to students.
3. Helps build school reputation.
4. Is proud of their school.

Regulatory Authorities

1. Fulfil statutory obligations, e.g. financial accounting and auditing, personnel management following rules and regulations, and prescribed academic framework.
2. Receive recognition and support.
3. Are happy and satisfied with the functioning and performance of the school.

Notes

1 United Nations (n.d.) SDG Indicators: Metadata repository. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/?Text=&Goal=4&Target=4.1
2 Anonymous (not a natural) (2009, August 6). Do schools make a difference? https://www.amazon.com/Inequality-Reassessment-Schooling-Christopher-1972-10-23/dp/B01NGZZGFF
3 https://nas.education.gov.in/home: MOE, 2021

2

UNDERSTANDING ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP

Introduction

The principal plays the most critical role in school development. Everything – teachers, staff, student community, instructional, physical, and financial resources – remains the same; a school changes for better or worse with the change of the principal. The principal is the designated leader by dint of appointment. There is robust research evidence on the causal relationship between academic leadership, school quality, and school effectiveness (Day et al., 2016; Hou et al., 2019; Mukhopadhyay, 1980, and many others), as referred to in the previous chapter. It is equally important to note that teachers also believe in this relationship between leadership and school effectiveness (Martin, 2021).

Though all schools have a principal, most schools are not effective. Then, the relevant question is whether all principals are academic leaders. The answer is obvious, as indicated in the IBE-UNESCO's narrative while formulating the concept of learning leadership.

There are several issues. What makes a principal a leader – transform from designated to ascribed or accepted leader? What makes an academic leader different from others occupying similar positions? What attributes of an academic leader enhance school effectiveness? Also, can a person occupying the school leadership position choose the leadership style of her own will, or does her personality play a determining role in leadership style preference and effectiveness? In this chapter, we will deal with most of these issues and help develop a better understanding of academic leadership, leadership theories, and practices, making sense of the incumbent as an academic leader.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Describe academic leadership and differentiate it from educational and school leadership.

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-2

b. Explain the basic tenets of Transformational, Expert, Inspirational, Primal, and Servant Leadership.
c. Analyse and compare different leadership theories and styles.
d. Identify your native style and examine its suitability for school effectiveness.

Academic Leadership

The most common description of academic leadership is heading an educational institution. This description tends to equate school leadership to academic leadership. School leadership is more inclusive, involving management and leadership in infrastructure, finance, staff, administrative management, and student and parent affairs, along with the management of academic activities. Academic leadership focuses on curricula, instructional planning and management, and learning assessment to support higher academic performance and excellence.

Academic leadership creates a growth-oriented ambience characterised by continuous learning by principal and supervisors, teachers and non-teaching staff, and students. It extends to the parents and the community (Senge, 1990, 2012; Paraschiva and Draghici, 2019). "Academic leadership is a leadership that includes such roles as creating vision and mission based on science and research data for the organisation, setting up creative ideas, doing and providing teamwork" (IGI Global, n.d.).

The IBE-UNESCO (n.d.) introduced the "Learning Leadership" concept:

> Educational leaders have traditionally focused on management roles such as planning, budgeting, scheduling, maintenance of facilities, teacher evaluation, etc. Education research has shown that a particular type of leadership that makes a difference in learning is instructional leadership or learning leadership. Leaders are intensely involved in curricular and instructional issues directly impacting learner achievement. Learning leaders place teaching and learning at the top of their priorities, promote the culture of continuous learning, and use evidence or data on learner achievement to make decisions and set priorities. These leaders consistently focus on the core technology of education: learning, learner support, teaching, teacher support, curriculum, learning materials, assessment, feedback and improvement.

Academic leaders bring academic management to the centre of school management. They mobilise all other domains to create a "growth-oriented ambience" for enhancing school effectiveness (Figure 2.1).

The academic management comprises a curricular framework – scholastic, co-scholastic and co-curricular activities, instructional framework, and

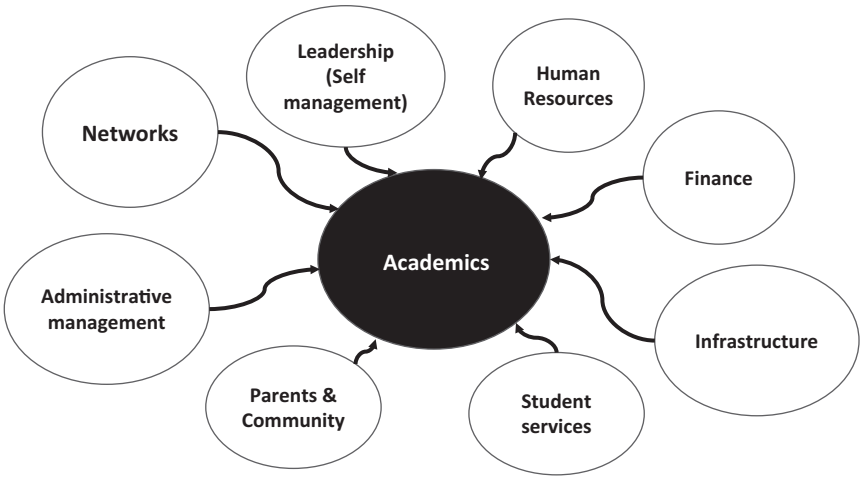

Figure 2.1 Academic Leaders Focus on Academic Management

assessment and qualification framework. It also includes the professional learning of all staff and the school's leadership team. The academic leader creates the academic environment of the school.

Studies have indicated that the principal plays a critical role in shaping the organisational climate, change management, teacher morale, and commitment (Butt et al., 2005; Kelley et al., 2005; Mukhopadhyay, 2012; Rhodes et al., 2004; Rowland, 2008). Studies also flag the importance of the principal's day-to-day behaviour on the institution's environment (Houchard, 2005). Heads of institutions with academic leadership qualities can inspire and leverage teachers, students, and parents to improve the teaching and learning process (Hallinger, 2001). Studies also show that academic leadership is only second to the teaching–learning process regarding the effect on students' academic achievement. Academic leadership is also directly related to teacher motivation and change.

Other studies indicate the leader's impact on the quality of change and implementation of policies (Aarons et al., 2011; Armenakis and Harris, 2009; Boga and Ensari, 2009; Choi, 2011; Gilley et al., 2009; Hammond et al., 2011; Holt et al., 2007; Walker et al., 2007). Effective academic leadership reduces resistance to change (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999; Armenakis and Harris, 2002; Foster, 2010; Holt et al., 2007); they develop change readiness among the teachers (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger and Heck, 1998; Jamelaa and Jainabee, 2011; Kursunoglu and Tanrıogen, 2009).

Academic leadership focuses on creating the right ambience and positively influencing school effectiveness. The leadership impact depends upon the leadership styles described by various leadership theories.

Leadership Theories

Leadership theories evolved from the "great man theory" to Fiedler's contingency model and beyond (Mukhopadhyay, 2016). Kurt Lewin et al.'s (1939) classification of leadership as autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire types still finds a prominent place in the leadership discourse. As the leadership theory evolved, it brought in "situation" as the most important dimension to judge leader effectiveness. The situation, like the staff's mindset or level of performance of students, sets the demand on a leader's concern for people and tasks (Hersey and Blanchard 1969); Ohio State Leadership Studies identified Initiating Structure and Consideration as the two leader-behaviour dimensions in 1945 (Tracy, 1987). The situation is subject to interpretation through the lens of the leader's world view. Decisions in different situations are guided by the person's world view in a leadership position, depicting her dominant or native style preferences. Leadership theories are built around different leadership styles and their relevance and impact on different leadership situations.

Professional literature documents a large number of leadership theories.[1] The beginning point is transactional leadership theory built on the concept of transacting compensations and remunerations for work. Transactional leadership focuses on reward and punishment for employee performance. I shall briefly describe Transformational, Expert, Servant, Primal, and Inspirational leadership, which have greater relevance and implications for academic leadership for school effectiveness.

Transformational Leadership

A leader who transforms people and the organisation is a transformational leader. James MacGregor Burns (1978) coined this phrase in his book *Leadership*. Burns claimed that transformational leadership enhances the motivation, morale, and performance of followers, and leaders and followers mutually raise their morality and motivation. Bernard M Bass (1985) developed the concept further.

Bass and Riggio (2006) explained transformational leaders as those who stimulate and inspire followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their leadership capacity. Transformational academic leaders nurture and help develop colleagues to mature as leaders and take leadership responsibilities (Mukhopadhyay, 2012). They set professional standards and values for staff to feel inspired and emulate, create intellectually challenging conditions, encourage and inspire them to innovate and take risks, and nurture staff members according to their respective talents, interests, and inclinations. Bass and Riggio (2006) constructed the four-pillar model of transformational leadership. The four pillars are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration.

Idealised influence: Idealised influence is about genuineness – leaders practise what they preach. For example, a hard-working principal who regularly engages in professional learning demonstrates what she expects from the staff rather than preaching. The idealised influence makes leaders the role model (DiBenedetto, 2011). Placing followers' needs and institutional interests over the leader's interests is another indicator of personalised influence. In the case of individual and institutional conflicts, idealised influence is created by assigning priority to institutional interests. Idealised influence uses personal power instead of official authority, depicted by the respect and loyalty of the staff.

Intellectual stimulation: Intellectual stimulation is depicted by encouraging followers to innovate, take risks, and create to excel in their respective ways. Staff feel intellectually stimulated to think, innovate, troubleshoot, and move forward. Intellectual stimulation helps discard old practices for organisational self-renewal.

Inspirational motivation: Leaders inspire to motivate staff instead of using reward and punishment tools. Inspirational motivation is actualised by articulating an appealing vision that encourages staff to perform beyond the normal range of job descriptions and expectations (Towler, 2019). Inspirational motivation sets high standards and expectations for their followers.

Individualised consideration: Every staff member can be transformed but not on the same dice. Transformational leaders recognise individual differences and mentor staff members according to their respective talents, interests and inclinations. The leaders help every staff member to feel empowered to innovate and take decisions.

Transformative leaders are nurturant. So, you may find similarities between nurturant and transformative leaders (Sinha, 1980). Research indicates that job performance is significantly related to transformational leadership (Khan et al., 2020). More importantly, staff feel happy and safe with transformational leaders as they trust their leaders (Mukhopadhyay, 2012). Transformative leaders display idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualised consideration through their observable behaviour (Box 2.1).

BOX 2.1 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ACTION: A CASE

University Grants Commission (UGC) appointed the Expert Review Committee to visit the Centre of Advanced Study in Education (CASE) for a five-yearly performance evaluation. The CASE had adopted a planned research policy focusing on four domains – teaching and teacher behaviour, programmed learning, achievement motivation, and management of innovation and change. A senior specialist professor in the concerned area led the defence of each domain before the review committee. The head of the CASE steered the management of innovation and change. As head, he decided not to participate in the defence of his institution. He asked the senior among the three junior research fellows (JRF) to defend the domain. The JRF was shaken and hesitant to face and defend research before an eminent national team of scholars. The head expressed his confidence and encouraged the JRFs to go ahead.

At the end of the performance evaluation, research on innovation and change management and the JRF team defending the domain received the best appreciation from the visiting expert team.

Expert Leadership

Amanda Goodall (2012) propounded the Expert Leadership Theory. Her fundamental concern was the "rise of the professional managers and CEOs in various organisations" without deep knowledge of the business. For example, some private schools engage MBAs and army, navy and air force veterans as school directors who have a general smattering of management but not education that does not match business organisations in terms of vision, motives, and ways of working. According to her, expert leaders are the ones who know their organisation's "core business" well.

Goodall (2009) supported her contention with empirical evidence. She used in-depth interviews with the heads of the world's leading research institutions, including top universities, to explore who succeeds in educational institutions. She found the combination of deep knowledge of the organisation's core business and managerial knowledge and skills as the determining factors. Goodall concluded that expert leaders improve organisational performance through knowledge-based strategy, acting as a standard-bearer, creating the right environment for core workers and, finally, adopting the long view.

Although her study was on higher education, the theory is equally applicable in schools. Successful school principals are good at their subjects and classroom teaching, well versed with curricular planning, teaching–learning processes, evaluation, and familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of every teacher and are competent managers of the system.

Goodall outlines three attributes of expert leaders. These are:

1. *Inherent knowledge, acquired through technical expertise combined with high ability in the core business activity:*

   This implies academic excellence, and content mastery, interdisciplinary knowledge, knowledge of curricular framework comprising scholastic, co-scholastic, and co-curricular activities, knowledge and expertise in the instructional framework – a knowledgeable and practising skilled pedagogue including skills in technology integration in education – and deep knowledge and skills of assessment of learning outcomes of students. Expert academic leadership must be an excellent and passionate teacher (Mukhopadhyay, 2012).
2. *Industry experience stems from time and practice within the core business industry:*

   The mere number of years of experience as a principal is insufficient. The relevance of experience is important. For example, while recruiting a principal, a residential school looks for leadership experience in a residential school, either as head of department (HOD) or dean, house master or principal.

   The experience would imply relevance of the experience of school leadership characterised by the situation – socio-economic background of students, their aspirations, parental background and expectations, understanding of rules and regulations of regulatory authorities like the government and affiliating examining boards, statutory obligations, understanding the dynamics of staff (teams, groups, and cliques), and dimensions of school management, e.g. academic, human resources, infrastructure, finance, student services, administrative management, networking, and leadership management.
3. *Leadership capabilities include management skills and a leader's innate characteristics:*

   A leader can inspire and take people along and accomplish tasks and organisational goals. The personal attributes may also imply learnability, communication, critical and creative thinking, decision-making and problem solving, conflict management, self-management and interpersonal skills, teamwork, empathy, etc.

Inspirational Leadership

"A leader who does not inspire is like a river without water" (p1. Walker, n.d.[2]), wrote Lance Secretan in his book *Inspirational Leadership* (Secretan, 1999). Motivation pushes one to accomplish a task and get the results. Inspiration enlightens the spirit, where people are not result bound but passionately hold on to the cause seamlessly (Levin, 2017). Secretan wrote that Gandhi, Buddha, Mother Teresa, Martin Luther King, Nelson Mandela,

and other inspirers did not need a strategic plan to lead. People followed in millions whenever they moved.

An inspirational academic leader inspires staff. The inspired staff discover their ways and passionately engage themselves in achieving the school's goals. An inspirational leader represents the followers' ideals, aspirations, and ego (Bass, 1988). The National Research Council of Canada (NRCC) (2019) defined:

> Inspirational Leadership is about energising and creating a sense of direction and purpose for employees and excitement and momentum for change. It involves energising individuals to strive towards a compelling future vision by embracing and embodying NRC's values in all aspects of their work. (p1)

The ability to inspire followers has consistently been the most critical and celebrated leadership skill (Branson, 2015; Levin, 2017; Zenger and Folkman, 2013).

Inspirational leaders develop a compelling vision of collective concern and good (Molenberghs et al., 2017). An inspirational leader's attributes are service attitude, affirmation – positive view of others, easy accessibility, and authenticity. An inspirational leader has a clear vision, mission, and value system; she creates and stretches goals, works with the perceners, encourages self-development, acknowledges the perceners, invests time in good communication, listens, acts with integrity, and inspires trust (Levin, 2017).

Secretan describes his theory of inspirational leadership in three interlinked and interdependent constituents – Destiny, Cause, and the Calling.

- *Destiny*: asking the question, what is my destiny? Whom does it serve? What am I born for?
- *Cause*: The power of the cause attracts the followers because of the fire and passion of the inspirational leader that motivates staff to subscribe to the cause. The cause can be making money; the cause can be serving others; the cause can be supporting the education of those who may not be able to afford it; the cause can be a spiritual journey back to the divine home.
- *Calling*: Strong urge towards a particular way of living, e.g. choice of career. When we serve others, we transform work into a calling, e.g., a passionate teacher. We know several teachers who, long after their superannuation, continue to go to school to teach or provide tutorial support to weak students for no material transaction.

When people decide to teach to build a nation, that's their calling. Secretan's emphasis is on collective calling; he described followers as perceners, which in law means a person who shares jointly with others in an inheritance. According to Secretan, the best leadership is when what a leader wants to give matches what perceners need.

Primal Leadership

Primal leadership theory is the contribution of Daniel Goleman, better known for his theory of emotional intelligence. He contends that those who inspire are masters of themselves and their own emotions (self-management), relate to the followers at their emotional level (inter-personal relationships), and lead colleagues with emotional intelligence. They drive the collective emotions positively and thereby bring out everyone's best. "Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When explaining their effectiveness, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal. Great leadership works through the emotions" (Goleman, 2001) at the beginning of the book *Primal Leadership—Unleashing the Power of Emotional Intelligence*).

Emotional intelligence comprises four components. These are self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Based on these four dimensions of emotional intelligence, Goleman formulated six leadership styles. These are visionary, coaching, affiliative, democratic, pacesetting, and commanding.

- The visionary leader articulates the vision and encourages followers to explore, experiment, and innovate ways to reach the goal. A visionary leader is a principal who inspires the staff with her school vision.
- The coaching style is nurturing one to one, like what a soccer coach does to their trainees. The coach identifies the talent and trains everyone differently depending upon the position the player takes in the field, the skill requirement for the position, and the emotional and physical skills of the player. Coaching-style principals help staff, one on one, overcome problems and develop and excel in their respective areas of talent.
- In the affiliative style, the leader affiliates with the staff, caring and responding to their emotional needs. The leader cares for the followers. Staff adore their principal when they show understanding and empathise with the problems and performances of the staff.
- Democratic leaders use their emotional intelligence to develop collaboration and teamwork, conflict management, and influence and involve everyone. The democratic principals trust the followers and respect their views. Instead of passing on the decision to solve a problem, democratic leaders involve colleagues in inventing a solution.
- In a pacesetting style, the leaders set the pace by establishing themselves as the model, expecting followers to emulate them. The intention is to set the pace for improved performance and make the best of every opportunity. However, the personal performance of the leader without empathy may be discordant and demoralise the staff. A caring, honest principal actively engaging in professional learning sets the pace for others in the school.

- The commanding leader commands the compliance of the staff. In commanding style, a leader's message moves fast vertically and horizontally but with an element of threat. It misses the empathy and, thereby, affiliation with the cause, which is the hallmark of inspirational leadership. A principal who uses power coercion to extract work from unwilling staff displays a commanding style.

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership is a concept coined by Robert Greenleaf in 1970. The fundamental spirit of servant leadership is how best the leader can serve their staff and the organisation. I witnessed it in Jalgaon Polytechnic, a large institution where the principal, Dr Vaidya, approached the HOD of mechanical engineering, seeking permission to engage a mechanical engineering class for an absentee teacher. Incidentally, Dr Vaidya was a mechanical engineer. I further learned from the HOD that Dr Vaidya's most frequently asked question to the polytechnic staff is, "Can I do it for you? How can I be of help to you?"

The servant-leader almost perfectly matches the attributes of a good *servant*.

1. Servants are good listeners. The servant-leader-principal carefully listens to the staff whenever they want to discuss an issue. They show no hurry to stop.
2. Servants are empathetic. A servant-leader-principal thinks carefully, not what the staff tells, but why she is telling. The principal would empathetically consider and try to remove the cause.
3. Servants try to heal rather than explain the cause of the problem. Servant-leader-principals carefully construct and nurture an environment that supports and energises the staff's physical, intellectual, and emotional well-being.
4. Servants are good at introspection. The servant-leader-principals introspect on their behaviour to identify what pleases and helps the staff. Servant-leaders competently reflect on their behaviour – whether their behaviours are assisting the staff and the organisation to grow and become more effective.
5. Like good servants, servant-leaders pursue a cause of organisational interest. They use emotion, cajoling, arguing, and convincing to pursue the cause.
6. Servant-leaders create opportunities to serve by creating a larger vision, often called conceptualisation. Instead of thrusting, servant-leader-principal spells a web using emotional intelligence to build a community to think together and reconceptualise the institution, sharing equal credits.
7. Servant leadership develops foresight built on a careful analysis of previous experience. This makes the future vision of servant-leaders rooted in the ground.

8. As a good servant serves the needs of every family member, servant-leader-principals value each member of the staff. They design their service strategy to ensure the growth and development of every staff member.
9. A servant understands that every member has a role in the family's welfare. The servant supports each one differently and differentially to help the role effectiveness of each one. Servant-leaders follow this cardinal principle of servanthood. A servant-leader-principal understands that every staff member has a role in fulfilling the institution's overall mission. The servant-leaders carefully construct a help paradigm for each member of the staff and teams to ensure the institution's overall effectiveness.

Servant leadership has been found to directly impact employee performance (Saleem et al., 2020; Sarwar et al., 2021). There are, however, differences in the findings on the effects of servant leadership style on organisational climate and work involvement (Insan, 2020). The higher the servant leadership, the higher the employee performance. Schroeder (2016) concludes with a quote from Crippen (P 16, 2005): "servant-leadership provides the promise of an effective educational leadership and management model," wherein principals serve and lead teachers and increase the effectiveness of the school.

Redefining Academic Leadership

Most principals remain busy in finance and administrative management. They often leave academic management, primarily day-to-day engagement of classes, to the second in command – the vice principal and the supervisors. The academic leader mobilises all other domains to enrich curriculum management, instructional resources and processes, classroom infrastructure and environment, and learning assessment to support the academic excellence of students, teachers, and the school.

There have been rather innumerable efforts to describe academic leaders and enlist their qualities (Abeje and GaraLatchanna, 2018; Buller, 2007; Chavan, 2019; Dinh et al., 2020; Dumulescu and Mutiu, 2021; Gurung, 2014; Latchem and Hanna, 2001; Leaming, 1998; Mukhopadhyay, 2012). Deriving from the research literature, the leadership theories, and working with the principals, we identify the following ten attributes of an academic leader for school effectiveness.

1. *Academic expertise*: content mastery on the subject of specialisation, multidisciplinary knowledge, effective classroom teaching, and knowledgeability about pedagogical sciences including technology-integrated education and tools and techniques of learning assessment.

2. *Vision creator*: effectively involving staff in collectively creating an inspiring vision with back-end support of personal imagination and vision.
3. *Enthusiastic*: possessing infectious enthusiasm that can infuse enthusiasm in the staff.
4. *Empathy*: understanding and empathising with the aspirations and concerns of the staff, emotionally connecting and affiliating with the staff, being easily accessible and ready to serve, and individualising the service by attending and helping each excel.
5. *Intellectual stimulation*: intellectually stimulating staff with new challenges for collective discourse and problem solving, adopting professional learning practice for all staff and self, setting the pace by demonstrating intellectual stimulation of self, pacesetting cautiously not to overwhelm and frustrate the staff who cannot cope with the pace.
6. *Growth mindset*: demonstrating and fostering a growth mindset among staff, inculcating the belief that they can be more effective, school effectiveness can be enhanced, and the best is yet to come.
7. *Taking people along*: creating an emotional web binding everyone in an enthusiastic ambience for task accomplishment with predefined quality and promoting group cohesion and teams as the building blocks.
8. *Demonstrate genuineness*: practising what is preached and demonstrating genuineness.
9. *Transform*: transforming the staff intellectually, socially, and emotionally to take on leadership responsibilities and demonstrating their leadership skills and potential, thereby transforming the school.
10. *Inspire*: with vision, personal, intellectual, and socio-emotional attributes, affiliation, transformation, individual concerns, and readiness to serve inspire staff to find their way to contribute to the school vision and effectiveness and excel.

Quality of academic leadership is the single most determining factor for school effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness, role effectiveness of other staff, resource utilisation, etc. are significantly influenced by leader effectiveness. The traits or attributes listed above help achieve leader effectiveness.

Key Takeaways

1. Academic leadership includes creating a vision and mission based on science and research data for the organisation, setting up creative ideas, and doing and providing teamwork.
2. Academic leaders bring academic management to the centre of school management. They treat all other domains as enablers contributing to a "growth-oriented ambience" for enhancing school effectiveness.
3. Studies have indicated that the principal plays a key role in shaping the organisational climate, change management, teacher morale, and commitment.

4. There are a large number of leadership theories. Transformational leadership, Expert Leadership, Servant Leadership, Primal Leadership and Inspirational leadership have greater implications for academic leadership for school effectiveness.
5. A leader who transforms people and the organisation is a transformational leader.
6. Transformational leadership has four pillars: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration.
7. Expert leadership theory asks for the principal's expertise and experience in the core business of schooling, namely academic management and managerial skills. Research evidence indicates that a person knowledgeable about education with managerial skills makes a better academic leader than a CEO and a qualified business management graduate.
8. An inspirational leader inspires staff. The inspired staff discover their ways and passionately engage themselves in achieving the school's goals.
9. Primal leadership is leading with emotional intelligence. There are six primal leadership styles: visionary, coaching, affiliative, democratic, pacesetting, and commanding.
10. Servant leadership is where an academic leader, instead of directing and commanding, assists the staff to achieve excellence for school effectiveness.
11. The academic leader mobilises all other domains of school management to enrich the academic experience and outcomes of students, teachers, and other stakeholders.
12. Academic leaders display academic expertise, growth mindset, intellectual stimulation, and ability to create an inspiring vision and enthuse staff. They are empathetic to staff; they inspire and transform staff. They demonstrate genuineness and can take people along.

Please Assess Your Learning Outcomes

a. Please make a comparative study of the selected leadership theories and their relevance to school effectiveness.
b. How does your leadership style match one or more styles and theories described above?
c. Which leadership style do you prefer and why?

Notes

1 Shared Leadership, Role Theory of Leadership, Relational Leadership, Situational Leadership Theory, Social Learning Theory of Leadership, Transformation leadership, Transactional leadership, Inspirational leadership, Expert Leadership, Servant Leadership, Learning Leadership, Primal Leadership, Fiedler's Contingency Theory, Kurt Lewin's Theory, Blake and Mouton Leadership (Managerial) Grid, Attribution Theory, Charismatic Leadership and Neo-charismatic Theory,

Distributed Leadership, Quantum Leadership, Idiosyncrasy Credit Model, Leaderful Practices, Leader-Member Exchange Theory, Micro-politics Approach to Leadership, and Psychodynamic Theory.

2 Walker, K. (n.d.). Executive Book Summary: Inspirational Leadership by Lance Secretan. https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5df3bc9a62ff3e45ae9d2b06/t/5e2f0ca009c32f7edf48f67c/1580141728566/InspirationalLeadership.Secretan.EBS.pdf.

3

DISCOVERING THE LEADER IN YOU

Introduction

Leadership effectiveness is key to school effectiveness. It is, hence, necessary for you to be aware of your leadership style and also how effective your style is in enhancing school effectiveness. Understanding science and theories of leadership helps us in developing self-awareness. Research, especially case studies of effective heads of educational institutions – school and college principals and university vice-chancellors (Latchem and Hanna, 2001; Mukhopadhyay, 2012), provides us with an excellent opportunity to reflect on and diagnose our leadership style.

In the previous chapter, we discussed the characteristics of Transformational, Expert, Inspirational, Servant, Primal, and Delegative leadership styles. It is improbable that any academic leader will fit perfectly into any one leadership (theory) shoe. Also, any single leadership approach in a school may not be appropriate and effective. A principal or a supervisor is a mix of leadership attributes that pertain to different leadership theories.

Every academic leader has a dominant pattern. Some are comfortable commanding and directing every activity – what to do, how to do it, etc. Some other principals are happy consulting staff, developing quality interventions (QIs) and implementation strategies, and then participating and assisting the staff members in implementing and evaluating the effect of QIs. Yet, others are comfortable and happy to set the pace by practising what they expect the staff to practice. What is essential for you as an academic leader is to find your dominant leadership attributes, indeed, your native leadership style.

Then, you need to reflect on what leadership situations align well with your style. Your native or dominant style is likely to be effective where it matches the demands of the situation. You also need to identify situations where your native style is not the most appropriate. You may have to change the leadership hat.

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-3

This chapter aims to help you identify your native style and what are the situations where you need to change your style and adopt a flexible approach to enhance your effectiveness and, thereby, school effectiveness.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Identify your native leadership style.
b. Identify the situations where your native style is likely to be most effective.
c. Identify the strengths and weaknesses of your style against the demands of school effectiveness.
d. Strategise how to improve your leadership effectiveness.

Your Native Style of Leadership

In the previous chapter, we discussed Transformational, Inspirational, Primal, Servant, and Expert Leadership theories. Expert Leadership is non-negotiable for school effectiveness. Every academic leader must be a sound academician with mastery in the school subject of specialisation and professional skills of teaching–learning and student assessment and possess a deep understanding of the school as an organisation and the domain of its academic business. The second domain is managerial skills.

The managerial skills are reflected in Transformational, Servant, Primal and Inspirational leadership. Out of the different categories of Primal Leadership mentioned in Chapter 2, I have chosen the Coaching style for its relevance in school leadership. I have listed a few attributes of transformational, Coaching, Servant and Inspirational leadership styles (Table 3.1). You may find that (some of) these attributes are present in you in different degrees of dominance. You can take the following exercise to identify (at least an informed guess) the leaning of your leadership style.

Activity

Please assign a score out of 10 against each attribute listed under the four styles in Table 3.1; sum up your self-assigned scores and divide the total by the number of listed attributes, e.g. 7 for Transformational, 8 for Coaching, 10 for Servant, and 6 for Inspirational.

The scores on each type of leadership will be less than 10 (10 is the perfect score). The highest score indicates your most preferred or dominant leadership style. The second highest is a supportive style and easy for you to adopt. The lower the score, the greater is the challenge to adapt, even if the situation demands. It is your subjective reflective self-assessment. This self-rating is not a standardised test; this is a tool for self-reflection derived

Table 3.1 Leadership Styles: Self-identification

Transformational Leadership (Michigan State University 2021)		*Coaching Style of Leadership* (Performance Consultants, n.d.)	
Attributes	*Scores Out of 10*	*Attributes*	*Scores Out of 10*
1. Openness to new thinking		1. Partnership and collaboration	
2. Talent for broadening minds		2. Belief in potential	
3. Commitment to active listening		3. Trust and safety	
4. Tolerance for intelligent risks		4. Intention	
5. Willingness to accept responsibility		5. Powerful questions	
6. Trust in team members		6. Active listening	
7. Ability to inspire participation		7. Feedback	
		8. Learning and development	
Your Leadership Score		*Your Leadership Score*	
Servant leadership (MindTools, n.d.)		Inspirational leadership (Carriere, n.d.)	
Attributes	*Scores Out of 10*	*Attributes*	*Scores Out of 10*
1. Listening		1. Courage to change	
2. Empathy		2. Commitment to authenticity	
3. Healing		3. Serve others	
4. Awareness		4. Truth and commitment to your calling	
5. Persuasion		5. Capacity to love to inspire others	
6. Conceptualisation		6. To be effective in all aspects of life	
7. Foresight			
8. Stewardship			
9. Commitment to the growth of people			
10. Building community			
Your Leadership Score		*Your Leadership Score*	

Source: Author.

from the science of reflective pedagogy involving continuous and critical reflection for self-learning and improving effectiveness.

Your Beliefs about Staff and Your Leadership Style

Douglas McGregor (1960) proposed the Theory X and Theory Y leadership based on the leader's belief about the staff. The belief determines the choice of leadership styles. The beliefs are expressed in certain statements

Table 3.2 Attributes of Theory X and Theory Y Leadership Styles

	Theory X	*Theory Y*
	Most of the staff	*Most of the staff*
1.	Dislike their work	Happy to work on their own initiative
2.	Avoid responsibility and need constant direction	More involved in decision-making
3.	Have to be controlled, forced, and threatened to deliver work	Self-motivated to complete their tasks
4.	Need to be supervised at every step	Enjoy taking ownership of their work
5.	Have no incentive to work or ambition and therefore need to be enticed by rewards to achieve goals	Seek and accept responsibility and need a little direction
6.		View work as fulfilling and challenging
7.		Solve problems creatively and imaginatively

Source: Author.

(Table 3.2). Your belief in your staff guides your leadership decisions and shapes your leadership style.

If your belief matches Theory X, you will likely centralise decision-making and use a combination of transactional and commanding leadership styles with little or no primal leadership component. Should your beliefs about staff match mostly with Theory Y attributes, you are likely to adopt a combination of transformational and participatory (one of the primal leaderships) styles with servant, inspirational, and coaching styles.

While you try to assess your leadership effectiveness and style, it is always advisable to take the help of others, especially your staff, who knows you better and have the skills and courage to give you feedback. Using the JOHARI[1] window framework, you can build stronger self-awareness (Figure 3.1).

Your certain attributes may be known to you as well as others (Open Self); few attributes known to you but not others (Secret Self); you may not know your specific attributes that others know (Blind Self); and a few attributes that neither you nor others know (Unknown). Ideally, you can adopt a 360° appraisal (Rao and Rao, 2014) to discover yourself as a leader.

Applied Leadership

There are four elements in the application of academic leadership for school effectiveness:

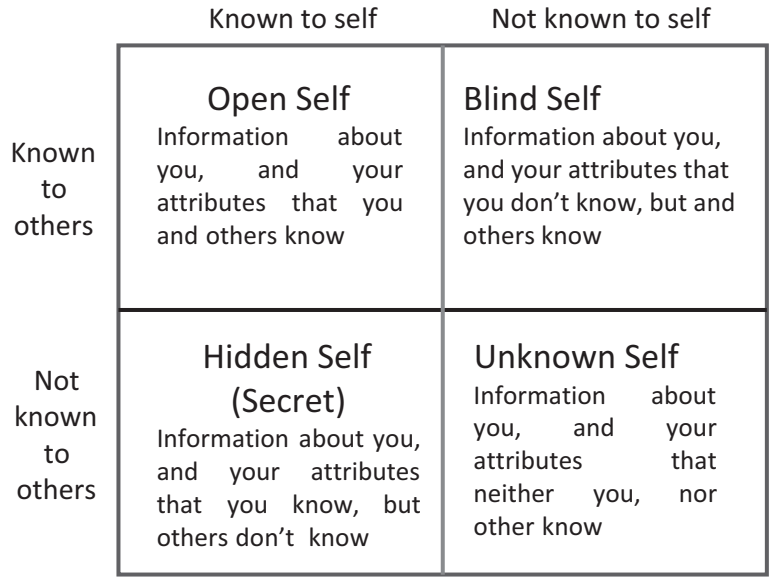

Figure 3.1 JOHARI Window: Tool for Rediscovering Yourself

1. The vision of the school.
2. Situations comprise the different parameters or aspects of academic management.
3. Staff: the perceners.
4. You: the leader.

Vision

Vision creation, vision translation, and vision management are three critical areas of academic leadership – how you lead the formulation of vision; create strategic planning for vision translation; and implement, review, and reconstruct school vision and missions.

The school-based vision statement is not common in public schools. The state (government) vision is the school vision, often unwritten and unknown to staff, students, and parents. The government policy, especially in developing countries, focuses on equity; in developed countries, the focus often is a balance between equity and quality.

Private schools have vision and mission statements. For most schools, the vision and mission statements are posted on the website. In some schools, the vision and mission statements are displayed on the corridor walls for general awareness and as a constant reminder. Though creating and posting vision and mission statements in many schools are rituals, some schools

mean business with their vision and mission statements. Translation and management of vision are important indicators of school effectiveness.

The vision of a school can be collective, shared, and distributed visions. A school develops a collective vision when it involves all stakeholders, like teachers and non-teaching staff, students and parents, alumni, and the community, discussing, debating, and arriving at an agreed vision and mission statement. In shared visioning, the school leadership team develops the vision and mission statements, with provision for modification, and then discusses with the stakeholders to convince them to take ownership of the school vision and missions with changes suggested by the stakeholders. Distributed or disseminated vision is characterised by school management creating the vision and asking the stakeholders to accept and implement it.

Drew (2021) compiled a list of school vision and mission statements based on desktop research. His list indicates that school vision and mission statements are dominated by words like Community, Safe, Excellence, Potential, Skills, Global, Prepare, Achieve, and Life-long. Vision management implies how an academic leader inspires and takes her staff along to create a safe environment, promote excellence in optimising potentials, and develop global citizenship and lifelong learning skills mentioned in the vision statement.

Let us take an example. A school mentioned its vision on its website:

> we not only aim at a vigorous pursuit of excellence in academics but also strongly encourage co-curricular activities, games, sports and character building by providing an all round, meaningfully integrated and fully liberal education. Our mission is to recognise and *encourage talents of all kinds and all degrees* and to strive to *stretch the intellectual and creative capacity* of these young individuals. We want to prepare our *students to become valuable human beings* in this *progressively competitive world*
>
> (DPSSTS, n.d.; emphasis added)

The questions for leadership on vision management are:

1. How is the character building done? What are the indicators of the success of character building?
2. What is the mechanism for encouraging talents? What does the talent of all kinds and all degrees mean?
3. How does the school measure intellectual and creative capacity? How does the school stretch such capacities? Is there an elastic limit for stretching?
4. What do valuable human beings mean? What are the attributes of a valuable human being? And what is the mechanism of producing such a person?

5. What are the indicators of a progressively competitive world? How do the school align valuable human beings with the progressively competitive world?

An academic leader needs to plan to respond to these questions for vision management. Your response to these questions will shed light on your leadership style. You can identify your academic leadership preferences and style by carefully examining the process of constructing vision and mission statements and responding to the next implementational questions. You may develop vision and mission statements and consequently question yourself or involve the staff or all the stakeholders to generate collective response. Your preferred leadership style is indicated by how you deal with vision and mission management tasks.

As you search for answers to such questions, you'll end up with the quality intervention (QI) concept. Only through innovative QIs can the vision and mission statements be achieved. Your choice of QI and your way of choosing also reflect your leadership style. Several combinations are possible.

a. You can decide the vision and mission on your own, upload it on the school website, flag it in the school magazine, and leave it.
b. You can decide the vision and mission on your own, choose the QIs, and ask (command) your staff to implement them.
c. You can decide the vision and mission on your own and involve staff in deciding/choosing and implementing the QIs.
d. You may involve staff in deciding the vision and mission and allocate staff to implement the QIs.
e. You may involve staff in deciding the vision and mission, collectively developing a strategic plan of implementation, and encourage and help them take responsibility for their choice. You provide backend support removing the barriers.

In simple terms, you can examine your approach to formulating, planning for implementation, and managing vision and mission to understand and appreciate your preferred leadership style.

Quality Management Intervention (QMI)

Your leadership style and preferences can also be seen through your activities regarding the choice of QIs, developing the strategic plan of implementation, monitoring and evaluation, and reward and penalty for performance. You may choose incremental QIs or transformational QIs to make a paradigm shift. You may select or reject potential QIs without or after a field trial. They reflect your personal and academic leadership style. The more inclusive and strategic you are, the greater the chances of success of your academic leadership in enhancing school effectiveness.

For school effectiveness, the "situation" implies an academic management–curricular framework comprising scholastic, co-scholastics and co-curricular activities, and assessment and certification framework. Scholastic activities include planning prescribed syllabus, and use of textbooks and other forms of learning material, teaching–learning process, and assessment, especially formative assessment. Successful implementation of all these activities makes demands on your leadership skills. Your leadership style would be revealed by your decisions and actions in every such activity.

The self-fulfilment model of school effectiveness includes professional learning and life enrichment programmes for teachers, other staff, and the leadership team as integral components of academic management. Parents' education and involvement are other vital components. Your involvement and management actions in adopting the innovative self-fulfilment model are indicators of your leadership style. The principal of a reputed large school used to delegate every right and responsibility to the staff. Still, he used to personally stand in the bus stand, supervise children boarding the school buses, and see them off when they left school (Mukhopadhyay, 2012). In another case, a parent drew the attention of the principal of a reputed frontline school about the heavy homework for an autumn break that is likely to disturb the festivities associated with the Indian autumn break; the principal called the staff meeting, discussed with teachers, and collectively decided to reduce the homework by 30%. Both cases reflect their personal and leadership styles.

The academic leader manages the situations with human and other resources available in the institution. The situations can be complex or straightforward; it can be routine or nonroutine; it may require the management of one person, a group, several groups, or all the staff in the school. An average school primarily manages routine activities, like a timetable, conventional classroom teaching, and assessment. Teachers are routinely trained as part of the prescribed norms of the government, irrespective of concern for effectiveness. Non-teaching staff are often excluded from such development programmes. Schools that run on routine activities following the "school culture" may run smoothly but with poor school effectiveness. Your actions in all such situations reflect your style.

To enhance school effectiveness, you need to introduce QIs. The QIs bring in nonroutine activities upsetting the routine to transform traditional school culture into quality school culture (please refer to Chapter 13). Some QIs may be simple, but some others may be complex. Some may be too novel, belonging to a different paradigm like self-regulated technology-enabled learning. Some others are incremental, e.g. converting traditional lectures into structured lectures using PowerPoint slides. Some QIs may require the participation of one or a few staff members; some may require involving most of the staff, and yet others may require the involvement of the entire school. How you choose and implement QIs indicates your style.

Some QIs can be managed within the available resources; others may require small additional resources. Yet some other QIs may require significant and different kinds of resources. The more the QIs depart from the routine, the greater the chances of changes in the practices. The greater the change potential, the more challenging it becomes for the staff and you, an academic leader, to manage. Your academic leadership effectiveness will depend upon your understanding of the complexity of the QIs and your strategy choice of implementation, including involvement of people and utilisation of material and financial resources. Your style will be known by how you mobilise, allocate, and utilise financial, material, and human resources and evaluate the resource deployment and the outcomes.

Staff: The Perceners

The perception of the complexity of innovation depends upon the capacity or task maturity of the staff. The task maturity of the staff can be appreciated with two interrelated parameters: commitment or motivation and skills and competencies. Task maturity is the interactive product of competence and commitment (Hershey and Blanchard, 1969). You can plot every staff into a continuum of low to high competency and low to high commitment and motivation (Figure 3.2).

This matrix provides 48 cells. You can plot each staff into one of the cells. To simplify, you can convert the continuum into binaries of high and low, though it becomes a cruder measure. You, then, get four categories of staff:

A. Highly competent and highly committed.
B. Highly competent but poorly committed.

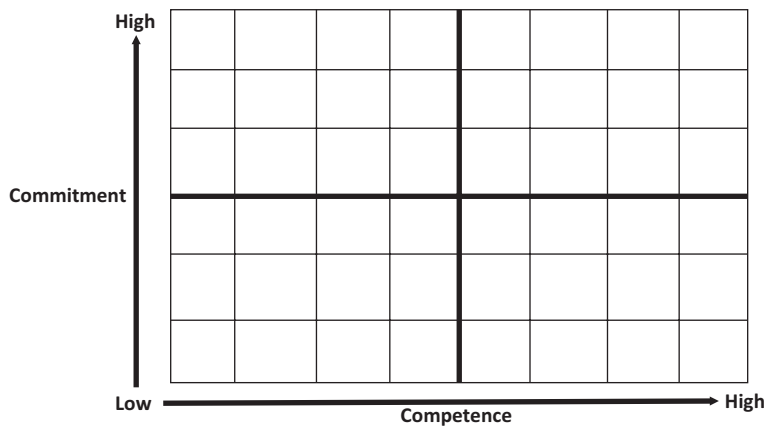

Figure 3.2 Staff Composition by Commitment and Competence

C. Highly committed but with low competence.
D. Staff with low competence and low commitment.

The scenario gets a little different and more complex when you add learnability (learning ability) as another dimension. For example, under Category C, teachers with high learnability can be developed faster than those with low learnability. It needs a different strategy and leadership effort to develop people with low competence and low learnability.

The proportion of these four staff categories varies from school to school. Hattie (2017) found collective teacher efficacy is the most powerful influencer of students' performance. There can be four scenarios posing different challenges to the academic leader:

a. A high proportion of highly committed and competent staff (effective teachers) will enhance school effectiveness.
b. A high proportion of low competent and low commitment staff are likely to make a school least effective.
c. The highly competent but low commitment staff would also make schools less effective.
d. A high proportion of high commitment and low competence staff will also hold back school effectiveness.

