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Towards School Leadership Development: The Essence of Working with Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Newcomer Families in Saskatchewan

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Abstract

The article is based on a study whose purpose was to examine the lived experience of school leaders in Saskatoon with newcomers to whom English is an additional Language (EAL). Phenomenology as a methodological approach was used to gather and analyze data from leaders representing two school divisions. What was common in their accounts was synthesized to establish the essence of the leaders' experience with EAL newcomers. Findings revealed that the nature of the experience manifests as a celebration, a learning opportunity and as a challenge. Its essence requires school leaders to have knowledge, skills and dispositions for acknowledging and responding appropriately to difference and the associated stereotypes, cultural diversity with its infinite variations, relations between dominant and minority cultures, the role of parents, communities and inter-organizational partnerships in school leaders-newcomer relationship. The essence also calls for school leaders to have self-knowledge, to be more reflective, and to embrace cognitive dissonance as learning opportunities.

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Introduction

Canadian government data points to a consistent growth in the number of English as Additional Language (EAL) immigrants in all of the provinces in the country (Statistics Canada, 2019). The percentage of those who are choosing to settle in the prairie provinces of Alberta, Manitoba and Saskatchewan, is increasing compared to other provinces (Statistics Canada, 2019). The most recent annual population reports show that immigration accounts for the largest proportion of the population increase in Saskatchewan (Government of Saskatchewan, 2018). The growing number of immigrants is also as a result of the Saskatchewan Immigrant Nominee Program (SINP), a provincial government initiative that attracts newcomers who can contribute to the economy (Government of Saskatchewan, 2019a).

The most recent census revealed that only 7% of the immigrants who have settled in Saskatchewan identified English as their mother tongue (Statistics Canada, 2019). Most of the immigrants settled in the two larger cities, Saskatoon and Regina, and more than one third (35.2%) of them were of school age (Statistics Canada, 2019). The census data disaggregated by immigrants' country of origin revealed that 72% of them came from Asia and Pacific region, followed by Europe and the United Kingdom (11%), Africa and the Middle East (11%), South and Central America (4%), the United States with about 1% (Statistics Canada, 2019). More than a third of the entire immigrant population was from the Philippines (See details in table 1)

Table 1.

Top Countries of Birth of Immigrants to Saskatchewan, 2016

Country of Birth	Percentage (%)
Philippines	34.7
India	12.8
Pakistan	7.2
China	7.0
Bangladesh	3.1
Ukraine	2.8
Syria	2.3
Nigeria	2.2
United Kingdom	1.8
Vietnam	1.8
Others	24.3

These population trends are changing the demographic make-up of schools, and increasing the need for support that is specific to EAL newcomers (Drake, 2014; Kanu, 2008; Okoko, 2012). Studies carried out in North America and the United Kingdom show how school leadership plays a significant role in the academic success of the EAL newcomers (Gardiner & Enomoto, 2006; Lumby & Coleman, 2016; Scanlan & Lopez, 2015). As the demographic change continues, school leaders are expected to engage more with precarious incidences associated with diversity and the success of all students (Epstein & Sander, 2006; Riehl, 2000). They are expected to assess and manage the differences in various cultural practices that emerge from the demographic changes that are occurring in their schools (Lindsey, Robin & Terrell, 2009). Unfortunately, the study upon which this article is based, and other related studies have indicated that school leaders in Saskatchewan and in Canada are hardly prepared to meaningfully engage with the growing number of culturally diverse immigrant families (Berhard, 2010; Goddard, 2010).

This article is based on a study that was designed to examine the experience of school principals and to use the findings to provide suggestions for improving programs that prepare school leaders for work with EAL immigrants, who are referred to as newcomers. The study used a phenomenological approach, with interviews, to seek descriptions of how principals experienced "the school leader – newcomer phenomenon." The process was guided by one main question: what is your experience with EAL newcomer families? Subsequent questions were used to probe for responses on who the newcomers were, incidences that the principals considered as significant, and the gaps that existed in their preparation for work with EAL newcomers. The purpose of this article is to use the study findings to articulate the essence of the school leaders' experience with EAL newcomers. This article focuses on what was reported as the significant incidences associated with the experience.

Context

The government of Saskatchewan has 27 publicly funded school divisions. The divisions fall under four major categories: Public, Catholic, Independent and Francophone (Government of Saskatchewan, 2019b). Most of the public schools in the larger cities like Saskatoon fall under the Public or Catholic school divisions. The steady growth of EAL newcomers in the public schools has led to the creation of newcomer centres in the larger school divisions: Saskatoon Public Schools (SPS) and Greater Saskatoon Catholic Schools (GSCS). These centres are the point of entry into the school system for EAL newcomer students and families. They assist in registering the students in elementary and high schools, assessing the students' language skills, and recommending support and programming services (Greater Saskatoon Catholic Schools, 2019; Saskatoon Public Schools, 2019).

The SPS and GSCS offer support for all elementary and high school students who are learning English as an additional language. Both student numbers and educational needs are taken into consideration when EAL staffing decisions are made (Anderson &Tilbury, 2014). The goal of EAL programs at both elementary and high school is to improve students' cultural and linguistic competency so that they can be integrated successfully into mainstream classrooms (Anderson &Tilbury, 2014; Government of Saskatchewan, 2019b).

The school divisions also partner with settlement agencies such as Saskatoon Open Door Society (SODS)and the Global Gathering Place (GGP), for language translation, interpretation services, mentorship, coaching, and other socio-cultural support services. One of the successful partnerships is with the Open Door Society through the Settlement Support Worker in Schools (SSWIS) program (Government of Saskatchewan 2019a; Greater Saskatoon Catholic Schools, 2019; Saskatoon Public Schools, 2019).

Theoretical Framework

This article focuses on the ontological aspect of school leaders' work with EAL newcomer families by examining the nature of the experience. The tenets of existential phenomenology are used to establish the entities that exist in the experience and how they are experienced (Piem, 2018; van Manen, 2014). The approach examines commonalities in the descriptions provided by school leaders to establish the essence of experience (van Manen, 2014; 2015). The focus is on two characters of phenomenology: (i) concreteness of the experience, addressing the question, "What is the nature (object) of the experience?" and (ii) how the school leaders relate to the phenomena. What it is like for the leaders experiencing the phenomena (subject and their perspective) (Piem, 2018; van Manen, 2014; 2015)?

Related Research

The demographic changes that are occurring due to immigration are forcing school leaders to engage with the diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds of EAL newcomer families (Epstein & Sander, 2006; Riehl, 2000). House, Hange, Javinda, Dorfman and Gupta (2004) noted that beliefs and assumptions distinguish effective from ineffective leaders, more so because the values held by members of a culture influence the leadership approach, and their motivation for achievement power, authority and affiliation. This led authors like Chin and Trimble (2015) to illuminated the importance of cross-cultural competency in effective leadership. Unfortunately, few leadership preparation programs require that school leaders enrol in cross-cultural education courses (Garrison-Wade, Sobel & Fulmer, 2007; Liou & Hesbol, 2017). Further, Gardiner and Enomoto (2006) revealed the deficit in principals' awareness of the connections between affirming diversity and student achievement.

Seashore (2003) emphasized the need for strong democratic school leadership practices that support newcomer families at the school and district levels, and the need to include all parties (teachers, students, parents, and leaders) in decision-making. Riehl (2000), Dimmock and Walker (2005) advocated for school leadership practices that are responsive to culturally diverse groups, i.e., practices that: (a) foster cultural diversity; (b) exemplify inclusive instructional practice; (c) build partnerships between school and communities; and, (d) engage in school governance and decision-making processes that reflect multiculturalism. Engaging settlement support service providers and culture brokers (Georgis, Gokiert, Ford, & Ali, 2014), as well as providing space for students and family members to feel welcome in the school (Drake, 2014), are other practices that have been reported to facilitate the success of culturally and linguistically diverse newcomer students.

Several authors have identified attributes that constitute culturally competent school leadership. For instance, Khalifa, Gooden and Davis (2016) associated such competency with leaders who (a) are self-reflective of their leadership behavior, (b) develop culturally responsive teachers, and (c) promote a culturally responsive, inclusive environment. Similarly, Lindsey, Robin and Terrell (2009) considered culturally proficient leaders as being able to (a) assess culture (b) value diversity (c) manage dynamics of difference (d) adapt to diversity and (e) institutionalize cultural knowledge. Lumby and Coleman (2016) pointed out that having trust in education institutions and those who represent them (i.e., teachers and administrators) is fundamental to the success of newcomer students.

While examining the role that vice principals play in diverse, multi-ethnic schools, Hamm (2017) noted that they needed supervision, training, and mentorship to lead the multi-ethnic schools that are now the reality in Canada. Some of the best practices described by the vice principals included developing of strong communication networks that help to reduce barriers associated with managing a multilingual community, working with immigrant services, and breaking language and cultural barriers for new immigrant parents who were hesitant to approach teachers and school leaders due to their perceived deficiencies in the dominant language.

Methodology

The study used open-ended interviews to garner accounts from ten leaders about their experiences with EAL newcomers (Moustakas, 1994, van Manen, 2015). The leaders included principals from schools with a higher number of EAL newcomer students, based on the lists provided by school divisions. I carried out at least two, 90 minutes interviews with each of the participant, over a period of 10 months. The participation rate was at 90% and they all identified as Caucasians of European descent. Table 2 has the breakdown of the participants by school division, years of experience as school principals and the countries of origin of the EAL newcomers they had worked with.

Table 2.