You need a significant proportion of highly competent and committed staff with high learnability for school effectiveness. Improving school effectiveness is moving staff from a low competence–low commitment zone to a high commitment–high competence zone with increasing learnability.

Generally speaking, it is easier to develop people with high commitment and low competence, provided they have learning skills – learnability. The primary challenge is with the staff with low learnability. Low learnability is the function of conceptual complexity (Harvey et al., 1961). People with low conceptual complexity can manage simple tasks, i.e. manage information in smaller bits, resembling SOLO taxonomy's pre-structural or uni-structural levels (Biggs and Collis, 1982). However, learnability can be developed.

Further, the learnability of all staff – competent or otherwise – is significantly determined by their mindset. Dweck (2006) classified mindsets into growth and fixed mindsets. The staff with a growth mindset believes that their capabilities are not fixed; further improvement in their individual, group, and collective performance is possible. They believe that their best is yet to come. Even with a high level of competence, staff with a fixed mindset believe that their skills and capabilities are fixed; they are doing their best, and no further improvement is possible.

Thus, if you intend a quality turnaround of your school, your biggest challenge is improving conceptual complexity of and cultivating a growth mindset among your staff members. The challenge becomes more complex as

most teachers possess low conceptual complexity (Harvey 1970, as reported by Fedigan, 1973) and a fixed mindset. Seligman (1990) describes this mindset as *learned helplessness* – helplessness learned over time that becomes fixed, and optimism learned over time that becomes the permanent feature of the personality perceiving opportunity in every situation and crisis.

An academic leader must examine the situation and the staff together. The successful implementation of QIs depends upon the competence and commitment of the staff and the nature of the QIs. Simpler QIs demand incremental improvement in staff capability. A complex QI with far-reaching implications requires a high level of staff competence. For example, integrating PowerPoint slides in conventional lectures is more straightforward than adopting flipped blended learning. However, the latter outweighs lectures with PPT slides regarding in terms of impact on student engagement and learning outcomes. Hence, choosing QIs is not easy; it requires a lot of strategic thinking, especially about risks and likely adverse consequences.

Similarly, for effectiveness, a school requires a quality culture characterised by quality everywhere. That would imply inspiring, motivating, and encouraging, providing opportunities for professional learning and self-fulfilment of staff of all categories. Everyone must find the school safe to innovate and change the practices.

You: The Academic Leader

As an academic leader, you cannot implement QIs yourself. You can change your classroom but that does not change the school's classrooms. You can change your office but that does not alter the classrooms, staffrooms, and all offices in the school. Your job is to implement QIs by commanding, coaching, participating, inspiring, pacesetting, or serving – whatever it takes. Given the complexity of the task and people management for school effectiveness, the choice is not among the alternatives; but blending the otherwise apparently, alternative leadership styles into an effective strategy. That strategisation is the secret of the success of academic leaders.

The choice or combination of leadership styles and practices can be guided by two parameters – the task maturity of your colleagues and the complexity of the QIs (Figure 3.3).

Task maturity is a combination of commitment and competence. According to this proposition, even highly competent staff with low commitment will be considered under the low task maturity category. This model provides four combinations by dividing the continuum from low to high for convenience into binaries of low and high. These are:

A. High task maturity of staff and highly complex quality intervention.
B. High task maturity of staff and low complexity of quality intervention.
C. Low maturity of staff and highly complex quality intervention.

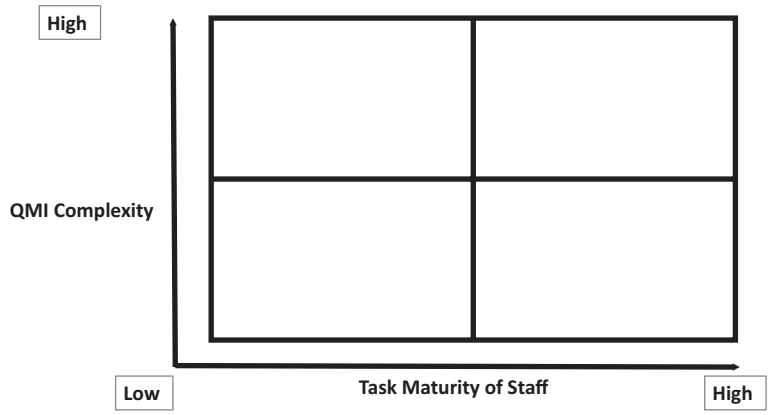

Figure 3.3 Leadership Choices Based on Task Maturity and QMI Complexity

D. Low task maturity of staff and low complexity of the quality intervention.

Among the four quadrants, it is relatively easy to lead the two quadrants with high task maturity of staff with varying complexity of QIs. The problem becomes complex where the task maturity is low, and the complexity of QI varies.

- In cases of high task maturity of staff with highly complex quality intervention, the role of the academic leader is to participate and remove the roadblocks – a combination of primal and servant leadership.
- The appropriate academic leadership choice for high task maturity of staff with low complexity of QI is delegation, assuring support whenever needed.
- In cases of low task maturity of staff with varying complexity of the quality intervention, an academic leader may have to put on several leadership hats like commanding, coaching, pacesetting, participating, and inspiring at different stages of implementation of the quality intervention; the learnability of some staff would also remain an intervening variable. Developing commitment should get priority over competence. It is easier to build competence among the staff willing to learn, provided they have good conceptual complexity or learnability. However, learnability is not fixed once and for all. It can also be developed. The challenge for the academic leader is first overcoming the learnability and commitment deficiencies.
- You may also examine the QI and deconstruct complex QIs into simpler components, which can be implemented by staff with relatively low

competence. For example, instead of blended learning, you can encourage teachers to integrate video learning along with conventional lectures with or without PPT. Once they are comfortable with this simple innovation, introduce group-based video learning and then move to group-based online learning like desktop research, etc.

Expert (pacesetting) and Inspirational Leadership are the common denominators across QIs' complexity and staff maturity.

Behavioural Determinism

The choice, or the combination of choices of leadership styles, is not as easy as it appears. As a mature person, you have your world view through which you make meaning of people and situations of your school – the assessment of task maturity of the staff and the complexity of QIs. Your world view makes you a Type X or Type Y leader (McGregor, 1960).

Your world view developed based on your experiences since childhood days, including conversations that you heard as a child or took part in as you grew up. World view is like a prism through which you see and make meaning of the world. As you make meaning and interpret the events and people around you, your world view strongly impacts your behaviour and decision-making as an academic leader. This world view has a determining effect on your leadership choices. In other words, if you grew up in a family where people trusted each other, you will likely trust others and become a Theory Y leader (McGregor). In contrast, if you grew up in a family or environment where people lack mutual trust and suspect one another, you will likely find it difficult to trust others and adopt the Theory X leadership style.

Wherever the leadership style preference matches the demands of the quality intervention–task maturity combination, your success comes naturally. Wherever there is a mismatch, the effectiveness comes into question. For example, if your natural style is commanding and you use it with high task-matured staff, it is likely to backfire; equally valid is when you use delegation to staff with low task maturity, especially with poor commitment and low conceptual complexity possibilities of failing increase. On the contrary, commanding and coaching work better with low task-matured staff, and delegation works for high task-matured staff. Adapting to situations demand flexibility. The flexibility helps develop the appropriateness of the leadership style and action for enhancing the leader's effectiveness (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969).

To provide successful academic leadership to the school, you need to understand what you are good at and what you need to learn to succeed and improve school effectiveness. Your leadership effectiveness is key to adopting the self-fulfilling model of school effectiveness.

Leader Everywhere

For school effectiveness, academic leadership must be everywhere – classrooms, departments, sections, the whole school, and the community (Figure 3.4).

Teachers provide learning leadership as advanced learners and pacesetting learning leaders to students in effective schools. Heads of departments provide academic leadership to all staff and in all activities in the department, building the academic environment for the self-fulfilment of teachers and students in concerned department. Supervisors provide academic leadership to all involved in various activities of the sections they are in charge of, e.g. preprimary, primary, secondary and higher secondary, and parents of children of the concerned section. A principal is the academic leader of the whole school – all activities, teachers and staff, parents, and the community. Principals build the academic environment for excellence by subsuming

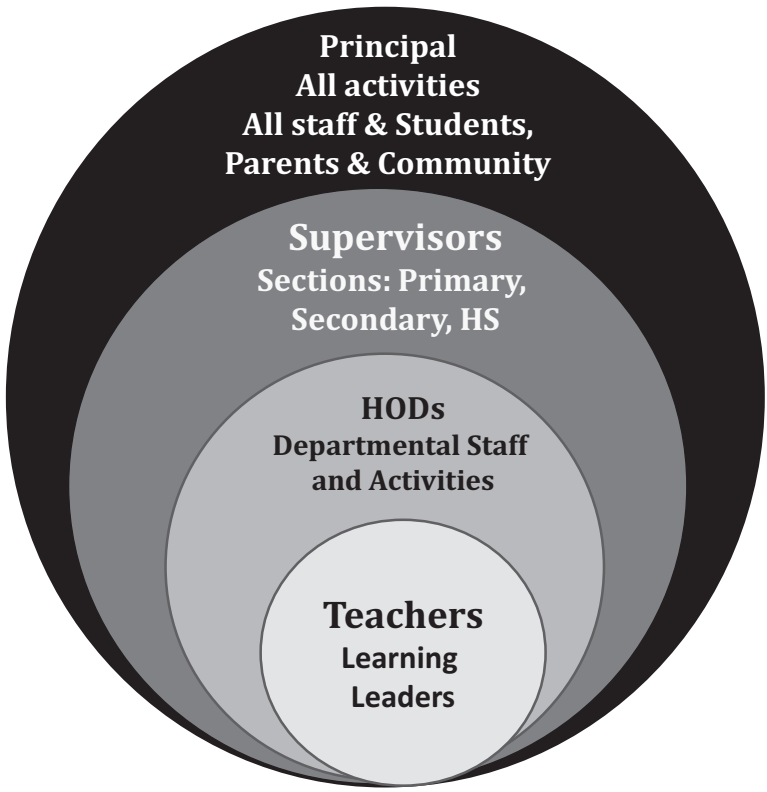

Figure 3.4 Multilevel Academic Leadership

and synergising the efforts of teachers, heads of departments, and supervisors. As an academic leader, the principal is responsible for developing and nurturing leadership at multiple levels (transformational leadership) so that academic leaders dot everywhere. Indeed, for effectiveness, a school should practise leaderful practice (Raelin, 2004).

Leadership everywhere is a bottom-up model that moves from the smallest units of classrooms or administrative or finance sections to departments to sections of the whole school. Each higher level builds on the leadership of the previous level.

Only when leadership is nurtured and developed everywhere and inspired to take charge of every small activity of a school can a principal be assured of school effectiveness through every single activity and operation.

Key Takeaways

1. We selectively discussed Transformational, Expert, Servant, Primal and Inspirational leadership theories in the previous chapter. Several attributes of each leadership style have been identified in this chapter.
2. Academic leaders can identify their native styles by comparing their dominant traits with those listed under different leadership theories.
3. Each academic leader will have a set of dominant leadership traits; other traits work as supportive traits.
4. Academic leaders' belief about the staff also shapes their leadership choices, classifying them as Theory X and Theory Y leaders.
5. An academic leader displays the leadership styles and skills in school visioning and vision management, the choice of QIs for vision implementation, and understanding of the staff and self as an academic leader.
6. Academic leadership becomes effective where leadership style and situational demands are well aligned. As the situation varies, an academic leader must be flexible to be effective across different situations.
7. The leadership decisions are governed by the leader's brain pattern, mindset, and life script. It is not easy to change the mindset or rewrite the life script. However, it is possible to deliberately change, develop an appropriate mindset, and rewrite the life script.
8. Effective schools practise quality everywhere and leaders everywhere. Leader everywhere is achieved through nurturing leadership in classrooms, departments, sections, and schools. Each level derives benefits from the leadership effectiveness of the previous levels.
9. Only with the development of leadership at every level and leaderful practice can a leader ensure school effectiveness.

Please Assess Your Learning Outcomes

a. What is your dominant leadership style? How did you identify?
b. What are the strengths and weaknesses of your style against the demands of school effectiveness?
c. What do you propose to do to improve your leadership effectiveness?

Note

1 JOHARI window is coined by JO of Joseph Luft and HARI of Harrington Ingham - the two psychologists who propounded the concept in 1955.

4

SCHOOL-BASED EDUCATIONAL POLICY IMPLEMENTATION MODEL (SEPIM)

Introduction

Educational policies are expressions of aspirations for young people reflected in the global "policy" of Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG4), national policies of various countries, and school policies. The SDG4.1 aspires to "ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes" by 2030. Singapore's vision, for example, is to develop "Thinking Schools, Learning Nations." The Indian National Education Policy 2020 (NEP2020) envisions ushering in "an equitable and vibrant knowledge society, by providing high-quality education to all" (MoE, 2020, p3).

Policies are statements of intentions of change. Implementation translates the intention into action and generates evidence of change as policy impact. However, policy analyses indicate a massive gap between policy intention and policy impact (Learning Curve, 2018; Molendijk et al., 2017; Okoroma, 2001, 2006; Qian and Walker, 2011; Rosli and Rossi, 2014; Teddy et al., 2019). Because of the gap in the implementation of the NCLB (No Child Left behind) law (2001), the USA enacted the "Every Student Succeeds Act" in December 2015. The Indian National Policy on Education of 1986 promoted educational technology and created provisions for educational television and computers in schools. Evaluative studies indicated gross underutilisation of educational technology resources (Mukhopadhyay and Sinha, 1993; Parhar, 1994). At the global level, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) could not be achieved by the deadline of 2015 in many countries; many countries are likely to fall behind in achieving SDG by 2030. Unless policies are carefully planned and implemented, the gaps will be visible in the next few years.

As all the nations are signatories to MDGs and SDGs (including SDG4), there is an alignment between the global and national goals. Schools are set in a national context. The national policy goals are overarching for every school in a nation. School policies are placed within the national policies. Policies are intended to change and improve the quality of education.

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-4

Hence, policy implementation is a critical factor for school effectiveness. This chapter intends to analyse and develop a school-based policy implementation model. Instead of theoretical analysis, we will create the model around India's third National Policy on Education enacted in 2020 as a case.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Describe the process of policy, planning, and implementation.
b. Collectively, with teachers, carry out a content analysis of NEP2020 and identify policy imperatives for your school.
c. Develop a strategic plan of implementation of the policy directives.
d. Participate, guide, and mentor teachers in the implementation of the plan of action.
e. Assess school policy implementation and collectively rework the strategic plan with teachers.

Policies and Domains of Reforms

Educational policies are statements of the vision of a nation, mainly focused on the younger generation. Today, the younger generation in schools and colleges are the future adult citizens populating all social, cultural, economic, political, and educational spaces. The policy visions are translated through a series of six main educational reforms:

1. Structural reforms
2. Curricular reforms
3. Instructional reforms
4. Examination and certification reforms
5. Personnel reforms
6. Financial reforms

Implementing structural reforms like reallocating present 5+3+2+2 years of school education with optional preschool education into 5+3+3+4 is in the government domain. The government and relevant state authorities are responsible for curricular reforms – defining the curricular framework, including textbooks and examination and certification frameworks. Teachers in schools do actual curricular planning and implementation. The government advises and creates provisions, e.g. Information and Communications Technology (ICT) facilities and teacher training for instructional reforms. Teachers are responsible for implementing instructional as well as examination reforms.

Similarly, the government creates policies and provisions for the in-service education of teachers. The teacher educators conduct in-service teacher education programmes and shape the policies. Thus, government and government agencies' domains are policymaking and creating provisions. The last mile policy implementation that determines policy impact is the domain of teacher trainers, schools, and teachers.

There are wide regional disparities in educational development in a large multi-cultural multilingual society like India. The educationally most developed and least developed states need to adapt the national policies. The states that have done well in equity are challenged with quality improvement compared to other states that are challenged with equity and quality. States must adapt national policies according to their needs, aspirations, and cultural dynamics.

School personnel often do not know how and why the policies are made. Those involved in educational policymaking at the national level are not necessarily well versed with the business of education – how teaching–learning happens in classrooms, especially in rural public schools that educate most school-age children. How do schools with ill-provided ICT facilities and the internet provide technology-integrated education? How do teachers adopt group-based collaborative learning in a theatre-style fixed furniture classroom? How do teachers individualise and personalise instruction in a class accommodating more than 60 students in space and furniture designed for 35 students? Private schools covered under the same national policy also vary widely from highly expensive to low-budget schools; schools as a commercial venture and schools inspired by certain philosophies; and residential and day schools and other variations. Can there be one policy implementation model applicable to all kinds of schools?

The weak alignment of the two domain owners and specialists – policymakers and policy implementers – is the primary reason for the gap between policy intent and impact. However, every school can invent its way of adapting and implementing policy directives. A school-based policy implementation model can reduce the gap while enhancing school effectiveness.

Policy, Planning, and Implementation: The Dynamics

Educational policy formulation to policy review and revision is a six-stage process involving different human expertise and experience (Figure 4.1).

a. Situational analysis and diagnosis are undertaken to assess the achievements, failings, missed opportunities, gaps, and emerging opportunities. The situational analysis and diagnosis are usually carried out by people with expertise in education, policy analysis, and research.
b. Policy formulation is a rigorous process of serious consultations of all stakeholders in education, ending with policy statements indicating the

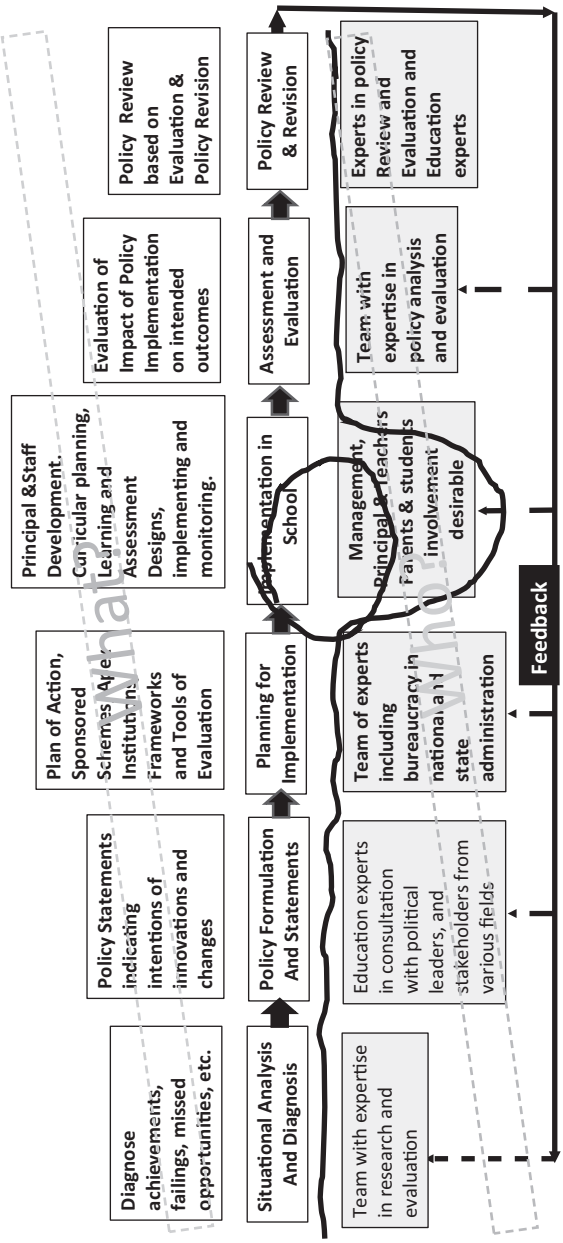

Figure 4.1 Educational Policy Process

government's intentions for reforms in the existing structure, process, and expected outcomes.

c. Planning for implementation implies developing a strategic plan for implementing policy intentions that need human, financial, and material resources. Planning for implementation is another complicated task, usually carried out jointly by the bureaucracy and academic experts.
d. Much of the policy implementation is done at the institutional (school) level involving school management, principals and teachers, and parents and students. The apex institutions and the regulatory authorities provide guidance and resources for policy implementation.
e. Governments engage in assessing the effects of policy. The governments engage experts/expert agencies to evaluate the implementation and outcomes of schemes intended to reform education.
f. Based on policy evaluation and assessment, an expert group undertakes policy review and revision at the behest of the country's government. For example, the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) of the Indian government appointed Acharya Ramamurthy Committee (MHRD, 1990) to review the 1986 policy and make recommendations.

Inadequate infrastructure, lack of qualified teachers, unfriendly teacher–pupil ratio, poor quality training of teachers and principals, and corruption have been cited for the poor impact of policy implementation. A significant reason for the poor policy impact is the weak planning for implementation at various levels, especially in the classrooms and schools where it needs more. The components of policies are implemented at different levels – national, provincial, districts, subdistrict administrative units, and schools. Only a minor proportion of policy statements like changing the structure, role of apex institutions, and provision for training and financial resources pertain to national and provincial levels. The remaining major portion of policy directives is intended for the classrooms and schools. The constructive alignment of planning for implementation at different levels is missing. Namibia's teacher involvement in planning, implementing, and self-assessment is an excellent learning model (Kay LeCzel and Gillies, 2006). Australia's school-based management (Gammage, 2008) is another sterling example.

School-Based Educational Policy Implementation Model (SEPIM)

We will take NEP2020 of India as a sample national policy document for creating the model, primarily because it is one of the latest educational policies in the world, and it is by far the most challenging – one single policy in a multi-cultural, multilingual country with wide development disparities among regions and states (MOE, 2020).

The NEP2020 sets the following fundamental principles to guide the educational system at both system and individual institutional levels (p5):

- "recognising, identifying, and fostering the unique capabilities of each student;
- according to the highest priority to achieving Foundational Literacy and Numeracy by all students by Grade 3;
- flexibility so that learners can choose their learning trajectories and programmes and thereby choose their paths in life according to their talents and interests;
- no hard separations between arts and sciences, between curricular and extra-curricular activities, between vocational and academic streams, etc., to eliminate harmful hierarchies among and silos between different areas of learning;
- multidisciplinarity and a holistic education across the sciences, social sciences, arts, humanities, and sports for a multidisciplinary world to ensure the unity and integrity of all knowledge;
- emphasis on conceptual understanding rather than rote learning and learning-for-exams;
- creativity and critical thinking to encourage logical decision-making and innovation;
- ethics and human constitutional values like empathy, respect for others, cleanliness, courtesy, democratic spirit, the spirit of service, respect for public property, scientific temper, liberty, responsibility, pluralism, equality, and justice;
- promoting multilingualism and the power of language in teaching and learning;
- life skills such as communication, cooperation, teamwork, and resilience;
- focus on regular formative assessment for learning rather than the summative assessment that encourages today's 'coaching culture';
- extensive use of technology in teaching and learning, removing language barriers, increasing access for *Divyang* students, and educational planning and management;
- respect for diversity and respect for the local context in all curriculum, pedagogy, and policy, always keeping in mind that education is a concurrent subject;
- full equity and inclusion as the cornerstone of all educational decisions to ensure that all students can thrive in the education system;
- synergy in curriculum across all levels of education, from early childhood care and education to school education to higher education;
- teachers and faculty as the heart of the learning process – their recruitment, continuous professional development, positive working environments and service conditions."

The starting point of the SEPIM is a series of questions emanating from the policy principles. For example,

1. Who will identify the unique capabilities or talents in the children and nurture them and how?
2. Who will help students develop foundational literacy, numeracy, and digitacy (digitacy added by the author as digital literacy is necessary foundational learning for all children born in the third decade of the 21st century)? How would it be achieved?
3. Who will develop a conceptual understanding and critical thinking among students? How? How would one know whether conceptual understanding and critical and creative thinking have been developed?
4. The boards of school education can change the curriculum. But who will plan and implement the new curriculum?
5. Who would implement the instructional strategies and learning designs mentioned in the policy document? And, how? Are the actual implementers at the grassroots skilled enough?
6. Who will plan, prepare, and conduct the formative assessment, especially since it has been practised earlier and discontinued?
7. Who will develop the ethics and constitutional values and "doing right things" among the students, and how?

These, and many other questions, clearly point to the critical role of teachers and the principal as the academic leader of the school in policy implementation. The government and governmental authorities at the national, state, and sub-state levels can provide policy guidelines and create resource provisions but cannot implement policy principles. A school is where the policies are implemented.

The SEPIM is a dynamic cyclic model comprising seven activities – awareness and understanding of the policy, conviction and concurrence, competence building, planning for implementation, execution and accomplishment, impact assessment, and strategy reform (Figure 4.2).

The seven domains are not entirely independent of each other. There are overlaps and causal or reinforcing relationships. Let us examine each of them from the angle of policy intentions and the teacher's and academic leader's roles.

Awareness and Understanding

Awareness about policy implications is usually done through mass orientation programmes. The mass orientation programmes provide "expert interpreted policy" to the policy implementers instead of policy per se. Instead, the SEPIM model proposes a few self-regulated learning exercises:

a. Each teacher, preferably every staff member of the school, would read (study) the complete policy document (62 pages only, excluding abbreviations, etc.) in original (the policy document is available in all major

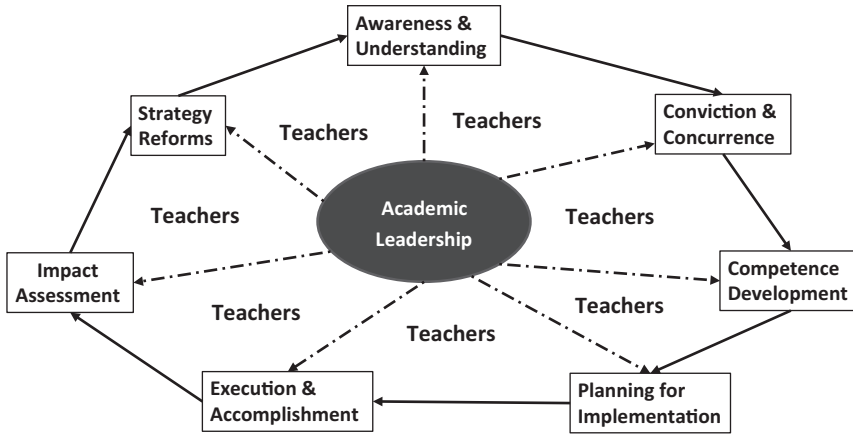

Figure 4.2 School-Based Educational Policy Implementation Model (SEPIM)

Indian languages) (MOE, 2020). Studying the entire document helps better understand the policy goals and the inter-structural linkages among different levels of education. Alternatively, each teacher and every staff member selectively read certain sections of the policy document. For example,

- Principles of this policy and the vision of this policy (151 words, pp5–6) under "Introduction."
- Eight sections in Part I: School Education (pp7–33) comprising

    1. Early Childhood Care and Education: The Foundation of Learning.
    2. Foundational Literacy and Numeracy: An Urgent and Necessary Prerequisite to Learning.
    3. Curtailing Dropout Rates and Ensuring Universal Access to Education at All Levels.
    4. Curriculum and Pedagogy in Schools: Learning Should be Holistic, Integrated, Enjoyable, and Engaging.
    5. Teachers.
    6. Equitable and Inclusive Education: Learning for All.
    7. Efficient Resourcing and Effective Governance through School Complexes/Clusters.
    8. Standard-setting and Accreditation for School Education.

and

Item 23. Technology use and integration (pp56–61).

Item 24. Online and digital education: ensuring equitable use of technology (pp58–9).
Part IV. Making it happen (pp60–6).

Out of the eight items in school education, items 2, 4, and 5 are exclusive domains of schools and teachers for implementation; items 3 and 6 are a partnership between the state and the schools, and items 7 and 8 are the domains of the state. A careful reading of policy goals indicates that the achievement of these goals depends upon the implementation of items 2, 4, and 5. The remaining items are enablers.

b. After reading the relevant portions of the policy document through structured discussion, the staff should identify the clusters of recommendations like policy goals, curriculum planning and management, instructional designs and practices, textbooks, materials and technology, assessment of learning outcomes, and managing the intangible curriculum.
c. Staff, in small groups, would then engage in content analysis in one of the policy issues deriving the imperatives of the policy recommendations. The content analysis results should be presented and discussed in staff seminars/meetings to identify gaps, overlaps, and interconnectedness of policy recommendations.

The outcome of such collaborative content analysis should lead to the following kind of documentation (original expressions in the NEP2020 have been used, in italics, as far as possible to maintain authenticity).

Policy Goals

The content analysis of the concerned issues indicates that the Indian NEP2020 mentions four major policy goals:

1. *Achieving excellence by recognising, identifying, and fostering the unique capabilities of each student.*
2. *The foundational literacy and numeracy by all students by grade 3; curtailing dropout rates.*
3. *Emphasis on conceptual understanding.*
4. *Developing creativity and critical thinking to encourage logical decision-making and innovation.*

One of the other policy goals is building character and creating holistic and well-rounded individuals equipped with vital 21st-century skills.

Curriculum Planning and Management

The policy envisages an *inclusive, multidisciplinary curriculum that develops students' scholastic, co-scholastic, and co-curricular skills, including*

life skills such as communication, cooperation, teamwork, and resilience. Curriculum content will be reduced in each subject to its core essentials focusing on the key concepts, ideas, applications, and problem solving. The policy aspires all young Indians to be aware of the rich and vast array of Indian languages and their remarkable unity and inheritance from Sanskrit and other Indian classical languages. Sanskrit education would be available. The curriculum intends to develop coding, understanding, and appreciation of skills in vocational crafts such as carpentry, electric work, metalwork, gardening, and pottery making and working with local craftsmen and women to develop the skills during the Bagless days. The policy recommended a course on Indian Knowledge Systems in secondary schools as an elective.

Pedagogy, Instructional Designs, and Practices

Comprehensive recommendations have been made about the *instructional/learning designs and pedagogical practices. Some of the important features are towards real understanding and towards learning how to learn; inquiry-based, discovery-based, discussion-based, and analysis-based learning; interactive learning where questions will be encouraged, and classrooms to regularly contain more fun, creative, collaborative, and exploratory activities for students for deeper and more experiential learning. Experiential learning has been further elaborated as hands-on learning, arts-integrated and sports-integrated education, and storytelling.* The policy recommended the adoption of blended learning models.

The educational policy recommended pedagogy for *competency-based learning to close the gap in learning outcomes.* Language learning has been especially focused on making it *enjoyable and with plenty of interactive conversation; and enhanced through innovative and experiential methods, including through gamification and apps, by weaving in the cultural aspects of the languages – such as films, theatre, storytelling, poetry, and music – and by drawing connections with various relevant subjects and with real-life experiences.*

The policy recommended *redesigning curriculum and pedagogy to be rooted in the Indian and local context and ethos.* These context and ethos have been deconstructed in terms of *culture, traditions, heritage, customs, language, philosophy, geography, ancient and contemporary knowledge, societal and scientific needs, indigenous and traditional ways of learning, etc.; also adopting principles of situated cognition with stories, arts, games, sports, examples, problems, etc. to be rooted in the Indian and local geographic context.*

Use of Textbooks and Learning Materials

The policy recommends developing and using *bilingual textbooks and teaching–learning materials, especially science and mathematics, to 'enable*

students to think and speak about the two subjects in their home language/ mother tongue and English'. Except in KVs, school education, including science and mathematics, is provided through vernacular like Tamil, Oriya, Hindi, Bangla, etc. The policy recommends extensive use of technology in teaching and learning. Read with blended learning models, extensive use of technology implies online education. *To support technology-integrated education and adopt a blended learning model, the policy recommends developing a wide variety of educational software and making it available for students and teachers.*

This policy aspect must be examined against the backdrop of connecting the four-dot learning model (Figure 4.3).

The four dots are:

a. World Wide Web (WWW) contains a wide variety of learning materials in text, video, images, and games and simulations, etc.
b. Internet penetration and bandwidth with powerful search engines to identify relevant learning materials in seconds.
c. Deep penetration of access devices like smartphones, tablets, and laptops with ever-growing power with declining costs.
d. Students as self-organising learners with the capability of self-regulated learning.

Assessment of Learning Outcome

The policy recommended *focusing on formative assessment* (p5). Regular formative assessment has been recommended *for* enhancing learning. The policy assumes that regular formative assessment "*will help the teacher and*

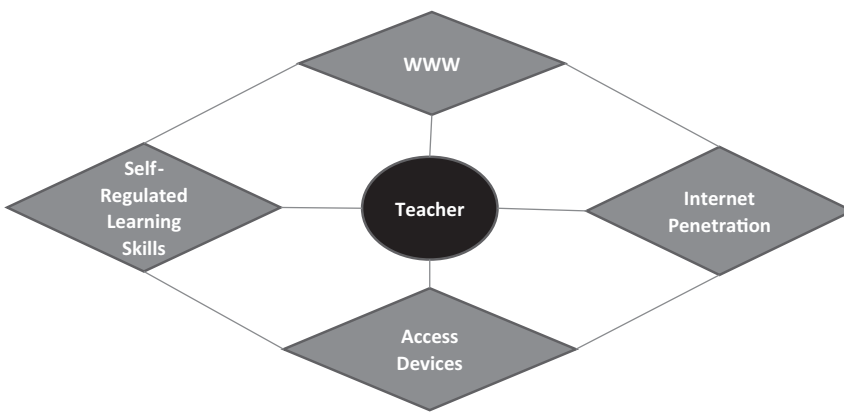

Figure 4.3 Connecting the Four-Dot Learning Model

student. The entire schooling system continuously revised teaching–learning processes to optimise learning and development for all students. This will be the underlying assessment principle at all education levels" (p17).[1] Elsewhere, the policy document mentioned assessment *As* learning (metacognition), *For* learning (formative), and *Of* learning (summative).

School Organisation and Management

The policy recommends overhauling the *service environment and culture of schools to maximise the ability of teachers to do their jobs effectively and to ensure that they are part of vibrant, caring, and inclusive communities of teachers, students, parents, principals, and other support staff, all of whom share a common goal: to ensure that the children are learning.* The policy recommends *greater academic autonomy for teachers in choosing pedagogy suitable for their teaching students*.

In the same breath, the policy envisages the *role of principals and teachers in developing a caring and inclusive culture at their schools for effective learning and the benefit of all stakeholders. The policy recommends reintroducing the school complex and efficient management of the school complexes*. The policy recommends *training and incentivising teachers for good work; and training principals.*

Managing Intangible Curriculum

The policy makes several recommendations outside the boundaries of the conventional syllabus. These include teaching students "doing what is right," *development of ethics, and human and Constitutional values like empathy, respect for others, cleanliness, courtesy, democratic spirit, the spirit of service, respect for public property, scientific temper, liberty, responsibility, pluralism, equality, and justice; promoting multilingualism, respect for diversity, and respect for the local context; a rootedness and pride in India, and its rich, diverse, ancient, and modern culture and knowledge systems and traditions* (p5).

Policy visualises the development of an array of skills like *evidence-based thinking; creativity, and innovativeness; a sense of aesthetics and art; oral and written communication; health and nutrition; physical education, fitness, wellness, and sports; collaboration and teamwork; problem solving and logical reasoning; vocational exposure and skills; digital literacy, coding, and computational thinking; ethical and moral reasoning; gender sensitivity; fundamental duties; citizenship skills and values; knowledge of India; environmental awareness including water and resource conservation, sanitation and hygiene; and current affairs and knowledge of critical issues facing local communities, states, the country, and the world.*

The content analysis given above is only a sample. The teachers' content analysis should be a document of similar nature as given above. The outcome of the content analysis will be the charter for institutional policy implementation.

Conviction and Concurrence

Policy implementation is, in a way, the adoption of QIs. Like any other innovation, policy interventions would have to face differential reactions of innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. These interventions would upset teachers' and academic leaders' comfort zones. For successful implementation, developing teachers' conviction and consensus is necessary. A three-stage intervention may be helpful:

a. *Confrontation session*: The confrontation session follows developing awareness and understanding. In this session, teachers are encouraged to engage in a free and frank discussion and argumentation with each other. This brings into open the silent and hidden resistance. Schools usually feel shy about using confrontation sessions as "smoothness" is celebrated more. Confrontation sessions are extensively used in other organisations to bring the differences and collectively sort them out.
b. *Reconciliation session*: Following the confrontation session, the teachers may engage in a reconciliation session identifying the policy recommendations, especially activities needed to implement, what (i) all agree with, (ii) the majority agree, (iii) a few agree, and (iv) none agree. This will narrow down further discussion on the ideas where the differences exist.
c. *Idea generation session*: In this session, teachers collectively decide on the items of policy recommendations and strategies for implementation.

This three-stage process develops ownership and increases conviction and commitment to policy implementation.

Competence Development

The competence required, according to the policy imperatives, are planning and management of the curriculum, developing a love for learning and skills of learning to learn among students, implementing a variety of instructional techniques, effective use of textbooks, technology, and online and offline learning materials, conducting the formative assessment and developing ethics and values, doing the right things, etc.

Competence development has been tried to be achieved primarily through conventional in-service training of teachers. Classrooms have not changed. There is no research evidence that such mass orientation and training make an impact. Hattie's (2017) landmark meta-research found that out of 252 influencers, *collective teacher efficacy* maximises student achievement. We need to find ways of developing the collective efficacy of teachers. A school-based staff development approach best serves the purpose of collective teacher efficacy development through Continuous Professional Development (CPD) and Professional Learning for Empowerment of Teachers (PLET) (described later in Chapter 7) with practicum, workshops, and self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 2008; Mukhopadhyay, 2022; Nadeem, 2021).

It requires the conviction that there is nothing that school teachers cannot learn on their own if they decide to. There are many open access resources on instructional strategies and learning designs. Teachers in small groups can collectively develop training materials, vet them by an external mentor, and conduct peer training. This school-based development would help teachers adapt to students' learning needs, as recommended in the policy document.

Planning for Implementation

Teachers individually, in groups, and in departments create implementation plans to include curricular plans, instructional designs and strategies, assessment tools and techniques, and managing intangibles like developing ethics and moral values. The plan of implementation must be developed in a multitier academic leadership framework. Most reputed public and private schools develop detailed annual academic plans and meticulously implement them.

Execution and Accomplishment

The planned approach to implementation requires every teacher to develop a plan of action and meticulously implement it; similarly, every department and section should develop and implement their respective implementation plans. The peer group learning culture, coaching, and counselling help the execution better.

Assessment

The evaluation of policy implementation is needed to get feedback for midcourse corrections and strategic plan reforms. This formative evaluation aims to develop teacher competence and effectiveness; developing self-assessment tools to be responded to by the teachers may be helpful. For United States Agency for International Development (USAID), Management

Systems International (2017) developed the Teacher Self-Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning Process Inventory – classroom practices, classroom atmosphere, teaching practice, texts and materials, and continuous assessment to implement the national education policy of Namibia. Teachers usually resist external evaluation of the classroom and assessment practices. The teachers should be encouraged to evaluate themselves for their benefit. Teachers improve better from self-feedback.

Strategy Reforms

The evaluation with self-assessment tools for teachers generates valuable data on the effectiveness of implementing the policy recommendations. The self-assessment results can be examined in smaller groups or departments and then the whole faculty to devise collective learning. Based on the review of the evaluation results, teachers and the school may have to change certain strategies for implementing the policy more effectively. That modification can be integrated into the annual plan.

The Role of Academic Leaders

The model presented above is built upon a participative culture in the school as a flat learning organisation. The role of academic leaders demands active participation and guidance and much less direction and instructions. Academic leadership in such a situation is challenged with several demands and actions.

1. *Expertise*: The first and the foremost is to develop expertise so teachers can look upon you to guide. For example, you carefully study the policy document and create a content analysis document. This is required for you to master the art of content analysis and develop a deep understanding of the national policy implications for your school. Similar expertise would be expected in curriculum planning and management, structured system designs, and evaluation (Expert Leadership).
2. *Participation*: You must selectively participate with the teachers in smaller groups, departments, and the staff, especially when actively involved in research and development activities like content analysis and developing training materials on different learning designs. Your participation would add intellectual and affective values to the exercises (Primal Leadership).
3. *Servant:* Occasionally, when teachers are deeply engaged in a creative endeavour, an academic leader may have to provide Servant Leadership to facilitate the process of teacher engagement and creativity. For example, during one of the faculty development programmes, the participating college principals were deeply engaged in a production workshop.

It was late in the evening. One principal came to my office (joint director of NIEPA) and requested me to organise some tea and snacks for the participants. I happily served them as I knew they were seriously engaged in a creative endeavour when physically exhausted.

4. *Inspiring and motivating*: Planning and implementing the policy directives is something new. Many teachers may treat this as an additional burden. Here comes your role of inspiring and motivating the teachers. Active participation with the teachers in specific tasks and appreciation of the teachers, especially your way of working on the policy implementation, can work as motivators. Teachers who are both committed and competent need no facilitation and encouragement. Teachers in the three other categories (please refer to Chapter 3) need a different motivational approach (Inspirational Leadership).
5. *Strategising:* As teachers develop the planning for implementation collectively, your role is to involve the teachers in activities to get a maximum contribution. (Political Leadership that is not discussed in this book.)
6. *Supervising and mentoring*: As the teachers implement the policy, you must participate, supervise, and mentor. Overseeing the implementation process helps you keep your finger on the process's pulse and the support the teachers require, including mentoring.
7. *Coaching and counselling*: You need to use coaching and counselling skills to help teachers overcome conceptualisation, planning, and implementation problems. Coaching and counselling are essential for assisting competent but unwilling teachers to come to the mainstream (Primal Leadership).
8. *Directing*: You may need to direct certain processes and certain people occasionally. For example, neither committed nor competent teachers may follow certain practices and procedures that may not contribute to policy implementation. You may have to direct them (Primal Leadership).

As an academic leader, you must actively involve yourself in evaluating the process of plan implementation. Your supervision, mentoring, coaching, counselling, and even directing will provide enough information about how the policy implementation is shaping. You must collect evidence of policy implementation to be objective and take evidence-supported decisions.

School Policy

Before we conclude, we need to consider developing and implementing school policy for school effectiveness. Global and national policies are enacted once in a while, maybe once in two or more decades, e.g. NEP2020 was passed after more than three decades – after the second Indian National

Policy on Education in 1986. The vision and mission statements reflect the overall ambition of a school.

To enhance school effectiveness and implement school vision, schools need to develop academic policy focusing policy statements on curricula, teaching–learning, ICT and learning resources, co-scholastic and co-curricular activities, involvement of parents, alumni, and the community for quality improvement, etc. The institutional policy should also state the roles and responsibilities of the school management committee, principal, teachers and staff, students and parents, alumni, and community leaders in implementing school policies. School policies guide the direction while creating an obligation. A plan of implementation should accompany the school policy.

In conclusion, you would have noticed that the central theme of SDG4, national educational policies, and school policies are to ensure quality education and prespecified learning outcomes for all students. SEPIM adds value to the Self-fulfillment Model of School Effectiveness.

Key Takeaways

1. There is a huge gap between policy intent and policy impact. This gap is found in almost all countries.
2. Several studies have pointed to external factors for the poor impact of policy. The most important reason is the non-involvement of teachers and school principals who implement policies in classrooms and schools.
3. Situational analysis and diagnosis, policy formulation and policy statements, planning for implementation, implementation in school classrooms, assessment and review, and policy review and revision are the six stages of the policy cycle. Each stage utilises different kinds of experts.
4. The SEPIM can significantly reduce the gap between policy intent and policy impact.
5. The SEPIM comprises seven stages. These are developing awareness and understanding of policy recommendations; concurrence and consensus; developing teacher competence; developing a plan of implementation, execution, and accomplishment; impact assessment; and reviewing and reformulating the strategic implementation plan.
6. Teachers engaging in small groups, carrying out a content analysis of relevant portions of the policy document, and sharing with peers in staff seminars better develop awareness and understanding.
7. Concurrence and consensus should be developed by involving teachers in a free and frank discussion, allowing silent resistance to surface, followed by negotiation to build agreement and consensus.

8. The purpose of competence development can be best served by engaging teachers deeply in a self-regulated learning mechanism for developing training materials and conducting peer group orientation and training, initially guided by a mentor.
9. Like the annual academic plan, a school should develop a strategic plan to implement national education policy recommendations.
10. The plan should be meticulously implemented and supervised by supervisors and academic leaders.
11. The plan implementation should be evaluated. Teacher self-assessment and self-evaluation would be a better option than external evaluation alone.
12. Based on the review and evaluation results, the teachers should collectively review the plan and modify and reformulate the implementation plan.
13. The role of academic leaders is critical in executing SEPIM in all stages.
14. The academic leader needs to adopt a flexible style of leadership combining Expert Leadership, Servant Leadership, and Inspirational Leadership, sometimes authoritarian/directing and political leadership.

Please Check Your Learning Outcomes

1. Create a content analysis of a national educational policy document.
2. Create a plan for the implementation of national educational policy in your school.
3. Create a blueprint of school-based sustainable staff development programmes.
4. How would you assess the impact of policy implementation in your school?

Note

1 https://www.education.gov.in/sites/upload_files/mhrd/files/NEP_Final_English_0.pdf

5

UNDERSTANDING SCHOOL AS AN ORGANISATION

Introduction

As soon as we enter a school, we get a vibe. In some schools, we find, "there is a place for everything and everything in its place." The school is tidy and aesthetically decorated. Happy smiling students are dressed in neat and clean uniforms as they enter the school. They reach school on time. A teacher is on duty to receive latecomers with a rose (!). All teachers are on time for each class. They check students' homework or class notes regularly. School activities happen strictly according to schedule. Activities are conducted in a very professional manner. There is a sense of purpose and urgency in every action and movement. Though the students are doing well, the school strives to improve it further. The school helps every teacher do better. The principal regularly engages herself in professional learning to stay ahead in academics and affectionately mentors teachers who need it. There is a palpable enthusiasm in the school and a positive vibe.

In some other schools, we witness a different picture and get a different vibe. Students and teachers walk into the school compound without a hurry, even after the school has started functioning. The teachers and staff mark the same time on the attendance register, irrespective of when they arrive and sign. Not all teachers and all students attend the morning assembly. After several minutes of socialising, teachers enter classrooms often late. Lesson planning is not in practice. Many teachers do not give any homework and follow up on homework. Students take homework easy. School is untidy in most places; teachers and students occasionally use the science laboratory and computer labs. A sense of purpose and urgency is missing. Principals and teachers are pretty at ease with the indifferent academic achievement of students. They feel nothing more or better can be done in the given situation. Principals behave as administrative heads giving directions to staff without any trace of academic leadership. Or, they leave things to fate. The school is allowed to drift.

Both types of schools may be affiliated with the same board and have the same organisational structure (Figure 5.1), same curriculum to transact, and

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-5

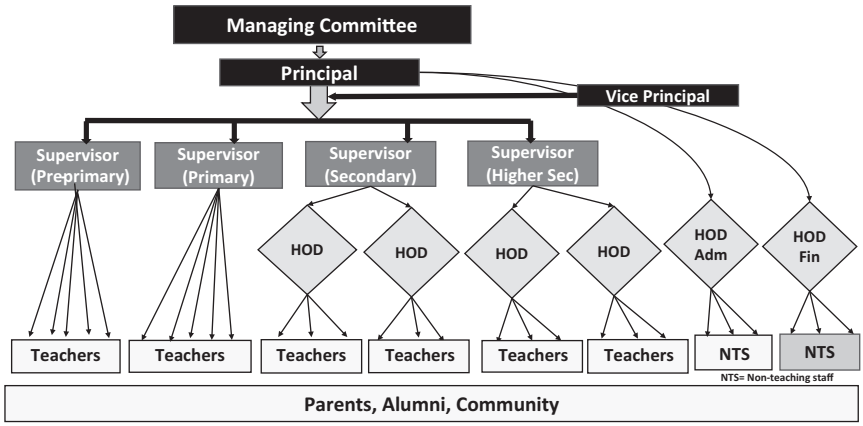

Figure 5.1 School Organisation

examinations for students. Yet, they differ in their organisational climate and ethos. For academic leadership effectiveness, it is necessary to understand the school as an organisation, especially the organisational ethos. This chapter will deal with the goals of schooling, social expectations, and various types of school organisation.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

1. Define the goals and expectations of the community from your school.
2. Describe your school as a system with subsystems and their interrelationships.
3. Explain the relevance of bureaucracy in the planning and management of your school.
4. Differentiate between a Flat and a Loosely Coupled Organisation.
5. Create a theoretical framework for your school as an organisation to enhance effectiveness.

Goals and Expectations of a School

Schools are set up to educate children. This generic goal is valid across countries and ages. The difference is how education is interpreted. For example, Millennium Development Goal 2 (MDG2) declared "Achieve Universal Primary Education" by 2015[1] as the goal. The milepost for Sustainable Development Goal 4.1 (SDG4.1) is "By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys

complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes."[2] Along with the shifting of the target year from 2015 to 2030, the target has been moved from primary to secondary education; education has been defined to be outcome based but "completely free," equitable (a shift from equity or universal), and with quality.

National educational policies reinforce these universal goals situating the policies in the national context. Each nation sets its goals and states differently. For example,

- The purpose of this title is to provide all children significant opportunity to receive a fair, equitable, and high-quality education, and to close educational achievement gaps (ESSA Act of 2015 of USA. p1).

  The ESSA (2015) stipulated that every state should determine the assessment mechanism and measure performance in reading, math, and science. Every school must inform parents about their standards and results.
- The education system aims to develop good human beings capable of rational thought and action, compassion and empathy, courage and resilience, scientific temper and creative imagination, and good ethical moorings and values. It aims to produce engaged, productive and contributing citizens to build an equitable, inclusive, and plural society envisaged by our Constitution (NEP2020 p4, under Principles of this Policy).

  NEP2020 mentioned Curtailing Dropout Rates and Ensuring Universal Access to Education at All Levels as the goal. It further clarified this goal in article 3.1: "One of the primary goals of the schooling system must be to ensure that children are enrolled in and are attending school," focusing on equity.
- Improving every aspect of "quality education and ensuring excellence, recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved, especially in literacy, numeracy, and life skills" (Government of the Republic of Namibia, 2002).
- "A resilient, responsible and prosperous nation of healthy, educated and empowered Seychellois living together in harmony with nature and engaged with the wider world" (Seychelles Vision 2033 p7) (Department of Economic Planning 2019).
- "Providing equal opportunities for all citizens to high-quality education and training is a long-term objective of the Finnish education policy. The keywords in Finnish education policy are quality, efficiency, equity and internationalisation" (Finland) (CCE, n.d.).

The NEP2020 spells out the attributes of a good academic institution:

A good educational institution is one where:

- Every student feels welcomed and cared for.
- There is a safe and stimulating learning environment exists.
- A wide range of learning experiences is offered.
- Good physical infrastructure and appropriate resources conducive to learning are available to all students. (p5)

It further prescribes that "attaining these qualities must be the goal of every educational institution."

Private schools define the goals of individual institutions as mission statements. The HDFC School (Gurugram), for example, defined the following goals, as mission statements, on its website:

- To empower students with academic proficiency in Literature, Maths, Science (Applied Pure), The Humanities, Fine Arts, Crafts, Sports and outbound experiences.
- To create an atmosphere that is conducive to learning and committed to academic rigour and excellence.
- To cultivate a thirst for knowledge and higher education in every student.
- To continuously add value to our curriculum and improve programming in order to enhance the skill sets and all round development rather than remain textbook-centric.
- To build and maintain a faculty that has highly-qualified and respected teachers.
- To align the goals of students, parents and teachers in order to achieve higher standards in learning and get the best results.
- To ensure that our students feel safe, secure, and supported at all times, with a sense of belonging.
- To provide students and their families, with social and emotional support throughout the formative and senior learning years.
- To ensure that every student is allowed to build leadership qualities and to develop social skills that can lead to success in school and in life.

These missions are expected to help achieve the vision, "The HDFC School brings in the joy of learning and caring in all aspects. The school promotes creativity, collaboration, inquisitiveness and personal integrity in a blend that fosters success for all students and staff of the school (https://www.thehdfcschool.com/vision-philosophy-mission.html)."

The statements of the school policies define the expectations from the schools. The schools have been set up at a public cost. Hence, schools are accountable to the agencies that fund them. The government funds public schools from the taxes collected from people; in private schools, parents

pay directly to the school as tuition fees and other charges. Private schools are directly accountable to parents and the immediate community. Public schools are accountable to the state. Parents who pay for their children's education through taxes are often unaware that public schools should be accountable to the community. The accountability is measured in terms of how far the missions and goals have been achieved.

Academic leaders must interpret the mission and goals in the given socio-economic and cultural background inset at the overall backdrop of national and global education goals. As we initiate actions to improve school effectiveness, we need to examine and appreciate the expectations from the schools.

School as an Organisation

All schools have an organisational structure. Small schools (less than 1000 students, about 30 teachers, and 5/6 non-teaching staff) and large schools (usually 2000+ students and about 100 teachers and 10+ non-teaching staff) organise themselves with slight differences. All schools have a principal or a headmaster assisted by a vice principal or a few supervisors (depending upon the size of the school), a few heads of academic departments, and heads of administration and finance. All schools are headed by a Managing Committee (Figure 5.1).

In some schools, there is no vice principal; supervisors report directly to the principal. The vice principal (also titled assistant headmaster in certain states) shares the administrative and financial management responsibilities with the principal wherever there is one. Seychelles school framework provides for two vice principals but no supervisors.

School organisation has been described in many different ways. The most common classifications are closed and open systems derived from General Systems Theory (Bertalanffy, 1968), bureaucracy, loosely coupled, and flat organisations.

Systems Approach: Open Systems Model

The origin of systems theory can be traced back to Aristotle's Holism; "knowledge is derived from the understanding of the whole and not that of the single parts" (Mele et al., 2010, p1). Systems thinking, thus, brings in a shift in conceptualisation from part to the whole (Jackson, 2003; Weinberg, 2001). Based on a detailed review of definitions, Arnold and Wade (2015) defined, "Systems thinking is a set of synergistic analytic skills used to improve the capability to identify and understand systems, predict their behaviours, and devise modifications to them to produce desired effects. These skills work together as a system" (Arnold and Wade, 2015, p8). A few important concepts emerged out of the definition by Page et al. (1977) and other authors on the systems approach:

- *Problem solving*: The purpose of the systems approach is to solve complex problems.
- *Systems boundary*: Systems are well defined; hence there is a boundary.
- *Input*: Input includes investments for creating a product.
- *Process*: The process converts inputs into a product or an output.
- *Output*: The output is the product that comes out of a system.
- *Environment*: The environment is the setting in which a system works.
- *Feedback*: Feedback is the mechanism of using output data to feed into the process and input.

A system comprises several components that interrelate and interact to serve a common set of organisational goals. All systems have inputs, processes, and outputs. All systems are located in an environment. Systems are broadly classified as closed and open systems depending on the environment's interaction.

Bertalanffy (1968), in his discourse on General Systems Theory, differentiated open and closed systems. To quote Bertalanffy,

> The first is the principle of equifinality. In any closed system, the final state is unequivocally determined by the initial conditions: e.g., the motion in a planetary system where the positions of the planets at a time "t" are unequivocally determined by their positions at a time "t." This is not so in open systems. Here, the same final state may be reached from different initial conditions and in different ways. This is what is called equifinality.

The closed systems have firm boundaries restricting interaction with the environment. Closed systems neither take feedback nor relearn nor contribute to and enrich the environment. The intra-institutional boundaries are also less porous and less malleable in closed systems. The closed systems largely stay isolated though within the environment.

Organisations get economical, social, and political influences from the environment. It is equally valid in the case of schools. Bastedo (2004) further argued that treating schools independent of their environment would risk missing out on the factors that significantly influence school culture and the change management process. The open systems approach helps understand environmental demands on the school and accordingly adapt school policies and strategies for implementation.

The boundaries of an open system are soft and porous; they regularly interact and receive feedback from the environment. Hence, for open systems, the inputs, processes, outputs, goals, assessment and evaluation, and learning are all important (GBPSSI, n.d.). In open systems, internal boundaries are also permeable, facilitating inter-departmental collaborations and learning pursuits. "Healthy open systems continuously exchange feedback

with their environments, analyse that feedback, adjust internal systems as needed to achieve the system's goals, and then transmit necessary information back out to the environment" (GBPSSI, n.d.). Open systems believe that the organisational goals can be achieved in more than one way; there is no one right way to achieve organisational goals – equifinality (Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Educational Institution as a System

According to the systems theory, a system comprises input, process, and output within a system boundary set in an environment (Figure 5.2).

A school comprises students, staff, infrastructure, financial, and instructional resources. The processes are admission, instruction, evaluation, personnel and financial management, etc. The outputs are the school graduates, and the outcomes are graduate attributes. An important concept is the "contextual process." For example, the instructional process for the same curriculum and examination framework varies among schools depending upon the urban and rural settings, the socio-economic background of students and parents, teacher quality, physical facilities, and the organisational climate of the school.

Further, these inputs, processes, and outputs are not independent; they are interlinked and interdependent within the systemic framework. For example, the quality of administrative management, as a process, produces teacher satisfaction (output). Teachers' satisfaction on the job serves as an input for improved instructional systems and student performance (output).

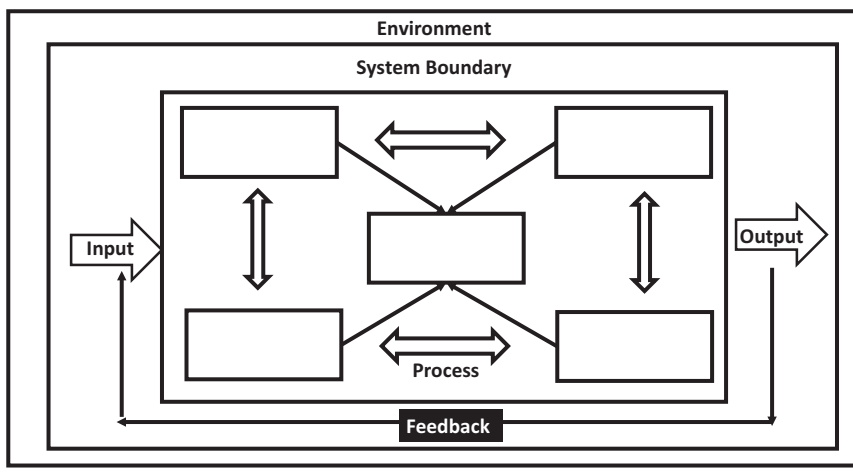

Figure 5.2 Systems Approach

A school, as a system, comprises at least nine identifiable subsystems (Mukhopadhyay and Narula, 1992):

1. Vision, mission, and goals.
2. Academics.
3. Human resources.
4. Finance.
5. Infrastructure.
6. Networking: linkages and interface.
7. Student services and parental involvement.
8. Administrative management.
9. Management and leadership.

We can deconstruct each subsystem into smaller components. For example, academic management can be deconstructed into curricular planning and management, development and utilisation of learning resources, instructional process management, student assessment, and planning and management of co-curricular activities. The teaching–learning process can be further subdivided into classroom instruction, homework, desktop research, video learning, project work, laboratory practical, field visits, peer group consultation, internet surfing, etc.

The systems approach implies appreciating the school as one unit comprising parts with interrelationships and interdependence. This understanding is important as a quality intervention (QI) in one domain will create unintended ripples and changes in several other domains of the school.

Bureaucracy

A bureaucratic organisation is a hierarchy with clearly defined roles delineating authority and powers at each level (Figure 5.1). Max Webber conceptualised bureaucracy as a form of organisation[3]. Waters (2015), while translating Bureaucracy from Weber's Rationalism and Modern Society: New Translation of Politics, Bureaucracy and Social Stratification, wrote:

> Weber's point is that the purely technical advantages of the bureaucratic machine take on a life beyond its creator, whether the creator was the charismatic Napoleon Bonaparte or Otto von Bismarck. The slow accretion of power reflects the "dilettantism" of generations of the gentry, nobles, and other types of faceless Honoratioren
>
> (Waters and Waters, 2015, p1).

Waters and Waters (2015) also reflected on the "centre for power in the modern state" through mastery of technical details of the legal system. This

happens because bureaucracy is "technically the most advanced means for wielding power in the hands of those who possess it" (p. 30).

There are some identifiable attributes of a school as a bureaucratic organisation.

1. *Task specialisation*: There are task specialisations. There is a clear division of labour defining the roles of administrative and accounts staff, teachers, supervisors, principal, superintendent or director, and chairman of the managing committee. There is an effort in the organisation to avoid overlap among the task zones.
2. *Hierarchy*: The bureaucracy is organised in several layers, like managing committee, principal, vice principal, supervisors, heads of departments, heads of administration and accounts, teachers, support staff, and messenger and menial staff. The hierarchical structure also implies a predefined line of control, reporting relationships, and the centre of power.
3. *Specific rules of procedure*: There are particular rules about workload and compensation of the staff, purchase of consumables and non-consumables, civil works, assets and estate management, writing off non-usable assets, etc. Every member is (expected to be) familiar with the rules and expectations of the school. This brings in uniformity and transparency.
4. *Formal selection rules*: There are fixed rules for selecting staff for every category. The job seekers of a particular cadre, e.g. graduate teachers, pass through the same procedures and protocols.
5. *Merit-based incentives*: Promotion and salaries are fixed as per the provision of service rules. Some countries and some schools allow salaries and promotions based on merit.
6. *Impersonal environment*: Bureaucracy is impersonal. It recognises people by roles rather than as individuals. A teacher, supervisor, or messenger is known by their position, not their skills and talents. In government bureaucracy, when secretaries change from agriculture or industry to health or home affairs, they stay entirely away from the domain of their previous assignments. However, teachers and students, students and students, and principals and teachers enjoy intimate, affectionate relationships in schools despite some degree of bureaucracy.
7. *Positions belong to an organisation*: All posts belong to the organisation. The incumbent may change, but the post remains with the school. A new person joins as a principal or an accountant against the same post vacated by the previous principal.

Bureaucracy has often been misunderstood as detrimental to academic organisations because of rigidity and unimaginative interpretation of rules.

An organisation needs a structure with a sound decision flow system. Bureaucracy provides a predictable structure and helps the organisation run smoothly. It is essential for large organisations.

The most significant deficiency of bureaucracy is the concentration of power that cultivates inequality and the non-use of less-powered creative people. Teachers and principals are equally qualified; some teachers may be more effective than the principal. Bureaucracy will position the principal as superior and not as senior in the hierarchy only. By functions and nature, educational institutions are organisations of equals; they need a flat organisation.

Flat Organisation

Flat organisations have fewer levels of hierarchy (BBC, n.d.). The staff can communicate more easily with the head instead of following the proper channel. Small organisations and start-ups often adopt a flat organisational structure as there are a few roles and a smaller number of people to manage. Schools are often small organisations.

The flat organisation leaders usually are Theory Y managers (McGregor's theory) who believe that employees take the initiative; they are responsible and motivated to complete their tasks, maintain quality, solve problems collaboratively and creatively, and view work as fulfilling. They affiliate with the organisation. Hence, the bureaucratic hierarchy can be kept at a minimum. A few essential attributes of a flat organisation are:

1. *Customer focused*: Schools focus on students – every student succeeds in excelling in their respective areas of talent. Also, the focus is on the job satisfaction and staff happiness.
2. *Collaboration and teamwork*: People prefer and are encouraged to work in teams. Without much supervision, teachers work in teams planning and managing curriculum, instruction, instructional material development, student assessment, and co-scholastic and co-curricular activities.
3. *Decentralised management*: Management is decentralised; the centre of authority is distributed. Every teacher feels independent and responsible to the school community as a whole.
4. *Horizontal movement*: Horizontal movement is indicated when a teacher moves horizontally from one responsibility to another. After three years, a teacher in charge of student affairs is shifted as controller of examinations or in charge of co-scholastic activities. The horizontal movement provides rich experiences for different departments of school management. This experience comes in handy when a teacher moves to a supervisory position or a supervisor to the principalship. Thus, horizontal movement adds value for vertical movement.

5. Jobs are more broadly defined. For example, a teacher is a mentor and guide rather than a "geography teacher for grade 7A." Job descriptions are more general than specific, creating opportunities for creativity. The teacher defines how to achieve the goal of mentoring given her specialisation in geography but knowledge in several other subjects and a bouquet of life skills like initiative, problem solving, creative thinking, and empathy.
6. The horizontal organisation follows flexible boundaries between departments and jobs. Teachers work across higher secondary, secondary, elementary, and pre-school structures, depending on their skills, competencies, and interests. Teachers work across subject disciplines, especially in interdisciplinary education and/or art, music, and integrated education.
7. Teachers are encouraged to innovate and experiment and take risks. Management takes charge of the fallouts, if any. Teachers choose the pedagogical option that best serves students' learning needs and styles.
8. As people work in teams, they develop communities. Each community generates its leader, providing the benefits of distributed leadership to the school.
9. Flat organisations are evolving organisations. Schools with marginal hierarchy, cheerful ambience for innovations and experiments, teamwork, and collective leadership are better prepared for continuous self-renewal and school effectiveness.
10. Flat organisations are open systems; they interact with the environment to enrich themselves while enriching the environment.

Loosely Coupled Organisation

Karl E Weick's (1976) article, "Educational Organisations as Loosely Coupled Systems," brought this terminology to organisational science. To quote Weick,

> In contrast to the prevailing image that elements in organisations are coupled through dense, tight linkages, it is proposed that elements are often tied together frequently and loosely. Using educational organisations as a case in point, it is argued that the concept of loose coupling incorporates a surprising number of disparate observations about organisations, suggests novel functions, creates stubborn problems for methodologists, and generates intriguing questions for scholars. Sample studies of loose coupling are suggested, and research priorities are posed to foster cumulative work with this concept.
>
> (p1)

In this paper, he made an analogy of schooling for soccer where the principal is the referee, teachers are coaches, students are players, and parents and the community are the spectators. This makes a different and unconventional depiction of schooling than the bureaucratic theory. Later, this loosely coupled system (LCS) attracted several researchers.

Arango-Vasquez and Gentilin (2021) reviewed 76 papers raising the concept of decoupling. The attributes of a loosely coupled organisation have been mentioned as situations where several means can produce the same result, absence of regulations or rigour of maintaining the regulations, poor coordination, networks without mutual connectivity, and weak and slow feedback (Weick, 1976).

> The organisation of a school can best be understood as a loosely coupled set of overlapping systems: the student system concerned with student education and development, the faculty system concerned with maintaining professional standards and effective teaching, the parent system focused on the relationship between the school and the child, and the administration system concerned with the management of the whole, including security and external relations. A good school climate can facilitate communication among these systems, which otherwise can easily degenerate into suspicion and mutual hostility.
>
> (Eisold, 2009, p1)

The loosely coupled organisations have several advantages. It allows schools to be sensitive to the environment, adapt to local situations and community ethos, and facilitate schools to emerge as community centres. The poor discipline in loosely coupled schools promotes creativity through freedom. Many creative people in music, sports and games, literature, and dramatic artists graduate from loosely coupled (rural public) schools. Students with equal talent learn creative dimensions as hobbies and not as a passion in bureaucratic and tightly coupled schools.

Schools are organised differently. Some schools are bureaucratic, especially the government schools; some are flat organisations; and many are loosely coupled. To improve school effectiveness, the academic leader needs to understand the school as an organisation and define the preferred organisational model to develop a quality culture and school as a learning organisation. The challenge is to create a strategic plan for improving school effectiveness within dominantly bureaucratic, flat, and loosely coupled organisational situations.

Key Takeaways

1. The academic leader needs to understand the school, its components, and its constructs as an organisation.

2. Schools as an organisation have been described through a systems approach as bureaucracy, flat organisations, and loosely coupled organisations.
3. Schools as systems are described more often through input–process–output model.
4. The systems model is also described as comprising subsystems, especially their interrelationships and interdependence of various components.
5. In schools, input, process, and output are not easily definable. The output of certain processes becomes an input for another process.
6. Schools are described as flat organisations with fewer layers of hierarchy.
7. The loosely coupled organisation describes a school characterised by the absence of stiff regulations or rigour of maintaining the regulations, networks without mutual connectivity, and weak and slow feedback.
8. Schools can evolve as learning organisations.

Please Assess Your Learning Outcomes

1. What are the goals of your school?
2. What do you think society at large and the community expects from your school?
3. How would you describe your school – as a bureaucracy, a flat organisation, or a loosely coupled organisation?
4. Please create a theoretical construct for changing your school as an organisation for greater effectiveness.

Notes

1 https://www.mdgmonitor.org/mdg-2-achieve-universal-primary-education/
2 https://www.sdg4education2030.org/the-goal
3 Chapter 6 Bureaucracy from Weber's Rationalism and Modern Society: New Translations on Politics, Bureaucracy, and Social Stratification (pp.73-128), Chapter Six. Publisher: Palgrave MacMillan. Editors: Tony Waters and Dagmar Waters

6

DEVELOPING SCHOOL AS A LEARNING ORGANISATION

Introduction

Children learn to speak, roll, crawl and walk, and relate to parents and the family at home on their own. They are the best examples of natural learners with limitless curiosity. School is a conglomerate of such learning individuals. Like children, schools can also learn (Einstein, 1936). Schools have the potential to develop themselves as learning organisations. However, not many schools learn. That probably explains, at least partly, how inequality in education perpetuates despite schooling (Coleman et al., 1966; Jencks et al., 1972).

Deschooling (Society: Illich, 1970) and Holt's "About Growing Without Schooling" (Holt, 1977) rocked the world, questioning the relevance of schooling. Paulo Freire (1970) described schooling as an act of knowing and not memorisation, a practice of liberation from the slavery of silence. In the words of Albert Einstein (1936), "If a young man has trained his muscles and physical endurance by gymnastics and walking, he will later be fitted for every physical work. This is also analogous to the training of the mind and the mental and manual skills. Thus, the wit was not wrong when defining education: 'Education is that which remains if one has forgotten everything he learned in school.'"

Further, said Albert Einstein,

> I want to oppose the idea that the school has to teach directly that special knowledge and those accomplishments one has to use later in life. The demands of life are much too manifold to make such specialised training in school possible. Apart from that, it seems to me, moreover, objectionable to treat the individual like a dead tool. The school should always aim that the young man leaves it as a harmonious personality, not as a specialist.
>
> (Einstein, 1936)

The challenge before an academic leader is to rekindle the curiosity, urge, and pleasure of learning among all associated with a school, not only students, to make school a learning organisation.

 DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-6

Peter Senge (1990) provided a robust framework for creating learning organisations through five disciplines – systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, and team learning. Several researchers applied the five disciplines for developing a learning organisation (Alharbi, 2021; Gil et al., 2019; Mansor et al., 2019; Paraschiva and Draghici, 2019). This chapter deals with the school as a learning organisation.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Define and describe a learning organisation.
b. Explain Peter Senge's five disciplines of a learning organisation.
c. Critically assess Senge's laws of the fifth discipline.
d. Create a mechanism of individual, team, institutional, and inter-institutional learning.
e. Propose a mechanism for assessing the progress in developing your school as a learning organisation.

Concept and Purpose of Schooling

A walk through the corridors of history would indicate how the concept, or interpretation of schools, has changed over time. In ancient civilisations like India, Greece, China, Egypt, Mesopotamia, and others, education focused on the personal excellence of children of the ruling elite and the priestly class (knowledge seekers – India). The post-industrial era promoted the industrial schooling model, producing predictable product similarities.

Carnoy (1974) saw schooling as a means of colonising students' minds that serves the capitalist system; schooling is meant to centralise and "legitimise the power in the hands of a few nations and within the elite class within the nation."

> Schools channel youth into the status and occupational roles in ways that support the inheritance of privileges from generation to generation, both implemented and legitimised by tests, grades and certificates – always distorted in favour of the children of the ruling elite.
>
> (Bowman, 1974, p833)

Carnoy's contention explains the conditions of education in African and part of Asian colonies. Bowles and Gintis (1976), in their Marxist analysis of *Schooling in Capitalist America*, describe how schools prepare the workforce for the production system of a capitalist system of the economy for a life of exploitation. Instead of nurturing merits, education promotes inequality. The research evidence of Coleman et al. (1966), Jencks et al. (1972), and

Husen and Boalt (1968) support this contention that education promotes inequality based on social and economic class. Paulo Freire (1970) promoted the pedagogy of liberation; education as cultural action for freedom. It would be interesting to note the convergence of purpose and role of schooling in the ancient feudal and modern capitalist societies. Neoliberalism carried on the discourse on how schools prepare students for the neoliberal economy, an inevitable outcome of the capitalist economy (Davies and Bansel, 2007).

The futility of schooling as an equaliser and meritocracy has been brought to the surface by several other works (Davies and Bansel 2007; Freire, 1970; Gray and Riley, 2013; Holt, 1977; Illich, 1970; Ravitch, 2010). Illich (1970) promoted the concept of deschooling as he believed that school stands between the learner and learning; school corrupts people instead of facilitating learning (Gobby and Millei, 2017). The National Commission on Excellence in Education's 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk*, is another worth citing document in this context.

The UN movement on Education for All in the 1990s, starting with the Jomtien Conference in 1990 and leading to MDG (for 2015) and SDG (for 2030), responds to the challenge of colonising students' minds for serving the cause of capitalism. Albert Einstein's address in 1936 at the New York State College is worth referring to in the context of the new humanistic agenda of schooling,

> knowledge of truth alone does not suffice; on the contrary, this knowledge must continually be renewed by ceaseless effort if it is not be lost. It resembles a statue of marble that stands in the desert and is continually threatened with burial by the shifting sand. The hands of service must ever be at work so that the marble continues lastingly to shine in the sun. To these serving hands mine shall also belong.

That is the spirit of a learning organisation.

Learning Organisation Defined

Organisational learning and learning organisation are the two concepts and phrases frequently appearing in organisational discourse on learning. Organisational learning accrues through experience by repeatedly handling a situation, like organising an annual day or parent–teacher meeting. Learning organisation is a structural innovation that focuses on the continuous development of the staff to cope with new challenges thus far unknown. Reviewing and reflecting on a few definitions may be helpful.

According to Peter Senge (1990), learning organisations are: "organisations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are

nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together" (p3).

Learning organisations are "skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge and at modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights" (Garvin, 1993, p80); facilitate the learning of all its members; and continuously transform themselves to meet their strategic goals (Pedler et al., 1991; Watkins and Marsick, 1993).

Doyle and Johnson (2019), based upon a review of definitions, concluded,

> A learning organisation is leader-orchestrated with a vision focused on the future of learning and intentionally building individual, team, and organisational capabilities by instituting a culture that embraces technology, diversity and develops talent to facilitate knowledge creation and management to meet customer needs in a rapidly changing and complex environment.
>
> (p7)

Doyle and Johnson's particular reference is on the leader, agreeably foundational, for steering and sustaining learning organisations.

Thus, a learning organisation is an organisation that continuously reviews its performance, identifies factors affecting performance, redefines its philosophy, vision, and targets, and makes deliberate attempts to learn new knowledge, skills, and attitudes to achieve new goals and targets through innovative ways of working and achieving goals.

School as a Learning Organisation

Despite several efforts, there is no consensus on what makes a school a learning organisation. Kools and Stoll (2016) provide a comprehensive school assessment as a learning organisation. Silins et al. (2002) described

> Schools as learning organisations employ processes of environmental scanning; develop shared goals; establish collaborative teaching and learning environments; encourage initiatives and risk-taking; regularly review all aspects related to and influencing the work of the school; recognise and reinforce good work; and, provide opportunities for continuing professional development.
>
> (pp26–27)

Senge et al. (2012) described the "School as Learning Organisation" as one that is:

> Re-created, made vital, and sustainably renewed not by fiat or command, and not by regulation, but by taking a learning orientation.

> This means involving everyone in the system to express their aspirations, build awareness, and develop their capabilities. In a school that learns, people who traditionally may have been suspicious of one another - parents and teachers, educators and local business people, administrators and union members, people inside and outside the school walls, students and adults - recognise their common stake in the future of the school system and the things they can learn from one another.
>
> (p5)

Learning organisation is a continuum without limits. Most schools, more or less, stay stable on different points of the continuum. Good schools demonstrate good performance with the same activities and procedures yearly. Weak schools exhibit the same behaviour on the other end of the continuum. Learning organisations do not stay at the same or similar locations on the continuum; they move forward. Hence, learning (organisation) schools (LS) are dynamic; they make continuous progress.

Schools that continuously learn and innovate to facilitate continuous professional learning of their staff to solve problems with collective intelligence ensuring every child learns, experiments, and innovates in a change-prone, psychologically secure ambience providing quality education for every student is LS.

Peter Senge's Five Disciplines

Peter Senge (1990) claimed that shared vision, systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, and team learning are the five disciplines that converge to create innovative learning organisations. Senge further argued that though these disciplines are developed separately, "each will … prove critical to the others' success." These five disciplines are vital for organisations to learn and "continually enhance their capacity to realise their highest aspirations" (Figure 6.1).

Systems Thinking

A school, as an organisation, comprises several sub-structures, e.g. the principal and the leadership team, departments, examination unit, administration and accounts, student welfare, physical infrastructures, and Information and Communications Technology (ICT) facilities. Some processes include curricular planning, teaching–learning, admission, examination, and networking. Systems thinking recognises that every structural and process components are interrelated. Peter Senge called it Circles of Causality. Any change in one sub-structure and process causes a change in one or all other components. For example, teacher motivation induces student motivation,

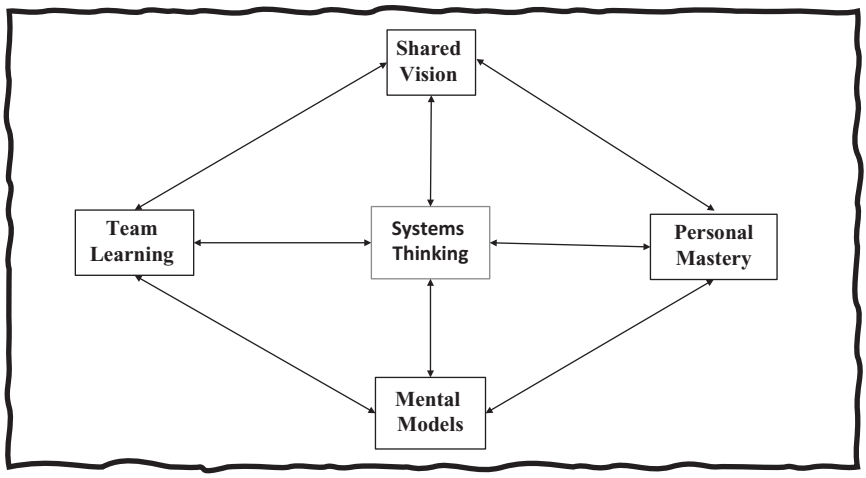

Figure 6.1 Five Disciplines of Learning Organisation

leading teachers and students to strive for excellence. Systems thinking is understanding how different domains of school management are tied in causal loops; understanding how a change in one dimension stirs a series of changes in other dimensions.

Personal Mastery

Personal mastery is the discipline of learning to continuously expand the ability to "create the results in life they truly seek" (Senge); continually clarifying and deepening (Self-Leadership International 2020), focusing on personal energies, developing patience, and seeing realities objectively. People with a high level of personal mastery can consistently realise the results that matter most deeply to them (Senge, 2012). Personal mastery is taking charge of oneself. Personal mastery is guided by an internal locus of control (Rotter, 1966), where external factors cannot toss the person around. Personal mastery is leading the self; indeed, mastery of emotional intelligence (Change Forum, n.d.). Cropper (n.d.) spelt out personal mastery as:

1. *Personal vision* is how one sees the future and chooses to live one's life.
2. *Personal purpose* provides directions for achieving the personal vision.
3. *Personal values* anchor actions to justify what one chooses to do.
4. *Personal alignment* is the synergy of personal vision, purpose, and values creating the power to achieve. The non-alignment creates chaos frittering away the opportunities for personal mastery.

5. *Personal perception* is how we perceive ourselves – our self-concept, self-identity, and world view through which we see others and the world outside ourselves.
6. *Personal awareness* is how much we know our desires, needs and wants, preferences, likes and dislikes, etc.
7. *Personal transformation* is powered by the personal vision, purpose, and values and skills in personal alignment, perception and awareness, and personal mastery.

The seven attributes are, indeed, seven steps towards personal transformation inspired by the vision and purpose.

Mental Models

A mental model is a prism through which we see the world outside and interpret it. In other words, the individual's world view guides the individual to observe and interpret events, activities, and people. According to Peter Senge, "mental models are assumptions, generalisations, pictures and images deeply rooted in our minds and can influence how we understand the world and our actions" (WDHB, 2020).

The mental model concept can be seen in McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, Dweck's (2006) concepts of fixed and growth mindset, *Learned Helplessness* (Peterson et al., 1996), and *Learned Optimism* (Seligman, 1996), and Eric Berne's (1961) concept of life script.

Our lives are guided by a script (like a script in a drama) written during the first five years based on the strokes we receive from our parents and others who closely interact with us (Berne, 1972). Berne identified seven "script apparatus" (Rigler, n.d.). These are payoff or curse describing parental messages how we will end up; injunctions or negative commands of parents; counter script – "A possible life plan based on parental precepts"; modelling and copying behaviour; provocation or come-on confirming our script belief, "I told you"; the demon – internal and unpredictable behaviour; and anti-script – when a person rewrites the script eliminating the unhelpful script elements.

The mental model is an essential discipline that opens (or restricts) the view of the world that is necessary for shaping learning organisations. Personal mastery can help to understand and transform the mental model.

Shared Vision

Building a shared vision is accepting and owning one common future image of the institution – which members of the school fraternity want to reach. Vision is not just a statement. It is a statement of inspiration owned by

everyone to take the journey together. Institutional vision is often decided at the top and passed down to the staff and the students. "If people feel left out, resentment may fester" (Foster, 2017).

A shared vision is a vision that is shared and owned by everyone. It creates ownership among the staff necessary for collectively setting and striving to achieve the goals of a learning organisation. The convergence of personal visions with the institutional vision smoothens the journey of a learning school (LS). On the contrary, conflict or mismatch between individual and institutional vision compels schools to maintain the status quo or eventually decline.

Team Learning

Senge stated, "where people are continually learning how to learn together" is the spirit of team learning. The discipline stipulates teams as the fundamental units of learning and not individuals. The members can confront differences in mental models and personal mastery attributes through team learning, mutually helping personal transformation. Senge, for team learning, preferred dialogue that helps participants develop an agreeable understanding rather than a discussion that tries to win over others on the point of view. Senge (1990) described the following (in Chapter 4) as the laws of the fifth discipline:

1. Today's problems come from yesterday's solutions.
2. The harder you push, the harder the system pushes back.
3. Behaviour grows better before it grows worse.
4. The easy way out usually leads back in.
5. The cure can be worse than the disease.
6. Faster is slower.
7. Cause and effect are not closely related in time and space.
8. Small changes can produce big results – but the areas of highest leverage are often the least obvious.
9. You can have your cake and eat it, but not at once.
10. Dividing an elephant in half does not produce two small elephants.
11. There is no blame.

Several scholars have explained and interpreted Senge's 11 laws (Kang, 2019; Felicia, n.d.).

Theory into Action: Changing School as a LS

There are several models of transforming a school into a learning organisation. Peter Senge's five disciplines, Garvin's five pillars (1993), Garvin et al.'s

(2008) building block model, Gandolfi's (2006) four-cornered 14-step model, and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)'s guidelines are worth examining.

Peter Senge's Model

Converting a school into a learning organisation implies activating Peter Senge's five disciplines:

- Cultivating a systems view among all stakeholders, bringing each one of them out from their respective roles defined in the conventional understanding of the school organisation into the open to understand and appreciate the school as a composite organisation; interrelationships and interdependence of various academic and non-academic components; and awareness that no single unit can perform alone without mutual support.
- Developing a collective and shared vision owned by all school community members. A practical yet inspiring vision can be translated by deconstructing into missions and setting goals and targets higher than the current level of performance. The emphasis is on collectively developing and sharing the vision so that everyone owns it and proudly claims to have contributed to shaping the vision.
- Cultivating personal mastery of all individuals in the school with a unique vision, purpose, values, alignments, perceptions, and awareness leads to personal transformation through a series of well-designed personal excellence programmes, helping develop personal mastery, worth referring to Maslow's self-actualising and self-transcendence needs.
- Uncovering the mental models that host the assumptions, generalisations, pictures and images deeply rooted in the minds of everyone in the school, as these influence how we understand the world, our school, and our actions. Dialogue is recommended as a means "to suspend defensive exchanges that probe why these exchanges, unlearn old practices that have outlived their usefulness and discard processes that may have worked in the past" (Gandolfi, 2006, p58).
- Resorting to team learning so that people continue to learn how to learn together, incorporating individual self-learning, group or team learning, institutional learning, and inter-institutional learning through knowledge management.

Garvin's Five-Step Model

The Harvard Business Review article by Garvin (1993) outlines five steps for building a learning organisation.

- The first step is systematic problem solving. The school learns to rely on scientific methods for diagnosing problems rather than by guesswork steered by assumptions and generalisations using methods of troubleshooting or Deming's PDSA cycle; data-based decision-making; and use of statistical tools like histograms, Pareto charts, correlations, and cause-and-effect diagrams to organise data and draw inferences.
- The second step is experimenting with innovative ideas, demonstrating and incentivising ongoing successful programmes while examining how the success can be further enhanced.
- The third is learning from past experiences. Schools must examine successes and failures to learn from experiences; also, a school must build a mechanism of examining collective experiences as one teacher may succeed in implementing blended learning when others may fail, for example. "Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it" (George Santayana's title, The Life of Reason, 1905). And lamented that "too many managers today are indifferent, even hostile, to the past, and by failing to reflect on it, they let valuable knowledge escape."
- The fourth block is learning from others. Garvin cautions that all learning may not come from contemplation and reflection. Schools must learn from others. In Garvin's words, "enthusiastic borrowing replaces the 'not invented here' syndrome. Garvin referred to Milliken's 'Steal Ideas Shamelessly (SIS)'; the broader term is benchmarking."
- The fifth pillar is transferring knowledge. For organisational learning, knowledge must quickly and efficiently reach throughout the organisation.

Garvin et al. (2008) revised the five-pillar model of developing learning organisation into three building blocks. The three building blocks are a supportive learning environment ensuring psychological safety about expressing their thoughts and apprehensions and works at hand, appreciation of differences, openness to new ideas, and time for reflection. The second building block is concrete learning processes and practices involving generation, collection, classification, interpretation and dissemination of information; experimentation to develop new ways of solving problems and new services, demonstrating understanding and use of new technologies; systematic approach to identify problems and solve problems; and continuous professional development programmes to all staff – old and new. The third building block is leadership, which reinforces learning.

Garvin et al. (2008) asserted that "When leaders demonstrate through their behaviour a willingness to entertain alternative points of view, employees feel emboldened to offer new ideas and options." When leaders actively question and listen to staff and generate debate and dialogue, staff feel encouraged to question ideas and existing practices and learn.

Gandolfi Model

Gandolfi (2006) analysed business process engineering, dialogue, scenario analysis, and learning history as the four strategies for developing a learning organisation.