Participants' Demographics

Participants Identification Number	School Division	Years of Experience as Principal	Country of Origin of Newcomer Families in their School
1	GSCS	5	Somalia, Eritrea, Egypt, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, India, Vietnam, Thailand, China, Ukraine, Kenya
2	SPS	1	Philippines, Nepal, Ethiopia, Somalia, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Syria, Iraq, Nigeria, India.
3	GSCS	9	Philippines, Iraq, Sudan, Ghana, Poland, Ireland, Scotland, Ukraine.
4	SPS	3	Nepal, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Iraq, Eritrea
5	SPS	2	Spain, Ukraine, Iraq, Syria, Congo, Nigeria, Ethiopia
6	GSCS	5	Philippines, Pakistan, Iraq, Iran, Congo, Sudan, Nigeria, Cameroon
7	SPS	8	Bangladesh, Sudan, Somalia, Indonesia, India, Pakistan, China, Vietnam, Nigeria
8	SPS	3	China Bangladesh, Pakistan, India
9	GSCS	1	Philippines, Iraq Nigeria, Sudan, Colombia
10	GSCS	10	Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Philippines, China, Sudan, Nigeria

The interview transcripts were chunked into segments that applied to specific interview questions. Structural coding was then used to identify and assign conceptual phrases (e.g. cultural diversity, difference, dissonance) to segments (Saldana, 2016). The segments were also examined for significant statements of meaning (texture) from participants' own voices (e.g. "it is just wonderful", "Am now conscious.") using what Saldana (2016) refers to as Invivo coding. The statements were then organized to develop textural and structural description of the experience (Moustakas, 1994; van Manen, 2015). Themes were used to identify and describe features that were common in the leaders' experience (the essence). The descriptions were then presented as narrations of the essence of the experience, covering its concreteness and how the participants related to it (Piem, 2018). A focus group discussion was then held with 6 of the participants to validate the interpretation of the preliminary findings into meaningful statements that could inform policy and practice (Noonan, 2002). This article focuses on the findings from what was considered to be the significant incidences as the unit of analyzing and articulating the essence of the experience.

Findings

The essence of how the principals experienced the phenomenon of working with EAL newcomers was derived from responses that described the nature (concreteness) of the experience and how they perceived it. The findings are synthesized in a way that highlights three main ways that the experience was perceived, with the descriptions of the related concreteness of the experience under each category. The categories were then organized into themes that reveal commonality or essence of the experience. Consequently, the findings are organized into four sections (i) as a celebration (ii) as a learning experience, (iii) as a challenge and (iv) the essence in the experience.

As a Celebration

The celebratory experience was expressed in the principals' enthusiasm and delight about the diversity and the dispositions that newcomers exhibited in their quest to fit in their new community. As one principal put it:

> *I love it. I love the languages and the cultures...To me most of the difficulties that come with it (the experience) are just part of working with diversity…humanity… I don't know how else to put it. So when they come into to my school, I have a big smile, welcome them and tell them that they're going to love it here.*

And as another principal noted, "It is just wonderful, the value they place on education is amazing. It is more than is placed in Canada." Another principal with a similar experience expressed the following:

> *I love our EAL population. I think they come with an appreciation for education. Families come in being grateful for what our schools have to offer, and that doesn't always happen in Canada. We don't always have people that just are grateful for what schools provide. I would say majority of families are very grateful for education, and that shows in how their kids act at school.*

The other celebratory expressions were about students' positive interactions with school actors, their attitude towards learning, and authority. They included words like enthusiastic, polite, driven, and respectful. One principal described the students as "warming up very fast to teachers and their ways of teaching". They were also described as "enjoying sports." Another principal described the students as typically self- disciplined.

Parents were described as willing to engage in school activities. Narratives were provided of EAL parents, mostly women, who volunteered to work in places like library or to educate people on their culture. One such example was a mother who volunteered to educate the school community about her faith and her community after an incident where a person identified as belonging to her faith performed a heinous act of terrorism. One of the principals described the enthusiasm with which newcomer parents participated in "Canadian celebrations" that the school initiated. "They dress their children up for Halloween, and come fully dressed up and ready to participate in our Christmas celebration whenever they are invited."

This celebratory involvement of newcomers with school leadership was deemed reciprocal because of reported appreciation that newcomer families expressed towards the non-school related support that they received from school leadership, such as guidance and support provided, in some cases, to facilitate access to services such as medical care, English language learning and job opportunities.

A Learning Experience

Most of the principals considered the experience to be a learning process, and focused on the learning opportunities that behavior and practices unique to newcomers offered to their leadership. In many instances, their descriptions elicited learning that was reflective and personal. The learning was related to sensitivity around behavior and practices that were unfamiliar to principals and newcomers, differences in school cultures and school systems, newcomers' unique needs, and the leadership roles associated with serving the cultural diversity.

Unfamiliar Cultural Behavior and Practices

The principals expressed uncertainty in their understanding and response to unfamiliar behavior and practices that were unique to EAL newcomers. But, they acknowledged that these experiences availed opportunities for them to seek knowledge, skills and dispositions for responding to beliefs and practices that were not consistent with their own. The behaviors and practices they referred to varied depending on ethnicity, religion, school and educational culture from which specific newcomer families came. Some of the principals expressed how they had learned to self-reflect, and to be conscious about cultural difference and variation in values and assumptions that manifested in gender relations, parenting, conflict resolution, relations with authority, teacher-learner expectations, and relational gestures associates with greetings, expressing remorse or showing respect.

Some of the assumptions that came out included gender related experiences such as one where the principal assumed that women from one of the ethnic groups were not allowed to talk or interact with people with authority in the presence of their husbands. As they stated:

> *A mother and father came in for a meeting and for me it was an interesting scenario because the mom was not allowed to talk. Everything came from the father and even when I asked the mother questions the father did the answering and… it wasn't because the mom didn't have the capacity or anything like that. Culturally dad was the person I needed to talk to as a principal.*

Another example was the assumption that newcomers used fistfights to resolve conflict. A principal who identified as a person from "a white middle class, conflict free background" described their lesson from the experience of constantly mediating fights initiated by members of one newcomer family as follows:

I had never had to deal with that before… but with this family I was constantly mediating their conflict with other people, sometimes with teachers. But I came to realize that they were just passionate, they were just energetic, a full of life kind of family and I loved them for it (laughs).

A gesture such as having a student smile when they were reprimanded was another example of behavior that some leaders found to be inconsistent with norms in the Canadian context. As one of the principals described:

The more I talked the more he smiled and I couldn't understand why he was smiling. Then I realized after I had calmed myself a little bit, that he was smiling because he was embarrassed. …I understood afterwards that I needed to check my own culture.

Another principal expressed her effort to be more sensitive and respectful towards the culture of newcomer families as follows:

Am now more conscious. So if I am going to meet a new family, I make sure I put my jacket on because I don't know where the family is from…So I will introduce myself as the principal but I will try and be conscious. I don't want to offend anybody so I will look at the children introduce myself and then I'll turn to mom and then I will put my hand out and then I must say, "Do you shake hands?" to the father and most of our (name of religion) community do but some don't. …It is such a simple thing but pretty important to our families.

Difference in School Culture and Education Systems

The leaders acknowledged the influence that school culture and the education systems in the country of origin had on the way newcomers perceived or engaged with school leadership in Canada, and prompted some of the principals to express interest in knowing more about the education systems where the EAL families came from. Most of what was expressed highlighted difference in the perceptions about certain teaching and learning approaches, and what was expected of students. Some of the examples provided included incidences where parents were dissatisfied with the workload that was given to their children, claiming that it was too light. Others felt that their children were not placed in the appropriate grade. One of the principal stated:

> *There is another family in our school, also of (name of a country) descent: their children are what we indicate as low cognitive ability. When we transition to grade 9 we will recommend special programing but the parents have already indicated to us that they will not accept.*

There were also differences in the expectations around classroom placement. For instance, a pedagogical model like the split classroom was misunderstood by some parents who were unhappy because their children were in the same room with learners of a lower grade. An example of difference in parental involvement practice was expressed in a case where members of one newcomer community preferred having parent teacher interviews as a community:

> *A group of (Native language) families who had lived in a refugee camp in (name of country) for many years would come to parent- teacher interviews as a community. So members of the community would sit in one child's parent-teacher interview and then move to the next child's…*

The principals also mentioned experiences of difference in teaching practices based on gender related cultural practices. One such example was about a family whose did not allow their daughter to participate in activities that took place out of the school premises unless accompanied by her mother.

Responsibilities Associated with the Needs of the Newcomers

The principals narrated how working with EAL newcomers called for engagement in roles that were beyond regular school leadership practice. They found themselves having to learn how to initiate and manage collaborations with settlement agencies. Besides managing collaborations, language barriers brought with them issues related to trust for both newcomers and school leadership, especially with regard to decisions about the choice of translators. According to the principals, some families preferred bringing in their own translators even when it was hard to determine the authenticity of the translations:

> *If the translator is a friend of the family and we are passing on delicate information such as a child who is not performing at the expected level, or when you are dealing with a child or family with any sort of special need, you need to be sure that all the information is clear.*

One other issue that was reported was the cliques that emerged as members from different cultures tried to establish their identity within the school. There were descriptions of instances where leaders had to solve issues associated with the lack of trust, feelings of fear and discomfort around certain groups, or students fearing or feeling uncomfortable going to certain areas in the school because they are dominated by certain ethnic groups. Some leaders reported cases of parents pulling children from schools because of an increase in the number of EAL newcomers from certain ethnicities.

There was also mention of more personal needs that some principals attended to, such as assisting parents to find jobs, or spending hours assisting newcomer parents who needed social support. As one of the principals narrated, "In their country they were assisted by their parents or grandparents but now they seek support from me. I work with them on things like identifying doctors and following up with appointments." These learning experiences provided an opportunity for leaders to reflect on gaps in requisite knowledge, skills and dispositions for work with culturally and linguistically diverse families.