- Business process engineering encourages innovations – new ways of doing things rather than making old processes faster and more efficient. One school metaphor for business process engineering is adopting blended learning instead of improving lectures.
- Dialogue is to uncover the assumptions and generalisations that quietly control mental models.
- Scenario analysis helps to imagine the organisation's future and convert perceived possibilities into organisational narratives or visions.
- Learning history is essential for creating a learning community. "A 'learning history' is a unique approach for helping an organisation learn from the experience and implications of its learning and change initiatives. All efforts to transform organisations sooner or later run against the challenge of proving their value" (CCS: MIT, Learning History Project).

Gandolfi offers a 14-step model for converting a school into a learning organisation. The first set of four steps is diagnostic, comprising analysis of the existing school culture (not yet a learning organisation), perceived ideal learning organisation school culture, discrepancies between existing and perceived ideal learning organisation school culture, and identifying perceived shortcomings. These four exercises are themselves attributes of a learning organisation. In other words, the school's conversion into a learning organisation starts with these diagnostic steps.

These diagnostic steps will likely point to four elements: leadership, culture, innovation and communication, and professional development and recognition deficiencies.

The third set comprises dialogues, scenario analysis, and learning history as the interventions concerning organisational emotion. These diagnostic steps or business process engineering, followed by dialogue, scenario analysis, and learning history, should change the school into a learning organisation with continuous improvement and better ability to change as sterling attributes (please refer to Figure 6.1, Learning Organisation Model for School Organisation by Gandolfi, 2006, for clarity).

Kools et al. (2020) developed a school as a learning organisation scale that expands and clarifies the concept on several points. The results showed that such a school is associated with eight dimensions:

1. "A shared vision centred on the learning of all students.

2. Partners contributing to school vision.
3. Continuous learning opportunities.
4. Team learning and collaboration.
5. A culture of enquiry, innovation, and exploration.
6. Systems for collecting and exchanging knowledge and learning.
7. Learning with and from the external environment.
8. Modelling learning leadership."

OECD Guidelines

OECD (2016) provides guidelines for policymakers, school leaders, and teachers. The guidelines list 49 steps/activities classified under seven broad heads:

1. *Developing and sharing a vision centred on the learning of all students*: There are two attributes. One is developing the vision by involving all staff, parents, students, and the community. The second is tuning the instructional process for realising the vision by ensuring a broad range of learning outcomes for all students.
2. *Creating and supporting continuous learning opportunities for all staff*: All staff are engaged in identifying the priorities of their own professional learning needs, professional learning that encourages thinking, and work-based learning and are focused on student learning and school goals. Newly recruited staff receives induction and mentoring. Professional learning is strengthened based on assessment and feedback; school promotes and supports professional learning.
3. *Promoting team learning and collaboration among all staff*: Staff learn to work together in teams with mutual trust and respect and feel comfortable consulting and seeking advice, engaging in reflection and dialogue to open up, and making learning deeper; they engage in collaborative learning. The schools provide opportunities and resources for collaborative work and learning together.
4. *Establishing a culture of inquiry, innovation, and exploration*: Staff have open minds and feel psychologically safe to innovate to do things differently and experiment to extend their practices as a part of school culture. Students are also actively engaged in inquiry-based learning. The experiments, innovations, and inquiries create a new learning rhythm, innovation, and change.
5. *Embedding systems for collecting and exchanging knowledge and learning*: Identifying gaps between intended and actual impacts through careful analysis of data through multiple sources and dialogues and knowledge exchange; staff accessing research evidence; and examples of good and bad practices to analyse. The school development plan is based on evidence and updated regularly based on evaluation, including the impact of professional learning.

6. *Learning with and from the external environment and larger learning system*: As an open system, schools scan the external environment to identify learning opportunities, potential collaborators, and school networks for mutual learning. The school participates in school networks and partners with external institutions, organisations, and individual experts to enrich the learning rhythm. Schools liberally and effectively use ICT facilities for knowledge exchange and collaboration.
7. *Modelling and growing learning leadership*: School models on learning leadership to help grow leadership at various levels, including students, and create distributed leadership. The leaders ensure the alignment of all actions with the school vision, goals, and values. They facilitate professional dialogue, collaboration, and knowledge exchange; ensure the rhythm of learning, innovation, and change; participate and generate collaboration with other schools, higher education institutions, parents, community, and other stakeholders.

The conversion of a school into a learning organisation can be seen as a three-phase development. The zero phase is the decision to change, the decision to improve. The zero phase may not be as easy as it appears to be. It requires involving and convincing everyone that the school can do better; indeed, inducing a growth mindset replacing the fixed mindset.

Once the decision is taken to change and improve, the next step is documenting the baseline – where does the school stand now regarding the criteria for assessing a learning organisation. It would be good if you and your staff could see an effective school as a sample.

Next is to create a vision or a narrative of your school. A critical analysis of the gap between the existing state or baseline and the future narrative or vision would help diagnose the causes. The analysis should indicate four deficiencies: ambition deficiency, leadership deficiency, staff professional learning deficiency, and quality culture deficiency. To bridge the gap, the school needs carefully chosen quality intervention (QI) like

- Developing a shared vision for meeting ambition deficiency.
- Adopting academic leadership complemented by identifying and nurturing leaders at programme, project, and activity levels, leading to collective leadership and leaderful practices enabling to bridge the leadership gap.
- Inducing continuous professional learning of all staff combined with assessment and recognition of learning outcomes for cultivating a learning culture.
- Developing an open and quality culture where academic leader participates in questioning and dialogue, making staff feel safe to express their concerns, apprehensions, and enthusiasm to innovate and experiment.

However, these activities may not change and improve if pushed down from the top. The cardinal principle of school effectiveness is the participation of all from end to end.

Since the learning organisation is dynamic, it will need continuous improvement and self-renewal, and there will be a need to mount evaluation and audit. Garvin et al. (2008) and Kools et al. (2020) developed instruments for assessment to respond to questions about whether a school is a learning organisation. Kools et al. (2020) tool comprises 65 items with established psychometric properties. You can collectively question the degree of achievement against each goal and the quality of processes and outcomes, e.g. professional learning.

Key Takeaways

1. Schools have the potential to develop themselves as learning organisations. However, not many schools are learning. That probably explains, at least partly, how inequality is perpetuated through, or despite, schooling.
2. The challenge before an academic leader is to rekindle the curiosity, urge, and pleasure of learning among all, not only students, and convert a school organisation into a learning organisation.
3. Different schools of thought have interpreted the concept and purpose of schooling. A dominant school sees schooling as the mechanism of colonising students' minds to serve the cause of capitalism.
4. A learning organisation is an organisation that continuously reviews its performance, identifies factors affecting performance, redefines its philosophy, vision, and targets, and makes deliberate attempts to learn new knowledge, skills and attitudes to achieve new goals and targets through innovative ways of working and achieving goals.
5. Schools that facilitate continuous learning of their staff to solve problems with collective intelligence ensuring every child learns and schools that experiment and innovate in a change-prone, psychologically secure ambience providing quality education for every student are learning schools.
6. Peter Senge defined a learning organisation to have five disciplines: systems thinking, shared vision, team learning, personal mastery, and mental models.
7. There are several models proposed for converting a school into a learning organisation. One such model is activating Peter Senge's five disciplines.
8. Garvin proposed a five-stage model comprising problem solving, experimenting with innovative ideas, learning from experience, learning from others, and transferring knowledge.
9. Garvin and others proposed a supportive learning environment, concrete learning processes and practices, and leadership that reinforces learning as the three building blocks of a learning organisation.

10. Gandolfi proposed a 14-stage model built around business process engineering, dialogue, scenario analysis, and history of learning.
11. The OECD provided a 49-step guideline clubbed under seven clusters for developing the school as a learning organisation. The seven clusters are 'developing and sharing a vision centred on the learning of all students; creating and supporting continuous learning opportunities for all staff; promoting team learning and collaboration among all staff; establishing a culture of inquiry, innovation, and exploration; embedding systems for collecting and exchanging knowledge and learning; learning with and from the external environment and the larger learning system; and modelling and growing learning leadership.'
12. A school can be converted into a learning organisation by filling the ambition deficiency with a shared vision, academic leadership at all levels bridging the leadership gap, professional learning of all staff to bridge the learning gap and cultivate a learning culture, and developing an open and quality culture to bridge the culture gap.

Please Check your Learning Outcomes

1. Please describe Peter Senge's five disciplines in the context of your school.
2. What steps would you take to create a shared vision to assess and change the mental models and initiate team learning?
3. Develop an outline of a strategic plan for developing your school as a learning organisation.

7

LEADING PROFESSIONAL LEARNING

Introduction

Collective teacher efficacy is the most powerful influencer of students' success (Hattie, 2017). Collective teacher efficacy is the function of continuous professional learning of teachers necessary for developing learning schools (LSs). On-the-job staff training is one of the cardinal principles of quality management (Deming, 1986, 1993; Mukhopadhyay, 2020).

Professional learning implies learning professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes to stay informed and relevant. Since knowledge changes fast, teachers need to be frequently updated. Once-in-a-while staff development programmes are inadequate response to the complex challenge. The appropriate response is to lead teachers to individual self- and group learning through self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 2008). This approach helps develop each teacher as a self-regulated lifelong learner.

The emphasis and massive investments in in-service education do not correspond with teacher improvement and effectiveness. There is a need to find new ways and innovate result-oriented in-service education for teachers. Hence, there is a need for a staff development model that involves everyone providing learning and development opportunities as per the needs of the individual member of the staff focused on school vision and personal self-fulfilment.

Some scholars argue that educational planning fails to produce the desired results because of an insufficiently broad view. They argue for the integrated development of human competence as central to education development, asking for re-establishing the linkages of a broader range of human competence beyond their day-to-day work in the school (Chinapah et al., 1989). For school effectiveness, the academic leader should lead teachers in professional learning. This chapter will deal with how to lead teachers in professional learning. We will discuss thematic and non-thematic Faculty Development Programme (FDP), Continuous Professional Development (CPD), and Empowering Workshop models. This chapter will also present innovative Self-regulated Professional Learning (SRPL)

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-7

and Researcher–Practitioner Collaborative (RPC) models of professional learning.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

1. Analyse the strengths and weaknesses of the current in-service education practices.
2. Critically analyse the difference between professional learning and conventional capacity-building approach to staff development.
3. Plan and adopt the SRPL model for creating personal mastery.
4. Evaluate the intended and unintended outcomes and impact of the SRPL and RPC models on teacher effectiveness.

Goals and Opportunities of Professional Learning

The goals of professional learning are linked to effecting teacher behaviour modification and improving teacher effectiveness – equipping teachers with relevant academic and professional knowledge, skills, and passion for using the knowledge and skills to enhance the quality of school experience and learning outcomes of students. As school effectiveness demands continuous learning and self-renewal, the goal of professional learning should be to develop change proneness and innovativeness among teachers and the academic leadership team. For sustainability, the knowledge and skills must have a robust foundation of awareness (Figure 7.1).

A broad awareness is necessary as a teacher faces students with diverse interests and skills. She must be able to relate to students in their zones of interest to be effective. At the awareness level, a teacher does not have to be knowledgeable; instead, she needs a large amount of information that helps her engage with students with diverse interests and nurtures her intellectual

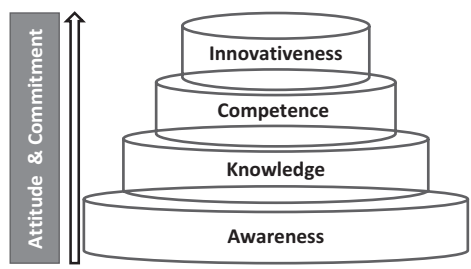

Figure 7.1 Levels of Professional Learning

curiosity. Participation in conferences, seminars, and symposia can serve this purpose.

At the next level, a teacher needs to be knowledgeable about developments in academic and professional knowledge domains. A teacher must stay updated on her subject and allied subjects. For example, in phenomena-based learning, students are expected to examine a phenomenon and learn through an interdisciplinary approach. It is necessary for the teacher also to develop knowledge and skills in interdisciplinary studies. This level of goal can be achieved through participation in thematic FDPs.

The third level is the skills and competency development in the content, pedagogy, and life skills. Classroom management and involvement of parents in children's education and school development, though not a part of the teacher training programmes, are also the skills and competencies for a teacher to be effective. Workshops and blended models of CPD that integrate hands-on-practice elements may support this goal.

At the higher level are innovativeness and creativity. The SRPL and RPC models where teachers and academic leaders self-direct and self-manage their learning are best suited for cultivating innovativeness.

The common goal of professional learning across all four levels is developing appropriate attitudes and commitment and change proneness among teachers and academic leaders.

Professional Learning

Professional learning is learning professional knowledge and skills to enhance role effectiveness. Nature, rather than content, of professional learning changes according to the roles of teachers and non-teaching staff, supervisors, and principals. However, for school effectiveness, professional learning is necessary for all.

Teachers' professional learning envisages stimulating thinking and continually updating knowledge and skills to help improve students' learning outcomes and achieve the school's vision and missions. In professional learning, the emphases is on "learning" by the individual and team members of the staff and on the continuity of learning. The professional learning for school effectiveness should include continuous upgradation of content, pedagogy and employability skills and knowledge, and the ability and willingness to apply through commitment, competence, and learnability (Table 7.1).

The conventional in-service teacher education programmes focus on pedagogical training and content upgradation. For school effectiveness, the metrics need to include the development of commitment to grow, maybe a growth mindset, conceptual complexity (Harvey, Hunt and Schroeder, 1961), and competence. Commitment and conceptual complexity facilitate

Table 7.1 Professional Learning Metrics

	Content	*Pedagogy*	*Employability/life skills*
Commitment			
Competence			
Conceptual complexity or learnability			

learning skills and competence. Based on the combinations of these three attributes, a school will have teachers with:

- High commitment, competence, and learnability.
- High commitment, low competence (to begin with), and high learnability.
- High commitment, low competence, and low learnability.
- Low commitment, high learnability, and competence.
- Low commitment, low learnability, and low competence.

The development of pedagogical skills cannot be seen independent of content, technology, and employability skills. The science of content–pedagogy–technology (Mishra and Koehler, 2006) indicated the dependence of pedagogical choices upon the nature of the content, e.g. science and mathematics, social sciences and humanities and languages. Life skills (also considered employability skills) are significant determinants of teacher effectiveness (Mathews and Nair 2018).

The professional learning metrics may be useful to map the learning needs of every academic and non-academic staff member and the leadership team. Every teacher doesn't learn the same way. There must be an opportunity for every teacher to create one's learning pathway and develop the learning curve. Teachers should be able to choose what, how, and when to learn.

The conventional FDPs adopt lectures often without any learning material. There is a paradigm shift. There is a massive amount of learning resources in the form of text, video, audio, images, games, animations, etc., accessible online. At the initiative of UNESCO, there is a huge amount of open educational resources (OER). The most significant advantage of online resources is the flexibility of time, space, and pace. The professional learning framework must include learning resources, especially open education resources.

Pattern of Participation

There are three visible trends of participation in staff development programmes. These are:

1. A few teachers, often two or three, are deputed to participate in an FDP with teachers from other schools. The realised learning from such programmes is usually negligible. Back to the school, these few teachers attending such programmes face powerful countervailing innovation-resisting forces.
2. A stronger team of ten or more teachers are deputed to participate in an FDP with teachers from a limited number of four or five schools. This model is usually adopted for workshops. Because of the large number, the teachers get the strength to innovate and meet the countervailing forces.
3. All teachers participate in a designer programme for the school staff.
4. A programme designed for school effectiveness where all members of the academic leadership team and teachers participate.

Academic leaders' role is the most significant determinant of the impact of staff training, especially in the first three types of participation.

Theoretical Foundations

For effectiveness, staff development needs to be founded on a sound theoretical construct based on the nature and styles of adult learners like teachers, non-teaching staff, and the academic leadership team. The pedagogical approach for school students does not fit well with adult learning. Andragogy, Heutagogy, and Self-regulated learning provide a sound basis for staff development. One can derive lessons from Robert Kozma's (2011) Knowledge Ladder concept and Martin Seligman's Pleasure–Engagement–Transformation continuum.

Andragogy

What pedagogy is for the kids, andragogy is for the adults. Adults don't learn the same way as children. Adults learn differently (Knowles, 1968; Moberg, 2006; Simpson, 1964). Teachers, non-teaching staff, and academic leaders, as adult learners, learn better with andragogical practices. Malcolm Knowles formulated six principles of andragogy:

1. Adults need to be respected. They learn better when treated as equals; their voice and viewpoints are acknowledged. They learn better when they actively engage in discourse rather than listening.
2. Adults are knowledgeable and experienced. They value and trust their learning and experience. They must find opportunities to draw upon their learning and experience. They quietly withdraw from the learning exercises when they feel their knowledge and experience are not valued.
3. Adults take decisions at home, in social groups, and on the job. They are self-directed and internally motivated. Adults learn better when involved in learning activities of their own will rather than be directed on what, how, and when to learn.

4. Adults learn better when learning tasks help them discharge their roles and responsibilities better and when they find relevance and appreciate how the learning would help them achieve their goals.
5. Teachers prefer content and theories relevant to their school work as adult learners.
6. Adults, by nature of their roles and responsibilities, solve problems. They need learning experiences that help them solve problems as they perceive and experience them.

Adult learners are self-directed (Knowles, 1975). Hence, self-directed and self-regulated learning blended with adult learning principles work better for teachers.

Heutagogy is self-determined learning where learners choose questions and answer, thereby discovering for themselves. Heutagogy is also defined as the management of self-managed learners (Heick, 2022). The pedagogy, andragogy, and heutagogy can be seen in a continuum (Figure 7.2).

This model defines pedagogy, andragogy, and heutagogy in terms of utility based on learner maturity and tutor control. With increasing learner maturity, andragogy and heutagogy are the appropriate learning science. The Heutagogical concept of self-directed learning got further strengthened in self-regulated learning.

Self-Regulated Learning

Schunk and Zimmerman (2008) described self-regulation as how an individual initiates and maintains the cognitive, affective and behaviours to attain learning goals through systematic orientation. Self-regulated

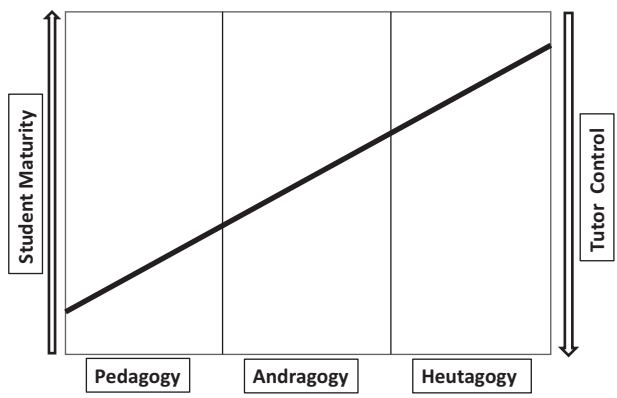

Figure 7.2 Pedagogy, Andragogy, and Heutagogy

learning is the sustainable means of developing individuals as lifelong self-learners.

Education takes shape under certain regulating conditions. Teachers in school and parents at home regulate students' learning activities through assignments and activities setting the game's rules, e.g. attentively listening to the teacher, taking notes, and doing homework. The school timetable is another regulatory mechanism. At home, regulations are staying away from distractors like TV shows, surfing the mobile phone, completing the homework, sticking to the home study regime, etc., set by the adults. The school staff, as adults, do not need and enjoy such external regulations. Adults learn better through motivation, self-direction, and self-regulation.

Self-regulated learning comprises three phases: forethought (planning), performance, and self-reflection. Since learning is seamless, the self-reflection phase should roll on to improved forethought and consequent performance (Zimmerman and Campillo, 2003). The research on self-regulated learning indicates that self-regulated learners perform better in achievement tests and later in life (Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons, 1986; Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons, 1988; Schunk and Zimmerman, 1998). Further, self-regulated learning is cultivable, though most teachers don't self-regulate their learning and prepare the students for self-regulated learning (Zimmerman et al., 1996). DiBenedetto (2011), modelling on Zimmerman (her doctoral guide), proposed a four-stage model of self-regulated learning comprising

- Observation of the life of the model.
- Emulating where students can work independently to achieve their goals and targets and nurture their aspirations.
- Self-control to internalise learning and a step towards self-regulation.
- Encouraging learners to believe that they can learn themselves.

The teachers who practise self-regulated learning demonstrate the value and techniques of self-regulated learning to students.

Knowledge Ladder Model

Kozma (2011) classified institutions into four levels: basic education, acquiring, deepening, and creating knowledge. These four stages make a lot of meaning for nurturing lifelong self-learners.

Basic education can be described as teacher-delivered knowledge, similar to direct instruction (Rosenshine, 2009). Knowledge acquisition is a mixed model. According to Kozma (2011), a teacher or a trainer delivers a lecture using PowerPoint Slides. The learners are then given an assignment or a set of questions to explore on the internet, discuss with peers, and create a brief note. The trainer then asks a few questions to respond to or present the group learning reports. Notably, learners are more active in the knowledge

acquisition level. Responsibility for learning is shared between the tutor and the learner.

Deepening knowledge happens when learners access learning material from multiple sources authored by multiple authors, compare, and contrast; they discover commonalities, differences, and contradictions. The learning deepens when they discuss in peer groups and discover more learning materials. The learning becomes more profound when the group documents and reflects on their learning (metacognitive exercise).

Kozma (2011) cited students and teachers exploring together, consulting university professors, and creating a report on local climate change events as the case of creating knowledge.

Martin Seligman's pleasure, engagement, and transformation are relevant here. The conventional lecture-based staff development serves the pleasure needs without any transforming effect. Engagement is necessary for transformation. An important objective of staff development is the modification of behaviour. Self-directed and self-regulated learning ensures engagement providing a better chance of behaviour modification and effectiveness.

Staff Development Models

There are several models of in-service teacher development. Let us examine a few of them.

Mass Orientation Programme

The mass orientation model is occasionally used to orient teachers on common issues like new educational policies. Its purpose is to develop awareness and conscientisation, not the capacity building. The Ministry of Human Resource Development (Government of India) launched the Program of Mass Orientation of School Teachers (PMOST) to orient teachers on recommendations of the National Policy on Education 1986, followed by the Special Orientation Program for Primary School Teachers (SOPT) for quality improvement of primary education in the early 1990s. The National Educators Academy of the Philippines offered a Ceremonial Mass Orientation of Teachers on NEAP Communications Package in 2021. Mass orientation is done through lectures occasionally backed by learning material. Mass media and technology-mediated means have also been used for mass orientation. NEP2020 is also being followed up with mass orientation programmes for developing awareness about policy recommendations and their implications for implementation.

Faculty Development Programme or the FDP Model

FDP is a commonly used model. There is more than one type of FDP – non-thematic and thematic. In non-thematic FDP, resource persons are invited

to address the participants on a theme of their choice, often unrelated to each other, without any training design. In thematic FDPs, a theme is chosen. The theme is deconstructed into subthemes. These subthemes are interrelated and sometimes interdependent; hence, these themes are sequenced logically.

In the FDP model, teachers from different schools with different academic backgrounds and experiences gather together, usually 40 and above. According to the schedule, trainers deliver lectures with or without any technological aids. Occasionally, there may be a few questions. This lecture-based in-service education goes on throughout the day and through all the days of the training programmes. It is a typical replica of school classrooms; the teacher trainers teach the teachers how to teach their young students. In thematic FDPs, training designers build in group problem solving, workshops, and practice sessions.

FDPs, especially non-thematic, may enrich some teachers but empower none. Public school teachers mostly find their training ritualistic and wasteful. When reviewed and followed up by the principal and supervisors, private school teachers find FDPs useful (Bordia, 2019).

While evaluating United Nations Children's Fund's (UNICEF) quality package in primary education, the author found that teachers could hardly remember the themes of the FDPs attended by them. The head teachers did not find any effect of the FDPs on teachers' lesson planning, teaching practices, and student evaluation (Mukhopadhyay, 2006). Manduku et al. (2017) found a positive relationship between in-service teacher training and planning of instruction, content delivery, student evaluation, and development of student–teacher relationships. Another study found that students' learning outcomes improve when teachers practice what they learn in in-service training (Roca-Campos et al., 2021). The in-service teacher education is necessary. The impact of teacher education depends upon the training design and implementation.

The conventional FDP model serves the socialisation and pleasure needs where teachers are primarily passive listeners. Lack of engagement fails to create transformative effects.

Workshop Model

The workshop model is focused on developing skills and artefacts. In this model, participants get fully engaged. The learning outcomes are verifiable. Here are three instances:

In a Concept Map Designing Workshop for teachers, each participant produced a concept map on a theme of their choice from school subjects or life-related issues.

Blended Learning Design Workshop

The author conducted a large number of workshops on blended learning design (BLD). Typical workshop steps are:

1. The author (resource person) shares a self-instructional module on BLD well in advance. The self-instructional material comprises theoretical inputs followed by ten activities (Mukhopadhyay, 2022, pp.284–310). It has been designed so that if a teacher takes all the activities, the end product will be BLD on one of the themes she teaches.
2. Teachers attend the workshop after going through the module. Some teachers prepare the BLD following the action steps mentioned in the module and bring them to their workshop (flipped learning).
3. During the 20-hour face-to-face workshop, the resource person(s) spend one hour revisiting the module with the participants.
4. Participants form small groups of five teachers, preferably from the same or similar disciplines like science and maths, social sciences, languages, fine arts, sports, and games.
5. Following a brief presentation by the resource person(s) on the first ten stages of BLD, groups work together to complete the activity. Resource person(s) moves around mentoring teachers and monitoring group processes. Each group or a few sampled groups presents the output of their group work to all participants.
6. This sequence continues till all the ten stages are completed. At the end of the workshop, each teacher carries back BLD on one of the curricular themes selected by her.
7. The final session comprises summarising, revisiting each activity session, and a collective review of the workshop.

Let us see a case of a different kind of workshop on developing one of the employability skills of teachers.

Communication Skills of Workshop for Teachers: A Case

Thirty-six teachers of a school participated in a three-day workshop on communication skills. In the ice-breaking session, teachers chose and answered why communication skills were essential for them. While responding, they extended the boundary from classroom communication to communicating with colleagues and parents in the family and civil society.

This was a video-aided communication workshop. According to the workshop design, each participant chose a theme of their preference, prepared, and made the on-camera presentation. The recorded video was played back for self-feedback, followed by peer feedback. The rule of the game was to identify what was good in communication, followed by what

could be improved. There was a visible enthusiasm to try and improve. Teachers demanded a second opportunity.

In the second round, the teachers were divided into six groups. Each group followed the presentation–recording–feedback cycle and brought back the experience to the plenary.

The exercise in non-verbal communication was done through mime acting. Participants volunteered in teams of two, three, or four. Each group chose a theme. Each team took some time to prepare their role scripts and then acted before all the participants. The mime drama was video-recorded and played back for feedback.

The workshop had, as its product, video recordings and a report, especially participants' reactions and gains. Enthused by the experience, teachers participated in other school-based workshops on painting conducted by the author. Every teacher, irrespective of her previous background and experience, prepared a drawing that was put up for exhibition and assessment by distinguished painters. This was a brain rewiring workshop.

In this model, teachers learn through guided self-learning and collaboration, and the resource person facilitates following the minimally invasive intervention model.

Continuous Professional Development (CPD) Model

CPD is a generic term, often implying frequent training of the staff. Considerable importance is attached to the CPD model, widely used in several countries, for practising and newly recruited school teachers and leaders. In Sweden, for example, courses for school leaders and managers are mandatory for learning finance, law, and pedagogy. Principals are expected to muster newly developed pedagogical tools and techniques.

British Council's (n.d.) CPD framework provides access to self-assessment for teachers and teacher educators of their knowledge and skills in several areas. The Trans European Mobility Program for University Studies (TEMPUS) Consortium of 28 educational institutions and ministries from several countries used CPD to cover a wide range of practices (Zaalouk et al., 2016):

- University and school-based action research.
- Graduate research programmes in the university.
- In-school or university-based occasional events such as short courses.
- Mentoring and coaching.
- Teacher learning communities and other peer support.
- Development through online provisions, including micro-teaching.

Thus, CPD, instead of a particular approach to teacher development, provides a "spectrum of opportunities for teachers to develop professionally"

in various ways. "It might entail the teacher attending lectures, workshops, conferences or support groups, collaborating with other teachers or reflecting individually, and it could involve an element of research (p55)." Zaalouk et al. (2016) mentioned the following as the best practices:

- "Participants of CPD identify their needs for, and the form and the content of, their professional learning in dialogue with others.
- Participants of CPD reflect, talk, inquire and challenge each other collaboratively, within and across institutions, often in learning communities.
- The institution, especially its leadership, makes space and gives support to those who are learning.
- Some input for learning comes from beyond the institution, but the main site for CPD learning is the institution itself." (p55)

Chinapah et al. (2016) added action research and practicum where teachers can experiment with their studied ideas and relate the theory to practice. The CPD as a blended open-ended pedagogical model provides a basketful of opportunities for teachers to choose from for continuous development of their academic and professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

However, CPD is not necessarily focused on the professional learning of staff to achieve school effectiveness. The CPD is likely to have an incidental effect on organisational learning.

Self-Regulated Professional Learning (SRPL) Model

Professional learning is the key to personal mastery (Senge, 1990). Professional learning is *learning* necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes that impact teacher effectiveness through self-regulated learning according to the perceived need for development.

For developing the self-regulated professional learning model, the theoretical inputs were drawn from Malcolm Knowles' Andragogy, Zimmerman's Self-Regulated Learning, Martin Seligman's Pleasure–Engage–Transform continuum; Carol Dweck's Growth Mindset; Robert Kozma's Knowledge Ladder, and author's own Udang experiment.

The main objective of the SRPL model is to develop confidence and competence in the individual, team, and institutional self-learning, the necessary ingredients of a learning school (organisation). The model is based on the assumption that teachers are self-learning organisms; they learn better in teams. The foundation of the SRPL model is group-based self-learning.

The Udang experiment demonstrated that children could learn by themselves given the appropriate environment and learning opportunity (Mitra and Rana, 2001; Mukhopadhyay, 2020; Zielenziger, 1995). Sugata Mitra's Self Organized Learning Environment (SOLE) experiment reconfirmed it further (Mitra, 2003; Mitra and Crawley, 2014).

The lessons from the Udang experiment and SOLE were extended to teachers' professional learning using andragogy and self-regulated learning principles to develop the SRPL model. The model was successfully tried out with 230 teachers in three schools in India and 190 teachers in a Dhaka school in Bangladesh. The sequence of events was:

1. Participants chose a theme for self-regulated learning either on their own or in dialogue with the resource person.
2. School, guided by the principal, formed learning teams of four or five teachers.
3. Each group decided on their strategic plan.
4. Each member explored learning resources, watched online videos on the theme, conducted desktop research, and took notes.
5. The team met and discussed online and offline several times, exchanging notes and views; principals also participated in such discussion sessions.
6. Each team created a document as learning material with proper references, figures, tables, etc.
7. Each team presented the papers in staff seminars for peer orientation and training.
8. The papers were published wherever possible.

Since teachers had to adopt self-regulated learning for mastering other professional learning tasks, Motivation and Self-regulated Learning were strategically chosen as the first learning theme. There were several unintended outcomes and impacts beyond the outputs of papers, seminar presentations, peer workshops, and documents.

- The outcomes were teachers' and school leadership teams' conviction and confidence that they can acquire and deepen their knowledge; they can research and act as in-house experts for staff development; principals can come closer and work together with the teachers to facilitate the evolution of a flat learning organisation.
- These three schools, later, on their own (not prompted by the external mentor), developed documents through group-based self-regulated learning mode on:
    1. *Technology-integrated education*: The team then conducted staff orientation and peer training on the theme (Nair et al., 2022).
    2. *Differentiated instruction*: Another team developed an instructional strategy for differentiated instruction on an experimental basis (action research mode) (Samaddar and Jha, 2022).
    3. *Action research*: The team developed professional literature on action research for experimenting with differentiated instruction.
    4. A case study on hybrid learning.

5. An essay on school effectiveness – what is school effectiveness, the indicators of school effectiveness, factors affecting school effectiveness, and ways and means of improving school effectiveness.
6. Social and emotional well-being of students and teachers.
7. *Growth mindset*: The team developed reading material on growth mindset. (Chellani et al., 2022). The teachers undertook three activities: (a) strategy for developing a growth mindset among the teachers, (b) lesson plans for developing a growth mindset among students, and (c) survey of a growth mindset of teachers in a sample of teachers serving schools in the city. Teachers further innovated by integrating elements of growth mindset development within the subject lesson plans and lesson plans dedicated to growth mindset development.
8. *Research*: The lead principal/director teamed up with a few teachers and surveyed (growth) mindset among school teachers in the township.
9. A team of teachers surveyed the career choices of outgoing students.

The teachers of the school in Dhaka identified eight issues as their learning themes. They followed the same sequence and trained the teachers following the peer-group training model.

Researcher–Practitioner Collaborative (RPC) Model

In RPC, the goal was to synergise the researcher's breadth with the practitioner's deep grounded experience. The expert resource persons often lack experience and understanding of school classrooms and management dynamics. Further, schools need individuation to align with the unique culture, ambitions, and promises made in the vision and mission statements. I experimented with the RPC model on the theme of school effectiveness. Academic leaders and all teachers participated in a three-day programme.

For the RPC model, the author (resource person) prepared learning materials on a few themes related to school effectiveness. Each paper had 30 to 45 references bringing together what the global research and policies say to practitioners on the theme. I shared these papers well in advance with the academic leadership team of the schools. Each principal of the three participating schools was to conduct one session each on three themes. A team of three supervisors – one each from the three participating schools – was formed and invited to conduct one technical session as a team. I also invited external resource persons for a few other themes.

Principals and the supervisor team prepared PowerPoint presentation (PPT) slides utilising the reading material. They made additional inputs from their knowledge, experience, and interpretations of my contentions.

Each session had presentations, interactions, idea display, gaming, and group assignments.

As a co-faculty, I was present in all the sessions with minimal intervention supporting the leading faculty wherever needed, mentoring group assignments, and providing process feedback.

The principals and the supervisor team did very well. These sessions were far more engaging, grounded and focused on the learning needs for enhancing school effectiveness compared to technical sessions conducted by individual resource persons.

The researcher's role as a knowledge partner in the RPC model is stronger than in the SRPL model. The RPC is, professionally, a richer model than SRPL but with a significant indirect presence of the external resource person.

The DPS STS School Dhaka (DPSSTS), Bangladesh, innovated on the author's SRPL and RPC models. Teachers had identified six themes/topics for training. At my request, they adopted SRPL for these topics. The 176 teachers were divided into six groups. Groups discussed and presented their findings in a three-day in-house staff workshop. The school adopted the RPC model on three other themes following the SRPL-based staff development. The principal reported that teachers are implementing "some of the tips given by the presenters."

An unintended fallout of this school-based professional learning programme is the extended engagement of teachers with the resource person. For example, in one of my workshops, the teachers prepared blended learning designs; they shared them online with me for review and feedback. After about a year, the school commissioned an academic audit of the innovation.

Lessons from Testing the Two Models

The experiments with SRPL and RPC revealed the following:

a. Teachers can learn independently; they naturally adopt video learning, desktop research, collaborative learning, synchronous and asynchronous interaction, practice, and action research.
b. Teachers feel motivated and enthusiastic when they are encouraged to learn independently, share, and display the evidence of their learning and receive recognition and appreciation.
c. Teachers engage in learning tasks and learn better when academic leaders (principals and supervisors) actively participate, encourage, and mentor teachers.
d. In the RPC model, the researcher adds value to SRPL by deriving from a larger stock of what research says to practitioners from across the countries.

e. The SRPL and RPC models are cost-effective as practitioners produce evidence of learning outcomes without additional travel costs and contingencies.
f. The SRPL and RPC models can develop collective teacher efficacy as all teachers are involved in their respective development needs and choices.

Practitioners in the SRPL and RPC models decide what and how to learn. Because they learn by choice, they better engage in learning tasks. Whatever they learned in this model, they examined the applicability in enhancing student learning. The teachers learn the art of instructional leadership. Thus, SRPL is a model of double advantage. They learn to work in teams. They learn to learn and thereby create their school as a learning organisation.

Role of Academic Leadership

The success of the SRPL and RPC models depends heavily upon the academic leader. The observable roles of the academic leadership were:

a. *Policy decision*: School leadership adopted the innovative models instead of expert-centric staff development, indicating the change proneness and readiness to explore new ways and take risks.
b. *Demonstrating Expert Leadership*: Principals simultaneously engaged with the external mentor and the teachers. With the engagement with the mentor, they took the lead in learning and provided learning leadership.
c. *Engagement with the teachers*: Principals engaged deeply with the teachers. They not only made themselves available but also became partners in professional learning; they browsed the internet, discussed with the teams, and reviewed and commented on the draft documents. They steered the peer-orientation seminars.

For professional learning for school effectiveness, schools need to adopt multiple strategies for developing awareness, new knowledge, skills and competencies, and innovativeness. Hence, a school needs a strategic plan for staff development, including participation in conferences and seminars, symposia and focus group discussions, networks, FDP, and in-house SRPL and RPCs.

Key Takeaways

1. On-the-job staff training is one of the cardinal principles of total quality management. Country governments and private schools spend considerable amounts of financial resources on in-service education of teachers.

2. There is no convincing evidence of the impact of conventional FDPs on teacher behaviour modification and students' learning outcomes.
3. The impact of in-service education becomes perceptible wherever principals take interest and follow up with teachers on their in-service education. Students benefit if teachers implement their learning from in-service education programmes.
4. Professional learning is *learning* necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes that impact teacher effectiveness through self-regulated learning according to the perceived need for development.
5. Professional learning is based on andragogical principles and self-regulated learning practices, backed by the psychology of growth mindset, learned optimism, and pedagogy of knowledge ladder.
6. The author has successfully tried the SRPL and RPC staff development models with nearly 400 teachers in schools in India and Bangladesh.
7. In professional learning, teachers discover, deepen, and create knowledge by adopting a blended learning model of internet browsing and desktop research, collaborative learning, consultation, practice, and reflection.
8. Professional learning promotes individual, team, institutional, and inter-institutional learning.
9. Professional learning enthuses and motivates teachers bringing in recognition and appreciation with evidence of learning outcomes.
10. Professional learning facilitates the lifelong self-learning of teachers.

Please Assess Your Learning Outcomes

1. Please make a critical analysis of different models of staff development.
2. How would you plan to empower teachers and staff to achieve personal mastery?
3. How would you like to implement the SRPL and RPC models for professional learning in your school?

8

NURTURING AND LEADING THE LEADERS

Introduction

Leading leaders is a necessity, an opportunity, and a challenge for building organisational effectiveness. The necessity is dictated by structural requirements and the intrinsic value of leading the leaders. A school comprises several sub-structures, like academic, administration, and finance departments. The sub-structures of the academic department are the pre-primary, primary, secondary, and higher secondary sections, with a supervisor to head each one. The secondary and higher secondary stages are further structured into departments of science, mathematics, social sciences, languages, etc. There are separate departments for each subject at the secondary and higher secondary levels. Then, there are heads of co-curricular activities, security, health services, counselling, administration, and finance. Thus, a school has several people in leadership positions with different roles defined by its structure. The school effectiveness depends upon the leader effectiveness of all those who head and lead small or large sub-structures. All of them need nurturing to improve leader effectiveness.

Nurturing and leading the leaders is key to developing collective leadership. Collective leadership brings staff together to collectively envision the school's future; their knowledge, experience, and skills help plan and implement the development interventions to achieve the goals. Collective leadership improves affiliation and ownership among the staff. The collective academic leadership can include the concept and practices of Expert Leadership. A science teacher can better understand the business of science education than a scholarly principal specialising in literature or philosophy. Thus, the intrinsic value of leading the leaders is to create complementarity, adopting leaderful practice – someone to lead every major or minor activity and team in the school.

Leading leaders is an opportunity. By leading the leaders, the principal can bring the best leadership skills and expertise available in the school and create a synergy of leadership energy for a shared vision and strategic plan for school effectiveness.

 DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-8

The focus of this chapter is on nurturing and leading leaders. We will deal with a few relevant concepts, especially collective leadership, briefly referring to leaderful practices and learning leadership.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

1. Identify designated and ascribed leaders in your school and their leadership mindsets.
2. Critically examine the relevance of collective leadership and leaderful practices for school effectiveness.
3. Identify potential leaders in your school and their strengths and weaknesses as leaders.
4. Develop strategies for nurturing and leading the leaders in your school.
5. Evaluate the impact of your strategy of leading the leaders after a specified period.

Why Lead the Leaders?

The purpose of leading leaders is to achieve self-fulfilment of all school stakeholders – optimising their performance and talents, satisfaction, and happiness, achieving intended and unintended goals, and going beyond output to outcomes and impacts. The starting point is identifying and understanding who leads whom?

- Students are led by the student-leaders, e.g. class monitors and school prefects or head girl and head boy.
- Teachers are led by mentor teachers, HODs, supervisors, and principals.
- HODs are led by peer HODs and mentors, supervisors, and principals.
- Peer supervisors and the principal lead the supervisors.
- Teachers, supervisors, and principals lead parents.
- The leadership team and the school managing committee lead a principal in the true spirit of collective leadership for achieving the school vision and missions.

Wherever leadership influences others (in contrast with control) to achieve the institutional vision, staff members feel safe to express their views and differences, creating a healthy feedback process and environment.

- Students provide feedback to prefects, head girls and head boys, teachers, HODs, supervisors, and principals.

- Teachers lead the students as instructional leaders, influence HODs, supervisors, and principals, and provide feedback to all levels of leadership.
- HODs give feedback to student-leaders, teacher-leaders, supervisors, and principals.
- Supervisors receive feedback from students, teachers, HODs, and principals.
- The principal receives feedback from all those she leads (Figure 8.1).

This mutuality of leadership and feedback cycles make leadership for school effectiveness dynamic and developmental. Four statements, in this context, are essential:

a. Everyone is a leader: lead self, family, and small groups (Preskill and Brookfield, 2008).
b. All principals are not leaders; some are administrators, and a majority are managers; a few are leaders (Mukhopadhyay, 2020).
c. Leaders don't have to be managers (Peter Drucker, 2004).
d. Administrators work with rules; managers with tasks and processes; leaders work with ideas and people.

Collective Leadership

As a school evolves as a learning organisation, the old paradigm of one person's vision, forced or sold to others, changes to collective visioning. As an

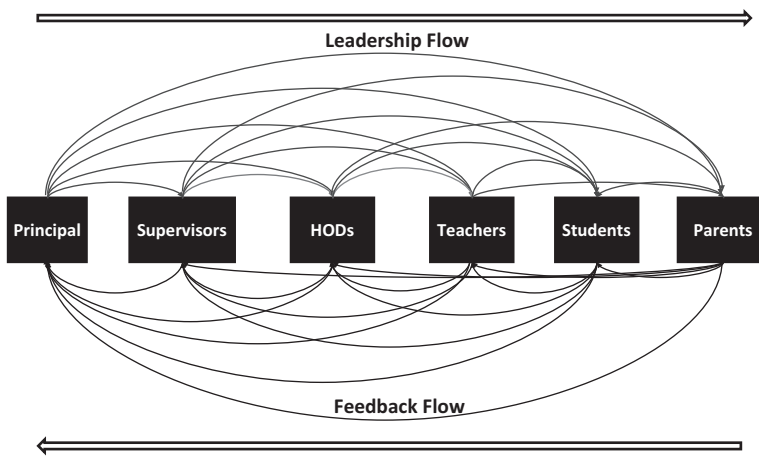

Figure 8.1 Leadership and Feedback Flows in Leading Leaders

organisation becomes more complex with many explicit and implicit variables, organisational wisdom and creativity cannot be the monopoly of one person designated to lead, especially when all those who occupy leadership positions do not necessarily possess leadership skills and mindset. There is a need to shift thinking of a leader as a hero to a leader as a host (Wheatley and Frieze, 2011). A hero leader is expected to be able to solve all problems for everyone. A leader as a host promotes shared learning, effective group decision-making, reflection, visioning and goal setting, and mutual accountability.

Leading leaders is a major challenge. A principal, supervisors, and HODs are designated leaders. They enjoy certain authority by dint of their appointment in a particular position. In a school, there are non-designated leaders also whom teachers or staff members trust and look upon for advice and support. They are the "ascribed leaders" – leadership ascribed to them by their peers. They significantly influence the impact of the designated leaders on school effectiveness. Leadership becomes easy when designated leaders are also ascribed, or they can effectively collaborate with the ascribed leaders to achieve the vision and mission of a school. The ascribed leaders inspire and use personal power to influence their colleagues. Designated leaders without personal power to influence may suffer from acceptability deficiency among the teachers and the students.

The discourses on designated vs ascribed leaders raised the question "whether leaders are born?" The answer to this question is changing. "All can and should lead" (Preskill and Brookfield, 2008). Juniors and non-designated members of the staff and designated staff at lower organisational hierarchy may possess leadership skills. Metaphorically, *junior penguins*' skills, capabilities, and creativity (the junior penguin in *Our Iceberg is Melting* by Kotter and Rathgeber, 2005) need to be recognised. Hence, the new leadership choice for the democratic flat school organisation of the 21st century is collective leadership.

> Rather than seeing leadership as one individual who creates, changes, or collapses a team, collective leadership is where multiple leaders come together to address problems one leader cannot solve alone. It is best to think about collective leadership as actions, rather than as a position.
>
> (Eva et al., 2021)

> True collective leadership is what happens when several capable people with complementary strengths and competencies, sharing common high values and character, and centred around a compelling purpose and vision, combine to provide direction among a company of people and contribute to their success.
>
> (Wilson, 2018)

In school effectiveness, collective leadership implies leaders in classrooms (teachers), departments, sections, and school, and non-designated ascribed leaders collectively visioning, planning strategies, implementing, evaluating, mutually giving feedback, modifying procedures and visions, and moving forward together. Collective leadership also builds shared responsibility; the principal shares rights and responsibilities with supervisors and HODs. The supervisors share the rights and responsibilities with the heads of departments. The core process is sharing the right to decision-making. This approach activates leadership through social interaction at every level.

According to Mary Parker Follet, shared and collective leadership is "power with others rather than power over others" (quoted by Fox and Urwick, 1973). This shared leadership is the case of a well-designed and carefully drafted delegation strategy with positive backup for the capacity building of the leaders at different levels.

Collective leadership is depicted by collective decision-making, e.g. statements of the school vision and missions, setting goals and targets, designing academic framework, pedagogical policy, parental involvement policies and students' participation in co-scholastic and co-curricular activities, and strategies for enhancing school effectiveness. These organisational policy decisions are taken collectively physically sitting around a table, participated by supervisors and HODs, teachers and staff, preferably student-leaders and parents' representatives.

The success of collective leadership depends upon mutual trust, transparent two-way effective communication, accountability, team learning and knowledge management, collegiality, or loosely coupled hierarchy. It requires the ability to connect and involve people with diverse educational and cultural backgrounds together. Collective leadership benefits from better decisions through collective wisdom, shared responsibility, reduced internal barriers, and increased engagement and ownership. Developing collective leadership requires the academic leader's strong will and conviction and developing and readying people for delegation.

Raelin's (2003) Leaderful Practice is worth considering in this context. When leadership emerges out of social interaction than individual action, it is not the absence of leadership; instead, it is full of leadership or leaderful practice (Raelin, as mentioned by D'Amore-McKin, 2014). Raelin (2003) explained his concept of leaderful practice with the 4C paradigm:

- *Concurrent* leadership, where many members of the staff play leadership roles.
- *Collective* leadership where everyone participates in leadership roles of decision-making, innovating, implementing, evaluating, and reviewing.
- *Collaborative* leadership is where all members collaborate to achieve the group goals and speak for the team.

- *Compassionate* leadership is where members affectively connect to respect and uphold each other's dignity and honour irrespective of the group's point of view and status.

In schools, HODs provide concurrent leadership to their respective departments. Collective and collaborative leadership happens at the sections and the school levels. The compassionate leadership concept is valid for departments, sections, and the school. As a school needs to develop itself as a learning organisation, collective leadership implies developing learning leadership where every leader learns.

Learning Leadership

International Bureau of Education (IBE: UNESCO, n.d.), in its paper on Learning Leadership, contended,

> Educational leaders have traditionally focused on management roles such as planning, budgeting, scheduling, maintenance of facilities, teacher evaluation, etc. Education research has shown that a particular type of leadership that makes a difference in learning is instructional leadership or learning leadership. Leaders are intensely involved in curricular and instructional issues directly impacting learner achievement. Learning leaders prioritise teaching and learning at the top of their priority, promote the culture of continuous learning, and use evidence or data on learner achievement to make decisions and set priorities. These leaders consistently focus on the core technology of education: learning, learner support, teaching, teacher support, curriculum, learning materials, assessment, feedback, and improvement
>
> (IBE-UNESCO, n.d., p1).

Instructional leadership is where principals involve themselves in curricular planning, teacher allocation, instructional practices, learning outcome assessment, need-based staff development planning, and collaborating and partnering with sister and resource institutions for academic improvement (Brolund, 2016). The OECD (2008, p3) study identified four major domains of responsibility as critical for school leadership to improve student learning outcomes. These are:

1. Supporting, evaluating and developing teacher quality.
2. Goal setting, assessment and accountability.
3. Strategic financial and human resource management.
4. Collaborating with other schools.

NASSP (2019) identified, (i) get in classrooms more (classroom observation), (ii) streamline expectations and eliminate ineffective practices, (iii) improve feedback, (iv) be a scholar, (v) model – practice what you expect teachers to practice, (vi) teach a class, (vii) grow professionally, (viii) write to reflect, (ix) integrate portfolios, and (x) co-observe as the ten strategies to improve instructional leadership.

The learning leadership concept should include teachers as the leader of student learning. The Taittiriya Upanishad (*Sikshaballi*) pronounced, "the teacher is the prior form; the taught is the posterior form."[1] "A teacher can never truly teach unless they are still learning themselves" (Mackness, 2012, p1). Metaphorically, a candle can never light another lamp unless it continues to burn its flame (Thakur (Tagore) 1994[2]). Teachers must lead students into learning by continuing to learn themselves. This argument, teacher as the prior form of learner, can be extended to supervisors and the entire school leadership team, including the principal. Each one is a learning leader for others. The purpose of leading the leaders is to develop a learning leadership team.

Thus, instructional or learning leadership focuses on implementing the curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment of the academic framework.

Developing Leaders

An academic leader often inherits the members of the leadership team – supervisors and HODs. Some may have the opportunity to select their teammates. The latter option is usually available in the newly set up schools. Some university statutes allow the vice chancellor to choose the pro-vice chancellors whose terms in office are coterminous with the vice chancellor. This helps create a compact leadership team. One of the opportunities and responsibilities of an academic leader is to identify people for leadership positions. Whether one has an opportunity to select or work with a given team, every academic leader would need to assess the leadership skills of people in different leadership positions – what makes a leader.

What makes a leader?

Many people at the top of the organisation prefer to walk alone. On the positive side, they are outstanding scholars, overwhelming, and charismatic, but they may also be social isolates. Alternatively, they may be *Fuhrers* in schools. Such principals set the pace through their excellence, leaving the staff to follow or move independently. Despite the personal mastery of the designated leader, such schools do not necessarily excel, especially after the scholar-principal leaves the school.

Leadership is a mindset besides skills. Some are enthusiastic about leading, some are reluctant, and some abhor leadership roles. They are happy to

follow. Some leaders believe that the school's effectiveness can be improved with a mindset characterised by the willingness to work with others, influencing and inspiring people to move together to develop a collective vision, set higher goals, strive to achieve and celebrate performance, and continue the cycle – almost at the other end of isolation and *walking alone* syndrome.

In a publication, You're No Leader – At Least Not Without Practice by Drucker Institute in 2011,[3] Drucker asserted,

> Leadership is not magnetic personality—that can just as well be demagoguery … It is not "making friends and influencing people"—that is salesmanship. Leadership is the lifting of a man's vision to higher sights, the raising of a man's performance to a higher standard, the building of a man's personality beyond its normal limitations.

Leadership is influencing and inspiring, not managing. Gandhiji, Gautama Buddha, Swami Vivekananda, Jesus Christ, and many others had no offices and management strategies though they inspired and led the human community across cultures and through the centuries (Secretan, 1999). Leaders need not be managers, but managers can be leaders. All leaders are managers, but all managers are not leaders (Chavez, 2019).

Eastwood (2019); Goleman (2017); Gleeson (2016); Krakoff (n.d.); Lathan (n.d.); Mukhopadhyay (2012); Tracy, (n.d.); and The Centre for Creative Leadership (CCL, 2021) identified qualities of a leader. The attributes pertain to personal, professional, and leadership attributes (follower orientation).

- *Personality attributes*: self-awareness, self-regulating behaviour, scholarship, learnability and passion for life-long learning, courage or fearlessness, empathy, gratitude, honesty/integrity, humility, cooperation, patience and tenacity, respectfulness, flexibility, and faith in what they believe.
- *Professional attributes*: interpersonal communication, open-mindedness, critical, creative and strategic thinking, responsible and dependability, continuous improvement, good communication, ethical and civic-mindedness, motivation, and passion for professional work.
- *Managerial/leadership attributes*: Understanding the needs and characteristics of the post; ability to inspire and influence people; ability to articulate the vision and strategic plan; encourage strategic thinking, innovation, and action; utilise data and resources; recognise the critical role of people as the key to success – focus on understanding strengths and weaknesses of every member of the team; utilise the strength and help them grow to reduce the weakness; encourage risk-taking and push people to be their best; monitor group performance; lead by example or

modelling; demonstrate empathy, coach, and mentor and counsel team members; create collaborative and inclusive learning environments; and empower teachers and cultivate leadership skills and share and delegate leadership (delegate rights and responsibilities).

Some of these attributes have been mentioned in Chapter 2 earlier. A close observation of the staff members helps us recognise the potential leaders and appreciate the commonality of leadership attributes among designated heads at different levels, e.g. sections, departments, and activity groups.

Identification of the mindset and leadership skills among the members of the leadership team and the prospective leaders among the school staff, students, and parents can help develop strategies for strengthening the school leadership team. Leading the leaders builds and strengthens the leadership team. They learn to walk together.

Leading the Leaders

A principal leads the followers and those who lead the sub-structures of the school. Leading leaders is a different ballgame. Salacuse (2005) derived five lessons for leading leaders from a comparison of two cases – George H.W. Bush, who succeeded in mobilising and leading a coalition in driving Iraq out of Kuwait in 1990–91, and his son, George W. Bush, who failed to mobilise leaders in 2003 (France refused to join the coalition and also asked others not to join) to remove Saddam Hussein. However, both had the approval of the United Nations. The four lessons are:

1. Position, resources, and charisma are not enough for leading leaders; instead, leading leaders is a function of will and skill. One has to work at the job.
2. Relationship with other leaders is critically important. Other leaders must trust; other leaders follow who they can trust.
3. Effective communication is necessary for developing a trustable relationship. One-to-one communication is required to engage and personally connect with other leaders.
4. Leading leaders is interest-based leadership. Other leaders must be convinced that the action and activities are worthwhile and in their interest.

The compiled and moderated list of leadership attributes from several pieces of research (Browning, 2018; Daum, n.d.; Fuhrman, 2004; Maxwell Company, 2013; Tucker, 2005) look like the following:

1. Believe in them; empower the leadership team members to make decisions and take action; banish the "apprentice leader" mentality.

2. Collectively set objectives, show the direction, and share your knowledge.
3. Risk failure in front of others and help them win.
4. Acknowledge their role and contributions to the overall progress of the school.
5. Practise what you preach and be accountable.
6. Ignite the imagination and vision; encourage innovations.
7. Afford freedom through discipline.
8. Give them challenges; focus on what they do well, give them feedback; and celebrate (Blanchard, 2002).
9. Use 'Yes' more often than 'No'. Let them learn from their failures. Become a mentor and build on their strength.
10. Delegate and steadily reduce control; lighten your *leader's* burden but be willing to do what others won't.
11. Be better tomorrow than you are today.
12. Engage in dialogue, lead with persuasions, not orders; differentiate between when to push and when to back off.

Ten Cardinal Principles and Practices of Leading Leaders

Based on the review of research, case studies of 17 successful leaders in schools, colleges, and universities (Mukhopadhyay, 2012) and my (author's) experience of leading a few educational institutions, the ten cardinal principles and practices of leading leaders are:

1. *Provide leadership training*: Short-term training in leadership provides the foundation for building leadership skills. Most face-to-face leadership training programmes offer a theoretical foundation to leadership practices with some practical exercises and assignments. The academic leader should encourage leadership team members to attend such courses. The leadership team members can also take courses from online sources like Coursera, edX, FutureLearn, and others. The academic leader must continue to provide leadership development support – encourage, coach, counsel, and mentor leadership practices.
2. Banish the practice of "learning on the job" by imitating seniors and others in leadership positions.
3. *Pacesetting or modelling*: Academic leaders must walk the talk; practice what they preach; read, research, and communicate enough to build personal expertise and mastery.
4. *Help understanding role expectations*: Leadership role expectations from supervisors, HODs, teachers, students and parent leaders are different; help incumbents learn role expectations and ways for improving role effectiveness.

5. *Data and evidence-based decision-making*: train and develop the culture of data and evidence-based decision-making at different levels.
6. *Delegate*: Delegation is key to successful leadership. The academic leader discusses the broad strategies with the leadership team and staff and then delegates rights and responsibilities for detailed planning and execution, keeping oneself accessible for consultation and participation.
7. *Delegation readiness*: Develop delegation readiness – build staff capacities before delegation; encourage, innovate, take decisions and risks, and mentor them.
8. *Trust and confidence*: Leading the leaders is a matter of trust and confidence. The leadership teams trust the academic leaders who take responsibility in case of failure. The satellite man, later president of India, Prof. APJ Abdul Kalam and Dr Satish Dhawan's case is worth quoting.[4]
9. Help team members involve everyone in their zone of influence in collective visioning and strategic planning.
10. Relating and caring for others is necessary to lead leaders successfully. Focus on the chemistry of relationships and contextualise the chemistry according to the cultural backdrop and practices (Sinha, 1980; Mukhopadhyay, 2012; Nisbet, 2003).

Nurturing and leading the leaders is necessary for school effectiveness; it is an opportunity for developing personal mastery of academic leadership to evolve and achieve zero leadership. Leading the leaders can be summarised with Chinese wisdom (modified by author) as:

Those who can, they inspire.
Those who cannot, they influence.
Those who cannot, lead.
Those who cannot, manage.
Those who cannot, they administer.
Those who cannot administer, …..!!

Key Takeaways

1. The school comprises several sub-structures, e.g. pre-primary, primary, secondary and higher secondary sections, departments, and administration and finance units. A designated coordinator or head leads each sub-structure. Hence, a school has several leaders at different levels and sections.
2. Leading leaders is a necessity, an opportunity, and a challenge for building school effectiveness. It is necessary to develop collective leadership for school effectiveness.

3. Leading leaders is an opportunity. It can bring the best of your leadership skills and expertise and create a shared vision and strategic plan for school effectiveness by leading the leaders.
4. It is challenging as you may have to lead a few designated leaders who may not have adequate leadership skills and a few other anti-establishmentarian ascribed leaders.
5. Effective leadership is a function of judicious use of authority and power. Successful leaders use power, keeping authority on the back burner.
6. The mutuality of leadership and feedback cycles makes leadership dynamic and developmental through multi-way communication.
7. Administrators work with rules; managers with tasks and processes; leaders work with ideas and people.
8. In collective leadership, leaders of different sub-structures address problems that one leader cannot solve alone.
9. Effective schools choose collective leadership where all are involved in visioning, setting higher targets, planning, implementing, evaluating, and modifying targets and strategies for quality improvement.
10. Raelin's (2004) leaderful practices explain leadership in 4Cs – concurrent, collective, collaborative, and compassionate leadership.
11. According to IBE-UNESCO, the learning leaders consistently focus on learning, learner support, teaching, teacher support, curriculum, learning materials, assessment, feedback, and improvement.
12. For leading leaders, academic leaders need to identify the strengths and weaknesses of designated leaders and identify ascribed leaders and their strengths and areas of further improvement.
13. Leadership training is necessary for leaders of all school sub-structures. Principals need to follow up training with mentoring, coaching, and counselling.
14. Delegation is necessary for success. Leaders of sub-structures must be developed and then delegated rights of decision-making and responsibilities of implementation.

Please Check Your Learning Outcomes

1. How would you implement collective leadership and develop leaderful practices in your school?
2. Identify leadership qualities, strengths, and areas of improvement of leadership skills of the school leadership team members.
3. Identify potential leaders among the teachers and staff and describe your strategy for honing their leadership skills.
4. How would you identify and involve parents and students to benefit the school from their leadership skills?

Notes

1 Chapter # 1, Anuvaka # 3, Shloka # 4: "Now concerning knowledge: the teacher is the prior form; the taught is the posterior form; learning is the intermediate form and the instruction is the means of joining. Thus, one should meditate upon learning."
2 Tagore is not the title of Nobel Laureate Poet Rabindranath. His title is Thakur. Rabindranath signed his name in all his books and documents as Rabindranath Thakur. The poet belonged to Kusari (Brahmin) family of Kus village in Bardhaman. As his forefathers shifted to Kolkata, then a village, they were fondly addressed as Thakur (meaning God or Brahmin) out of sheer respect by the community. Tagore is the distorted version of his title.
3 https://www.drucker.institute/thedx/youre-no-leader-at-least-not-without-practice/
4 "The year was 1979. … I bypassed the computer and launched the system. There are four stages before the satellite is launched. The first stage went off well, and in the second stage, it got mad. It went into a spin. Instead of putting the satellite in orbit, it put it into the Bay of Bengal," says Dr Kalam." ISRO chief Satish Dhawan held a press conference along with him despite the fear of facing criticisms. "Dear friends, we have failed today. I want to support my technologists, my scientists, my staff, so that next year they succeed," Kalam quotes Dhawan. Next year, on July 18, 1980, the same team led by Kalam successfully launched Rohini RS-1 into the orbit. Then, Kalam says Dhawan asked him to conduct the press conference that day. "I learned a very important lesson that day. When failure occurred, the leader of the organisation owned that failure. When success came, he gave it to his team. The best management lesson I have learned did not come to me from reading a book; it came from that experience," Kalam says in the video. https://indianexpress.com/article/india/chandrayaan-2-dr-abdul-kalam-on-failure-after-isro-slv-3-mission-crash-5974097/ (accessed 14-06-2022).

9

RESOURCE PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

Introduction

Resource planning and management is the central theme of educational planning. Some scholars argue that educational planning fails to produce the desired results because of an insufficiently broad view and integrated development of a broader range of human competence beyond school work (Chinapah et al., 1989). Besides human resources, schools also manage material, financial, time, and information resources (Obi and Obuagu, 2020). Management of these resources implies planning, mobilising, allocating, utilising, evaluating, and auditing to improve school effectiveness.

It is estimated that more than 80% of the school education budget is spent on staff salaries and benefits (Cavanagh, 2017; NCES, 2021; Tewari, 2015). The dividend from the expenditure of the remaining 20% also depends upon human competence who manages the expenditures. Hence, human resource management is the central issue in school resource management.

There is a relationship between financial management and school effectiveness (Genevarius, 2021). However, most school principals possess insufficient resource mobilisation and financial management skills, and training (Amos and Bhoke-Africanus, 2019; Edmund and Lyamtane, 2018). Schultz (1971) promoted the concept of the *realised* (emphasis added by author) rate of return in education that impacts school effectiveness.

Classroom environment and furnishings (Haverinen-Shaughnessy and Shaughnessy, 2015), Information and Communications Technology (ICT) facilities (Ibrahim et al., 2020), and school facilities (Akomolafe and Adesua, 2016; Earthman, 2002) affect school quality and students' performance. Several other studies indicate a causal relationship between school and classroom facilities and teacher effectiveness. This chapter focuses on optimising resource management to enhance school effectiveness.

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-9

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Describe school resources and their relative importance for school effectiveness.
b. Choose or develop a framework and a strategic plan for managing school resources to improve effectiveness.
c. Create a plan of action for optimising the management of human resources.
d. Identify and augment visible but unknown and hidden resources for school effectiveness.
e. Develop and implement a School Resource Audit System (SRAS).

Situational Analysis

Though principals manage school resources, most of them are not familiar with the nuances of human, material, and financial resource management (Genevarius, 2021). A large majority of the principals do not receive any pre-service training in management. The principals learn management on the job, following the footsteps of conventions and their predecessors. We do not come across many schools with any

- Vision of development and achievement targets. Any perspective plan of development detailing the kind of teachers and staff to be recruited, the sort of physical facilities to be developed, the financial resources required, and the plan of mobilising for school development except for the newly established private schools.
- Well-developed teacher management plan. Teachers and staff are recruited following the state-prescribed protocols of teacher eligibility tests followed by personal interviews by the state agencies for the public schools or by a selection committee appointed by the management committee of the private schools.
- Teacher allocation strategy. Teacher allocation is done according to teachers' qualifications and grade levels without reference to teachers' preference and capabilities, class size, diversity of students, gender composition, professional development, affective quality of teachers, and need for self-actualisation.
- Meaningful business plan for resource generation and management for sustainability or budget notes justifying allocations for school effectiveness. The tiny non-committed expenditure is routinely allocated to the predetermined budget heads with minor changes from one year to another.
- Any School Resource Audit System (SRAS) linked to school effectiveness except routine accounting and auditing required under rules. Missing are the analyses of the difference between allocated, utilised, and realised resources (Schultz, 1971).

Resource management needs a fresh look at where it is linked to school effectiveness. For that, a school needs to develop a resource management framework.

School Resource Management Frameworks

The resource management framework usually comprises resource needs assessment, resource mobilisation, allocation or distribution, utilisation, and accounting and auditing of human, financial, and material resources. Time and information are the two newly recognised resources.

The National University, San Diego (n.d.) considered evaluation of the resources necessary for an effective school and establishing student behaviour management systems; use of technology to align fiscal, human, and material resources to support the learning of all subgroups of students; and leadership strategies for making and communicating financial and budgetary decisions based on relevant data and research about effective teaching and learning, leadership, management practices, and equity as the necessary skills for resource management (California State University, n.d.).

The UK Government (Govt of UK, 2021), in its Academy Trust Book, provides a useful resource management audit framework comprising governance, financial strategy, setting the annual budget, staffing, value for money, and protecting the public purse. The inclusion of "Value for Money" and "Protecting Public Purse" deserves special attention. The focus is on the process, knowledgeability, and transparency in resource management in all six domains. The instrument comprises a series of questions to be responded to for a resource management audit.

OECD (2013, pp13–15) identified "Matching resources to individual student learning needs; Organisation of student learning time; Allocation of teacher resources to students; Organisation of school leadership; Teaching and learning environment within a school; Use of school facilities and materials; and Organisation of education governance" as the seven heads for resource management framework. The document elaborated on each major head with several subheads.

Willis et al.'s (2019) rapid school improvement framework deserves special attention for school effectiveness:

1. Equitable, instead of equal distribution of resources – allocate where resources are needed and where it gives the best returns for quick turnaround of the school.
2. Taking a holistic view of school resources beyond financial resources.
3. Collectively prioritising allocation of resources through stakeholder engagement.
4. Benefit from creating synergy by blending, braiding, and layering the resources.

The Willis team's approach of braiding the layers of resources is the strategic innovation for optimising school resources. I propose a five-stage resource management strategy comprising (a) identifying and defining resources, (b) prioritising resource allocation, (c) resource distribution, (d) maximising available resources, and (e) resource management audit.

1. Identifying and Defining Resources

The conventional practice of equating school resources with finance and material resources does not fully explain the dynamics of resource management. Haahr et al. (2005) found that a shortage of educational resources like learning material and access to computers do not affect students' performance in reading, mathematics, and science in competitive tests like *Programme for International Student Assessment* (PISA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), and Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS). Though access to digital devices like computers enhances ICT skills, it does not improve students' performance even in the skill domain. Thus, integrated development of a broader range of human competence seems to be the key.

A school needs to identify the required resources to turn around the school. The resources can be explicit or implicit. Explicit resources are buildings, classroom facilities, laboratories and libraries, ICT facilities, gardens, and vehicles. Implicit resources are expertise and hidden resources like known expertise and unknown and unrealised talents of teachers and parents.

There are underutilised material resources like the library, laboratories, ICT facilities, lawns and gardens, walls and corridors, terraces, and balconies. The building has been successfully utilised as Learning Aid (BALA) (Mukhopadhyay, 2022). For example, in an early childhood education centre in Udang, we (the author and his team) used 42 translucent pictures from space science, history and architecture, plants and flowers, and animals and birds from different countries and pasted them on glass panes of doors and windows instead of curtain cloths, with an explanatory album for the teacher to refer. The village children and students were instantly attracted to the beautiful pictures; they flooded the teacher with endless inquisitive questions.

The school resources can also be classified into a few categories:

- *Known and visible resources*: School building, number of staff, and budget and financial reserve.
- *Visible but unknown*: Spare capacity of physical infrastructure. Most school buildings are occupied seven to eight hours a day; expensive laboratories are occupied a few hours a week. Poor occupancy of the school building, laboratories, and ICT facilities, with massive potential

for alternative use, are visible but unknown resources. For example, many Delhi public schools are run in double shifts using the same physical facilities to educate a much larger number of students.

- *Known not visible*: There may be among the subject teachers and other staff talented dancers, musicians, painters, and leaders. Because of their sub-structural locations and designated roles, and stereotyped leadership mindset, the schools fail to recognise and utilise their skills and talents for school effectiveness.
- *Invisible and unrecognised*: Teachers and staff members are seen through the prism of their qualifications and job roles. Their passion, special talents, hobbies, unfulfilled aspirations and ambitions, sociability and social skills, and affective qualities for which they are remembered by the students long after they pass out remain unknown and unexplored. There is a vast unexplored treasure house of resources in schools.

Average schools utilise only the known and visible resources. Effective schools convert the unknown visible resource into known visible. More effective schools add to the stock expanding the known visible, that are presently invisible. They discover the present but so far hidden resources. Schools must develop a comprehensive inventory of known and unknown and explored and unexplored resources.

Time and information are the other unrecognised but valuable resources for school effectiveness. Teachers' non-teaching hours can be a resource for students' remedial learning needs and teachers' professional learning. As hosts rather than heroes (Wheatley and Frieze, 2020), academic leaders can delegate leadership responsibilities to colleagues generating spare hours for themselves to improve student learning, teacher and staff development, and personal mastery. Information is not adequately utilised as a resource for school improvement.

1. *Prioritising resource allocation*

One strategic choice for prioritising school resource management can be allocating resources guided by students' development needs and enhancing teacher effectiveness. Investment in certain domains may bring quick but non-sustainable results; investment in certain other items may create a sustainable impact on school quality but delayed results. Hence, schools intending a turnaround must prioritise areas for allocating financial, material, time, and human resources.

This prioritisation of resource allocation should involve stakeholders, like financial experts, education specialists and pedagogues, parents, and alumni. The multiple stakeholders bring various viewpoints and expertise to examine where a resource investment can provide a better return on investment (RoI). The obvious requirement of prioritising and stakeholder

involvement is a robust information system that collective prioritising efforts can trust and use.

2. *Resource distribution*

The choice in resource distribution is between equity and equitability. Equitable distribution of resources may be a better choice for school effectiveness. For example, students weak in mathematics, science, and English may need more teacher time, engagement, and innovative learning material than those who perform better in these subjects. A student from a weak socio-economic and educational home background may need more compensatory school resources to cope with the home resource deficiency.

A competent and committed teacher would need lesser school resources for professional learning and continuous development than other teachers and staff with a deficiency in one or more of these attributes. New teachers will need more resources to grow compared to their colleagues who have reached a certain level of teacher effectiveness.

Sections and departments differ in leadership effectiveness and quality culture within the same school. The new and the weaker departments will need more time and engagement of academic leaders, learning material, and ICT facilities.

In an effective school, every student succeeds, every teacher becomes effective and enjoys self-fulfilment, every staff improves their performance, leadership effectiveness changes, and school culture changes. The equitable distribution of material, financial, human, and time resources to meet the differential needs of the sub-structures and constituencies may contribute more to school effectiveness (Willis et al., 2019).

3. *Maximising available resources*

Conventionally, financial resources are allocated under different heads of expenditures, often like airtight compartments. This is equally true for material and human resources. Schools should combine resources at the programme and project levels to maximise the available resources. Willis et al. (2019) proposed layering, blending, and braiding of resources for better results.

Blending funds have been defined as combining more than one funding source for one programme. For example, funds can be drawn from the library and ICT heads of expenditures for the computerisation of the school library. There are many public schools where a teacher works in charge of the library instead of a full-time librarian. The blending supports both students and teachers.

The funding may come from the national (federal) and state (provincial) governments and local authorities. “So as not to create classrooms

segregated by funding sources, local administrators are left with the challenging task of allocating, prorating and meeting stringent accountability requirements" (Fonseca, 2017, p2). Wallen and Hubbard (2013, p5) suggest that federal and state agencies work together to align categorical funding streams. If they did so, the result would "make it easier for … early learning service providers to use multiple funding streams [and] attain the scale needed to efficiently deliver high-quality services that result in meaningful outcomes for young children."

India's mid-day meal scheme, benefiting millions of school children, is a good example. Federal and state governments share the cost of a mid-day meal. There are cases, though not common, where schools and the community enrich the quality of nutrition with their contribution, like adding an egg twice a week.

Braiding for school improvement implies coordinating resources from more than one source to support the total service cost and expenditures on one development programme. Fonseca (2017, p2) explained three-layer braiding in the context of childcare programmes:

- *First layer*: This is the foundational layer. These are the funds received for continuing a programme. These funds cannot be supplanted.
- *Second layer*: These are the funds that pay for the programme-level comprehensive services required by the programme that can benefit all children regardless of eligibility (e.g. staff training, equipment, and supplies).
- *Third layer*: These funds pay for individualised services only for eligible children (e.g. screening, home visits and assigned family service workers) (NC Early Childhood Foundation, 2014, n.p.).

At a macro level, India's Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) (National Secondary Education Mission) provides a good example of braiding and layering to meet specific educational objectives (MHRD, n.d.) (Table 9.1).

The foundational layer funding is already available (first layer). The second layer is expanding and improving existing facilities. The third layer is a programme that benefits all children. The fourth layer is equitability-guided interventions focused on girls, ethnic and minority communities, and economically weaker sections. By braiding the micro-schemes in each layer of RMSA, the fund will support quality education for all (please see figure 3 p5 in Willis et al., 2019).

At the school level, braiding the layers of resources makes a lot of meaning. For example, there is robust research evidence that blended learning positively impacts students' engagement in learning and improves performance. At layer 1, a school has classrooms and teachers. At layer 2, the school

Table 9.1 RMSA Objectives and Layering and Braiding of Resources

RMSA Objectives		
• The scheme envisages achieving a gross enrolment ratio of 75% from 52.26% in 2005–6 for classes IX–X within five years of its implementation by providing a secondary school within a reasonable distance of any habitation. • Improve the quality of education imparted at the secondary level by making all secondary schools conform to prescribed norms. • Remove gender, socio-economic, and disability barriers. • Provide universal access to secondary-level education. • Enhance and universalise retention by 2020.		
Physical Facilities	*Quality Interventions*	*Equity Interventions*
• Additional classrooms • Laboratories • Libraries • Art and crafts room • Toilet blocks • Drinking water provisions • Residential hostels for teachers in remote areas	• Appointment of additional teachers to reduce PTR to 30:1 • Focus on Science, Math, and English education • In-service training of teachers • Science laboratories • ICT-enabled education. • Curriculum reforms • Teaching–learning reforms	• Special focus on micro-planning • Preference to Ashram schools for upgradation • Preference to areas with a concentration of SC/ST/minority for opening schools • Special enrolment drive for the weaker section • More female teachers in schools • Separate toilet blocks for girls

Source: Author.

draws from staff development funds to train teachers in blended learning. At layer 3, the school draws from technology and equipment funds to provide ICT facilities in the classroom. The fourth layer is the intangible resources of teachers – their training and time for students' individual needs – tutorials, and one-to-one counselling for differentiated learning needs of the gifted and the "slow learners." The fifth resource layer is the quality leadership time to guide, mentor, participate, review with teachers, and give feedback.

4. *Resource planning and management audit*

Resource planning and management audits can improve the return on investment of school resources. A school needs to respond to (a) are the human, material, and financial resources being optimally utilised? and (b) can there be even a minor improvement in resource utilisation for school effectiveness with the same resources?

The Department of Education, Government of UK (2021), provides a useful School Resource Management Self-Assessment Checklist with supporting notes. (You may like to visit the website and examine it yourself.) The checklist comprises 42 questions covering governance, trust financial strategy, setting the annual budget, staffing, value for money, and protecting the public purse. The schools should develop a School Resource Audit Management System (SRAMS) individually or as a networked community.

Within the broad framework of resource management for school effectiveness, teacher management needs special attention because the teacher is the most important and expensive resource, and collective teacher effectiveness is the most powerful influencer of students' performance (Hattie, 2017).

Teacher Management

The teacher continues to occupy the central place in students' learning.

> Teacher management is a component of human resources management, defined as the search for the best possible match between human resources and the needs of an organisation, in terms of quantity and quality. Teacher management functions include recruitment, training and motivation of personnel, their deployment and the establishment of staffing norms, wage negotiations and organisation of pay, follow-up and evaluation of performance, planning of future needs, the development of communication systems or, yet again, making opportunities available for personal and professional development.
>
> (UNESCO, 2009; Halliday, 1995, pp15–16)

Teacher management affects cost and investment in quality education.

Teacher Recruitment

Whitworth et al. (2016) cited several studies that unveiled a consistent finding of teacher quality as the villain in school effectiveness (Boyd et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2015; Donaldson, 2011; Harris et al., 2010; Regan and Hayes, 2011). Teacher recruitment is the starting point. Though the attributes of effective teachers are known through several studies (Loeb et al., 2011; Ziebarth-Bovill et al., 2012), selectors do not seem to master the techniques of selecting candidates who can be predicted to be effective teachers in the future. A candidate brings in a subject and teacher training qualification certificate and a "personality" for the short selection interview at the entry point. This evidence is inadequate to assess and predict future success as a teaching professional.

The focus of teacher selection – teacher eligibility tests and selection interviews – is on content mastery and pedagogy knowledge. With pedagogy being an applied domain, the knowledge of pedagogy that can be assessed through tests and interviews does not guarantee the application of pedagogical knowledge, skills, and attitudes. The unstructured and untrained selectors import a variety of biases like the halo and hawthorn effects, implicit stereotypes, confirmation bias, and explicit stereotype effect – gender, ethnic, and regional biases.

There are two common kinds of teacher recruitment. Governments select public schoolteachers on a mass scale through centrally conducted written tests and selection interviews of the candidates who succeed in the tests. The empanelled teachers, thus selected, are allocated to schools. The school principals have no role in selecting or choosing to accept or refuse a candidate. The private schools enjoy the autonomy of teacher selection from among the candidates based on qualifications prescribed by the government.

Depending upon the selection quality, a teacher can be a long-term asset or a liability. Wherever schools have the autonomy to select, they may examine a candidate's portfolio. If found suitable, a candidate can be engaged as an apprentice-teacher for a couple of months in the school on full salary or a respectable allowance. During this period, the school leadership team should observe, support, mentor, and monitor to ensure that the candidate, besides the cognitive capital, is equally rich in affective qualities and life skills and decide to offer a regular appointment based on performance during the apprenticeship. There are other ways to assess, in-depth, the suitability of a candidate with growth potential as a teacher.

Teacher Induction and Development

Between recruitment, allocation of duties and utilisation of teachers is the induction and development. This is necessary as universities qualify and ready the candidates; academic leaders groom them as teachers. Induction helps teachers acclimatise to the ambience and culture of the school.

The conventional practice is to engage teachers in classroom teaching immediately after joining the school. The innovative schools, though rare, provide an induction programme for the newly recruited teachers through a series of activities like discussing with the members of the academic leadership team, observing the classroom proceedings of other teachers, assisting seniors in checking class notes and homeworks, developing learning resources, and conducting desktop research.

On-the-job training is one of the cardinal principles of quality management in education. Hence, teacher development and empowerment are necessary for optimum resource management. Conventional in-service programmes comprising a series of unqualified lectures are a wasteful exercise. Workshops, CPD, SRPL and RPC are a few of the effective teacher empowerment models.

Teacher Allocation and Utilisation

Teacher allocation has primarily been seen from the systemic perspective (IIEP, 2016; Ozoglu, 2015; Tournier, 2015). Irrespective of whether a teacher is allocated to a school or selected by the school, teacher utilisation is a critical issue for the school's effectiveness and a challenge for academic leadership.

The quantitative issue of teacher utilisation is the working hours and weeks per year. There are direct and indirect engagement hours for teachers. Direct engagement is easy to count as it includes hours of school per day, the number of periods in a week, hours of examination management duties, post-class hour engagement for counselling, and tutorials. Indirect engagement includes evaluating homework, checking notebooks, examining answer sheets and project work, attending departmental and school staff meetings, and preparing for classes.

Then, there are institutionally non-allocated times, including professional learning time, teachers' time for accessing learning resources in the library, and IT lab. Most often, the teachers' work spills over to home. This is an anomaly. Working hours per year include working during school hours on the working days in the year. The actual working hours of an effective teacher are more and have a significant relationship with student enrolment (EgbezienInegbedion et al., 2020) and students' performance (Kayode, 2015).

Teacher absenteeism is a serious issue in teacher utilisation. Muralidharan et al. (2017) found a teacher absence rate of 23.6 per cent in Indian rural public schools at an estimated salary cost of unauthorised teacher absence of $1.5 billion/year. Lee et al. (2015) found that teachers in the Pacific regions absent themselves on an average of 11 days compared to 7 days in the USA (1996-97 data). Teacher absenteeism has been found to adversely affect students' performance in mathematics

(Finlayson, 2009). Primary causes of teacher absenteeism are personal illness, funeral leave, family member illness, meetings and workshops (Lee et al., 2015), non-academic duties assigned by appointing authorities (government) like election and census duties, and maternity and study leave (without alternative arrangement) (Gunu and Issifu, 2019). IIEP (2022) developed a policy toolbox to help manage teacher absenteeism through policy reforms.

Besides absenteeism, teacher utilisation for school effectiveness gets seriously compromised by inadequate preparation, poor teacher–student relationships, teacher involvement in social activities, delays at school events, and teachers' attendance at school-wide activities (Gunu and Issifu, 2019). In many public schools, late attendance to school and delayed entry into classrooms reduce the realised classroom time. Private tuition is practised in many countries (Lykins and Bray, 2012). Firstly, a large majority of the private tutors are school teachers. A school gets "tired teachers" after they have exhausted their energy in private tuition. Secondly, a vested interest develops whereby teachers as private tutors give their best in private tuition as it brings in an unaccounted additional income.

Teacher and staff utilisation for school effectiveness demands academic leaders' understanding of teachers' commitment or willingness, competence, and conceptual complexity (learnability). Highly committed, competent with high learnability teachers are likely to be effective teachers. Effectiveness can be developed among teachers with commitment and learnability through CPD/PLET/RPC models complemented by review–feedback–mentoring support by academic leaders. Teachers with commitment but low competence with low learnability need special attention. Their commitment is an asset, but low learnability may hinder competence development. However, they can accomplish well on relatively simple tasks. For collective teacher efficacy, the challenges before the academic leaders are dealing with teacher categories with low commitment with differing degrees of competence and learnability.

School effectiveness necessitates quality management interventions (quality intervention). The teacher and staff's reaction to innovations and change proneness is a determining factor. It is necessary to understand teachers' change proneness and identify among them the innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. Different leadership interventions are necessary to involve and get the contribution of each category of teachers in Quality Management Intervention (QMI) implementation.

Teacher management is the most vital factor in enhancing school effectiveness. The central core of resource management for school effectiveness is teacher management.

Leadership Team as Resource

Leadership is another and most critical resource for school improvement. The principal leads the school with a team. School effectiveness is significantly influenced by the quality and skills of the leadership team, especially those involved with day-to-day operations, besides participating in school policy and planning.

The leadership team's capacity building and empowerment enhance their skills in managing various school resources. It is necessary for practising and newly recruited school leaders to take continuous professional development programmes for effective and result-based educational leadership.

The educational policies recommend the training of educational leaders in school, higher, and professional education. Mentioned earlier, in Sweden, "the four overarching themes" for the principals' training programme

> are: (a) educational goals (e.g. national goals, a school's role in society, and a school's task to develop democratic social conditions); (b) steering (ideological, legal, and financial steering): (c) pedagogical development (strategies and methods for school development); and, (d) student achievement, reviews and evaluations.
>
> (Norberg, 2019, p7)

School leaders should have up-to-date knowledge and skills to lead and manage the school budget following all the financial rules laid down by the statutory authorities. The principals should have preferably pre-service management training reinforced by in-service training with effective models like SRPL and RPC.

Key Takeaways

1. Human, material, finance, information, and time are the five critical resources of a school.
2. Effective resource management impacts school effectiveness.
3. Many principals are not trained in school management and are not well versed in school resource management. They learn management on the job, following the footsteps of their seniors.
4. Most schools do not have a strategic plan for resource management, especially linked to school effectiveness goals and targets.
5. There are several frameworks of resource management. National University (San Diego) identifies evaluation and analysis of the resources, developing school budget using technology and synthesising leadership strategies as the core skills of resource management.

6. The audit framework of the UK Government comprises governance, financial strategy, setting the annual budget, staffing, value for money, and protecting the public purse.
7. The OECD (2013) framework comprises matching resources to individual student learning needs; organisation of student learning time; allocation of teacher resources to students; organisation of school leadership; teaching and learning environment within the school; use of school facilities and materials; and organisation of education governance.
8. Willis et al. (2019) recommended equitable distribution of resources, taking a holistic view of school resources beyond financial resources, collectively prioritising with stakeholder engagement, and creating synergy by blending, braiding, and layering the resources as the four domains for quick turnaround of schools.
9. The resource management model for school effectiveness comprises resource distribution, identifying and defining resources, prioritising resource allocation, maximising the available resources, and resource management audit as the five pillars of resource management.
10. The teacher is the most important and expensive resource, and collective teacher efficacy is the most powerful influencer of school quality. Hence, teacher management needs special attention.
11. The key factors are quality teacher recruitment, teacher development, and teacher allocation and utilisation.
12. Understanding teachers' commitment, competence, and learnability help the academic leader improve teacher management.
13. Leadership is a critical resource for school improvement. The principal and other school leadership team members should take school management and leadership courses.
14. Online education providers offer short well-structured courses on school management and leadership. Reputed business schools, like Indian Institutes of Management (IIMs), offer high-quality leadership courses for school leaders in blended mode.

Please Check Your Learning Outcomes

1. Identify the basic resources of the school and classify them into well-utilised, underutilised, and non-utilised resources.
2. Compare resource management frameworks of OECD, Willis et al., and the suggested five-pillar resource management model.
3. Develop a resource management framework for the school to improve school effectiveness.
4. Develop a blueprint for identifying teacher resources and teacher management.