A Challenge

The view of the experience as a challenge was derived from descriptions of what was considered problematic. The leaders cited contentious issues associated with resourcing, funding, and support services. As far as some of these principals were concerned, EAL newcomers needed more attention, additional programing, and professional support to navigate through unique challenges associated with language, settlement, and poverty, and trauma. The challenges demanded more from school leaders as they worked towards students' academic success. One principal described the process of differentiating whether a student needed support with language or cognitive ability as taking a lot of time and effort. He referred to a case where they had to translate a test in the student's native language to confirm the student's capability. Other challenges were policy and system related, for instance working with frustrated parents and students who were finding it hard to accept decisions about placement, and what they thought was lower academic expectations of their children. The principals were also confronted with decisions about overwhelmed or traumatized students who needed specialist support from counsellors or social workers.

There were also non-academic challenges associated with newcomer students. One principal described a challenge with judging the language levels of parents. The principal used an example where she thought a parent knew enough English, but later on realized that the parent did not comprehend her instructions. This led to some miscommunication and so they had to start all over again with a translator. Some principals described their experience with managing students who suffered from the effects of war and refugee camp life. In one participant's words,

> *We expect people to come into our schools, sit down at their desk and do the work. That's not a reality for everyone. Some people have been in a refugee camp where there are no chairs, let alone places to write. ... (Name of the child) had come from basically survival mode to a structured mode here and those two didn't mesh. … When (Name of the child) was here he would throw a wreck and hurt others or himself.*

Another principal described an experience with a traumatised student, which resulted in the engagement of law enforcement:

> *I remember dealing with (name of a student). Police had to be called to help find him one day because he took off and got lost trying to find his way home. But he was a handful…. We worked with his family and had to put in as much support as we could for him to slowly come around. And I am not saying he came around to our way of doing things but he came around to an understanding that we were here for him and that the school was a safe place for him to be.*

Other non-academic challenges were mistrust, conflict among various ethnic groups, and working with law enforcement because of family or community disputes that extended to the school. There were also gender related challenges such as the one expressed by a principal who was frustrated by a male parent who found it difficult to discuss the challenges his child was having with school with her because she was a woman. As she stated: "I consider myself to be an intelligent and understanding person. It really bothers me when a parent cannot talk with me because I am a woman."

Besides these challenges some leaders mentioned having to deal with occasional false accusations of racism. As one of the leaders put it: "I think this is important, some parent went to an outside agency to report that there was a racism issue in our school because we were singling out their boy for special interventions because he was (name of an ethnic group).”

The Essence in the Experience

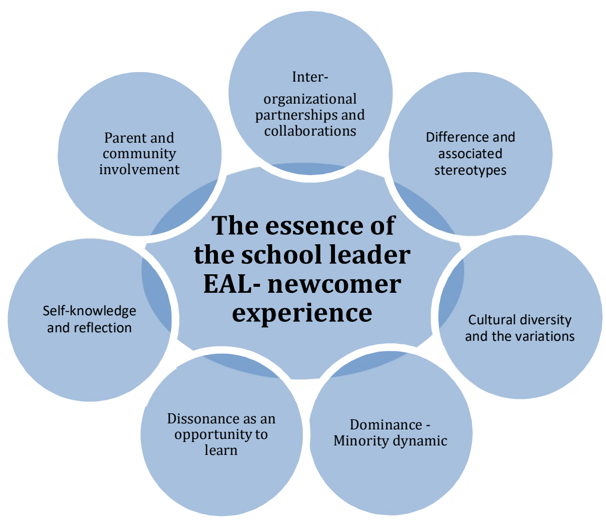
The way school leaders perceived the phenomenon of working with EAL newcomers and the nature (concreteness) of the experience revealed common feature in the phenomena. These features were themed from the structural and textural descriptions of the experience. They were derived from leaders’ assumptions, feelings, and observable and relational realities. Whether the experience was celebrated, posed learning opportunities or was experienced as a challenge, common features include the view of newcomers as different and the assumptions that were associated with the difference. This sense of difference was in the shadow of a dominant-minority cultural dynamic where the newcomers were the minority. There was also the experience with cultural diversity and the variations that existed within it. The diversity and variations cut across beliefs and practices based on ethnicity, religion, and schooling and education. They were a source of cognitive dissonance which most leaders turned into learning opportunities. Other common features were the other significant actors in the school leader - newcomer interactions. These included the parents and families, and the organizations that partnered or collaborated to provide the needed services. Details of how these essential features manifested are discussed in the subsequent section.

Discussion

The nature of the experience of school leaders, be it from the celebration, learning, or the challenges, revealed pertinent aspects that were the essence of school leaders’ experience with EAL newcomers in the Saskatchewan context. The essence is synthesized into themes that need to be considered while preparing of school leaders for their work with the EAL newcomers, namely: (i) difference and the associated assumptions, (ii) cultural diversity and variations, (iii) dominance-minority dynamic, (iv) dissonance as a learning opportunity (v) self–knowledge and reflection (vi) parental and community involvement, and (vii) collaboration and partnerships (See Figure 1).

Figure 1.

The Essence of School Leader EAL Interactions



Difference and the Associated Stereotypes

Difference, whether real or perceived, was evident in the way leaders identified themselves and the worldview they portrayed. For instance, all the leaders identified as Caucasian of European descent and described the EAL newcomers as being from diverse ethnicities and races. They experienced most of the newcomer relational practices as collective, hierarchical, and representing what authors like Chin and Trimble (2015) described as an Eastern worldview, and considered the Canadian worldview as being egalitarian. One such example was the preference of communal parent teacher interviews among some newcomer parents and their tendency to consult with their community or use the community norms to argue for or make decisions about the education of their children.

Difference was also evident in the general descriptions of the socioeconomic, culture, and curriculum needs of the newcomers. Inasmuch as most of the principals acknowledged the commitment that most newcomer families had toward education, they were mainly depicted as a homogeneous group that was of a lower SES status with lower academic abilities compared to their Canadian born peers. They were considered to have a deficit in language and prior content knowledge.

There was also evidence of leaders holding negative views of newcomers based on what they considered to be unfamiliar cultural practices rather than their cognitive ability. For example, one principal described an experience where he realized how one student's performance was excellent when a test was offered in the student's native language instead of English. This echoes Lumby and Coleman (2016) who argued that stereotype, prejudice, and language limitation lead to the underestimation of newcomer's ability. Despite the strikingly diverse cultures and skill levels, they are typically put together with one underequipped teacher who is expected to address their varied needs (Calderon, Slavin & Sanchez, 2011). For instance, the needs of refugees and the economic immigrants were not the same, and not all EAL newcomers have a language deficit. Evidently, leaders need to be cognisant of these differences, and the assumptions and biases associated with them. As such, leadership development initiatives need to use strategies that encourage reflection on personal histories, and understanding how difference works in schools by examining how factors like socioeconomic and cultural circumstance influence achievement (Blackmore, 2006).

Cultural Diversity and Variations

The leaders' descriptions revealed how newcomers were from various nationalities and diverse cultures within those nationalities. The cultural variation in the newcomer-school leadership context was also based on religion, gender, ethnicity and race. Such diversity and cultural variation influences school leaders' behaviour and practices (House et al., 2004). This was evident in the reaction of principals to behaviour that they deemed unfamiliar, especially relationships associated with authority, gender, parenting, meaning of gestures, conflict resolution, and the difference in experience with school systems and academic expectations. There was also the newcomers' dissatisfaction with placement of students, workload, or unfamiliar pedagogical models such as split classrooms. Such differences prompted many leaders to want to know more about the diverse culture and education systems. It also calls for leaders to have cultural competencies for responding effectively to the needs of the newcomers (Khalifa, Gooden & Davis, 2016; Lindsey, Robin & Terrell, 2009). Hence the need for preparation and development at both the individual and system levels (Hansuyadha & Slater, 2012).

Dominance- Minority Dynamic

The dominance- minority dynamic is inherent in the newcomer leadership relationship because of the assumption that the newcomers should acculturate both in the community and in the school system. The anecdotes that celebrated newcomer students had phrases like "warming up to teachers, "accepting new way of teaching," being enthusiastic, and having acceptable values. Newcomer parents were described as "embracing school activities" and "feeling the need to clarify misconceptions about their culture (newcomers) and educate the school community about their religion to eliminate feelings of mistrust." One principal described a newcomer student as "slowly but surely coming around to our way of doing things." This begs the question about the principals' level of cultural proficiency, as other cultures appear wrong or inferior to the dominant culture in their view (Lindsey, Robin & Terrell, 2009). True school leadership needs to go beyond painting a picture of inclusion, and affirming newcomers' efforts to acculturate (Lumby & Coleman, 2016).

According to Grant and Roy (2019), culturally competent school leaders affirm the culture and identity of newcomers by encouraging them to speak their language, asking about their culture, creating a welcoming environment, involving and establishing lines of communication with families. Principals can serve as transformative leaders in response to exclusionary beliefs and practices expressed by teachers and families from the dominant culture (Cooper, 2009).

Dissonance as an Opportunity to Learn

Both leaders and EAL newcomers contend with decisions and actions that are not consistent with their cultural values, beliefs or norms. As expressed by the leaders, these inconsistencies provided both parties with an opportunity to reflect, learn and act. Examples include the female principal who struggled to understand why a male parent had a problem discussing his concerns with her because she was a woman, or using an alternative gesture with parent who did not use a hand shake as a form of greeting with a principal of a different gender. There was also the principal who adjusted her mode of dressing and gestures to accommodate parents from certain communities. LaRoque (2013) reported the benefits of turning challenges into opportunities when it comes to cultural and linguistic dissonance between parents and schools.

Some of the reasons that parents provided for wanting their children to receive additional homework were not consistent with the principles that the leaders held about education outcomes. The communal approach to parent-teacher interviews was other example of a practice that was not consistent with regular practice in Canada. These inconsistencies were a source of cognitive dissonance that motivated change in the leaders' decisions and actions (Festinger, 1957; Elliot & Divine, 1994). Such dissonance avails opportunities for leaders to gain insights into new cultural perspectives and facilitated transition into inclusive leadership practices (McFalls, & Cobb-Roberts, 2001).

Self-Knowledge and Reflection

The inconsistencies in the school leaders' beliefs, and values and the way they acted to include the newcomers affirmed that self-knowledge and reflection are the core of cultural competency (Nobles, 1976). It is through such processes that leaders are driven to want to know and respond appropriately towards values and beliefs from diverse cultures. Self-knowledge and reflection can empower leaders to position themselves to ask the right questions and learn from cultural dissonance (McFalls, & Cobb-Roberts, 2001). Tools like the cultural proficiency continuum by Lindsey, Robin and Terrell (2009) can facilitate school leaders in gauging and reflecting on their cultural proficiency. The continuum, which has descriptors ranging from cultural destructiveness (denial) to cultural proficiency (integration), with cultural incapacity (defense), cultural blindness (minimization), pre-cultural competence (acceptance), and cultural competence (adaptation) in between, can enable leaders to rate themselves and reflect on the attributes that will facilitate their cultural proficiency. As Hansuyadha and Slater (2012) recommended, school leaders' cultural competency needs to be developed both at individual and system levels. Reflexivity as part of leaders' professional development especially about personal educational and cultural histories and how they influence leadership decisions is also a favourable strategy (Blackmore, 2006).

Parents and Family Involvement

Parents and families are central to school leadership-newcomer relationships (Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Grant & Roy, 2019). Parents are custodians of pertinent information about the socio-cultural values, home and prior school experience of the newcomer students. They are key to decisions that are made about the students' school experience including placement, pedagogy, discipline, and communication. According to the leaders interviewed, the school-related decisions that most newcomer parents made were influenced by a communal worldview where family was at the core. Cultural norms were central to newcomer relations with school leadership as evidenced in both curriculum and non-curriculum related decisions, e.g. preferring communal parent-teacher interviews and resisting special programs as interventions for low academic ability. As Grant and Roy (2019) stated, engaging parents and children in more meaningful ways provides an understanding of cultural practices. They advocated for school leadership to affirm families' culture and identity by providing a welcoming environment, establishing lines of communication, inquiring about their culture and involving families in school related activities (Grant & Roy, 2019; Lumby & Coleman, 2016). Leaders must therefore find ways to create meaningful relationships with parents and work with communities to gain a better understanding of the motivations behind their decisions, and how they can serve diverse needs (Cox-Petersen, 2011; Grant & Roy, 2019).

Inter-Organizational Partnerships and Collaboration

The leaders affirmed the pertinent role of collaboration and partnerships between schools with ethnic communities, settlement agencies and other organizations that serve newcomers (Georgis et al., 2014). Examples included instances when leaders needed to communicate sensitive information or mediation for inconsistencies in cultural practice. Partnerships between school leadership and immigrant serving organizations are a means of accessing resources and settlement services that are necessary for newcomer students' success (Cox-Petersen, 2011; Georgis et al., 2014). One successful example in Saskatchewan is the Settlement Support Worker in Schools (SSWIS) program with the Saskatoon Open Door Society and school divisions. Organizations like Global Gathering Place also offer support with homework and career guidance in selected high schools. Collaboration with community organizations can also facilitate relationships and avail culture brokers, who are an asset when it comes to mediating cultural dissonance, mistrust or fear, related issues (Georgis et al., 2014).

Implications for School Leadership Preparation and Development

It was evident that the leaders yearned for requisite cultural leadership competencies that would enable them to work more effectively with culturally and linguistically diverse newcomers. The need to know about the varied cultures was expressed in their overt call for knowledge and understanding of the educational leadership systems of the countries from which the newcomers came. This need was also expressed in the unclear understanding of the behaviours and cultural practices that the newcomers exhibited. Leaders need to be aware of cross-cultural differences and the diversity that exists within cultures, and how these influence behaviours and practice of both leaders and newcomers.

Leaders need the competencies that will enable them to acknowledge difference, and to minimize decisions or actions that highlight division (Bustamante, Nelson & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). They require competencies that will enable them to affirm the various cultures by creating a welcoming school environment, and maintaining lines of communication, inquiring about cultures, and involving families in school related activities (Grant & Roy, 2019). They should be empowered to engage with parents, create positive relationships among members of the school community, and gain a better understanding of the diverse cultures and practices that may cause dissonance (Cooper, 2009; Lopez , 2015). Exposure to programs and resources that facilitate newcomers to settle in smoothly, such as access to peers and staff who understand their culture and information on the dominant culture, are strategies that some authors have advocated (Lumby & Coleman, 2016).

School leaders also need to know the contextual essence of being culturally responsive. Khalifa, Gooden and Davis (2016), and Lindsey, Robin and Terrell (2009) suggested generic frames that could be used to equip school leaders with competencies for cultural leadership. Khalifa et al. (2016) could be a resource for equipping leaders to be (a) critical and self-reflective of their leadership behavior (b) develop culturally responsive teachers (c) promote culturally responsive/inclusive environments, and (d) engage students, parents, and marginalized communities. Likewise, Lindsey et al. (2009) defined and provided descriptors, outlined above, for culturally proficient leaders as those who can (a) assess culture (b) value diversity (c) manage dynamics of difference, (d) adapt to diversity and (e) institutionalize cultural knowledge. Similarly, Liou and Hermanns (2017) advocated for programs preparing school leaders for work with culturally diverse students to establish an ecological framework that can develop aspiring school principals' dispositions to tackle systemic racism and practices associated with deficit thinking and low expectations.

The competencies for working with the personal, cultural, and systemic aspects of the school leader-newcomer phenomena could be availed through both formal graduate degrees and certificate programs to less formal opportunities such as professional development workshops and seminal presentations (Bush, 2010; Earley & Jones, 2009). The essence of school leaders' experience with culturally and linguistically diverse newcomers require instructional strategies that equip leaders with both inter- and intra-personal skills such as reflection, inquiry, and observation. They will also benefit from experiential learning through mentorship and coaching (Earley & Jones, 2009).

Conclusion

This article reveals the essence of school leaders' work with EAL newcomers as manifested as celebrations, learning opportunities, and challenges. Leaders need to be responsive to unfamiliar behaviour, and open to learning and embracing difference and diverse cultural values and worldviews. The essence also calls upon leaders to be cultural advocates, and to respond appropriately to the dominance-minority dynamic that exists in interactions with culturally and linguistically diverse newcomers. The article identifies cultural dissonance as an opportunity for leaders and newcomers to learn and work with diversity. The significant role that self-knowledge and reflection play in equipping school leaders for cultural competence, and the need for collaboration and partnerships with families, communities, and relevant service providers are part of the essence of the leadership experience. This study affirms the need for school leaders to know about cross-cultural and intercultural communication. It also provides an understanding of the personal, cultural, and systemic aspects of the leadership-newcomer phenomena that are pertinent to the preparation of school leadership for work EAL newcomers.

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Exploring the Values of Educators in Greek Schools

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Abstract

Among the factors that determine an organization's effectiveness, values are critical elements. However, little is known about the values of those who work in schools. The research reported here is an initial step in exploring the value orientations of educators in Greece. The findings are used to formulate recommendations for extended investigations of Greek educators' values and the implications for school administration and leadership.

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Introduction

In general, the contemporary organizational literature reflects widespread acceptance that values are critical elements in an organization's culture, mission, and leaders' styles. More important, it has been shown that values influence the effectiveness of organizations (Francis and Woodcock 1990, Boeckmann & Dickinson, 1999, Hoy and

Miskel 2005, Berkhout, & Rowlands, 2007; Gregory, Harris, Armenakis, & Shook, 2009). Consistent with this, the research that has been done in educational organizations has shown that the values held by individuals and groups affect what happens in the organization in many ways. For example, Begley (1999) and Begley and Johanssen (2005) concluded that the values held by individuals influence the action alternatives they consider acceptable or unacceptable; and Leithwood and Steinbach (1995) and Lazaridou (2002) found that values influence leaders' approaches to, and success in, solving problems. However, understandings about the roles that values play in educational organizations are still rather limited. This is especially true for Greece.

The research I report here was designed to begin addressing this lack of information through a survey of the values of teachers and school principals in the Greek school system. Knowledge of Greek educators' value would be useful, first of all, because Greece is making radical changes in its social structures as a consequence of a financial crisis and European Union pressures for fiscal and social reform – and the success or failure of any attempt to make related changes in the education system hinges on those changes fitting with stakeholders' values.

Second, knowledge about the current values of Greek educators would be valuable in efforts to strengthen leadership in Greek schools, for research has shown that leaders are more effective when they take others' values into account.

However, another reason for conducting this investigation is that there is some ambiguity about the effects that can be expected when school principals attempt participative approaches with their teaching staff. For example, Hulpia and Devos (2010) found that when teachers' morale was low, they were not committed to the school and did not respond to distributed leadership. Moreover, even though the school leaders recognized this problem, they felt unable to conquer the negativism, which demotivated school members who were initially committed to the school. And an additional caution about distributed leadership is that motivation for distribution arises partly from the growing recognition that principals and other senior leaders are overloaded, particularly in education systems with high levels of decentralization to the school level (Bush, 2013) and is a way of encouraging teachers to do more work, a form of disguised managerialism (Fitzgerald & Gunter, 2006; Liljenberg, 2015) that could have negative consequences.