10

NETWORKING FOR ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

Introduction

Inter-institutional learning is one of the four pillars of a learning organisation. Networking facilitates inter-institutional learning through collaboration and peer group learning (Cheng et al., 2021; Sulaiman and Shahrill, 2014). For sustainable learning, a school must network with sister institutions, resource institutions, and resource persons. Networking enlarges the learning community and thereby invigorates a school's development process.

Schools are linked through a common academic, examination, and qualification framework and a predefined set of teacher qualifications, common administrative and financial rules and protocols, and financial and academic norms, e.g. pupil–teacher ratio, by the regulatory authorities. These protocol-based connections set common standards intended to develop a "standardised product" – standardised labour for the labour market (Bowles and Gintis, 1976). They don't enrich. School networks are for mutual enrichment and growing together. For effectiveness, schools must participate in school networks.

Several school networks include ASPnet of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Australian ViSN, European Schoolnet, Sahodaya School (SS) Complex, and many others. Participation in school networks enriches the member schools. Schools also benefit from developing an active network with alumni, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), companies, and higher educational institutions (OECD, 2016). This chapter will deal with networking to improve school effectiveness. It will deal with the nature and purpose of networking, networking models, advantages of networking, and networking methods with schools, resource institutions and persons, and develop a sustainable, effective school network.

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-10

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Explain the role of school networking on school effectiveness.
b. Explain and compare different types of school networks.
c. Choose school networks for membership for your school.
d. Lead school networks for collective school effectiveness.

What's School Network?

School networks are membership organisations with formal legal status and have an executive body to manage. The purpose of networking is to grow together. Networks comprise a group of schools that purposefully exchange information and professional matters of common interest and concern and mutually support the quality improvement of each other. Ark (2017) claimed that school networks are among the most influential innovations in US K–12 education. Networking can scale up the quality of schooling by providing design principles, sharing learning models, teaching–learning materials, technology tools, and platforms, and exchanging best practices and professional learning opportunities (Ark, 2017). Participation of schools in networks can enhance school effectiveness.

Education networks are different in composition and structure from school networks. Education networks are "groups or systems of interconnected people and organisations (including schools) whose aims and purposes include the improvement of learning and aspects of well-being known to affect learning" (Hadfield et al., 2006, p1). Singapore Education Network (SEN) is a good example. It has more than 1500 individual members from "higher education institutions, high schools, EdTech e-learning companies, think tanks, corporates, government agencies, embassies, and international organisations, etc."[1]

There are several school networks in various countries. Some networks are large, with more than 11,500 members (ASPnet). There are many charter management organisations, and they are steadily growing (Farrell et al., 2012). Yet, some others are small with specific goals like principled networks that share common principles, like Future Ready Schools, which envisages "each student graduates from high school with the agency, passion, and skills to be a productive, compassionate, and responsible citizen" or EdLeader 21 network aspiring to "Leading Together to Advance 21st Century Learning for Every Student." The Washington DC-based advocacy group, Consortium for School Networking (CoSN), promotes partnerships and awareness of emerging technologies amongst technology decision-makers in K–12 education. European Schoolnet (n.d.) creates opportunities "to meet and collaborate so that thousands of schools can grow and change."

School complex was the first school network set up in India following the recommendation of the NEP1968. School complexes were the network of secondary schools with neighbourhood (feeder) primary schools. Later, the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) introduced school complexes among its affiliated school, called Sahodaya Vidyalayas, in 1987 with the "growing together" concept. There are more than 200 Sahodaya School Complexes. The number of members varies among the Sahodayas. India has several chains of schools like Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, Dayanand Anglo Vedic (DAV) Schools, Delhi Public School (DPS), and many others that comprise many schools located in various states in India. They belong to the same management. Large chains like DAV and DPS have their human resource development (HRD) centres. They may not be networked the way other networks function.

Some virtual networks let schools and educators connect online and collaborate from different countries to learn from each other.

Why Network?

There are advantages and benefits of networking for students and teachers and academic leaders (Allcock, 2021; and Hannaghan, 2019) (Table 10.1).

Types of School Networks

Ark (2017) classified school networks into a few categories plotting them in a matrix characterised by a loose to tight school model on one axis and a loose to tight support and control model on the other.

- Managed networks are marked by the tight school and tight control model; schools share a learning model, professional learning support, and platform tools.
- Principle networks are loose networks on shared principles; it is a loose–loose model.
- The design network is a voluntary network where members benefit from voluntary contributions; this is a tight school with loose support or control.
- The portfolio network is a loose school with a tight control model; they share supervision and backend support systems.
- The platform network shares the Summit Learning Platform and train teachers.
- Voluntary networks share "design principles and professional development services (but not a platform)"; these are in the middle of the continuums – school and control models.

School networks are physical, social, and virtual. There are large as well as small virtual networks. UNESCO ASPnet, European Schoolnet, Virtual School Network (ViSN), and EUN can be examined for better understanding.

Table 10.1 Advantages and Benefits of School Networks

Benefits	*Students*	*Teachers*	*Academic Leaders*	*School*
1. Expansion of goals and objectives	Y			
2. Collaborative learning.	Y			
3. Creation of new networks of relationships	Y			
4. International connections.	Y			
5. Development of creativity.	Y			
6. Development of creativity	Y			
7. Improve skills and knowledge	Y			
8. Learning for the future	Y			
9. Reignite motivation and goals and targets	Y			
10. Teaching based on new technologies	Y	Y	Y	
11. Promotion of personal communication and intercommunication	Y	Y	Y	
12. Global citizenship	Y			
13. International connections	Y	Y	Y	Y
14. Reducing mechanical workload		Y		
15. Awareness of innovations and best practices		Y	Y	
16. Management of new platforms and work tools				Y
17. Find new work opportunities		Y	Y	
18. Work on generating solutions with like-minded peers		Y	Y	Y
19. Be the change you want to see in education		Y	Y	Y

The UNESCO Associated Schools Network (ASPnet) is possibly the largest educational network connecting more than 11,500 members from 182 countries. The ASPnet supports SDG4, including Global Citizenship Education (SDG4.7), international understanding, peace, intercultural dialogue, and quality education.

ASPnet uses three complementary approaches:

1. *Creating*: As a laboratory of ideas, ASPnet develops, tests, and disseminates innovative educational materials and promotes new teaching and learning approaches based on UNESCO's core values and priorities.
2. *Teaching learning*: Capacity building, innovative teaching, and participative learning in specific ASPnet thematic areas allow school principals, teachers, students and the wider school

community to integrate UNESCO's values and become role models in their community and beyond.

3. *Interacting*: ASPnet gives its stakeholders opportunities to connect and exchange experiences, knowledge and good practices with schools, individuals, communities, policy-makers and society.

A team at UNESCO Headquarters in Paris oversees ASPnet's international coordination. National Commissions for Cooperation with UNESCO designate ASPnet National Coordinators at the country level. Principals, teachers and students lead activities in member schools. (UNESCO n.d., p8)

ASPnet membership is open to all public and private schools, and admission is through an application.

European Schoolnet

European Schoolnet or EUN, founded in 1997, involves thousands of teachers networking with 34 European Ministries of Education. It is based in Brussels. EUN networks with ministries, schools, teachers, researchers, and European IT organisations (Scimeca et al., 2009). EUN supports schools in effectively using Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in teaching and learning, improving and raising the quality of education in Europe. EUN helps schools effectively use educational technologies, equipping teachers and pupils with the skills to achieve in a knowledge society.

The purpose of citing EUN is its magnitude; EUN influences the quality of school education in 34 countries compared to other networks that operate within a smaller group of "like-minded" schools, e.g. European School Network.

European School Network (ESN)

European School Network's (2018) primary approach is the exchange of students. The network comprises, as of 2018, 25 schools in 12 European Countries. The students of the ESN member schools can stay with another school in another country for up to eight weeks. They usually stay in each other's homes.

In addition to these one-to-one exchanges, European School Network allows its members to arrange group exchanges, teacher exchanges, student seminars, and other intercultural encounters between students and teachers. ESN is a managed network based on the personal acquaintance of the principals and international coordinators. These personal acquaintances and relationships ensure the quality of student exchange.

ESN justifies the student exchange:

> Studying in a foreign school, participating in an international project and staying in a host family for even a short period improves your social and intercultural communication skills and boosts your independence. Above all, it is an experience that changes your worldview and gives you a new perspective. It is an amazing opportunity to see what people's everyday lives are like in another culture. Friendships that have their roots in such circumstances last for a lifetime.

Virtual School Network (ViSN: Australia)

Virtual School Network (ViSN) is a network of 147 Diocesan schools belonging to Catholic Education in Western Australia (LEADing lights, n.d.). The ViSN network is inspired by the research outcomes on online and blended learning. Students get better engaged and perform well through blended learning (Bernard et al., 2014; Brodersen and Melluzzo, 2017; Caulfield, 2011; Glazer, 2012; Linder, 2017; Martinez-Caro and Campuzano-Bolarin, 2011; Means et al., 2010; Means et al., 2013; Smith and Hill, 2019; Stockwell et al., 2015). ViSN is an interesting experiment on blended learning in school networks (Means et al., 2013).

The ViSN model of virtual networking has six fundamental pedagogical principles, namely

1. Research base.
2. Student collaboration.
3. Expert teachers.
4. Quality-assured courses.
5. Intentional learner experience.
6. Strong pastoral care.

In the ViSN network, students are enrolled in their respective schools and timetabled for five periods. One of the five periods is used for online delivery (Skype lesson) with the teachers and students across the schools. In the remaining four periods, students work in their respective schools independently or in groups assigned and mentored by the teacher in the school. ViSN mentioned, "Students access their daily lessons via a course OneNote and use Teams to communicate with their Teacher." The ViSN stipulates a 24-hour time frame for teachers to respond to student questions.

ViSN offers courses in Biology, Chemistry, Design (Graphic Design), Earth and Environmental Science, Economics, Geography, Health Studies, Human Biology, Maths Specialist, Modern History, Politics and Law, and Psychology as in 2021.

The ViSN model has several advantages.

- It develops a large and robust learning community.
- Retain enrolments.
- Flexible timetable.
- Increase offerings.
- Teacher peer learning.

How it works is equally innovative. A school nominates a teacher to design and deliver a course *after* (emphasis added by author) her face-to-face and online professional learning for 12 months before delivery. The LEADing Lights team supports teachers to "create a course that reflects best practice for online delivery." The school receives 15 free enrolments in this highly quality-assured course.

Indian Experience

India introduced the school complex after the first National Educational Policy in 1986, as mentioned earlier. The innovation did not take off well except in some states like Maharashtra. Later, after the Education for All movement picked up and international agencies entered Indian education with funding support, a new kind of school networking was introduced as cluster resource centres and block resource centres. The spirit of innovation was growing together. The Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) introduced a new genre of school networking – Sahodaya School Complex in 1987.

Sahodaya Schools: Indian School Networks

The CBSE introduced physical peer networking of schools – the "Sahodaya School" (SS) Complex, where a group of neighbourhood schools voluntarily come together with the mission of growing together (CBSE, n.d.). The CBSE identified educative management, evaluation, human resource mobilisation, professional growth of teachers, value-oriented school climate, and vocationalisation of education as the six focus areas. The Sahodaya Schools are managed by an executive committee elected by the members. These Sahodayas are expected to conduct

- Orientation programmes, seminars, and workshops for teachers/students/principals on various themes.
- Hold joint programmes for home examinations, sports and cultural activities, interschool competitions, exhibitions, etc.
- Discuss implementation of circulars and guidelines issued by the CBSE from time to time.
- Taking up community development projects on the adolescence education programme, road safety, consumer awareness, peace education, etc.

There are 207 such SSs with an estimated membership of more than 10,000 schools. Unlike ViSN, EUN, or ASPnet, SSs function more like social networks. The case of one SS may illustrate the Social School Network (SSN).

BOX 10.1 SAHODAYA VIDYALAYA: A CASE OF SCHOOL SOCIAL NETWORKING

The case study is based primarily on desktop research during 2021 when most schools were shut down due to the COVID-19-related pandemic. This SS comprises more than 40 K–12 schools in a township (district headquarter) with more than 150 schools affiliated with the CBSE and 485 private schools affiliated to different boards (https://www.uniapply.com/schools/schools-in-gurugram/). Since SSs are voluntary, all schools in the city do not automatically become members. An aspiring school applies for membership to the local SS managing committee. An inspection team appointed by the SS managing committee visits the school for some academic and quality audits. Only on the recommendations of the inspection team, a school is granted membership for a membership fee equivalent to about $107 and an annual subscription of $134 (2021–22).

The activities of the SS are classified under four categories – Webinars, Meetings, Events and Conferences. Webinars are not held in any particular periodicity. There were three webinars in some months, and there was no webinar in some other months. Each webinar dealt with an educational issue, usually addressed by principals of one of the member schools.

There were six general body meetings in 2021 when the schools were closed due to the pandemic. While most of the general body meetings comprise routine transactions of official matters, there are a few exceptions. In a few meetings, some distinguished experts addressed the general body meetings. In a meeting held on 10 August 2021, it was decided that the member schools should document their educational contributions every month and share them with others on a common platform. Further, it was decided in the meeting that each member school would record their achievements and awards for others to learn on a fact sheet/Google doc to be provided by the SS. However, no documented evidence is available on the impact of this resolution.

The SS holds one annual conference every year. Besides, it conducts many events according to the calendar posted on its website. The Calendar 2021 indicated as many as five Teachers' Workshops and 25 interschool activities hosted by different schools between April and December 2021. Some activities were International Cultural Festival, ECOLOSSEUM, Talent Buzz, Commonomics, and Socio-Emotional Learning, its Role

in Education, Galaxy Invaders, mathematics Euphoria-2021, Spell Bee, Interschool Competition, Drama, and Yogashala for students.

The major strengths of the Social School Network in this case are:

a. School principals met almost every month and exchanged views, especially about the circulars from the CBSE, developing a shared understanding of the circulars and their implications.
b. Occasionally though, the SS resolved to document the educational contribution of the member schools.
c. The interschool competitions brought students and teachers together from the member schools on several occasions during the year.
d. The annual conference allowed teachers to write and present papers and meet their peers across the member schools.

Significant challenges of the SS are:

a. Developing a collective plan and target for improvement of the member schools.
b. Creating a strategic plan for growing together.
c. Developing innovative teaching–learning material and creating platforms for sharing (many schools buy academic support material from education companies, which do not have in-house expertise and draw expertise from schools).
d. Along with interschool competitions, launching interschool collaborative projects.
e. Increasing opportunity for teachers to interact and benefit from the network, instead of the current practices of filtering knowledge through principals who meet almost every month.
f. Overcoming secrecy, especially in sharing educational resources, developed by the well-established reputed schools.
g. Overcoming mutual competition among the members.

In the absence of any stated collective improvement agenda and target, strategic plan to achieve the targets, implementation, and improvement audit, such networks serve as a platform for sharing ideas and institutional socialisation. In other words, the dominant practice of the network is educational socialisation. There is a sizeable gap between the objectives of the Sahodayas and the activities, outputs, and outcomes.

Networking for School Effectiveness

There is a difference between *happening* and *making things happen*. Enhancing effectiveness is the case of *making things happen*; there is a

deliberate attempt to change and improve. Setting improvement targets, planning, developing, implementing, auditing, and evaluating are tools for *making things happen*. It demands deliberate efforts. Virtual networks like ViSN and EUN are cases of *making things happen*. Social School Networking is, on the contrary, the case of *happening*.

The virtual networks miss institutional socialisation, and the Social School Network remains confined to institutional socialisation without any targeted improvement for school effectiveness. It is possible to combine the best of both and create a new model of Networking for School Effectiveness (NSE).

Let us take an example to build up the argument. The grade 8 science textbook (NCERT) contains 18 chapters. A teacher requires, maybe, 72 periods (lessons) to teach. Teachers usually develop lesson plans for every period. Hence, a science teacher of one section of one school develops 72 lesson plans. Most schools are large and have multiple sections, an average of four, taught by one or more teachers. The 40 member schools of the SS develop at least 40 × 72 or 2880 lesson plans of varying degrees of quality to teach science in grade 8. The number of lesson plans may increase if more than one teacher teaches science in different sections of the same class.

Of the 40 teachers teaching in the 40 schools, 25% or ten are likely to be excellent. Following the ViSN model of networking, the ten teachers can be identified and trained, let's say, in blended learning design (BLD). For developing a blended learning design, each teacher will have to take charge of only two chapters. These teachers can generate high-quality Blended Learning Design (BLD) and a rich repertoire of learning resources in open educational resources (OER), e.g. digital content, academic notes, slides and other visual aids, assignments, quizzes, and tests. These BLDs and learning resources can be shared on a platform. The quality of education of all member schools can go up while reducing the mechanical workload of the teachers.

Educational companies sell lesson plans, slides, tests, and other learning materials. Most of these companies do not have in-house expertise. They derive expertise from school teachers on token payment without acknowledging the contributors. These materials are neither quality assured nor do they inspire the teachers as it becomes a commercial enterprise. School complexes can learn from this model and add quality assurance; they can acknowledge and recognise teachers and offer token financial incentives.

Taking a leaf out of the European School Network (EUN), the SS can introduce a student and teacher exchange programme among the member schools for a short period. Since most member schools are in the neighbourhood, the students and the teachers can participate in the exchange programme from their respective homes. The exchange process will provide access to the mutual understanding of the quality of each other and thereby improve the quality. Exchanging students and teachers across SSs will be more exciting and beneficial, especially in multicultural countries like India.

Even though there is screening before admitting a school in the network, assuming that all schools are of equal quality is not tenable. It may not be needed as every school goes through peer evaluation before affiliation to the CBSE, ensuring minimum quality. The instances of students migrating from one to another member school of the same network for higher secondary education after completing the 10th board examination is not uncommon. Arguably, all member schools do not offer the same quality education or enjoy the same reputation among the parents.

Schools in the same city may be affiliated with Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE), Indian Certificate of Secondary Education (ICSE), International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE), and International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO). There is complete isolation. SS admits schools affiliated only with CBSE.

Managing and Empowering School Networks

Managing and empowering school networks is quite challenging. Many well-meaning school networks find themselves stuck in institutional socialising instead of collectively improving quality. Duff et al. (2019) derived some important lessons from the study of managing networks for school improvement. Adapting the lessons from Duff et al. (2019), networks intended for improving school effectiveness should

a. Develop a clear and shared vision of learning outcome targets, pedagogical policy, and instructional strategies. The network must help each other set individual school improvement targets, as all members are not at the same level of quality or may differ in the quality niche.
b. Since member-schools of a network differ in quality, organisational philosophy, and socio-economic background of students, they should be empowered to take decisions according to the situation within the network's guiding principles.
c. The member schools of a network face different kinds of problems. The same network may have mission-inspired schools, like Dayanand Anglo Vedic Schools, Christian Missionary Schools, Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, and others with entrepreneurship missions. Hence, the one-size-fits-all solution does not work. There can be conflicts of principles and interests, e.g. migration of promising students from one school to another or "pinching" of good teachers of one school by another within the network. Communication should remain open between the network leaders and the member schools.
d. Most networks provide opportunities for academic leaders to meet, collaborate, and enrich through knowledge exchange. Teachers get fewer such opportunities. Interschool collaboration and working together on joint projects, e.g. developing learning resources, are necessary for

school networks to succeed. The ViSN is an interesting example where teachers from different schools prepare resource materials and take online classes across the schools.

e. Trust among the network members is necessary for identifying critical problems and solutions that monitoring and control cannot serve. That's the key to growing together. The member schools of a network get into the competition as they "shop" their students and teachers from the same neighbourhood market (community).
f. It is necessary to understand the landscape in which a network is situated. The school networks in metropolitan cities, small townships, and suburban areas are different. Networks of government schools, low-budget schools, and expensive private schools vary widely. In the networks where admission to the network is not open and based on peer audit, a low-budget school with poor infrastructure is unlikely to find a place in a network of high-budget school networks.
g. When schools gather data through peer audits, the network benefits from the data-gathering tools, identifying strengths and challenges, and best practices across the network member schools.
h. Principals manage the SSs. The imagination and vision of the SSs get restricted to the vision of the principals elected or nominated to lead. The network misses the visioning and creative contribution of the younger teachers and students getting pushed aside by seniors under the pretext of "lack of experience." SSs must create opportunities for younger members (21st-century learner-teachers) to contribute, make the networks more vibrant, and focus on improving school effectiveness.

TPDIAE Cycle of Network Management

The school networks may follow the TPDIAE cycle (Figure 10.1) to accomplish the aim of growing together and achieving collective school effectiveness.

- *Target*: Collectively set measurable improvement targets for each member school, accommodating situational differentiation.
- *Plan*: Create a strategic plan involving all members to achieve the targets. Create a plan for the network and help each other develop individual school plans.
- *Develop*: Develop school network platform for developing a virtual network component with social networking. Develop human resources (e.g. ViSN model), material (including learning) resources, and physical resources, especially ICT facilities for member schools, wherever possible.

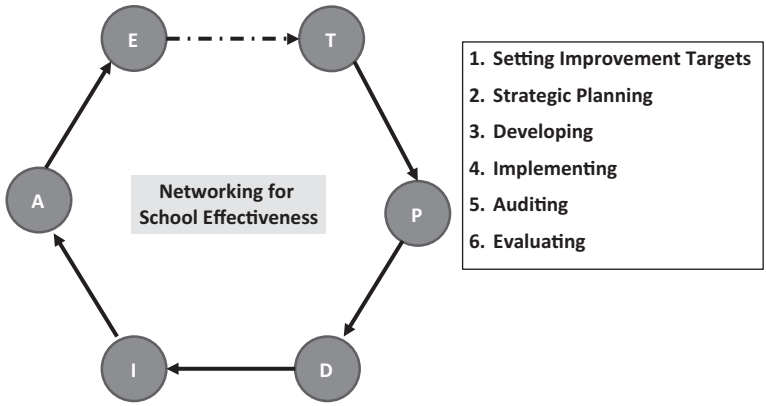

Figure 10.1 TPDIAE Cycle of School Effectiveness

- Implement the strategic plan to utilise the network's resources effectively and mutually help member schools implement school-specific plans.
- *Audit*: Audit and monitor implementation of the strategic plan for the network and help member schools audit their plan implementation continuingly.
- *Evaluate*: Conduct a summative assessment of the implementation of the strategic plan and its implementation at the end of the specified period for the network and individual member schools.

The 17 SDGs and the four pillars of learning (UNESCO, 1996) reinforce the need for networking to move towards the development of quality education for all and global citizenship for sustainable development.

Key Takeaways

1. School networks comprise a group of schools that purposefully come together to exchange information, generate discourses on professional matters of common interest and concern, and mutually support quality improvement.
2. Participation of schools in networks facilitates developing a school as a learning organisation to enhance school effectiveness.
3. School networks are for growing together through collaborative institutional learning. Schools learn better when they collaborate.
4. School networking benefits students, teachers, academic leaders, other staff, and the school.

5. School networks are virtual and social (face to face). With technological developments, especially the internet, collaboration and networking have become easier, especially for virtual networking.
6. There are a large number of school networks. Some school networks are large, like UNESCO's ASPnet, European School Network, and Charter Management Organisation, and some are relatively small with a smaller number of member schools.
7. School networks have been classified into six categories based on the tight school and tight support or control model. The six categories are managed networks, principles networks, design networks, portfolio networks, platform networks, and voluntary networks.
8. UNESCO's ASPnet facilitates developing and promoting innovative educational materials and new teaching and learning approaches, capacity building, innovative teaching, and participative learning. Specific ASPnet thematic areas allow school principals, teachers, students and the wider school community to integrate UNESCO's values and become role models in their community and beyond. Stakeholders connect and exchange experiences, knowledge, and good practices.
9. EUN networks with ministries, schools, teachers, researchers, and European IT organisations and supports schools in effectively using ICT in teaching and learning, improving and raising the quality of education in Europe.
10. ESN's primary networking approach is exchanging students with teachers.
11. The ViSN uses one of the five periods for online delivery of lessons across the schools through virtual mode. Students work individually or in groups for the remaining four periods in their respective schools.
12. Indian Sahodaya School Complex, initiated by the CBSE, stipulates educative management, evaluation, human resource mobilisation, professional growth of teachers, value-oriented school climate, and vocationalisation of education as the six areas of focus.
13. The activities of the SS are usually classified under four categories – webinars, meetings, events, and conferences. Its strength is organisational socialisation; the challenge is collective quality improvement.
14. The school networks should create a mix of social and virtual networking to enhance school effectiveness. Schools should network with resource institutions and expert resource persons. The school networks should adopt target, plan, develop, implement, audit, and evaluate circle for collaborative development.

Please Check Your Learning Outcomes

1. Critically compare the modus operandi of ASPnet, EUN, ViSN, and SS.
2. Which kind of school networks would you like to join?

3. How would your school benefit from participating in school networks?
4. How would you contribute to the school effectiveness of other schools through school networks?

Note

1 https://www.sgeducationnetwork.org/

11

REORIENTING ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT FOR SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

Introduction

The references to the role of administrative management are scanty in the discourses on school quality improvement and the role of academic leaders. It is a relatively less visited area. However, the research indicates a significant relationship between and impact of administrative management on school performance and effectiveness (Amaninche Jr., 2020; Hussain et al., 2020; Jaradat, 2019; Obied, 2020). One major role of an academic leader is creating an ambience or school climate characterised by enthusiasm for academic excellence.

Administrative management is often interpreted as management by rules. Schools must follow the rules to maintain equity, equitability, and transparency in managing people, material, and financial resources. The administrative management promotes accountability through responsiveness to rules and regulations. The administrative management needs to be factored into the overall framework of academic leadership for achieving excellence, as rules and regulations can be interpreted dynamically or conservatively without either being incorrect. Academic leaders widely differ in their interpretation of the rules. Effective academic leaders take a dynamic view of rules and regulations, braiding institutional interest with staff and student interest.

The organisational ambience for school effectiveness receives significant contributions from several other departments and activities in the school. An effective administrative system facilitates teachers to focus on academic processes and practices and provides data support to the academic leadership team to improve decision-making quality.

This chapter deals with the science and practices of administrative management, including administrative theories, administrative management frameworks, administrative management missions, administration and management of co-academic and para-academic activities, and ways to tune administrative management to enhance school effectiveness.

 DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-11

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Explain the importance of administrative management for school effectiveness.
b. Compare different administrative management theories.
c. Explain the principles of administrative management for school effectiveness.
d. Diagnose administrative management deficiencies decelerating the process of school effectiveness.
e. Create a plan of action and reorient administrative management to improve school effectiveness.

Administrative Management Theories

The fundamental concept of the administrative theories is based on departmentalisation (Clark, 2017). A school performs a large number of activities. These activities are carried out in groups or departments like academic, administration, and finance. The academic domain is divided into pre-primary, primary, secondary, and higher secondary sections. The secondary and higher secondary sections are further divided into departments, e.g. science and social science (Figure 5.1). People in different sections and departments can achieve the objectives effectively by contributing to the school mission. There is an organic relationship among these components.

There are several administrative management theories, like the Classical Theory, Taylor's Scientific Management Theory, Max Weber's Bureaucratic Theory, Neo-classical Theory, Modern Theory, Carl Rogers' Humanistic Theory, Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs, Fayol's Administrative Management Theory, and others.

Different theories add new shades, meaning, and emphasis to the generic concept of administrative theory. For example, the classical theory believes that workers have only physical and economic needs. It advocates labour, centralised decision-making, and profit maximisation. It emphasises hierarchy, specialisation, and incentives (Villanova University, 2022). The theory resonates with the contentions of Martin Carnoy (1974 – *Education for Cultural Imperialism)*.

In the *Principles of Scientific Management*, Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911, p1) stated, "The principal object of management should be to secure the maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with the maximum prosperity for each employee." The shift from the classical theory is the inclusion of employees' prosperity with that of the employers and embedding scientific principles drawn from engineering sciences. Taylor's theory

stands on four pillars: develop a science for each work element; scientifically select, train, teach, and develop the worker; cooperate with the worker, and divide the work and responsibility.

Max Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy is a major contribution to administrative management (please refer to Chapter 4). The fundamental principles are specialisation, formalised rules, hierarchical structure, well-trained employees, managerial dedication, and the impartiality of management. Max Weber's theory is weighted on professionalisation and hierarchical structure. The theory of bureaucracy is extensively used in government, business, and industry. Education is no exception. Bureaucracy is practised in schools for equality and transparency while helping maintain the status quo by arresting or slowing down the process of innovation and faster change.

The neoclassical theory improves on the classical theory by incorporating behavioural science elements into administrative management. The focus shifted from productivity and administrative structure to getting things done by the employees through employee motivation and support. Two main inspirations of the neoclassical theory are human relations and behavioural movements (Study.com, 2012). The human relations movement drew from Elton Mayo (1933) and Fritz J. Roethlisberger's Hawthorne studies. The main contention was that "group norms and worker attitudes are important and account for a variance left unaccounted for by scientific management and personnel selection."[1] Mayo's (1933) emphasis was on social groups and social relationships. Behavioural movement is an offshoot of behaviourism, emphasising observable behaviour instead of covert thinking. The Neo-classical theory introduced and highlighted the human face of the organisation with the opportunity of interaction among the employees to develop the "we-ness."

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs profoundly impacted the understanding of administrative management by viewing employees through the prism of needs and motivations. Maslow classified employee needs at five levels: physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualisation (Figure 11.1).

Later, Maslow revised the hierarchy of needs to include cognitive, aesthetic, and transcendence needs (Maslow, 1954, 1970) (Figure 11.2).

Carl Rogers (1959) built further on Maslow's concept of self-actualisation. His primary contention is every person can achieve their goals, wishes, and desires in life; if they strive for that, they can self-actualise. Rogers (1959) contended that an environment of genuineness (openness and self-disclosure), acceptance (seen with positive regard), and empathy (being listened to and understood) as the three conditions for a person to grow.

Fayol's (1916) Administrative Management Theory involves five elements and 14 principles. Five elements are planning, organising, commanding, coordinating, and controlling in a cyclic process (Kullabs, n.d.).

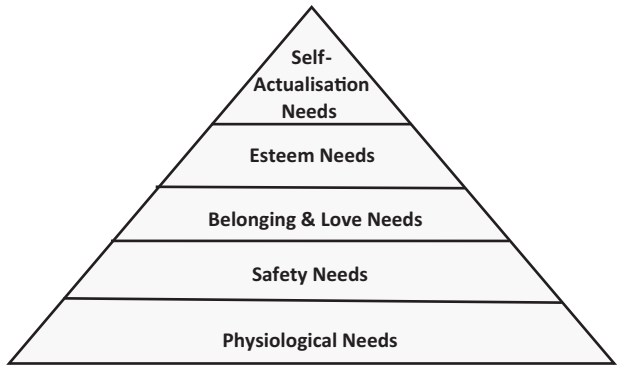

Figure 11.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

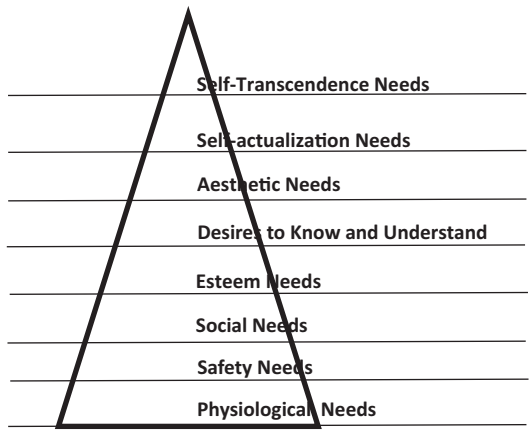

Figure 11.2 Maslow's Revised Hierarchy of Needs

The 14 principles are initiative, equity, scalar chain (a hierarchy of chain of higher to a lower level of management), remuneration of personnel, unity of direction, discipline, division of work, authority and responsibility, unity of command, subordination of individual interest to general interest, centralisation, order, stability of tenure, and esprit de corps.

The evolution of administrative theories indicates a steady shift from an exclusive emphasis on organisation with employees as cogs in the production wheel to increasing humanisation with emphasis on motivation, socialisation, and self-actualisation. Understanding this evolution helps an academic leader choose the pathway of administrative management reforms to enhance school effectiveness.

Administrative Management Missions

Ten principles can guide the mission of administrative management:

1. *Establishing equality and transparency*: Rules, regulations, and protocols are developed to treat everybody equally, instead of "show me the person, I'll tell you the rule." Rules should be equally applied to all and that application of equality should be transparent and visible to all.
2. *Proactive interpretation of rules*: The rules are administrative policies and statements of intentions. The application of rules is subject to interpretation. The rules can be interpreted conservatively to deny opportunities or proactively create a motivating ambience.
3. *Optimisation of resource utilisation*: Schools have human, material, financial, time, and information resources. The mission of administrative management should be to make the best use of the available resources – visible and hidden, and tangible and intangibles.
4. *Promoting accountability*: Along with establishing equality and transparency and proactive interpretation of rules, it will be necessary to promote accountability of all categories of human resources for school effectiveness.
5. *Making informed decisions*: Decisions can be made based on data and evidence. An important mission of administrative management for school effectiveness is to take an informed decision based on data and evidence.
6. *Defining and enlarging proactive roles of every staff category*: Roles in an organisation can be stated routinely or proactively. The administrative management mission should make a special effort to define roles with a proactive overtone. For example, the principal can control, influence, and inspire. The proactive definition of this role is influencing and inspiring.
7. *Maintaining hygiene and promoting motivation*: Hertzberg's (1993) principle mentions motivating and hygiene factors. Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., and Snyderman, B.B. (1959) wrote in *The Motivation to Work*, "The authors surprisingly found that while a poor work environment generated discontent, improved conditions seldom brought about improved attitudes. Instead, satisfaction came most often from factors intrinsic to work: achievements, job recognition, and challenging work, interesting, and responsible." Motivating factors do not fully impact unless hygienic factors are properly considered. Hence, the mission of administrative management should be carefully designed to match hygienic and motivating factors – protect motivation with proper hygiene.
8. *Creating opportunity for self-actualisation*: As the Administrative Management Theory moved from classical through neoclassical to

Hierarchy of Human Needs and Humanistic Theory, it pronounced the importance of self-actualisation and transcendence. The mission of administrative management for school effectiveness must ensure that everyone can achieve their goals, wishes, and desires in life (Carl Rogers, 1959).

9. *Developing proactive collectivism and Gung Ho(ing)*: Elton Mayo emphasised socialisation and the role of social interaction in administrative management. Gung Ho(ing) is creating a blend of Mayo and Blanchard and Bowles (1997) to create an enthusiastic ambience for achieving together.
10. *Flattening the organisation for improving institutional learnability*: Institutional learnability or developing the school as a learning organisation through continuous quality improvement is best done in hierarchy-free or soft-hierarchy flat organisations. This increases approachability to the leader (origin and power source). The mission of academic management should be to reduce the rigidity of the hierarchic boundaries to make the school a flat organisation.

These principles are only as good as implemented. The implementation depends upon the personality of the academic leader. The academic leaders are captives of their world view and life script – "an unconscious pathway created in childhood, reinforced by our parents, and strengthened with evidence sought throughout life ensuring our beliefs are justified" (Berne, 1972, p46).

This science of life script, a vocabulary from transactional analysis, gets reinforced by Douglas McGregor's classification of people in leadership positions as Theory X and Theory Y types. The Theory X managers assume that most employees are self-centred, not ambitious, not interested in the job, and have a poor attitude. They believe employee motivation is governed by salary, incentives, and job security – the lower end of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The managerial choices are coercion, threats, command, and control (Maslow, 1943). In sharp contrast, Theory Y managers assume that if conditions are favourable, most employees want to, and can, handle responsibilities, they enjoy work, and they achieve better if their self-fulfilment needs are met. Theory Y managers decentralise and delegate decision-making rights and implementation responsibilities to others. They adopt participative management and enlarge the job roles to add variety to satisfy ego needs. Thus, the choice of implementational strategy is primarily governed by the type of academic leader. The behavioural attributes of both Theory X and Theory Y managers are beliefs dictated by their life scripts.

Administrative Management Framework

We (Mukhopadhyay and Narula, 1992) did a role and task analysis of school principals involving principals, supervisors, researchers, and management

trainers. The multistage exercise, including consultations, focus group discussion, and field testing, led us to identify 54 competencies in academic, human resources or personnel, finance, infrastructure, student and parent services, network, office, and managerial leadership. The school managerial leadership often restricts their attention to financial, infrastructure, or facilities management (IBE-UNESCO n.d.). The focus of academic leadership must be on academic management, gearing up all other departments to create an appropriate ambience for academic excellence and self-fulfilment for all (Figure 11.3).

School effectiveness warrants tuning in all other subsystems to strengthen academic management. Then, an academic leader should differentiate between the components of each subsystem required for running the school and those that can add value to creating a vibrant academic ambience. Referring to Hertzberg's two-factor theory, an academic leader must identify hygiene and motivating factors for each staff category. It is necessary to remember that motivators do not work on inadequate hygiene. The challenge is building motivators on the robust foundation of hygiene. For example, staff salary and associated allowances are hygienic factors. Withdrawal of perks or reduction in salary affects morale, but salary enhancement does not enhance motivation. Acknowledgement and social recognition and higher responsibility motivate staff. An academic leader would need to figure out what one can do to inspire and motivate staff within the given resources and identify and separate items from every subsystem that energises the school's academic ambience and enhances school effectiveness. Let us take up each domain individually.

Personnel Management

In schools, non-teaching staff and the service (menial) staff are often kept on the periphery, though they can motivate or demoralise the academic staff.

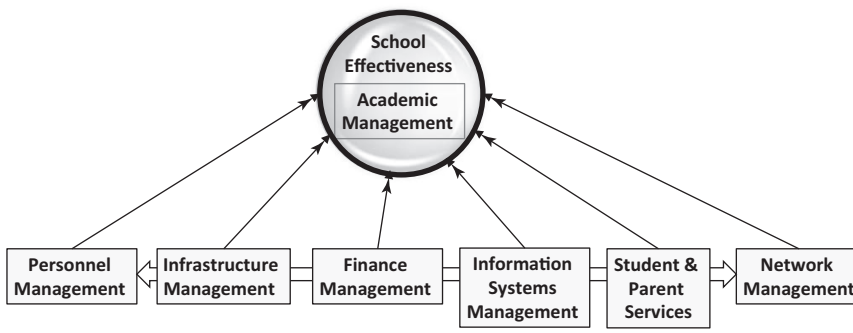

Figure 11.3 Administrative Management Support for Academic Management

For a turnaround, schools must consider the "last mile motivation" measures. A few examples may be helpful.

- One university conducted a computer training course for gardeners, sweepers, and car and bus drivers. The participants learnt to type their names using the computer keyboard, open e-mail ids, and exchange e-mails.
- In an in-house programme, a photocopying machine operator, a competent vocal musician, was ushered on stage for a musical performance alongside reputed artists.
- Vice chancellor of a national institution used to go round the institute gardens and lawns and engage with the gardeners admiring the plants, flowers and lawns, and minutest things like colour and freshness of grass blades, the colour of the flowers, and classroom décor with plants to motivate and inspire them (Mukhopadhyay, 2012).
- There are instances where administrative and financial staff exchanged positions with academic staff – academic staff helping administration and finance and administrative and finance staff taking classes for absentee teachers.
- Without a professionally qualified librarian, the most popular mathematics teacher of a rural higher secondary school personally dusted, cleaned, and took charge of the school library.

In many universities, the registrar and controller of examinations are senior professors on deputation. In schools, this is not common. One must figure out how to integrate the non-teaching staff with the teaching staff to create synergy and motivate them to contribute to the school's vision and mission.

The personnel management of academic staff can be divided into hygienic and motivating factors. Routine administration, according to rules, takes care of most of the hygienic factors. The principal needs to identify and invent motivators to enthuse the academic staff. Appreciation, performance review and positive feedback, social recognition, additional responsibility, and role extension, etc. have been found to work.

Most of the academic and non-academic staff carry several unfulfilled dreams and ambitions. They were good at and passionate about some creative fields during their school and college years. They had to give up their dreams for compelling reasons. Opening the window of opportunity to rediscover themselves and pursue their dreams is a great motivator supporting the self-fulfilment agenda.

Infrastructure Management

Within the overall framework of physical infrastructure, one can focus on academic infrastructures like classrooms, multipurpose rooms, libraries,

laboratories, ICT facilities, staffrooms, teacher learning resource rooms, gyms, playgrounds, and open-air theatres.

Minor alterations in the academic infrastructure can motivate staff. A comparison of the principal's office and staffrooms can be educative. The usual staffroom layout is a large central table with chairs around. There is no identifiable place for an individual teacher. RK Sarda Vidyamandir in Raipur changed such a staffroom layout. The school created small cubicles for each teacher along the walls of the staffroom, leaving the large central table as it was. Each cubicle had a nameplate of a teacher, an overhead storage space, and internet connections. The fixed heavy chairs were replaced by lightweight wheeled office chairs, facilitating teachers to turn around from the work desk cubicle to the central table for discussing and chatting with colleagues. During a discussion with the teachers (with the author), they expressed their happiness and satisfaction in recognising their identities.

Adding a pantry and an attached washroom offers additional comfort and dignity to the staff members. Creating a staffroom library or placing a few light reading magazines relaxes teachers who often have to jump from one class to another, engaging six to seven periods every day without a meaningful break. Some schools that cannot provide laptops to every teacher can place a few laptops with internet connectivity in the staffroom for the teachers.

The organisation of classroom furniture in theatre style obstructs collaboration and group learning. Providing round tables and chairs for students to learn in groups, functional ICT facilities, and ensuring lighting, ventilation, and temperature management for the comfort of students and teachers add value to the quality of academic processes. At their cost, two passionate teachers of Panitras Free Primary School furnished all classrooms with colourful round tables and chairs according to the children's heights to facilitate group learning.

Though not many, some school libraries have reading facilities – usually, a large table with few chairs for students and teachers. Small single-occupancy study cubicles can complement large multi-occupancy reading tables where a faculty member can reserve a kiosk for a few days for concentrated study and project work. I came across libraries beautifully decorated with decoration items often seen in the drawing rooms of personal residences to attract students and teachers. The practice of providing a bouquet every morning to the principal's office can be extended to staffrooms and libraries to make them more attractive.

A similar focus is needed on sports and games, music and dance, and other such facilities that equally contribute to the development of the academic ambience of the school. Often the sports and games facilities are restricted to students. The sports and games facilities can be extended to the teaching and non-teaching staff to enrich the ambience.

The non-academic infrastructure like corridors, washrooms, boundary walls, small isolated corners, canteens, and eating joints can affect or enhance motivation. Generally speaking, these are hygienic factors. For example, unclean and improperly provided washrooms, poor boundary management, dirty and dusty corridors and ceilings, poor management of school transport, etc. can risk safety and health hazard to students and staff alike, affecting motivation.

Some of these conventional facilities can be converted into educational facilities. Building as Learning Aids (VINYAS, 2012) is a well-known experiment in which the corridor walls, steps on the staircase, floors, and ceilings are used as learning aids (Grover and Kaur, 2017; Mukhopadhyay, 2022). For example, schools can enhance incidental learning opportunities by using corridor walls with painted folklores, visuals and textual definitions of scientific inventions, nature, history, geography, mathematical quizzes, geometry, etc. This is quite common in Indian temples. The stories and visuals displayed on walls can enrich incidental learning of students and teachers by engaging them in informal discussions and dialogues.

These are only some of the ideas. You can innovate and integrate what you consider right in the given situation of your school.