In the wider perspective, the inquiry I report here was designed to contribute eventually to understandings of the conditions that must be present if school leaders' modes of leading are to be successful. In line with this larger objective I espoused three assumptions. First, I accepted that there are various fairly distinct styles of leading – more specifically, that there are five archetypal approaches or styles of leading: heroic, transactional, transformative, distributed, and dispersed. Furthermore, I assumed that the contingency principle applies to each leadership style – that is, the success of a given approach to leading is contingent on certain conditions being present. Third, I assumed that the values of the actors in a leadership situation are important contingent factors.

But before I could pursue my overarching objective, I had to identify a suitable means of surveying Greek educators' values. To this end I reviewed the pertinent literature and conducted a small-scale survey. The remainder of this article is a report of this research.

Conceptualizations and Models of Values

It is useful to distinguish between attitudes, beliefs, and values. In this connection an early statement by Gue still serves well:

> *Attitudes are … a state of readiness to respond, refer exclusively to the individual, not the object, and exclude imputations of the desirable. Beliefs are considered to be those phenomena that are accepted by the individual as real or possible, true or false, correct or incorrect. Beliefs do not necessarily include feelings or commitment to action. Values are distinguished from beliefs and attitudes by the inclusion of the concept of betterness (Gue, 1967, p. 16-17).*

As to definitions of values, the following also has stood the test of time:

> *A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable that influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action (Kluckhöhn, 1951, p. 395).*

There are numerous models of human values. For the purposes of this article I will focus on those of Kluckhöhn and Strodtbeck, Rokeach, Hofstede, and Schwartz. These I will outline briefly and then indicate how their provenances influenced my choice of instrument for this research.

Kluckhöhn and Strodtbeck (1961) developed a model of basic human values that entails three propositions. The first is that all humans face six basic challenges or problems; the second is that there is a limited number of possible solutions to each of the problems; and the third is that humans develop preferences among the possible solutions – the solutions are valued deferentially. The basic problems and their possible solutions are as follows (Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noorderhaven, & Wu, 2002):

1. What is the nature of human beings: Do we prefer to think of them as essentially good, evil, or neutral?
2. What is our relationship to nature: Do we believe that we are subjugated to nature, in harmony with nature, or have mastery over it?
3. What is our relationship to other human beings: Do we prefer our relations with others to be lineal (ordered positions within groups), collateral (primacy given to goals and welfare of groups), or individualistic (primacy given to the individual)?
4. What is our primary mode of activity: Do we prefer being-in-becoming, active, or reflective?
5. How do we view time: Do we focus on the past, the present, or the future?
6. How do we think about space: Do we consider it public, private, or mixed?

Kluckhöhn and Strodtbeck developed this model over 10 years through rigorous content analysis of a generation's worth of anthropological field studies around the world (Maznevski et al, 2002).

Rokeach (1973, 1979) developed a classification of values by amassing several hundred values suggested by 130 individuals and a literature review, then distilled them "intuitively" into two sets – 18 "terminal" values and 18 "instrumental" values. The former represent desirable end-states of existence, the latter represent desirable modes of conduct for attaining those end-states (Tuulik, Õunapuu, Kuimet, & Titov, 2016).

Hofstede's (1980, 2001) theory posits that values cluster on six dimensions:

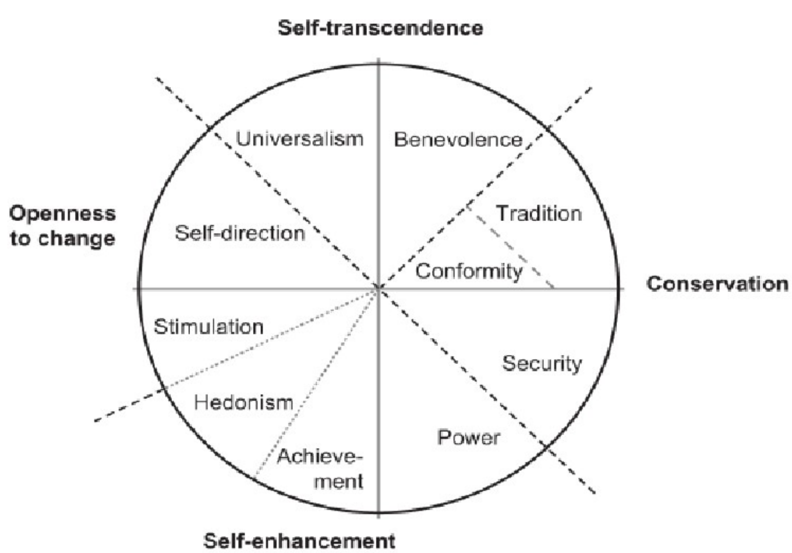
1. Power distance – acceptance versus rejection of power being distributed unequally.
2. Individualism vs. collectivism – preference for being left alone to look after themselves versus remaining in a close-knit network.
3. Masculinity vs. femininity: Masculinity – preference for assertiveness, heroism, achievement, and material reward for attaining success versus a preference for modesty, cooperation, quality of life, and caring for the weak.
4. Uncertainty avoidance – preference for making life as predictable and controllable as possible versus being more relaxed, open, or inclusive.
5. Long-term vs. short-term – preference for honouring and keeping traditions, and valuing steadfastness versus preference for adaptation and pragmatic problem-solving as circumstances dictate.
6. Indulgence vs. restraint – preference for acting on impulses and desires versus preference for exercising restraint. (Adapted from Cleverism. (n.d.).

This model was derived initially from a survey of the values espoused by 117,000 employees in worldwide subsidiaries of the IBM corporation. The survey was motivated by concerns about the effectiveness of cross-national communications. The model has scaffolded countless investigations, particularly in cross-cultural psychology, international management, and cross-cultural communication. It continues to be a major resource in cross-cultural fields.

Schwartz theorized, first of all, that values are beliefs linked to emotions, refer to desirable goals that motivate action, transcend specific actions and situations, and serve as standards for evaluating actions, policies, people, and events. Values relate to three classes of universal human requirements: biologically based needs of the organism, social interactional requirements for interpersonal coordination, and social institutional demands for group welfare and survival (Dali, 2016). Second, Schwartz theorized initially that there are ten basic human values in all major cultures. Subsequently this typology was refined to comprehend 19 basic values (Schwartz, Melech, Lehman, Burgess, Harris, & Owens, 2001). Third, Schwartz theorized that individuals and cultural groups organize these basic values into relatively enduring hierarchies of importance (Schwartz, 2016). Fourth, The relative importance of values guides behaviour. Fifth, Schwartz's theory is rounded out with a "circumflex¨ – for example, Figure 1 depicts relationships in the 10-values model (Schwartz, 2012).

Figure 1.

Relationships among Schwartz's 10 basic human values



The circumflex depicts the proposition that some values are compatible (adjacent in the circle) while others are opposed (diametrically opposite). According to Schwartz (2017), actions that promote each value have consequences that are congruent with some values but conflict with others. For example, pursuing tradition values is congruent with pursuing conformity values. Both motivate actions of submission to external expectations. In contrast, pursuing novelty and change (stimulation values) typically conflicts with preserving time-honoured customs (tradition values).

Values in Education

Values in Teaching

In the field of education, research on the role of values in relation to the work of teachers has gained momentum in recent years. The values associated of people who wish to become teachers have included a commitment to the well-being of children, justice, equality, and intellectual development (Sachs, 2000).

Tirri's (2010) research on the values that inform teachers' professional ethics and relationships surfaced caring and respect, professionalism and commitment, and cooperation. She also notes that caring and respect are the "most evident emotional expressions" associated with meeting the needs of individual students.

Clement (2010) unravels students' perceptions of "caring teachers" and states that they interact democratically and encourage reciprocity in communication, deal with students fairly and respect them as persons, account for individual differences when formulating expectations, offer constructive feedback, give appropriate support and feedback, have high expectations of students, and model commitment.

Two of the more enduring profiles of qualities/values that underpin optimal teacher-student relationships are those of Carl Rogers (1969) and Paulo Freire (1998). Rogers portrayed the ideal teacher and human being as emotionally and psychologically stable, guided by the following values:

Being Real. This involves the teacher "being herself/himself without pretense or assuming different classroom persona" she/he can be enthusiastic, bored, interested, angry, sensitive and sympathetic because she/he accepts these feelings as her/his own, she/he has no need to impose them".

Prizing, Accepting, and Trusting. This involves the teacher attaching importance to acknowledging individual students, and caring for them in such a way that their feelings and opinions are affirmed. It includes accepting the students' "occasional apathy" and "erratic desires" as well as their disciplined efforts.

Being Empathic and Understanding. This involves the teacher valuing and demonstrating a sensitive understanding of how the student thinks and feels about learning. In his endorsement of context as a major requisite for learning, Rogers (1969) adopts the student voice: "At last someone understands how it feels to be me without wanting to analyze me or judge me. Now I can grow and learn."

Being a Fully Functioning Person. This involves teachers in "the process of being and becoming themselves" by being open to their feelings and evidence from all sources, and by discovering that they are "soundly and realistically social". Such teachers are emotionally secure and have no need to be defensive. In similar fashion Freire's (1998) "Indispensable Qualities of Progressive Teachers" also portrayed the essentially human and emotionally responsive teacher as valuing the following:

Humility – attaching importance to knowing one's limitations, and embracing a democratic rather than an authoritarian classroom environment.

Lovingness – loving both students and teaching, and practicing "armed love" (fighting for what is right).

Courageousness – overcoming one's own fears.

Tolerance – respecting difference but not "acquiescing to the intolerable."

Decisiveness – making often-difficult choices for the best, yet being careful not to "nullify oneself in the name of being democratic."

Living the tension between patience and impatience – striving to preserve the tension between the two yet never surrendering to either.

While some of the ideal-teacher values identified by Rogers (1969) and Freire (1998) are perennial – i.e., realness, lovingness, humility, the fully functioning person, and the joy of living – others have been replaced as conceptions of teaching and learning changed. Brady (2006) identified three phases in the evolution of broad approaches to learning and teaching, and posits that contemporary learning and teaching is based on the valuing of social constructivism. Similarly Bruner (1996) claimed that learning should be participative (students being engaged in their learning), proactive (students taking initiative for their learning), and collaborative (students working with each other and their teacher to promote their learning). This active view of learners has had the effect of highlighting the need for teacher tolerance and neutrality in values education, and accenting the need for student participation and pro-action.

Begley and Wong (2001) reported obstacles often encountered in the attempts of managers to understand the values of others, and the effect they have on their actions. According to Begley's research the main obstacles are instability of teachers' values, the concept teachers attribute to the values they refer to, age and related factors. An investigation by van Niekerk and Botha (2017) revealed that managers valued an open school climate, and consider it a prerequisite for sharing their personal values with their teachers.

In Karakose's (2007) survey, teachers pointed out that when managers did not exhibit moral behaviour, they were concerned and their effectiveness was reduced. In contrast, when managers engaged in moral behaviour, their efficacy increased and the school experienced greater success. In similar vein, many surveys have indicated that teachers praise morality in managers' behaviour and feel safe with it (e.g., Feng-Feng, 2016; Keskinkilic-Kara & Zafer-Gunes, 2017).

In short, being a good teacher requires more than a solid theoretical training. Teachers should adopt the principles that guarantee good professional practice and appropriate interaction with students and colleagues. It is therefore, important to determine whether universities pay attention to inculcating appropriate professional values and moral principles in future teachers.

As to the values of teachers in Greece, very little is known. Hatzimihail (2008) found that her research participants attached primary importance to freedom, family, justice, selflessness, stability, self-control, responsibility, respect for others, religious faith, patience, creativity, meritocracy, and honesty. The participants also valued ethical and moral principles. More specifically, they valued such behaviours as solving moral dilemmas and making moral decisions, creating an ethical school culture and atmosphere, being socially responsible, and fulfilling responsibilities. With regard to directors (principals) desirable behaviours are those that reflect the values of equality and encouraging teachers, understanding, humility, self-evaluation, sincerity, and protection of individual rights. Finally, Lada (2018) found that teachers valued respect, loyalty, justice, sociability, and trust.

Values and Leadership

The literature about leadership presents many types or styles of leadership, the main ones being heroic (e.g., Burns, 1978; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yukl,1994; Northouse, 2013), transactional and transformational (e.g., Burns, 1978), distributed (e.g., Leithwood, Jantzi, Earl, Watson, Levin, & Fullan, 2004; Sinclair, 2004), and dispersed (Lazaridou & Fris, 2008; MacBeath, 2005). Much of the discourse about these modes of leading concerns how they differ. In this regard the various modes can be viewed, first of all, as varying in how control over an organization's objectives and activities is allocated. Lazaridou and Fris (2008) have argued that under this lens heroic leadership inheres concentration of influence/power/control in one individual (autocracy, from Greek autokratēs: ruling by oneself) while, in contrast, dispersed (not distributed) leadership allows and encourages leadership initiatives by all members of a group or organization (democracy, from Greek dēmokratia: government by common people). The styles with low dispersion of power have fallen into disfavor among some, primarily because many organizations have become too complex to be managed by one person and, it is said, contemporary workers want to be genuinely engaged in deciding what direction to take and how to go there. (Gunter, Hall, & Bragg, 2013). With distributed and/or dispersed leadership the emphasis is upon interdependent interaction and practice rather than individual and independent actions associated with those with formal leadership roles or responsibilities. (Harris, Jones, Adams, Perera, & Sharma, 2014). In contrast, transactional leaders, as well as transformative leaders, use varying amounts of power of position to make decisions unilaterally with little real input from subordinates (Lazaridou & Fris, 2008). Contemporaneously, dispersed leadership has gained considerable favour because:

1. It is a pragmatic way to ease the burden of overworked leaders (Bush, 2013; Hartley, 2010).
2. Research has indicated a positive relationship between distributed leadership, organisational improvement and student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 2009; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008).
3. Mobilising expertise of individuals at all levels in [an organization] facilitates change and increases the capacity for improvement.

Attention has turned to *when* the various modes of leading are best deployed. In this regard the contingency theories of leadership that have developed acknowledge that nominal leaders exercise considerable influence, but also insist that the leaders' influence is mediated by the characteristics of the environments in which they operate (Jackson & Parry, 2011; Houghton & Yoho, 2016). These environmental "contingent" factors include the characteristics of "followers" and their values.

School leaders too need to be informed about the nature of the environments in which they operate – including the value orientations of those they have to lead. Equally important, they need to be informed about the ways value orientations differ from one country (or even region) to another. The "best practices" they hear about may have been developed in different value-ecologies, and research has shown that borrowing of "best practices" can be hazardous (Steiner-Khamsi, 2006).

The values that underlie an individual's leadership style need to be perfectly clear – his actions and his decisions (Shapiro and Gross, 2013). Where the values of a leader are not clearly defined or easily perceived the colleagues, his personal development and prosperity – as well as his colleagues and the whole school – will be impaired, because values are the ideal basis for decision-making (Eikenberry, 2010). In similar fashion, Johnson (2010) also emphasizes that it is impossible to be a leader without clarity of values. Values affect people's attitudes in life and way they act and behave (Baloglu, 2012). Eikenberry (2010) also emphasises the importance of values for leaders, noting that they strengthen the ability to influence, to act clearly, to reduce tension, and to guide decision making.

A survey of South African school directors (principals) by Van Niekerk and Botha (2017) revealed an awareness that their personal values were an important consideration. These directors recognised that each school has different needs and values and they agreed with Begley's contention that directors need to adopt values that fit particular contexts – including the values inherent in the legislation and regulations of their state. The values they considered fundamental to fulfilling their duties successfully were honesty, respect, integrity, equality, loyalty, coherence in their work, professionalism, accountability, and democracy. They believed that sharing these core values with their colleagues could be achieved best in an open school climate, in a variety of ways, including frequent dialogue with everyone in order to continually reinforce the basic values.

The findings of Van Niekerk and Botha are echoed in research by Keskinkilic-Kara and Zafer-Gunes (2017). They found that successful directors espouse high moral values, are capable and sensitive, and are able to influence their colleagues. The respondents accorded the most value to being reliable and engaging in proactive avoidance of difficult situations.

Research by Cherkowski, Walker, and Kutsyuruba (2015) in Canada indicated that managers consider it important to foster moral values like trust in their schools, and believed that such values would provide guidance when making unpleasant decisions. However, they also reported a reluctance on the part of teachers to connect with their moral values and become informal leaders in their schools.

The Greek Education System

Education in Greece is highly centralized and bureaucratic. It is regulated with a complex of numerous laws and decrees, all of which are overseen by the Ministry of Education, Research, and Religious Affairs. The Ministry exercises centralized control over state schools by prescribing the curriculum, appointing staff, and controlling funding. Private schools also fall under the mandate of the Ministry, which exercises supervisory control over them. At a regional level, the supervisory role of the Ministry is exercised through Regional Directorates of Primary and Secondary Education, and those Directorates operate in every Prefecture.

Over the years, the Ministry made significant changes to the education system, most driven by the wish of each successive government to adopt recent research findings and acclaimed education models of other countries. Adapting state-of-the-art research in the field of education, as well as foreign education practices to meet the needs of Greek society and labour markets has resulted in a multi-layered education system that caters to all students in the country. Most students in Greece attend public schools at all levels from pre-school to tertiary – none of which levy tuition fees. Less than 10% of the student population enrols in private schools.

Research Method

Method

This research was guided by two questions:

1. What are the contemporary values of educators in Greece?
2. Do Greek educators' values vary according to such demographic characteristics as gender and age?

I gathered data with the Greek language versions (one for men, one for women) of Schwartz's Revised Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ-RR) and two questions about participants' genders and ages. The questionnaire was designed to surface the 19 values in Schwartz's refined model of values or the earlier 10 values, and the four higher order value types (Schwartz, 2016). At the discussion, the suitability of the Revised Portrait Values Questionnaire (SPVQ-RR) for investigating educators' values in Greece is also addressed.

The questionnaire was completed by a small convenience sample of 111 educators from various sectors in various locations in Greece. The responses were coded according to Schwartz's scoring and analysis instructions (Schwartz, 2016) for computing value-factor scores. The data were analyzed with IBM-SPSS 20. Given that the sample was small and select (see below), the response scores were analyzed in terms of Schwartz's 10-values model only. Below, there is a description of the instrument used in the study.

Instrument

Perhaps the best-known surveys of values are the long-term European Values Study (EVS) and the World Values Survey (WVS), but their interviews/questionnaires are lengthy and administered face-to-face by trained interviewers (European Values Study, 2015; World Values Survey, n.d.). For example, the questionnaires used in Wave 7 (2017-18) of the WVS consists of 290 items relating to 15 issues (World Values Survey - a (n.d.)). For the project I report here, the WVS and EVS instruments were clearly impractical. Instruments based on Rokeach's model have been criticized for lacking content validity, uncertainty about measuring what is preferred as opposed to what ought to be preferred, confounding of interests and values, and including only Western middle-class values (Domino & Domino, 2006). For these reasons the Rokeach model did not suit my investigation.