Finance Management

Finance management involves mobilising, allocating, utilising, accounting, and auditing finance. Accounting and auditing are statutory requirements and responsibilities. Hence, its importance must not be undermined.

The government (almost) fully funds the public schools. Private schools mobilise entire financial resources primarily through student fees and other charges from the students. Private schools also generate funds through donations from alumni. Government schools should also generate funds, maybe some innovation funds, for innovative QIs. For enhancing school effectiveness, there is a need to make a medium-term assessment, maybe 3 to 5 years, of the financial requirement for realising the school vision and devise the strategy for fund mobilisation.

The institutional budget comprises committed expenditure (non-plan) and unassigned (plan) budget heads. The committed budget head mainly includes the staff's salary and maintenance of the physical infrastructure. These items explain more than 80% of the annual expenditure of a school. The financial management genius of the academic leader is in allocating and utilising the remaining small portion of the budget to create staff motivation and an environment for school effectiveness. For example, balancing extra-liberal spacing and extra-rich furnishing of the principal's office and "*cattle-class*" staffrooms (space and furniture), reorienting the same staffroom where every teacher gets an identifiable small cubicle, or delegating a token financial power to teachers to buy books of their choice, read, and deposit

to the school or staffroom library. Other interventions that enhance self-esteem may add value to the school environment's efforts. The strategies like blending, braiding, and layering of resources described in Chapter 10 need consideration.

In the face of a shortage of educational resources, there is equally strong research evidence of underutilisation of resources, especially educational technology resources (Mukhopadhyay and Sinha, 1993; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2018; Obiyo and Inyama, 2019; Oroma et al., 2013). The ICT facilities in classrooms are often less used than in computer labs.

Financial management is guided by financial rules (FR). The FR is subject to interpretation. A rule can be implemented to deprive a staff member of her due, leading to demoralisation, or can be interpreted and implemented to motivate staff. The management of maternity leave of women teachers and temporary staff is an important case. Teachers can suggest books or buy, read, and deposit the book to the library and claim the cost of the book back. The second practice may add value to staff motivation without violating the FR.

The head of an institution once shared that he first ensured whether that was the kind of candidate the institute wanted during staff selection. Once confirmed, he offers the highest the institute can under the rules not to lose the candidate.

Management Information System

Management Information System is necessary for developing data-based scientific decision-making. Because of admission, most schools have computerised student databases besides personnel and financial management systems. A school aspiring for a turnaround should have a comprehensive information management system comprising students, parents, teachers, other staff, school infrastructure, school networks, etc. A critical component of the management information system should contain data on classroom observation for every teacher. The Management Information System (MIS) should include student, teacher, staff, and patent portfolios, including special events and performances. Such MIS help in auditing and performance management.

Student and Parent Services Management

Students' and parents' services management is key to the satisfaction and happiness of the students and teachers that directly relate to students' performance and school reputation. Admission management, caring for students, respectful engagement with parents, providing encouragement and feedback to both students and parents, and parental involvement in their child's education and school development are key domains of parents and

children services management. The scope of administrative management must include policies and plans for parent involvement and ensure policy implementation. The school may allocate staff from the teaching or non-teaching staff to implement the school policy on students' and parents' services. This will give visibility and importance to this otherwise neglected domain that significantly impacts school effectiveness. This action will also add to motivation and enlarge the role of the concerned teacher/staff.

Network Management

We have discussed elaborately networking for school improvement in Chapter 10. The case studies presented in that chapter indicate that networking is used for socialisation and academic excellence for school effectiveness. The academic leader must ensure that school networking or participation in a school network focuses on quality improvement for school effectiveness.

Administrative management must be carefully steered to support network management. Academic leaders focus on academic management and set every other domain as enablers for achieving schools' academic mission.

Key Takeaways

1. Research evidence indicates a significant relationship between and impact of administrative management on school performance and effectiveness.
2. The administrative management should be reoriented to create an ambience or school climate characterised by enthusiasm, proactivity, empathy, and friendliness.
3. The school effectiveness receives significant inputs from other departments and activities like a library, science laboratories, computer and in-class technology facility, sports and games facilities, music, dance and craft, midday meals, classroom décor and furnishing, gardens, greeneries and flowers, cleanliness – hygiene and beauty – and safety; departments of administration and finance need to contribute to school effectiveness proactively.
4. There are several administrative management theories, like Classical Theory, Taylor's Scientific Management Theory, Max Weber's Bureaucratic Theory, Neo-classical Theory, Modern Theory, Carl Rogers' Humanistic Theory, and Fayol's Administrative Management Theory. Some associated theories of considerable importance are Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, and Herzberg's Two-factor Motivation Theory. A basic understanding of these theories helps the academic leader retune the administrative management for school effectiveness.

5. The evolution of administrative theory indicates a steady shift from an exclusive emphasis on organisation with employees as cogs in the production wheel to humanisation, emphasising motivation, socialisation, and self-actualisation.
6. Establishing equality and transparency, proactive interpretation of rules, optimisation of resource utilisation, promoting accountability, making informed decisions, defining proactive roles of every staff, maintaining hygiene and promoting motivation, creating opportunity for self-actualisation, developing proactive collectivism, and flattening the organisation for improving institutional learnability are the ten principles of administrative management for school effectiveness.
7. It is necessary to shape administrative management for school effectiveness by motivating employees to find their job meaningful while satisfying their ego and social needs and, above all, the need for self-fulfilment and self-actualisation.
8. The common denominator is to tune administrative management actions to help everyone feel wanted and involved; find the opportunity for self-fulfilment and actualisation of potential; and create an enthusiastic, positive climate for everyone to contribute their best happily.

Please Check Your Learning Outcomes

a. What administrative management practices are blocking the progress in school effectiveness?
b. What are the basic tenets of theories of administration?
c. What would be the administrative management mission for enhancing the effectiveness of your school?
d. Create a guideline for administrative reforms to facilitate school effectiveness.

Note

1 Human Relations Movement. http://psychology.iresearchnet.com/industrial-organizational-psychology/i-o-psychology-history/human-relations-movement/

12

STUDENT SERVICES AND PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT FOR SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

Introduction

Schools are set up for the students. The way students are welcomed in the school, treated, mentored, cared for, supported during challenging times, and helped achieve their ambitions makes them proud of their school. The students and their parents carry the fragrance of the school to the community and shape the public reputation of a school. To enhance school effectiveness, academic leaders must nurture this vital constituency and integrate parents, students, and alumni.

Research evidence suggests that parental involvement in children's education, school activities, and management significantly improves school effectiveness. Research also reveals that parents outsource their children's education to less effective schools. Schools also adopt a protective model disallowing parents' *interference* in children's education (Swap, 1993) based on the assumed expert model – the teacher knows everything about children's education (Hornby, 2011). Parents hardly ever visit such schools even if they are invited. This scenario is visible in many public rural schools where parents are from weak economic and educational backgrounds. Parents' self-esteem and confidence to meet the teachers stand in the way.

In contrast, parents of effective schools meet their child's teachers periodically to follow up on their learning trajectory. Parents also benefit from such visits. A historical incident may be interesting. Prof. B.F. Skinner is one of the most celebrated educational thinkers of the 20th century. He is credited with the theory of operant conditioning, programmed instruction, creation of teaching machines, and mastery learning built into programmed instruction and was a reputed dog trainer and behavioural experimentalist on rats and pigeons. Skinner visited the school and his daughter Deborah's class during one of the parent–teacher meetings (Mukhopadhyay, 2022). That visit to Deborah's class changed Skinner, the father, from dog trainer to leader of the behaviourism school of learning.

Research also suggests that parental involvement in their children's education and school activities depend on the school and its academic

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-12

leadership. School policy and practices significantly determine parental participation in school activities and students' education (Dauber and Epstein, 1993). The parental involvement in school helps improve students' performance, reducing the risk of discontinuation and dropout, and the school benefits from parental expertise, resource mobilisation, and building school reputation.

This chapter will deal with student services and parental involvement for school effectiveness.

Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Develop a school policy on student support services and a framework for implementation.
b. Explain the importance of parental involvement for enhancing school effectiveness.
c. Identify factors affecting parental involvement in your schools.
d. Compare different models of parental involvement in school.
e. Develop a policy and strategic plan for the involvement of parents for school effectiveness.

Student Services

Student affairs and student services are the two phrases used in educational literature. Student affairs, a more inclusive concept, emphasise students' learning outcomes and development. The student services focus on services that support students' performance, satisfaction, arresting discontinuation, motivation, etc. (Seifert, 2011). Interestingly, this field of student services is better researched in higher education. Research and documentation of students' services in school education is relatively little. School services based on students' perspectives – what services students need and expect and how such services are provided - are more effective. Student (welfare) services "pertain to the provision of basic services and programs that guarantee relevant efficient and effective support and assistance to the well-being of all students" (Bulacan State University, as quoted by Thahir et al., 2020).

Berkeley Secondary School Student Support and Interventions (BUSD Education Services, n.d.) make some important propositions:

1. The purpose of student support services, it argues, is to help students and their families navigate the school as an organisation, develop habits for sustainable achievement, and support students facing non-academic barriers like health, family resources, and different kind of biases, e.g. gender, socio-economic status, and ethnicity.

2. The framework asserts that students need sustained support throughout the school years as they face different challenges at different grades. Minimally invasive or "light touch one-time intervention" has limited short-term effects. Since effective schools must ensure every student succeeds, student support must be continuous, equitable, and frequent (Scrivener and Weiss, 2009).
3. Berkeley framework recommends bringing teachers and support service staff like counsellors and medical or healthcare staff together for contextualising and integrating non-academic (e.g., life skills) skill-building within the academic framework.
4. Students differ in their needs for support. Hence, personalised support is needed; for example, school counsellors provide need-based personalised support.

Besides counselling, Manitoulin Secondary School (n.d.) helps students in post-secondary planning and course choices and transition to the secondary level. Effective schools help students choose streams at the higher secondary level based not only on their performance in school subjects but also on students' fundamental trends and talents (Box 12.1).

BOX 12.1 CHOICE OF COURSE STREAM FOR HIGHER SECONDARY EDUCATION: A CASE

On the announcement of the tenth-grade board examination result, a student visited the school with her parent for the choice of a stream at the higher secondary level. The teacher congratulated the student for her brilliant performance in all subjects. The teacher-counsellor told the student that she could choose any stream – science, commerce, or humanities – as her examination scores were good enough.

The teacher then took out a diary (cumulative record card) containing 13 years of development reports from nursery to the tenth grade of the student. The teacher showed the student's performance record across all the grades from nursery to the tenth, and teachers' notings of anecdotes, events, and unique talent displayed by the student in various grades. There was consistent noting by different teachers in different grades about her creative talent in drawing and painting.

The counsellor-teacher advised the student to opt for arts, especially fine arts, leaving the option open as the student had performed equally well in science and mathematics. The student and the parent chose humanities with painting and mathematics.

The 13 years of the development history of the student was an outstanding service to the parents and the student to make an informed choice with the potential to impact later career choices and success in life.

Though primarily for higher education, British Columbia made an impressive inventory of student services, most of which are equally applicable in schools. The services include academic advising, athletics and fitness, campus orientation programmes, career services, counselling, disability/accessibility services, financial aid, indigenous services, library orientation programmes, student housing, student life programmes, and writing and maths.

School student services can be mapped on a timeline – pre-enrolment, enrolment, and post-enrolment (Maddy-Bernstein and Cunanan, 1995).

Pre-enrolment: The student support services start before the enrolment. The first step is to decide on a school policy on students' services and a strategic implementation plan. Parents, especially in urban areas, must choose a school for their children. The choice of school is not easy. Some schools, especially private schools, are too expensive to be affordable for parents of average means; there may be a mismatch with the student's socio-economic background in the school.

There are expensive and low-budget private schools with merit-based admission. Every country has a large number of state-funded public schools open to all. India has set up residential public schools for talented rural children with merit-based admission, e.g. Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya. Also, there are residential model schools for ethnic minorities. Schools must reach out with their mission and vision, organisational culture, and affordability conditions to help parents choose. Schools can organise orientation programmes for parents aspiring to seek admission with a serving of parenting and the school's expectation of parental support for their children's education. Schools need to develop age-appropriate school readiness assessments of children and parental backgrounds for compatibility with school culture and missions. Referring to Husen's (1972) work, identifying the genetic background of children at the entry point in the context of equality of educational opportunity may be worthwhile.

Enrolment: The services after enrolment pertain to essential and academic services.

Basic services. All schools, irrespective of the management and socio-economic background of families, provide certain essential student support services like counselling, transportation, supporting special needs children, childcare, emergency, safety and security, emotional well-being, and medical/nursing. For example, the Government of West Bengal (India) provides cycles to all IX to XII students under *Sabuj Sathi Scheme* to facilitate students' travel across villages to reach their schools.

Academic services. The Berkeley student support service system rightly contended that the support must be comprehensive, intensive, and frequent. The services may include academic advice, remedial education, and tutoring, as mentioned in Figure 12.1.

Post-enrolment: The post-enrolment services are when the students pass out. The school pass-outs enter either higher education institutions or the

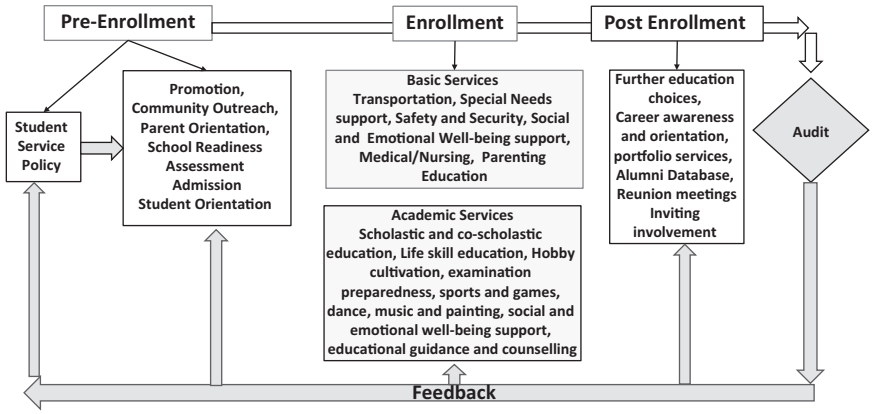

Figure 12.1 School Student Services: Conceptual Framework

employment market. Important student support is orientation on programmes and course choices for further education with career awareness, job opportunities for school graduates, and preparing for the transition from school to work. School is the formative period, shaping the students through 15 years of education in K–12 grades. Learning styles and preferences get established; hobbies, talents, and passions take concrete shape; and performance patterns in different activities take shape. One helpful student service is to provide a portfolio of performances and potentials in intellectual, emotive, social and spiritual domains, personality, and multiple intelligence profiles.

Audit: Periodic audit is necessary to evaluate the quality of student services and gaps between student services policy intent and policy impact. The audit can provide feedback to improve student services management.

Parental Involvement

Parental involvement in education is a well-investigated area. Generally, "Students do better academically and socially when schools build positive relationships with their families" (Responsive Classroom, n.d.). Research on parental involvement focuses on the impact on student performance, adjustment, retention/dropout, and engagement. Supportive parental (and guardians) behaviour correlates with student achievement (Scharton, 2019); irrespective of economic and social background, parental involvement fosters positive attitudes towards school, improves homework habits, reduces absenteeism, increases school attendance and decreases students' risk of dropping out, and enhances academic achievement (Allen and Mintrom, 2010; Comer, 2005; Epstein, 2005; Garrett, 2008;

Henderson and Mapp, 2002; National PTA, 2000; Lara and Saracostti, 2019). Henderson and Berla (1995, pp.14–16) contend that "When parents are involved at school, the performance of all the children at school, not just their own, tends to improve. The more comprehensive and well planned the partnership between school and home, the higher the student achievement." Parental involvement influences adolescents' school adjustment, regardless of academic performance (Serna and Martínez, 2019).

Several researchers have analysed the relationship between homework and the academic achievement of students (Baş et al., 2017; Deets, 2015; Fan et al., 2017; Fernández-Alonso et al., 2015; Núñez et al., 2019; Sharma, 2013; Songsirisak and Jitpranee, 2019; Trautwein, 2007). Homework is one domain where the parental contribution is significant.

Despite positive evidence of the impact of parental involvement on students' achievement, motivation, and engagement, parental involvement is not necessarily high and uniform across schools. The school policy and practices and teacher behaviour are significant determinants of involving parents and family members in school activities and students' education (Dauber and Epstein, 1993).

Models of Parental Involvement

Some meaningful efforts have been made to develop conceptual models of parental engagement (Epstein, 2007; Hornby, 2011; Hornby and Witte, 2011; Newman et al., 2019; University of Minnesota, 2018). Common threads among the models are the expert model, consumer model, and partnership model (Hornby, 2011). Swap (1993) suggested protective, transmission, and curriculum enrichment models. The Minnesota University proposed four models:

- *Independent*: In this model, the school works independently without parental involvement. Parents leave the responsibility of educating their children to the school. Parental involvement is considered unnecessary interference; "the school knows how to educate students." However, parents share resources and hold the school accountable for their children's education. This model is commonly visible in rural public schools. Poorly educated parents with limited family resources support this model.
- *Mission driven*: The mission-driven parental involvement has a limited partnership plan between home and school for achieving the mission of inculcating specific values and students' academic achievement. The school takes the initiative in this model.
- *Cooperative*: School and the parents recognise that there are experts at both ends, and cooperation between the school (teachers) and parents will benefit students. Teachers draw on the expertise of the parents to improve instructional effectiveness. This model may bring in expert

parents' involvement in the capacity building of teachers and teachers' involvement in parenting training.
- *Collaborative*: Collaborative model implies collaboration among parents, teachers and school leadership, and community members and leaders for school improvement. The school recognises expertise among parents and the community members and establishes communication in exploring new policies and practices for scientific parenting for students' success.

Epstein et al. (2002) proposed a framework of six types of parental involvement: parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community. Several researchers tested Epstein's model (Đurišić and Bunijevac, 2017; Ihmeideh et al., 2020; Newman et al., 2019). The findings are:

1. *Parenting education*: Help families with education in parenting – understanding the development dynamics of the child, providing home support for learning, and helping schools know the family and the child better.
2. *Communicating*: Communicating with parents to develop awareness about school programmes and projects and the child's progress.
3. *Volunteering*: Involve parent-volunteers in improving school quality through improving the process of recruitment, staff training, and school activities and developing a teacher–parent partnership to support students and schools.
4. *Learning at home*: Involve parents in helping children with homework and other curricular activities. A teacher needs to design homeworks to involve parents differently.
5. *Decision-making*: Involve parents in school management and development.
6. *Collaborating with the community*: Develop a mechanism of collaboration to mutually develop and share resources and contribute to mutual enrichment.

Hornby and Witte (2011) surveyed parental involvement in 21 secondary schools in New Zealand. The survey offers a valuable inventory of parental participation in schools. Some of the forms of parental involvement are:

- Encourage and invite parents to school during the Open Days when parents can visit classrooms and attend annual sports, musical and theatre performances, exhibitions, annual prize distribution ceremonies, extension lectures, etc.
- Formulating school policy on parental involvement in school management and activities – for example, constituting parent–teacher association (PTA) and organising monthly parent–teacher meetings to review students' progress.

- Acting as a resource – parents and community members helping as sports, music and drama coach, and tutors, supporting organising annual events, raising funds, and constructing school facilities like library, laboratory, etc. In Seychelles, community members provide sports coaching services (COL, 2021). Parents and community members, especially alumni, providing resource support to schools is quite common in rural schools (Mukhopadhyay, 2012).
- Collaborating with teachers – schools practice different methods of sharing students' results with parents. Parents assessed and reviewed students' learning needs in a few schools through individualised education plans (IEPs). Supervision of students' homework is another domain of collaboration. Some qualified non-working mothers take absentee teachers' classes and help teachers prepare instructional aids.
- Sharing information on children – schools obtain information on children's special needs through parents helping schools develop individualised plans to provide need-based development support.
- Channels of communication – earlier channel of face-to-face communication is changing. Schools use e-mails and WhatsApp for regular communication with parents. Many schools use e-platforms for informing parents of homework and students' learning progress. The survey reported that some schools use the newsletter to communicate with parents.
- Though not common, liaison with school staff – home visits are used to liaison between the parents and teachers. The most commonly used liaison method is report cards or school diaries to report behavioural and attitudinal issues.
- Parent education – parent education workshops are held from time to time. The author attended a parent education workshop as the parent of a second-grade child in Campion School in Bhopal; later, he conducted a parent education workshop for parents of eighth graders.
- Parent support – schools provide parent support through meetings with principals, deans, counsellors, staff nurses, teachers, and telephone conversations.
- Teacher professional development – Teachers are not trained in working with parents. It does not figure in the pre-service teacher education syllabus nor is this a subject of in-service education. However, a few schools provide in-service education to teachers on working with parents.

Parental involvement helps school effectiveness. For effectiveness, a school must collectively make a policy on parents' involvement in school involving the staff and parents. The policy should be complemented by an action plan, periodic mentoring, monitoring, and evaluation.

Several models above describe parental involvement in a child's education and school development. Any one model would not apply to all types of schools and parents. You need to choose, preferably design, how to involve parents with different educational and socio-economic means. Irrespective of the backgrounds, parents' unique talents, like athletics, games, music, dance, painting, and craft, are essential resources for enhancing school effectiveness. (Box 12.2).

BOX 12.2 PARENTAL RESOURCES FROM A WEAK ECONOMIC BACKGROUND: A CASE

In the school improvement programme in government-run rural primary schools (Mukhopadhyay, 2020), schools organise summer camps on music, painting, papercraft, and clay modelling, to nurture students' creativity and keep them meaningfully engaged during the summer holidays. Parents and local artisans tutor these summer camps. The parents are amateur musicians, painters, or village craftsmen who earn their living by making idols of Gods and Goddesses or artefacts made out of paper and a special variety of plant stem (called sola in Bangla) for worship. Most of these parents have a poor economic background but are highly skilled in their occupation.

Influencers of Parental Involvement

Research and experience show that the socio-economic and cultural background of the family determines parental involvement. Parental participation reduces with parents in blue-collar jobs, and children have working mothers. This is evident in rural schools where parents are mainly involved in agriculture, unskilled daily wage labour, or underemployment. Parental education is also an important factor. Parents with a poor educational background either avoid meeting teachers due to a lack of confidence or are apprehensive of criticism of their ward due to poor performance. Low-income family resources are also found to influence parental involvement adversely.

Parents' educational backgrounds vary widely in urban areas, especially in private schools. They have highly educated parents in white-collar jobs, parents working in unorganised sectors and small business enterprises, and parents with poor educational but rich economic backgrounds (especially among the business community). Educated parents in executive employment find it difficult to take time out to visit schools and discuss the education of their wards with teachers. Many parents insist on higher

scores on examination papers for their children. Thus, parental education and economic background are important factors in parental involvement.

The age and grade level of students is another critical factor. In the *independent model*, where children's education is entirely outsourced to schools, parents don't involve themselves in their children's education irrespective of age and grade level. But, in the *collaborative model*, parental involvement decreases as the child grows and moves to upper grades. By adolescence, children prefer to become independent and avoid parental interference in education. In other words, parental involvement with the children's education and teacher interaction is more in early grades.

Parents' and teachers' mutual understanding of their roles and responsibilities significantly influence parental involvement. Unlike in the independent model, where parents positively perceive their roles and responsibilities in a child's education and acknowledge the teacher as a partner, parent involvement becomes more proactive. Also, parents' perception of their ward's interest in education and particular subjects influences parental involvement. Parents' participation increases with the child's interest and enthusiasm to learn.

Parents' educational aspirations for their children and level of comfort with the school and the teachers have been found to influence the level of involvement of parents. Parents' perception of teachers' reaction to the ward's performance and behaviour also affects parental involvement quality.

Perception of teacher–parent competitive relationships – parents criticising the teachers in the presence of students and teachers blaming the parents are detrimental to parental involvement. Another important factor is a one-size-fits-all syndrome. Teachers tend to treat parents of different backgrounds in the same manner. This becomes evident during the monthly parent–teacher meetings. A parent interested in high scoring of the ward and another interested in balanced all-round development with good behaviour and ethics are treated by the teacher with the same yardstick and standard advice. Teachers need to differentiate parental and learner ambitions and preferences to help parental involvement in a child's education.

Despite the evidence that parental involvement significantly impacts students' performance and growth, teacher training programmes do not include the role of parental participation and models of parent involvement in school and the education of children. Teachers need to be trained in involving parents. For example, teachers can design homework to involve parents. In our experiment (practised in Professional Learning for Empowerment of Teachers (PLET), not documented here) with flipped learning, teachers advised students to watch the content video on mobile phones. As children did not have mobile phones, parents had to see the content video with their children, which led to discussion, exploration, and greater learning. Parents should also be provided programmes on parenting. Educational Technology & Management Academy (ETMA) developed training material for pre-school

parents and conducted workshops for parents (Mukhopadhyay, 2022). One-to-one parent–teacher meeting for communicating with parents is another helpful way of developing partnership.

Cotton and Wikelund's (1989) case studies demonstrate significant misunderstandings and tensions among parents and teachers over the roles of each party. Teachers believe that parents' educational roles are mostly performed at home. On the contrary, parents desire to participate in educational decision-making. This divergence between parents and teachers decreases productive partnerships between the two parties. More studies are needed to explore collaboration mechanisms between teachers and parents.

You need to create a parent management information system with data on parental education and expertise, cultural background (especially in metropolitan cities), educational facilities at home, e.g. availability of study room or corner and technology and internet facilities, and parental aspirations for the child.

Mentoring students and their parents is necessary for boosting school effectiveness. ICT facilities can effectively communicate with parents about their children's progress.

Key Takeaways

1. Students and parents are the critical perceners of school and school development. They are powerful influencers of school effectiveness.
2. Research evidence suggests that parental involvement in education, school activities, and management significantly improves school effectiveness.
3. School policy and practices significantly determine parental participation in school activities and students' education.
4. Student affairs emphasise students' learning outcomes and development; student services focus on services that support students' performance, satisfaction, arresting discontinuation and dropout, motivation, etc.
5. School services based on students' perspectives are more effective.
6. Schools should map pre-enrolment, enrolment, and post-enrolment services based on school policy on parental involvement.
7. Students do better academically and socially when schools build positive relationships with their families. Research on parental involvement focuses on the impact on student performance, adjustment, retention/dropout, and engagement.
8. Irrespective of economic and social backgrounds, parental involvement fosters students' positive attitudes towards school, improves homework habits, reduces absenteeism, increases school attendance, decreases students' risk of dropping out, and enhances academic achievement.

9. Several researchers have analysed the relationship between homework and students' academic achievement; parents' involvement in homework is essential.
10. The school policy and practices and teacher behaviour are significant determinants of involving parents and family members in school activities and students' education.
11. Research and experience show that the socio-economic and cultural background of the family affects parental involvement.
12. Parents with a weak educational background avoid meeting teachers due to a lack of confidence; they are apprehensive of criticism of their ward's poor performance.
13. Parents' and teachers' mutual understanding of their roles and responsibilities significantly influence parental involvement. Parents' educational aspirations for their wards and level of comfort with the school and the teachers influence the level of involvement of parents.
14. Despite the evidence that parental involvement significantly impacts students' performance and growth, teacher training programmes do not include the themes like parental participation and models of parent involvement in school.
15. There are several models of parental involvement. Minnesota University categorises parental involvement into independent, mission-driven, cooperative, and collaborative models.
16. Another set of categorisations is protective, and transmission and curriculum enrichment; and expert, consumer and partnership models.
17. Epstein's parenting, communicating, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community models have been extensively field tested.

Please Check Your Learning Outcomes

1. Please make a school policy statement on student support services and parental involvement for your school.
2. Make a critical assessment of parental involvement in your school and its contribution to school effectiveness.
3. Create a strategic plan for parent involvement for school effectiveness.

13

SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS AUDIT

Introduction

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Global Education Monitoring Report 2017/8, *Accountability in Education: Meeting our Commitments*, provides recommendations on improving educational/school effectiveness through an improved accountability system (UNESCO, 2017). School effectiveness is the indicator of the social accountability of a school. School audit contributes to school improvement (Marshall, 2014). An audit ensures achieving targeted school effectiveness.

There have been efforts to assess school effectiveness (Klein et al., 2009; Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2012). In the first chapter, we mentioned a few criteria of school effectiveness – performance, talent optimisation, and satisfaction and happiness of students, teaching and non-teaching staff, the leadership team, parents, and community leaders. Subsequently, we discussed, in various chapters, a school as an organisation, developing the school as a learning organising, school-based policy implementation, professional learning of staff, nurturing leadership, resource utilisation, academic leadership, etc. These inputs and processes are not new. All these inputs are available in different degrees, and all these processes are also present in schools with differing degrees of effectiveness. Yet, most schools are ineffective as there are no preset higher goals to strive for; and the inputs and processes are not aligned with goals. And there is no audit.

An audit mechanism must be associated with any deliberate effort towards school effectiveness. An audit is not an assessment for accreditation or grading. An institutional (quality) audit is an assessment *for* development, not an assessment *of* development – indeed, formative assessment. It is like a periodic health check-up for assessing what is working well and which part of the body (health) needs attention.

A school effectiveness audit monitors the plan of action to enhance school effectiveness, facilitating mid-course corrections wherever necessary

DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-13

for achieving goals and targets. This chapter will deal with different aspects and issues of school effectiveness audits.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

- Justify school effectiveness audit.
- Adopt or adapt an audit framework and parameters or collectively develop an audit framework and parameters for your school.
- Identify and develop audit tools.
- Establish a group to audit school effectiveness.
- Audit the implementation of the school effectiveness programme.

Audit Framework

An audit framework comprises audit goals, audit parameters, audit tools and instruments, audit process and outcome documentation, auditors, and diagnosing the strengths, challenges, opportunities, and risks. The audit parameters are derived from the school effectiveness framework.

Audit Goals

Audit goals have been described in several ways. One such description is to identify the strengths, weaknesses, and opportunities for further improvement to work upon the strategic intervention for reducing the gap between targeted or anticipated and actual performance – indeed, bridging the gaps between vision and achievement (VJTF, 2020). A quality audit aims to determine the effectiveness of the planned strategic interventions for achieving the objectives (CQ, n.d.).

School effectiveness efforts comprise setting higher performance targets, mobilising resources needed to achieve targets (inputs), designing and implementing QI strategies (processes), and achieving the targets (outputs) for measurable and visible change in the school (outcomes). As applied to school effectiveness, the goal is to audit the inputs, processes, and outputs (and outcomes), not excluding the performance targets and processes of setting targets. The aim is to identify which input and process items contribute to achieving goals and which need reconstruction for greater success. The objective is to revisit inputs and processes and help improve them to achieve the goal of school effectiveness.

Audit Parameters

There is a wide divergence of opinions on what to audit. Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO, 2017) identified indicators of school quality

and student success indicators for Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) in 2017 (Table 13.1).

In the context of ESSA, National Education Association (NEA) conducted an online poll inviting 1200 educators (NEA, 2020). NEA asked educators to specify which of NEA's "Opportunity Dashboard" indicators they cared about the most. The results are interesting:

1. Students' access to fine arts, foreign languages, daily physical education, library/media, and career technical education – 85%.
2. Students' access to health and wellness programmes, including social and emotional well-being – 73%.
3. Students' access to fully qualified teachers – 65%.
4. Students' access to fully qualified librarian/media specialists – 56%.
5. Student attendance (elementary and middle school) – 54%.
6. Students' preparedness for college or career technical education certificate programmes without the need for remediation or learning support courses – 54%.
7. Students' access to qualified para-educators – 49%.
8. School discipline policies and the disparate impact on students of colour, students with disabilities, and students that identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) – 48%.

There are several other frameworks and tools for quality assessment and audit. The quality assessment is often done on "as is where is basis." School effectiveness audit is criteria referenced; criteria are the targets set. The audit parameters must also include the strategies to achieve the targets (Table 13.2).

While this is a generic framework for academic audit, academic leaders must identify the audit parameters in terms of goals of school effectiveness.

Vision, Mission, and Goals

The vision and mission statements and goals are prerequisites for beginning the school effectiveness journey. There are five hallmarks of a school's vision, mission, and goals.

1. There is a vision statement of the school; there are mission statements derived from the vision statements. There are statements of targets to be achieved.
2. Targets are higher than the current achievement level – aspirational but achievable with concerted efforts.
3. The vision and mission statements, goals, and targets are set collectively.
4. The vision and mission statements, goals, and targets are inclusive of all school stakeholders.
5. The vision and mission statements, goals, and targets are known to all stakeholders.

Table 13.1 Class of Indicators and Potential Indicators

Indicator Class	*Examples of Potential Indicators*
School climate and safety	• Student, educator, and parent ratings of school climate or safety, suspension, or expulsion rates • Reported threats to students/staff
Student access to post-secondary resources/ preparation	• Student access to effective career guidance and counselling • Access to dual credit, advanced coursework, Career and Technical Education (CTE) courses, internships, and/or job shadowing opportunities in high school
Student engagement	• Student self-reported engagement • Teacher observations or ratings of student engagement • Participation in extracurricular activities • Chronic absenteeism
Teacher engagement	• The student reports on teacher engagement • Principal ratings or observations of teacher engagement • Teacher attendance rate • Teacher attrition, retention, and mobility
Parent engagement	• Attendance at school events or teacher meetings • Volunteering or serving on a committee
Quality of instruction	• Student surveys of teaching quality • The number of students taught by novice teachers (less than five years) or teachers trained in the instructed content area • Availability of programmes to support and mentor new teachers • Teacher participation in professional development • Grade 3 reading proficiency • Demonstration of algebra readiness in middle school (e.g. successful completion of pre-algebra in grade 7 and algebra I in grade 8)
Elementary middle school readiness	• Participation in career/course/college planning activities or clubs • Students earning D/F on-grade level English and Mathematics courses
Post-secondary readiness	• Performance on college admissions or placement exams 9th- or 10th-grade credit earning • Attainment of an industry credential or certification • Completion of a CTE programme of study entrance into the military • Successful completion of the first year of college
Social-emotional learning persistence	• On-time, accurate completion of homework assignments (i.e. time-management skills). • Student perceptions of self-worth and/or self-efficacy • The measure of grit, persistence, or the presence of a growth mindset

Source: Adapted from CCSSO (2017).

Table 13.2 The Audit Parameters

Audit Areas	*Details of Audit Items*
Academic	• Academic achievement targets, curricular planning, instructional and learning design, learning technology and materials, assessment of learning outcomes, freedom to innovate and experiment, results analyses, documentation (best practices), nurturing the gifted students, science, mathematics, and computer education. Quality of home assignments, correction, and feedback. • Debate, elocution, recitation, drama, hobby clubs, educational field trips, and excursion. • Sports and games, dance, and music. Clubs, inter-institutional sports events and cultural and literary events.
Human resources (teaching and non-teaching staff and leadership team)	• Staff absenteeism and punctuality • Staff professional preparedness • Staff professional learning • Staff involvement in co-scholastic and co-curricular events • Staff role effectiveness, recognition/rewards • Staff skills audit, performance appraisal, and feedback • Resource utilisation
Finance	• Source of funding • Budgeting • Fund mobilisation • Fund utilisation • Accounting and auditing • Cost–benefit analyses • Expenditure control • Investment in quality
Infrastructure	• Safety, security, and hygiene • Adequacy, functionality, maintenance, and aesthetics • The utilisation of academic infrastructure, e.g. classrooms and studios. Labs, libraries, gym, sports and games facilities, and ICT facilities • The utilisation of material resources
Students and parents	• Students' and parents' satisfaction and happiness • Parents' involvement in child's education and school activities. Contribution to school improvement
Office administration	• Board of Governors (BOG)/university/government/board-related documents • Extension records, etc. personnel records • Capacity building, performance appraisal, and reward/recognition of non-academic staff
Linkage and interface	• Linkage with sister institutions, resource/expert organisations, parents and the community, alumni, and extension
Management and leadership	• The number of working days in a year and total working hours per day, month, and academic year; teacher–student and teacher–classroom ratio; teacher workload • Departmental management and interdepartmental linkage • Staff mentoring and academic supervision • Faculty development • Grievance handling • Quality assessment and audit • The academic leadership of supervisors, deputy head, and head of the institution

(*Continued*)

Table 13.2 (Continued)

Audit Areas	*Details of Audit Items*
Quality of institutional life	• Inclusion • Value inculcation • Organisational climate • Overall quality

Note: This is a modified version of the quality audit parameter developed by Educational Technology and Management Academy (ETMA) and used in the quality audit of a chain of international schools in Japan, UAE, Malaysia, Singapore and India. The author designed and directed the project.

Stakeholders and Targets

School effectiveness should be an inclusive concept. Instead of students and their academic performance, school effectiveness is for everybody and by everybody. In other words, the benefits (outcomes) of school effectiveness must accrue to students, teachers, non-teaching staff, leadership team, parents, alumni, and the community. Hence, all these stakeholders must be involved in making the school effective (process); and all of them must contribute (input) to school effectiveness. Every stakeholder must benefit from school effectiveness interventions.

Targets

The self-fulfilment model of school effectiveness defined performance, talent optimisation, satisfaction, and happiness under self-fulfilment targets. The targets would change meaning when these are plotted against the stakeholders.

Some of the indicative audit parameters for different stakeholders are given above. The school leadership team should collectively develop the audit parameters according to the specifications of the school effectiveness criteria of the school. While specifying the parameters, it is necessary to ensure they are amenable to audit and evaluation.

Process Audit

Process audit must include major and microprocesses. Garvin et al. (2008) mentioned a supportive learning environment, concrete learning processes and practices, and leadership that reinforces learning as the three building blocks of a learning organisation. Peter Senge (n.d.) wrote a short article, "how do you know if your organisation is learning?" In this article, Senge argued that "organisational learning has to do with improving performance" (p1). Nonetheless, Senge warned against the misconception – organisational learning does not necessarily lead to improving performance.

Table 13.3 Audit Parameters for Self-fulfilment Model of School Effectiveness

	Performance	*Talent Optimisation*	*Satisfaction*	*Happiness*
Students	Academic achievement	Identifying and nurturing talents in sports and games, painting, dance and music, scientific and literary creativity, and leadership (usually covered under co-scholastic and co-curricular activities)	Satisfied with learning facilities, processes, and opportunities Teachers and school leaders and student services	Engages happily in cognitive, affective, and psychomotor learning activities Affiliates and feels proud of the school
Teachers Other staff Leadership team	Teacher effectiveness Role effectiveness Leader effectiveness	The opportunity for professional learning, developing hobbies and life enrichment skills, recognition and opportunity to nurture talents, and pursuing unfulfilled ambitions and passions	Work–life balance, job satisfaction, and care and empathy	Happy and relaxed on the job and pride and possessiveness of the school
Parents	Engagement in child's education and contribution to school development	Opportunity to participate in school activities and education in parenting	Satisfaction with school activities and child's progress, quality of education, and respectful treatment by teachers and leaders	Sense of pride and possessiveness and feeling of safe and promising future of the child
Alumni		Opportunity to participate in school activities and pursue hobbies	Satisfied with the school's quality, values and morals, students' performance, and teacher behaviour and reputation	Sense of pride as an alumnus
Community		Mutually enriching school–community relationships, e.g. school offering facility for community activities, community supporting school development and enriching students' learning experiences and providing safety and security of students and staff	Satisfied with school quality and performance and quality of engagement with the community	Sense of pride and possessiveness of the school

We can extract seven indicators pointing towards the process component from this article:

1. A feeling of spirit and energy throughout the organisation and a sense of alignment.
2. An insightful, internally consistent diagnosis of a complex problem and a willingness among co-workers to test their favoured diagnoses continually.
3. The atmosphere of questioning and experimentation.
4. The confidence to disagree in cases of conflict.
5. The conflicts should open a learning opportunity to probe others' viewpoints and create a combined perspective to understand the problem through collective inquiry.
6. There will be a difference "in the quality of dialogue" and begin "to enter into these dialogues of joint inquiry." Are these process attributes visible in the school?
7. "Then we will begin to learn what never could have been learned individually – no matter how bright we are, no matter how much time we take, and no matter how committed we are."

The school can collectively develop benchmarks and audit the process efficiency. The leadership team will need certain tools for auditing outcomes and processes.

Audit Tools

There are broadly two kinds of audit tools – evidence based and perceptual. Evidence-based assessment, at least apparently, is more objective than perception-based assessment. Evidence-based assessment works very well where an item of assessment is quantifiable, e.g. number of working days and working hours of a school, number of classrooms, teacher–pupil ratio, teacher qualification, absenteeism, utilisation of learning resources in the library (from the log book), and number and hours of the utilisation of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) facilities per week or month.

When audit demands qualitative information like the cleanliness of classrooms and corridors, safety and security, hygiene, toilets, and happiness, subjectivity creeps in as data on such items are based on observation. As "observers observe what they want to observe," they rate observed phenomena against their perceived norms. What is clean and tidy for one observer may not be enough for another. For example, the same classroom process is rated differently by different observers. During one school audit, auditors reported clean and tidy washrooms; during focus group discussion, users (girl students) pointed out the missing toilet papers in the otherwise neat

and clean washrooms. Observation against a structured schedule reduces subjectivity.

The third category of tools is, hence, the observation schedules. The observation schedules with items and rubrics of observation can reduce subjectivity. Let us take the example of observation of classroom proceedings. Without a structured observation schedule, the same classroom proceedings are rated high by one and low by another, depending upon observers' styles and preferences. A structured observation schedule can substantially reduce the inter-observer (inter-rater) variation. There are several "sign" (e.g. CLASS, FfT, ICALT, ISTOF, and MCTCS) and "category" systems (e.g. FIAS, RCS, ETC, and VICS) instruments for observing classroom processes and teacher and student behaviour (Mukhopadhyay, 2022, pp361–92). Usually, all such observation instruments are accompanied by assessment rubrics and guidelines for observation. Let us take one item of observation from Mukhopadhyay's Classroom Teaching Competence Scale (MCTCS) (Box 13.1).

BOX 13.1 ITEM 14 OF MCTCS

- Item of observation: (Item 14): Technological aids, e.g. smart board, projectors, laptops, and iPads, were utilised effectively.
- Rubrics for observation:

	Value/Score
1. No technological aid was used	0
2. Technological aids were rarely used	1
3. The use of technological aids was not backed by adequate preparation	2
4. Technological aids were used but not very effectively	3
5. Technological aids were used effectively to enhance student learning	4

Though this rubric-based observation creates quantitative data, it is not free from bias. It reduces the observer bias by training observers and using multiple observers.

A rating scale is another commonly used audit tool. The rating scale contains closed-ended questions to collect "respondent feedback in a comparative form for specific particular features/products/services" (Question Pro n.d.). There are several types of rating scales (Sauro, 2018). There are many instances of quantifying perceptions using some kind of rating scale. For

example, principals use a rating scale to rate teacher classroom behaviour and effectiveness (Wind et al., 2018). The data generated by using rating scales are analysed using appropriate quantitative techniques.

Evidence-Based Audit Tool

Evidence-based audit tools can be used where data are quantifiable. Student performance, teachers' attendance, infrastructure, e.g. occupancy of the school building, laboratories, and ICT facilities, and utilisation of financial resources are quantifiable. The scores in examinations, hours and days of occupancy of physical facilities, and issue of library books, can be obtained from the logbooks, ledger books, inventories, and stock books.

Happiness, employability skills, and teacher effectiveness can be measured with standardised tools like Oxford Happiness Questionnaire and the Teacher Employability Assessment Scale (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2015). There are several tools for assessing teacher effectiveness (Goe et al., 2008; Henderson et al., 2014). There are tools to measure indicators of a learning organisation (Aguilar, 2016). A large number of such tools are available online.