Although Hofstede's model has been used in many studies, some concerns have been expressed (e.g., McSweeney, 2002; Moulettes, 2007) Two particular critiques are that (1) the dimensions were extracted from a very large data set, but those data came from sales and engineering personnel in subsidiaries of only one multi-national cooperation, IBM; and (2) the questions asked were insufficiently wide-ranging and deep – they related only to organizational communications. These critiques rendered Hofstede's model less than optimal for my study.

The Kluckhöhn and Strodtbeck model aligned with my goal of surveying universal value orientations at the individual level – that is to say, to focus on values espoused personally rather than perceptions of a cultural group’s values. One survey instrument based on this model -- the Cultural Perspectives Questionnaire (CPQ) -- seemed eminently suitable. It was developed by Maznevski and DiStefano (1995) and assessed respondents’ preferences for 11 variations of four cultural value orientations: relationships, environment, nature of humans, and activity (Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noorderhaven, & Wu, 2002). Unfortunately, the CPQ project at the International Institute for Management Development (IMD) in Lausanne had been suspended and I was not able, at the time, to gain access to the CPQ.

Schwartz’s theory has been validated in many cross-cultural studies of individual values. For example, one study involved 97 samples, 44 countries, and 25,863 participants (Potts, 2015). An investigations using Schwartz’s refined 19-values model have consistently supported the proposition that an individual’s behaviour is a product of trade-offs between opposing values (Schwartz et al, 2001; Schwartz et al, 2012). Schwartz’s model of universal human values, then, was congruent with my desire to assess values in terms of basic challenges or problems that all humans face, and to survey values at the individual rather than group/cultural level. In addition, research by Pavlopoulos (2014) among adults in Greece, supported

Schwartz’s 10-values model. But it should be noted that Pavlopoulos’ survey did not focus on teachers exclusively.

In light of these considerations, I elected to use Schwartz’s revised Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ-RR), which was already available in Greek.

Findings

Participants

The participants were 88 women and 23 men (79%, 21% respectively). They ranged in age from 22 to 63 years; the average age was 34. The distribution by 10-year age-groups is presented in Table 1. Half of this group was in the 30-49 age bracket.

Table 1.

Age-groups – Descriptive Statistics

Age group	Frequency	Percent
20-29	18	16
30-39	27	24
40-49	30	27
50-59	19	17
60-69	2	2
Missing	15	14
Total	111	100

Questionnaire

A few participants commented on the questionnaire's length – but seemed to be not much concerned. Nevertheless, this suggests that data from future surveys should be tested for random responding and other rating nuisances (Gosling, Schwartz, & Koelkebeck, 2016). In addition, some participants indicated that the labels attached to the six points on the response scale were confusing. This suggests that the labels may need to be adjusted. But changes would have to be thought out and tested carefully to ensure clarity in the minds of respondents (Gosling, Schwartz, & Koelkebeck, 2016).

Values

In terms of the first question about the contemporary values of educators in Greece, table 2 presents the participants' mean scores on the ten basic human values in descending order of magnitude.

Table 2.

Rank Ordered Mean Scores on 10 Value Dimensions of the PVQ-RR

Rank	Value	Mean
1	Benevolence	5.2
2	Security	5.1
3	Self-direction	5.0
4	Universalism	5.0
5	Hedonism	4.8
6	Conformity	4.7
7	Achievement	4.6
8	Stimulation	4.3
9	Tradition	4.2
10	Power	3.1

The first thing to note is that, with one exception, the means lie beyond the mid-point (3.5) of the response scale. Second, the participants portrayed themselves as valuing power much less than all the other values – distant one interval on the six-point scale. And third, there are four clusters of means along the response continuum as presented in table 3 below.

Table 3.

Clustering of Values Along the 6-point Response Scale of the PVQ-RR

Benevolence	Protecting and promoting the welfare of others.	First tier (5.0-5.2)
Security	Safety of society, relationships, and self	
Self-direction	Independence in choosing, creation, and exploring.	
Universalism	Protecting the welfare of all people and nature.	
Hedonism	Gratification of personable wants and needs.	Second tier (4.6-4.8)
Conformity	Respecting and adhering to social expectations and norms.	
Achievement	Personal success according to socially defined standards.	
Stimulation	Seeking excitement, novelty, and challenge.	Third tier (4.2-4.3)
Tradition	Respecting long-established cultural customs and ideas	
Power	Social status, control over people and resources.	Fourth tier (3.1)

A possible explanation for the clusters is that they ghost the circumflex aspect of Schwartz's theory (Figure 1 above). First, in the cluster of values with the highest means, three are adjacent in the circumflex (Benevolence, Universalism, and Self-direction); while Security, as the circumflex shows, is their motivational opposite. Second, in cluster two, Hedonism and Achievement are adjacent in the circumflex and Conformity is opposite. Third, cluster three consists of the two opposites Stimulation and Tradition. The remaining value, Power, is opposite Universalism in the circumflex – which is consistent with these two values having distant means (3.1 vs. 5.0).

Differences Related to Gender and Age

As to the second research question regarding the variations of the values of Greek educators according to the demographics, first, multivariate analysis of variance was performed to test for effects of gender on value scores. The results indicated that there were no significant effects of gender on all the dependent variables (the ten values) considered as a group ($p < .05$). Then, univariate tests for the effect of gender on each of the value-dimensions uncovered significant effects on only Benevolence scores, which were significantly higher for women than men (mean of 5.3 and 4.7 respectively, $p < .05$).

Second, analysis of variance for effects of age on the ten values uncovered significant effects on only Hedonism ($p < .001$). The Pearson correlation coefficient was -0.3, indicating that the value attached to Hedonism went down as age increased.

Discussion

One of the objectives for this research was to verify that Schwartz's Revised Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ-RR) is suitable for assessing educators' values in Greece. As in Pavlopoulos' research (2014), participants in this investigation indicated that this was the case, except for a few comments by my respondents that the response scale was somewhat confusing. With this qualification noted, I concluded that the PVQ-RR in its Greek versions is suitable for working towards my overarching objective of investigating the values of Greek educators in a larger scale.

Greek Educators' Values

Another objective for this project was to gain a tentative reading on Greek educators' current values. To this end I examined the data through the lens of Schwartz's 10-values model rather than his refined 19-values model – the small sample militated against useful fine-grained analyses. My findings regarding the rank-order that my sample of educators assigned to the 10 values are comparable to Pavlopoulos' (2014) findings for his sample of adult Greeks in general, not teachers specifically. Table 4 compares the two samples' rank ordering of values and the underlying means.

Table 4.

Rank-order of Values: Author vs. Pavlopoulos

Author sample	Means	Means	Pavlopoulos sample
Benevolence	5.2	5.0	Benevolence
Security	5.1	4.9	Universalism
Self-direction	5.0	4.8	Self-direction
Universalism	5.0	4.3	Security
Hedonism	4.8	4.3	Hedonism
Conformity	4.7	4.1	Conformity
Achievement	4.6	3.9	Stimulation
Stimulation	4.3	3.7	Achievement
Tradition	4.2	3.6	Tradition
Power	3.1	3.2	Power

The table shows, first of all, that the cascades of means are not identical but very similar. Second, it shows that the means for Pavlopoulos' sample of adult Greeks are quite systematically a shade lower than the value-means for my sample of Greek educators. What this might signify is moot – and may, of course, be due to chance. Third, the clustering of means for the 10 values that is evident in my data (Table 2) is not present in Pavlopoulos' findings. Without more robust data, one can only speculate about the reasons.

Demographics – Gender, Age

The last objective of this research was to explore whether respondents' value orientations varied with gender and age. With two exceptions this was not the case: only Hedonism was valued less as age increased, and women valued Benevolence more than men. Other researchers have also found the Hedonism-Age relationship. For example, data from the 2002-2003 European Social Survey (20 countries and 36,527 participants) showed that in all countries the young tended to be the most hedonistic (Stoop, Billie, Koch, & Fitzgerald, 2010). In addition, the ESV data also revealed significant differences among countries. This indicates that accurate understandings of Greek educators' contemporary value orientations may facilitate effective leadership in Greek schools.

Widening the Focus

To conclude I will comment on what my findings say about how the literature illuminates the nature of values, keeping in mind that my findings are very tentative given that this was an exploratory investigation.

To a large extent the narrative about leadership tends to put a narrow spotlight on idealistic end-states of existence and modes of conduct (à la Rokeach, 1979). I believe that too often the study of values glosses over an important aspect of values, namely affect. Schwartz (2012) has argued that values are beliefs linked to emotions, refer to desirable goals that motivate action, transcend specific actions and situations, and serve as standards for evaluating actions, policies, people, and events. Schwartz's conceptions have widened the spotlight of inquiry, such that recent theoretical and research narratives reflect efforts to expand understandings of not only terminal and instrumental values but also relationships among values and how they condition people's behaviours.

As a parenthetical note now, based on anecdotal evidence acquired while working with teachers in Greek schools, I wonder whether the values espoused most by the individuals who participated in this study (Benevolence, Security, Universalism, and Self-direction) might be correlates of feelings of being under attack, and a defensive rather than self-enhancing disposition. Specifically, quite frequently I have heard comments that suggest educators in Greece might not want Power in the sense of having control over people and resources. Instead, it seemed to me, they were expressing a disposition to protect themselves against further damage from Greece's prolonged and continuing political and economic crisis.

In other words, a need to ensure personal and group welfare and survival might be linked to high scores on Security (safety of self), Benevolence and Universalism (protecting and promoting the welfare of self and colleagues by banding together), and Self-direction (independently finding solutions). Indeed, this would be consistent with a finding of the Atlas of European Values Project: Greeks' confidence in their government and parliament (20% and 30% respectively) was far lower than the equivalent figures for Europe – 38% for both.