For quality audit, it is advisable to use more than one assessment instrument, like School Information Blank, Teacher Data Blank, Questionnaires for Teachers, Students and Parents, Interview Schedules for Principals, Supervisors, HODs, Structured Observation Schedule, Focus Group Discussion with Teachers, Students and Parents, and Standardised Tests.

Perception-Based Audit Tool

Though perception-based assessment is subjective, the argument favouring this approach is that "an organisation is what people perceive it to be." Assessment of collective perception is a vital audit mechanism. With proper data-gathering instruments, it is possible to gather collective perceptual data. You can respond to the School Effectiveness Audit Questionnaire (Appendix 2), score, and experience a perception-based audit tool as a practicum. Answers to these questions should provide a picture of the state of progress of school effectiveness. However, this is not a standardised tool. The scores can provide a perceptual profile of the school. Since it is not a standardised tool and there are no norms, the scores of one school cannot be compared with that of another.

Students, the essential stakeholders, may not be familiar with various dynamics of staffrooms and school leadership. Teachers, staff, supervisors, principals, and parents' representatives on the managing committee

are more deeply involved in the school than other stakeholders. Let every teaching and non-teaching staff, supervisor, principal, and sampled parents, including the parents' representative on the managing committee, respond to each question by choosing one of the five responses.

We will get how each stakeholder group sees the school's progress by calculating the average scores of all teachers, non-teaching staff, supervisors and principals, and parents' representatives separately. This exercise will give the benefit of 360° assessment (Figure 13.1).

The average of all respondent answers provides the collective assessment of the school's effectiveness for all stakeholders.

For better audit results, schools must use both evidence-based and perception-based assessment tools and merge these two to create a deeper understanding of the state of school effectiveness.

Conducting Quality Assessment and Audit

The audit can be internal or external. An audit should be equivalent to a formative assessment, especially internal audits. It would help if you had an internal audit since the purpose is to fine-tune the quality management intervention (QMI) implementation for school effectiveness. Deming's (1993) plan–do–study–act (PDSA) cycle (Figure 13.2) may be helpful.

- Plan a change and provide a mental trial of the effect of this change initiative and how it is likely to affect it.
- Do implement planned change, preferably on a pilot scale.

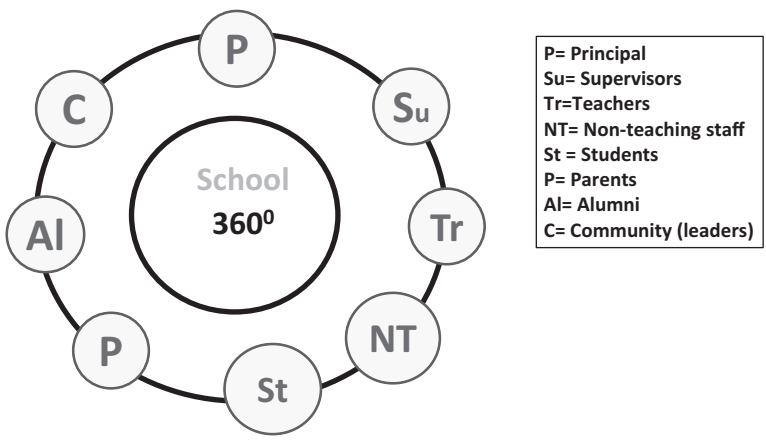

Figure 13.1 360° Audit of School Effectiveness

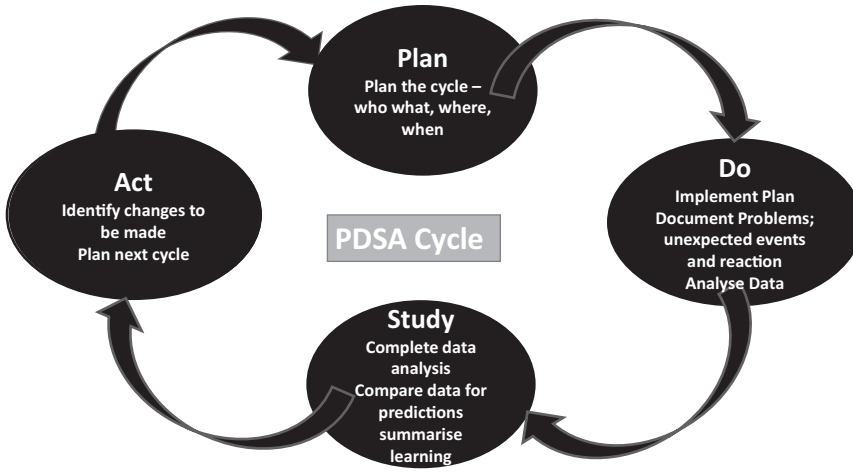

Figure 13.2 PDSA or Deming Cycle

- Study or review the transition process to learn to make it smarter with greater effectiveness.
- Act to institutionalise the process of change.

A school must develop a schedule for assessment, planning, implementing, and monitoring or auditing – a schedule for information and data gathering, data processing, and deriving conclusions – what's going right as per plan, what needs attention, and what is challenging and which targets look unreachable. The school may have to adjust its targets or change its strategies.

The school effectiveness audit plan should include internal and external audits. Internal audits can be done periodically, maybe quarterly. The external audit by a professional agency can be done every two or three years. The internal and external audit reports need to be critically examined and compared to conclude the strengths, challenges, opportunities, and risks in improving school effectiveness. Over a few such exercises, the difference between the internal and external audit reports may reduce substantially.

SEEK [School Effectiveness Enhancement Kendra (Centre)]

The enhancement of school effectiveness will succeed if a school adopts a project mode that requires assessing, target setting, strategic planning, acting, monitoring, and evaluating. For implementation in project mode, one needs to set up a group to undertake all the activities in a time-bound

manner. Internal Quality Assurance Cell and Quality Circles are some such units in colleges and schools. You may set up a School Effectiveness Enhancement Kendra (SEEK). The SEEK should have members representing all stakeholders, including the principal. SEEK can choose the principal or someone from the staff to lead. The leader of SEEK may be changed at certain intervals. The SEEK will be responsible for internal audits involving all stakeholders.

The outcome of such an elaborate audit exercise should be carefully documented. The report should preferably contain findings on each of the domains of audit, indicating the successes, challenges, opportunities to enhance targets and performance, and risks followed by recommendations.

Each school is unique. Hence, each school should set improvement targets following the fundamental principle that targets should be high enough to be ambitious but modest enough to be achievable. The school should develop a strategic plan for improving school effectiveness. The target setting and strategic planning for achieving targets should include long-term, maybe five years; medium-term (maybe three years); and short-term (annual) targets and strategic plans. The strategic plans should inform the school effectiveness audit.

Key Takeaways

1. The audit is like a periodic health check-up to determine what works fine and what needs attention. The audit is not an assessment for any judgment. It is a valuable tool for project monitoring.
2. There should be an audit framework, which should be aligned to school effectiveness targets and strategic plans for achieving the targets.
3. The audit framework should include all stakeholders and enhanced expected performance targets.
4. The audit framework should be further spelt out, detailing the audit parameters.
5. Audit parameters should be comprehensive, including academic activities, resource management, linkage and networking, management, and leadership. The process audit is vital for school effectiveness.
6. Schools have to use certain audit tools. The audit tools may be perceptual or evidence based.
7. A perceptual audit is necessary since the stakeholders' perception is essential for their involvement. A collective perceptual audit should be preferred over a selective one to reduce subjectivity and increase the feeling of involvement.
8. Audits should be conducted in a time-bound project mode. SEEK can be the organisational mechanism.

9. Schools should have external audits to arrest the impact of self-fulfilling prophecy risk in internal audits, maybe once in two or three years.
10. As school effectiveness enhancement is continuous and not terminal, school effectiveness audit should also be a continuing process.
11. Each school is unique. Hence, each school must design its school effectiveness project and audit system.

Please Check Your Learning Outcomes

1. Please write a short critique on school effectiveness audit.
2. Please develop an audit framework with parameters for your school.
3. Please identify or develop audit tools for auditing the progress in school effectiveness.
4. Develop a tool for auditing resource utilisation in your school.
5. Please create a plan to set up SEEK and develop a guideline for auditing.

Appendix 2 (Chapter 13)

School Effectiveness Audit Questionnaire (SEAQ)

SEAQ comprises 61 questions related to students (#6), teachers (#10), non-teaching staff (#8), supervisor (#8), principal (#10), parent (#6), alumni and community leaders (#5), school management (#5), statutory authorities (#2), and one common question.

Please check (_/) in the appropriate box against each item by choosing one of the following responses:

Assessment Perceptions	*Score Value*
1. Fully	5
2. To a great extent	4
3. Somewhat	3
4. To little extent	2
5. Not at all	1

For 360° appraisal, the questions should be answered preferably by all stakeholders. However, a select group of stakeholders can respond to the questionnaire. Since the number of questions is not the same for all stakeholders, and the number of respondents from all stakeholders cannot be the same, scoring has to be done differently.

1. Summate every respondent's scores for every stakeholder category (e.g. students).
2. Divide by the number of questions under that stakeholder category (e.g. 6).

3. Calculate the average (recommended mean and standard deviation) of scores of all respondents (e.g. 30) separately of the particular stakeholder category (e.g. students).
4. Plot the average scores on one stakeholder (e.g. students) by different respondents like students, teachers, non-teaching staff, supervisors, principals, parents, alumni, and community leaders.
5. The average scores should lie on the continuum of 1 to 5, with 3 as the midpoint.
6. Interpret the level of effectiveness as perceived by different stakeholders.
7. The average of the averages can be calculated but may not be of much value.

Are the students able to	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
1. Achieve the performance targets set?					
2. Display improved life skills?					
3. Display improved participation and performance in co-scholastic and co-curricular activities?					
4. Display improved social and moral behaviour?					
5. Display greater satisfaction and happiness?					
6. Display pride for the school					
Do the teachers					
7. Demonstrate more empathic and better caring and guiding of the students?					
8. Make better and more efficient use of technology-enabled learning and improve formative and summative assessment and feedback?					
9. Demonstrate better preparedness (classroom readiness)?					
10. Actively engage in professional learning and demonstrate improved effectiveness?					
11. Receive adequate and better resource support (e.g. ICT facilities) from the school?					
12. Demonstrate improved employability (life) skills?					
13. Receive periodic performance feedback?					
14. Enjoy improved academic and behavioural reputation among students, colleagues, parents, and school leadership team?					
15. Demonstrate greater satisfaction and happiness?					
16. Demonstrate pride and a sense of ownership of the school?					
Do the non-teaching staff					
17. Actively engage in professional learning?					
18. Demonstrate improved role effectiveness?					
19. Receive adequate and better resource support from the school?					
20. Demonstrate improved employability (life) skills?					

(*Continued*)

(*Continued*)

21. Receive periodic performance feedback?
22. Enjoy the reputation of good behaviour among colleagues, parents, and the school leadership team?
23. Demonstrate greater satisfaction and happiness?
24. Demonstrate pride and a sense of ownership of the school?

Do the supervisors

25. Regularly observe classrooms and provide constructive feedback to the teachers?
26. Actively engage in professional learning and demonstrate improved role effectiveness?
27. Facilitate teachers receiving adequate and better resource support from the school?
28. Demonstrate improved employability (life) skills?
29. Receive periodic performance feedback from the principal?
30. Enjoy improved academic and behavioural reputation among students, colleagues, parents, and school leadership team?
31. Demonstrate greater satisfaction and happiness?
32. Demonstrate pride and a sense of ownership of the school?

Does the principal

33. Demonstrate greater approachability by students, staff, and parents?
34. Regularly observe classrooms and provide constructive feedback to the teachers and supervisors?
35. Actively engage in professional learning and demonstrate improved role effectiveness?
36. Facilitate teachers receiving adequate and better resource support from the school?
37. Demonstrate improved leadership skills?
38. Provide periodic performance feedback to the supervisors, teachers, and staff?
39. Receive periodic feedback from teachers, HODs, supervisors, and school management?
40. Enjoy improved academic and behavioural reputation among the stakeholders?
41. Demonstrate greater satisfaction and happiness?
42. Demonstrate pride and a sense of ownership of the school?

Do the parents

43. Demonstrate improved teacher–parent partnership and involvement in students' education?
44. Participate more actively in school activities?
45. Demonstrate improved contribution and support in school development?
46. Help the school build reputation in the community?
47. Demonstrate greater satisfaction and happiness?
48. Demonstrate pride and a sense of ownership of the school?

(*Continued*)

(*Continued*)

Do the alumni and community leaders
49. Interact with students, teachers, and staff to inspire and empower them with frequent interactions?
50. Guide and counsel students?
51. Contribute to building school resources in cash and kind?
52. Demonstrate greater satisfaction and happiness?
53. Demonstrate pride and a sense of ownership of the school?
Do the members of school management
54. Appreciate school leadership, teachers, and staff?
55. Provide positive leadership support?
56. Mobilise resources for school improvement?
57. Demonstrate greater satisfaction and happiness?
58. Demonstrate pride and a sense of ownership of the school?
Statutory authorities
59. Are the school regulatory authorities happy about the school fulfilling its statutory obligations and legitimacy?
60. Do the school receive appreciation and support from the regulatory authorities?
A common question to be responded to by all stakeholders
61. *Do teachers, non-teaching staff, and supervisors find better opportunities to pursue their hobbies and passions, compensating for the missed opportunities of excelling*?

14

TOWARDS QUALITY CULTURE AND GRADUATION IN LEADERSHIP

Introduction

Schools are known for their organisational culture. While all schools have a culture that represents their uniqueness, only a few can claim to have a quality culture. Srinivasan and Kurey (2014), in *Harvard Business Review*, defined a "true culture of quality" as an "environment in which employees not only follow quality guidelines but also consistently see others taking quality-focused actions, hear others talking about quality, and feel quality all around them" (p1). Quality culture, in our context, is characterised by continuous efforts to improve school effectiveness. Collectively setting higher goals, designing strategies and activities, translating them into action, and auditing and evaluating results and impacts represent quality culture (Testify, n.d.). Quality culture continuously aims to enhance quality (IGI Global, n.d.). Quality culture is the environment necessary for quality management.

Enhancing school effectiveness is creating a quality culture through quality management interventions (QMI). As the school evolves from one level of effectiveness to another, the academic leader feels challenged to evolve from transactional to transformational to primal to inspirational to zero leadership. The ultimate challenge is leaving a legacy – what the academic leader leaves behind and is fondly remembered by future incumbents long after leaving the school.

This chapter describes different aspects and theories of school culture, quality culture, and QMI strategies for creating a quality culture and achieving *graduation in leadership*.

Expected Learning Outcomes

On completion of reading this chapter, you will be able to:

a. Describe school culture and identify the location of school culture in your school.

 DOI: 10.4324/9781003376545-14

b. Describe quality culture and differentiate between generic, unique, niche, and perceived quality cultures.
c. Design strategies for developing a quality culture with quality management interventions.
d. Create academic, social, cultural, humanistic, and managerial environments for quality culture.
e. Explain and practise graduation in leadership.

School Culture

The school culture develops through social interaction among the teachers and the staff over a long period. The team learns to live comfortably in a culture of known practices nurtured by deep-rooted beliefs and values with predictable results.

Predictability is an essential attribute of culture. For example, staff, students, and parents get used to a school with poor student performance, irregular teacher attendance, and unprepared conventional classroom teaching and evaluation. All the stakeholders of the school accept these attributes as normal. Similarly, in another school, staff, students, and parents assume regularity and punctuality of students and staff, teachers' classroom preparedness, higher student engagement and performance, parents' involvement in child's education, etc. as the norm and normal. Both are school cultures. The second one is the quality culture. Quality culture is necessary for school effectiveness.

Confeld (2016) drew attention to the importance of vision, mission, and value statements in shaping the school culture. The vision and mission statements indicate the school's values. The vision gets translated through teachers' practices in everyday interaction, leading to developing generic graduate attributes and collective responsibility for instilling a deeper affiliation and shared values (Peterson and Deal, 2009; Rhodes et al., 2011). Schein (2010) used iceberg as an interesting analogy. The visible portion above the water comprises artefacts and symbols represented by the language, manners, rituals, status symbols, etc. The second portion, at the water level – partly above and partly below the water surface – is the espoused values indicated by mission statements, strategies, ethical and normative values, etc. The third, the large portion below the water surface, comprises basic assumptions about the environment, truth, time, human beings, and relationships. School culture comprises different cultural elements and has positive and negative functions for schools (Cavanagh and Dellar, 1996, 1997, 1998, as referred to by Tsang, 2009). Tsang (2009) classified school culture into three categories:

- The *Typological–Functional Approach* explains school culture as a contributor to school functioning. One proposition is that there are no

multiple cultures in a school; the school culture is one and consistent. It rejects the thesis of subcultures. It is rather a static (status quo) concept.

- According to the *Process Approach*, school culture is dynamic and prone to change. The process approach provides the basis for quality intervention. The development of school culture through the process approach refers to interpersonal interaction and conflicts between dominant (e.g. teachers) and non-dominant groups (e.g. students) as the catalysers of the process development.
- The *Improvement-Effectiveness Approach* is dynamic and believes in school culture as "diverse and dynamic."

Location of School Culture

The contextual element of school culture is called the location of culture. There is a broader cultural location (Prosser, 1999), what some scholars call national culture. Schools derive certain cultural elements from the larger society or the nation.

Another variety of school culture, called *generic culture*, is native to the educational institution as different from businesses, small industries, start-ups, health clinics, etc. The generic culture of schools is also different from those of higher education and professional education institutions. This generic component of the culture is decided by the core activities like teaching–learning in schools compared to health check-ups, diagnostic testing, medication, etc. in a hospital.

Yet another concept is the *unique culture* that differentiates one school from another or one set of schools from another, like a basic from niche school, a denominational from non-denominational schools, and a certain value-based school, like Catholic Schools and Ramakrishna Mission Schools, from common schools.

The fourth category is the *perceived culture* – culture as perceived internally by the staff and students and externally by parents and the community. For example, Harrow and Eton, Carnegie Vanguard, Gilbert Classical Academy, Doon School, The Scindia School, St Xavier's Collegiate School, Mitra Institution, etc. enjoy a reputation much beyond the geographical boundaries.

According to another viewpoint, culture is seen to be located in subcultures. There are dominant and non-dominant groups in schools in terms of subcultures. The subculture of teachers is different from the subcultures of the non-teaching staff. There are subcultures among the departments and groups of individuals within a department depending upon the family background of the staff. Another subculture is the student subculture – groups, teams, and cliques – indicated by peer groups, gender, ethnicity, or religious and caste groups in multi-religious societies. It is not uncommon to come across average schools with high-performing science education, e.g. Thaker's High School in

Ahmedabad (Mukhopadhyay, 1980), or sports and physical education, e.g. Kamla Nehru Government Girls' School in Bhopal (Mukhopadhyay, 2020).

Understanding the location of culture, especially the subcultures, is important because the members of subcultures work as a group and team. More often, the members of the subcultures react similarly to innovations and quality initiatives. There are possibilities of collaboration and conflict between the subcultures while responding to quality initiatives with major implications for the academic leader.

Effects of School Culture

Research indicates a definite impact of school culture on students' academic performance. Amtu et al. (2020) concluded that school culture and work motivation affect teacher performance and students' learning outcomes. This finding is confirmed by Bayar and Karaduman (2021). The meta-analysis of 25 studies with a sample group of 20,287 people reveals that school culture significantly affects student achievement (Bektas et al., 2015). However, Tus (2020) did not find the impact of respondents' perceptions on their academic performance.

Another group of studies on school leadership and teachers' professional learning is of special significance. The leadership and certain components of school culture impact teachers' direct influence on student success (Cruse, 2021: Hattie, 2015; Maxwell et al., 2017; McCarley et al., 2016). School leaders can positively impact teachers' practices which affect students' learning (DuFour and Marzano, 2011). School culture determines the impacts of professional learning on teacher effectiveness. For example, a leader's engagement with teachers after their professional learning enhances teacher effectiveness; it positively impacts students' learning outcomes (Cruse 2021; Eger and Prasilova, 2020). Johns-Klein (2019) claimed the impact of school culture as "stronger trust between teachers and administrators, increased professional development to support teaching and learning, and improved partnerships with the parents/guardians of the students. An additional result is that the school's learning culture can impact the students' achievement levels" (p1).

Quality Culture

Quality culture is a particular shade of school culture (Valcea, 2014) depicted by the quality of practices, processes of decision-making, and display of values and beliefs. It is a part of the overall organisational culture (Naureen, 2020). Quality culture is the new way of looking at school effectiveness.

There are differences among the shades. One shade is *quality reached* and the second *still has the journey ahead*. One quality school may have

reached a certain level of effectiveness, taking comfort in believing "we are one of the best. Nothing more needs to be done" (fixed mindset, Dweck, 2006). Another represents a growth mindset expressed as "we are one of the best. But we can still improve. Our best is YET to come" (growth mindset). Quality culture in the context of school effectiveness refers to this growth mindset; the school engages in quality assurance of all activities that continually improves the quality of the school.

The school policy or decision to implement quality management techniques for school effectiveness displays another shade of quality culture (Markowitsch, 2018). Markowitsch (2018) called it a thematic subculture like management culture (Ehlers, 2009). Blanchard and Bowles's (1997) Gung-ho provides an interesting case where one department thrives in an otherwise dying industry. However, it is necessary to move from quality subculture to quality school culture for effectiveness.

The quality culture may have certain overlapping zones with school culture (Detert et al., 2001). There can be domains of school culture not covered by quality culture. For example, many schools with outstanding academic cultures fail to focus on their socio-emotional and physical development. There is more than one possible scenario: school cultures without traces of quality culture; quality culture as school culture; and quality culture in some substructures (niche), not in all substructures. However, the assumption of a complete overlap of quality and school culture is questionable. Markowitsch (2018) argues that staff in highly effective schools also discuss quality culture, indicating further possibilities of improvement and quality as a journey.

Dang and Do (2021) made an interesting analysis of quality culture deconstructing into academic, social, humanistic, cultural, and natural environments. They hypothesised that these five environments impact school quality culture and students' performance. Their hypotheses were upheld after field testing. Following Dang and Do (2021), the quality culture can be explained as a function of seven different environments (Figure 14.1).

Physical environment refers to adequacy, functionality, and aesthetics; more specifically, the level of upkeep, ambient noise, lighting, indoor air quality, and thermal comfort of the school's physical building and its location within the community (National Centre for Safe-Supportive Environment, n.d.). Increasing empirical evidence indicates a direct link between the physical environment of classrooms and schools with students' performance (Baafi, 2020; Cheryan et al., 2014).

The academic environment includes curricular planning, teaching–learning process, evaluation, intellectual discourse, research, etc. (Okoli, 2019, as referred by Dang and Do, 2021); professional learning of teachers for improving qualifications and professional skills, attending conferences and seminars, and in professional learning programmes (Berings et al., 2017). The social environment is "how a classroom environment influences or

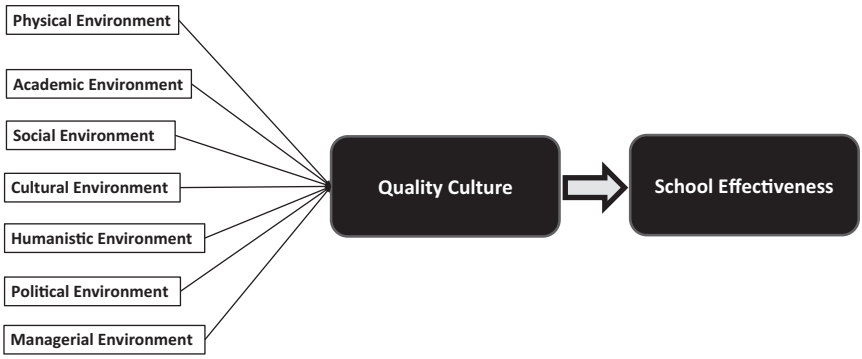

Figure 14.1 School Effectiveness as Function of School Environment

supports the interactions among young children, teachers, and family members" (IRIS Centre, 2021).

The cultural environment refers to the way of life in the school – sets of standards, values, beliefs, and acceptable norms of conduct (Zake and Lazim, 2015). The cultural environment is where all people accept and practice standards, values, beliefs, and standards of conduct. Quality culture develops through interaction and social and professional relationships with a built-in quality assessment and assurance mechanism in all individual, departmental, and institutional activities (Thomas and Pyrros, 2018).

The humanistic environment depicts the human side of the school culture like emotional affiliation and empathy. It is also defined in terms of transparency in the establishment and religiously implementing rights and responsibilities of staff and other stakeholders (Vettori et al., 2017), building solidarity and cohesion among the staff (Whalen, 2020), and caring for students (Yorke and Mantz, 2017).

In the first instance, the political environment is indicated by the nature and extent of political influence – support and interference. Second is the staff and student politics – the cliques, groups and teams – and their mutual trust, relationships, and conflicts. The third is politicisation, as different from the professionalisation of staff. The politicisation leads to staff association with political leanings and affiliations and participation in agitations, labour movements, and electoral politics, affecting school quality culture and effectiveness.

The managerial environment is characterised by control, direction, punishment, and reward rather than inspiration, trust, mutual respect, social recognition, and mentoring.

The quality culture is not binary; it cannot be described as *it is either there or not there*. It is a continuum. Quality culture is dynamic and cultivable with appropriate interventions.

Developing Quality Culture

Developing a quality culture is the necessary condition for school effectiveness. Quality culture is created through quality interventions (QIs) and management. There are several quality management tools and models like lean, six sigma, lean six sigma, quality circle, quality micromanagement, management by objectives, and total quality management (Mukhopadhyay, 2016).

Any quality management initiative faces intended and unintended effects. Intended effects facilitate change, and unintended effects may facilitate or resist innovation and change. The realised change is the outcome of an interaction between intended and unintended consequences. The intended and unintended effects depend upon several factors like the nature of the innovation (simple or complex or deconstructable into components), the mindset of the potential adopters, and leadership. The potential adopters have been assigned the proportion, primarily using mean and standard deviation – innovators (2.5%), early adopters (13.5%), early majority (34%), late majority (34%), and laggards (16%) (Rogers, 2003). The assumption, however, is questionable as the difference between effective and non-effective schools is likely to be due to the difference between the proportion of early adopters and the early majority on one side and the late majority and the laggards on the other.

As a school develops a culture, the staff settles down in that comfort zone: any QI upsets that comfort zone and the dynamic equilibrium of the school culture. Except for the entrepreneurs and change-prone people, change is generally resisted unless an adopter perceives immediate benefits without much risk. Technology adoption in kitchens vs those in classrooms is an illustrative case. Adoption of innovations demands relearning and reskilling. For example, teachers resist moving from teacher-delivered education through lecturing or direct instruction to student-centric blended learning as it requires different skills.

Ignoring or repressing resistance needs careful examination. Summarily discarding the existing practices raises the question of the worthwhileness of what the teachers and staff had done over the years, affecting self-esteem and self-belief. Also, steamrolling resistance will hamper the plan of taking everyone along. There is a need to plan the QI carefully and strategically.

Change management is the function of management of technology and process. Technology, here, implies infrastructures and other inputs. The inputs are converted into output through processes. In a human-intensive system like a school, input is a necessary condition, but the sufficient condition is the process capability.

Deming, Juran, Crosby, Ishikawa, and Mukhopadhyay laid down certain cardinal principles of implementing quality management (Mukhopadhyay,

2020). Deriving lessons from the cardinal principles of quality management, I propose eight principles for developing a quality culture.

1. *Nurture a vibrant ambitious ambience*: Mutual interaction creates the culture influencing the interaction. Quality culture warrants a vibrant, enthusiastic, and nurturing environment that stimulates risk-taking in adopting innovations with confidence and trust in leadership and peers to achieve higher and higher.
2. *Ensure quality everywhere*: The leadership team must attend to every aspect of the school to ensure quality, be it the teaching–learning process, hygiene and cleanliness in classrooms, corridors and conveniences, the relationship among teachers, principal, teachers and students, and parents, utilisation of resources, etc. Quality must be everywhere.

   Students spend 15 years (K–12) in the school; teachers spend almost 30 years. For both students and teachers, schooling is a living experience. It is life itself for students as the formative childhood and adolescent years will never return. That it is also life itself for teachers doesn't need an argument. It is necessary to create awareness among students, teachers, and stakeholders that schooling is a holistic life experience; hence, it must be lived as a quality experience.
3. *Practise collectivism*: It is necessary to ensure quality everywhere involving everyone to develop a quality culture. This can be achieved when teachers, students, staff, and other stakeholders are engaged (Garrick, 2019) in the quality culture mission. In the framework of quality culture, there must also be opportunities and mechanisms for expressing mutual concerns.
4. *Set higher targets and benchmark quality standards*: Quality culture requires setting higher performance targets amenable to measurement and audit. This target setting and benchmarking must be inclusive – setting targets in every domain and benchmarks (minimum acceptable level) for each major and minor school activity. Targets must be higher but achievable.
5. *Use information resource*: Making evidence-based decisions improve transparency and trust that helps develop a quality culture. Data and information on each activity help define and assess the improvement and impact of the quality intervention. Hence, academic leaders must use information resources effectively. While utilising information resources, develop cost consciousness and cost analysis of each activity.
6. *Set up institutional mechanism*: Developing a quality culture is a deliberate process. It is necessary to establish an institutional tool for initiating, mentoring, monitoring, and evaluating quality initiatives, like the quality circle, internal quality assurance cell, inter-departmental and inter-subject task forces, and School Effectiveness Enhancement Kendra (SEEK).

7. *Make professional learning part of institutional culture*: Everyone in the school must engage in professional learning activities. Professional learning develops the skills and qualities of self-regulated learning – acquiring, deepening, and creating knowledge individually and in groups. This emphasis on professional learning is equally valid for the leadership team and the non-teaching staff.
8. *Choose entry point*: The nature of innovation is a critical determinant of the unintended effects. Innovations that are complex and potent with massive transformative effects are likely to be resisted more. Staff may find it challenging to deconstruct complex innovation. The academic leaders must strategically choose innovative practices to create an entry point. For example, instead of introducing technology-integrated education, teachers and students may initially discover self-regulated learning (Chapter 6). This exercise would introduce them to video learning, desktop research, and collaborative learning, making a smooth transition to blended learning.

The role of academic leaders in implementing these eight principles of culture shift is far too obvious.

Leadership for Quality Culture and School Effectiveness

Everyone has a leader within (Stephen Covey's (2008) *Leader in Me*). Everyone needs to discover the leader within and one's native leadership style. This leadership style is deeply ingrained in the person's style or personality organisation. The leader succeeds wherever the leadership style, guided by the mindset, matches the situation's demand. For example, a school intending to enhance school effectiveness will match well with a growth mindset leader and make almost a perfect mismatch with a fixed mindset leader.

A school is far too complex an organisation that any one style will be enough to align with the varying nature and complexity of the situations fully. Leadership effectiveness is significantly influenced by flexibility and the native style (Hersey and Blanchard, 1992). The flexibility helps one choose between telling and directing, selling and convincing, participating and working together and delegating styles according to one's judgment of the situation and its demands.

People's behaviour in leadership positions can be classified into four categories (Figure 14.2):

- *Past oriented*: Administrators' prime concern is to work according to rules and regulations; the classical administrative management theory is the central thesis.
- *Present oriented*: Managers manage here and now, solving problems as they surface daily; their prime concern is the smooth running of the school.

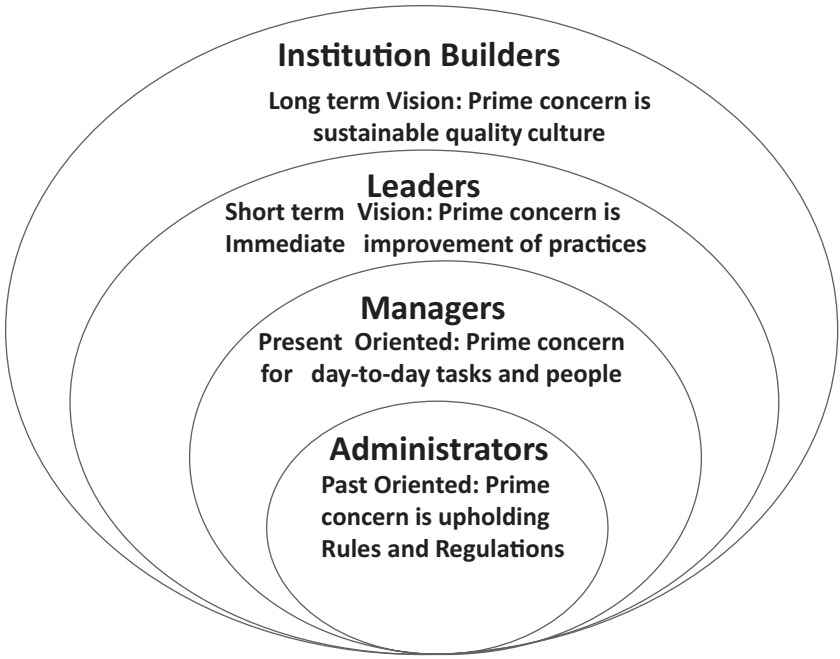

Figure 14.2 Four Categories of School Heads

- *Immediate future oriented*: The concern of the leaders with short-term future orientation is motivating staff and innovating for immediate school improvement. They lead from the front, sometimes pushing the innovations down the throats of the staff with good intentions without the opportunities for the self-fulfilment of the staff, more like a benevolent well-meaning monarch.
- *Visionary*: They are the institution builders. Their vision is beyond themselves and a few successors in terms of time. They position the vision as the pole star for the school to move towards excellence. Institution builders focus on the *process development*. Their concern is creating process capability for sustainable self-renewal of the institution for continuous quality improvement. They usually lead from behind by developing people and then delegating their rights and responsibilities.

Developing school effectiveness requires a gradual shift from managing change here and now to developing process capability for sustainable quality culture. This change in school quality culture is better achieved by the transcendence of leadership from transactional here and now to transcendental, where leadership happens. I call that transition graduation in leadership.

Graduation in Leadership

The leadership theories built around tasks and people (Hersey and Blanchard, 1992; Yukl, 1998) describe leadership styles as the best choice according to the situation. Configuring leadership referenced to tasks and people is rather too simplistic. Leadership for school effectiveness needs a more inclusive configuration (Figure 14.3).

The leadership concept needs to be inclusive. Academic leadership must involve all stakeholders and subcultures, routine and non-routine tasks, and leaders against the background of organisational culture.

School effectiveness, like quality improvement, is a journey in a direction without a destination. It is a seamless transition from one level of organisational effectiveness to another. Accordingly, leadership needs to evolve with the growth of organisational capacity. These are not alternatives; leadership for school effectiveness is a case of unfolding and graduating in leadership (Figure 14.4).

As the school begins its effectiveness journey and moves forward, it involves people and develops mechanisms and processes of QM; staff experiences self-fulfilment; they take responsibilities. As the school effectiveness progresses, the staff develop task maturity and become proud and possessive of their school and school innovations. They take the lead and responsibility for what the designated team of leaders – principal and supervisors – did earlier. The academic leader must also learn and evolve from transactional to zero leadership and graduate in leadership.

During the journey, the academic leader learns new ways of leading the school as the staff matures, tasks change, subgroup cultures and

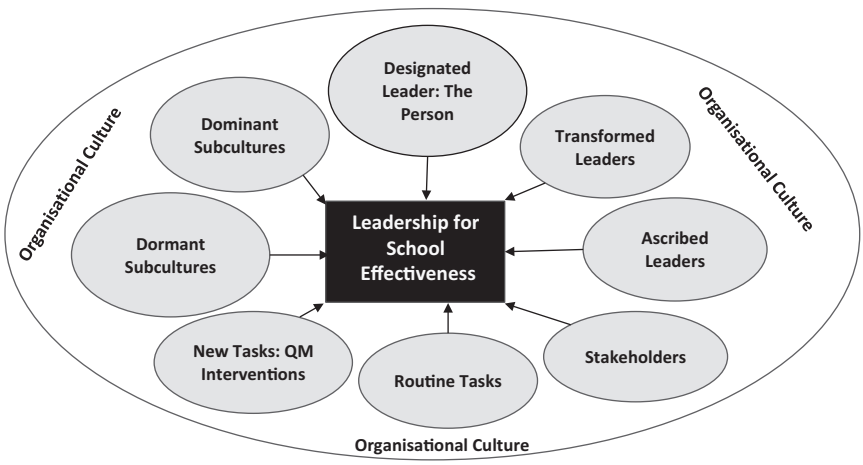

Figure 14.3 School Leadership Configuration

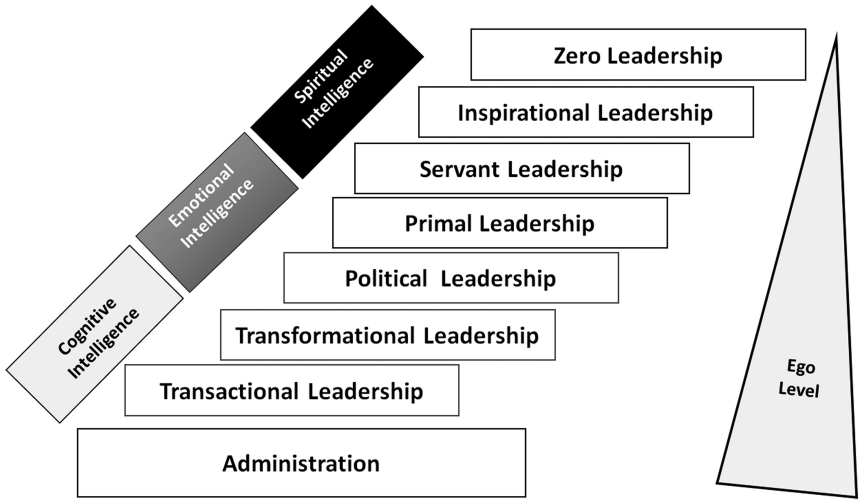

Figure 14.4 Graduating in Leadership

organisational culture change, and the school learns to adopt leaderful practices (Raelin, 2011). Graduation in leadership is a seven-stage evolution of an academic leader.

1. Creating the readiness for change among role incumbents with the role clarity and expectation of the institution. This is best served by transactional leadership that focuses on results conforming to the organisation's existing structure controlled by reward and punishment; people learn the organisational expectations and provide the output for their investment (Max Weber's rational-legal leadership theory) (STU Online, 2014).
2. People evolve to take responsibilities individually and in groups and teams at stage 2. At this stage, interventions are chosen through distributed leadership. This requires *transformational leadership*; individuals are transformed to take the lead. James V. Downton coined this terminology in 1973 (Ugochukwu, 2021), elaborated on and popularised by James MacGregor Burns (1978).
3. Stage 3 demands the choice of QIs involving people according to their interests and styles, assuring them the opportunity for self-fulfilment and ownership. This is a case of strategising people involvement with quality management initiatives to set the school on the path of transformation. *Political leadership* is the choice for this stage of development to reduce unintended effects.
4. The involvement of people with quality management intervention for self-fulfilment can be sustained through emotional bonding among the

different subcultures of the organisation. In other words, the academic leader is to evolve as a *primal leader* – through coaching, pacesetting, and affiliating with the followers (Goleman et al., 2013).

5. As quality culture roots sink deeper, the school picks up the pace of enhancing effectiveness. The initiative moves from the designated leader at the top to the academic leaders dotting various departments and units in the school and the staff. With the implementation of QIs, implementers face difficulties, resistance, and blockades. The role of the leader changes from leading to removing roadblocks – *Servant Leadership* (Greenleaf, 1977).
6. As the quality culture further consolidates, school effectiveness management goes into auto-pilot mode. The leader further steps back with sprinklings of inspiration while honestly serving the staff and the leadership team. This is the stage of adopting *Inspirational Leadership* (Secretan, 1999). The inspired persons can find their ways to lead and achieve the desired goals set beyond personal gains, name, and fame. This is the beginning of leaving a legacy that lasts longer than the leader's tenure in office.
7. As the school learns to propel itself through an inspired team of leaders to self-renewal, the stage is ripe for the academic leader to take one more step back and get lost where everyone leads. During one of my visits to evaluate the quality package of United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) in a school, I took the time to find out who the principal was. He looked just one among the equals, not even the first among the equals, in a very good school until he was introduced. Indeed, this is the highest level, a state of *Zero Leadership,* similar to Jim Collins' (2001) concept of the highest form of leadership.

Reaching the level of *Zero Leadership* is graduating in leadership. Through the seven stages, a leader evolves from leading from the front to leading from behind (inspirational leadership) to transcending into *zero leadership*.

It is equally important to note a few other parameters:

a. Leading is a function of intelligence. The guiding spirit in this graduation framework changes from algorithmic or cognitive intelligence during transactional, transformational, and political leadership to emotional intelligence at the level of primal leadership and spiritual intelligence at the servant, inspirational, and zero leadership. These are, however, not cut and dried; transformational leadership is a zone of overlap of cognitive and emotional intelligence, as much as servant leadership is a zone of overlap of emotional and spiritual intelligence.
b. A quiet ego transition also characterises graduation – a shift from ego ahead of self in leading from the front in transactional leadership form

to leading from behind with ego behind self and transcending to egolessness in inspirational and zero leadership stages.

c. Another implied meaning of graduation is succession – as the designated leaders reach higher levels, others take charge of their previous roles. A school strengthens its process capability. There is no need to look back if the organisation's process capability is robust.

Hence, leadership for developing a quality culture and school effectiveness is not a choice of alternative leadership styles. It is a case of evolving from one level to another, moving from intelligence-driven to emotionally (intelligence) guided to spiritually inspired leadership, empowering people to lead themselves. As the school takes the effectiveness journey, the academic leader takes the journey to graduation in leadership.

Key Takeaways

1. Every school has a culture developed through social interaction among the staff around academic and administrative practices over a long period. A school is known for its culture.
2. Generic, unique, and perceived cultures are the three types of school culture.
3. The school culture creates a zone of psychological comfort for the stakeholders.
4. School culture significantly influences students' learning outcomes and hence school effectiveness. Accordingly, the school culture needs to be converted into a quality culture.
5. Only some schools have a quality culture depicted by setting higher standards and collectively striving to achieve targets, quality of practices, processes of decision-making, and display of values and beliefs and quality everywhere.
6. As a school adopts QIs, the quality culture steadily modifies school culture converting non-quality components to develop a quality culture.
7. Physical, academic, social, cultural, humanistic, political, and managerial environment influences the quality culture that affects school effectiveness.
8. Cardinal principles of developing quality culture are: nurturing a vibrant and ambitious ambience, ensuring quality everywhere, adopting collectivism, setting high achievable targets and benchmarking quality standards, using information resources effectively, setting up an institutional mechanism for QI, making professional learning of staff part of institutional culture, and choosing an entry point for QI (Kaizening).
9. Leadership for school effectiveness is not a choice of alternative styles. As the school evolves with increasing effectiveness, the leader also

evolves from transactional leadership through the transformational, primal, servant, and inspirational to zero leadership.
10. The guiding spirit of graduation in leadership is moving from intelligence-driven to emotionally (intelligence) guided to spiritually inspired leadership, empowering people to lead themselves.
11. As the academic leader evolves, the ego in front at the initial stages learns to move and take a back seat when emotional and spiritual intelligence guides the leader's life.
12. School effectiveness and quality culture are mutually supportive – quality culture enhances school effectiveness, and school effectiveness enriches quality culture. Academic leadership pilots change from school to quality culture and improve school effectiveness.

Please Assess Your Learning Outcomes

1. Please describe school culture and subcultures in your school and their effects on school effectiveness.
2. Create a strategic plan for developing a quality culture and implementing QIs.
3. Based on desktop research, please develop a note on primal, servant, and inspirational leadership and relate your academic leadership with these theories.

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