Furthermore, Krause (2012) has warned that in times of severe financial crises these figures have an extra impact because the government and parliament are the institutions that have to solve the problems, but their people have no trust in them. This situation in Greece militates against the use of dispersed leadership, for research has indicated that schools with high levels of trust in their administrators more effectively distributed leadership than schools with low levels of trust. (Smylie, Mayrowetz, Murphy, & Louis, 2007; Liljenberg, 2015).

My findings also mesh with those of Caprara et al. (2017), who investigated the relationships between personal values (assessed with the PVQ), political orientations, and voting behavior. Their respondents included 374 Greek adults. They found that the respondents' values featured tensions or trade-offs between, on the one hand values associated with concern for those most like to have been weakened by market-driven policies and, on the other hand, values concerned with preserving the social order and status quo (security).

Whether my speculations are defensible or not, they raise the question "Are our conceptions of value orientations perhaps overly positive?" The PVQ cannot address this kind of hypothesis, so one implication of my investigation is that future research on educators' values could be enriched with follow-up interviews and focus groups to probe for feelings that are linked to values as well as linkages among espoused values.

If further investigation of Greek educators' values lends support to the findings reported above, there are clear implications for school leaders. As noted at the beginning of this article, a successful leader is one who tailors her/his leadership style to fit the characteristics of the environment – including such contingent factors as followers' values. My findings suggest that, in general, and given the centralized and highly bureaucratic nature of the Greek educational system, Greek educators might be more comfortable with directive rather than participative leadership styles – in other words, school principals might be more effective if they provide heroic, transactional, and transformative leadership (as circumstances dictate), rather than distributed or dispersed leadership. In the former three, ultimate control is concentrated, vested in one person or office; in the latter control is shared among members of a group and direction is the product of "nudges" provided by multiple "followers" (Lazaridou & Fris, 2008).

This conclusion is supported by the seminal work of Hersey & Blanchard (1982) on situational leadership. They used the term "psychological maturity" in referring to the continuum of follower development, requiring and enabling a leader to change leadership style according to the maturity of the followers. In this context, "maturity" entails experience, skills, confidence, commitment, etc. to self-manage or self-lead. It seems that Greek educators are not well prepared to be involved in more dispersed forms of leadership for the time being.

Thus, principal preparation programs may have to develop understandings of the full repertoire of potential leadership styles but emphasize the acquisition of skill in providing a range of more directive approaches to leading – specifically, the heroic and transactional rather than the distributed and dispersed styles (Lazaridou & Fris, 2008). As well, initiatives by the Greek government to devolve decision making to school personnel should proceed with caution. Change in complex organizations is a fluid process of diffusion rather than a linear progression of stages, and leadership that must flow from multiple centres of influence (Adams & Jean-Marie, 2011; Carlson, 2012; Eacott, 2013; Hesbol, 2012).

Indeed, contemporary change theory recognizes that leadership is not just the domain of designated officials but often involves interactions of many types among multiple stakeholders (Bhindi, Riley, Smith, & Hansen, 2008; Plsek & Wilson, 2001). Moreover, devolving decision making to schools is both a technical change – one that can be solved by the knowledge of experts, and an adaptive change – one that challenges people's values, beliefs, and philosophical systems (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002).

Epilogue

Greek society has been experiencing a deep crisis that is altering people's ways of thinking and operating. In essence, people's values and beliefs are being affected deeply as new forms and structures are being enforced in the economic and civic sector. Greek educators are among those groups who have been affected severely during the crisis. Because of their roles as agents of socialization for their students, their values drive their goals and desirable behaviours. Teachers' goals and behaviours are also primary influences on students' achievement, motivation, and learning. Therefore, investigating the values that drive their behaviours is of importance for the benefit of the students and society at large. This study is a part of a developing exploration of Greek educators 'values. Although the sample for this study does not allow generalized conclusions, it permits the conclusion that further investigation of the values of Greek educators is warranted given the lack of similar research in the Greek context and the significant ramifications for teacher and principal preparation.

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Socialization at the University: A Qualitative Investigation on the Role of Contextual Dynamics in the Socialization of Academics

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Abstract

This study investigates the role of content, context and process variables in the socialization of new faculty members. The study was designed as a phenomenological study and utilized interview as the data collection technique. A total number of 40 new faculty members working in 12 different public universities in Turkey participated in the study. The results of the study suggest that culture, power dynamics, reward and remuneration systems, social interaction, role models, organizational trust and trust in top management as contextual factors; knowledge sharing, networking and participation as process factors playing role in the socialization of the new faculty members. When the institutions provide the conditions for context and process factors, the new faculty members express positive statements about their adaptation to the new work setting while negative statements are evident in the opposite case. It is argued that the context and process dynamics are critical in reaching affective outcomes, which are basic to ensure productive behaviors (e.g., positive attitudes toward work, high level of motivation, and job involvement) and eliminating unproductive behaviors(e.g., turnover intentions).

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Introduction

How to develop and retain qualified faculty members has been one of the basic concerns for higher education organizations. Different developments such as the elevating demand for higher education, increasing societal expectations, diversifying student profile, the need to incorporate new technologies into teaching and research, widening the range of programs or offerings, a shift in emphasis toward the learner, and changing approaches to teaching and learning make developing and retaining qualified faculty members an important issue (Austin 2002; Brooks 2010). It can be argued that responding to these developments effectively largely depends on the quality of faculty members. Clark (2000,19) argued "there cannot be enterprise in the university, then, without its faculty..." Hence, socialization, a key mechanism in developing and retaining faculty members, has always been a focus of scholarly interest (e.g., Austin 2002; Boice 1992; Murray 2008; Padilla 2008). However, universities lack formal and systematic socialization programs. Besides, there are lack of accounts on the role of informal side of the organization in the socialization process of the academics. This study aims at revealing the key content, context, process and outcome factors playing role in the socialization of the academics.

Theoretical Framework

In early works on socialization process the concept was defined as a process of acquiring the necessary social knowledge and technical skills, which facilitates the productive stay of the new comers in the organization (Van Maanen and Schein 1979). Van Maanen (1978, 19) described this process as "people processing" and warned that socialization process is unique "not only because people are different, but also, more critically, because the techniques or strategies of people processing differ." Several higher education scholars basically followed similar approach in their definitions of socialization. Trowler and Knight (2000, 28) defined socialization as a process of "acquisition, enactment and creation of culture and knowledgeability, and to reflect upon the processes involved in identity-construction." As a result of internalizing the dominant values, norms, and conducts the new comers become integrated members of the organization (Bogler and Kremer-Hayon 1999). Austin's (2002, 104) definition focused particularly on academic work, stating "faculty socialization as an ongoing process of making sense of academic work and faculty careers, how their interests and values fit with those they saw honored within the academy, and the kind of future they envisioned, which begins with the entrance to the academy." These definitions suggest that socialization is a multiple, dynamic and provisional rather than a fixed and pre-determined process (Trowler and Knight 2000).

Process phenomena in the organization has several different dimensions. One of the broadest frameworks developed to understand process phenomena in the organizations was advanced by Armenakis and Bedian (1999). The authors classify the factors related to process phenomena under content, context, process and outcome dimensions. In this study, the framework of Armenakis and Bedian (1999) was used to analyze another process phenomenon, that is the socialization process of the academics. In the following sections, relevant literature was presented and made relevant the content, context, process and outcome framework.

There is a consensus in the literature in that the new faculty members commonly experience avoidance, distress, and unproductive feelings in their new work settings which in some cases endanger their socialization, and ultimately their survival of the job (Austin, 2002; Murray, 2008). However, there is less agreement on the method of how to support the new faculty members in coping with these negative feelings and experiences. Scholarly literature and organizational practices seem to prioritize delivery of pre-conceived socialization programs (Bogler and Kremer-Hayon 1999; Murray 2008). Nevertheless, several scholars have raised their skepticism about the effectiveness of such programs because they commonly fail to reflect the informal, non-sequential, and individual character of socialization process (Newland et al. 2003; Padilla 2008; Tierney and Rhoads 1994).

Socialization programs for faculty members tend to divorce contextual dynamics from the socialization process. In other words, contextual dynamics which are likely to facilitate or hinder the socialization of the new faculty members are not considered the pre-developed plans. The question why certain organizations are successful in socializing the newcomers while the others fail is partly related to contextual dynamics surrounding the new comers. Trowler and Knight (2000, 28) suggested that in addition to the constructed mechanism of socialization, the cultures created in the "localized activity systems" or "community of practice" have a determining value in socialization process of the new faculty members. In addition, it is essential to note that the constructed social systems into which the new faculty members enter are not static. There is a mutual interaction between the existing social structures and the new comer in that, both parties construct and re-construct each other (Austin 2002; Newland et al. 2003). Trowler and Knight (2000) argued that the culture in which the new comers are socialized is a not a static one; rather, it is dynamic, unbounded, and diversified social context. The dynamic understanding of socialization process supports the negotiated nature of socialization between the new comer and the work setting in general, rather than conceptualizing it as a unilateral process of imposing values, norms, roles, and rules to conform to (Ibarra 1999; Schein 1978). Newland and colleagues (2003) pointed out that new faculty members need opportunities to develop networks of colleagues, find appropriate mentors, and understand the fundamentals of faculty life in order to progress up the academic ladder. In many cases, it is not the program itself, but the by-products of the programs (e.g., developing networks, opportunities for social interaction, knowledge sharing in informal setting) contributes to the socialization of the new faculty members.

Social interaction, networking, open and wide communication, and opportunities for peer and managerial support in different activity systems (e.g., departments, research groups, and teams) can be considered as critical engagement of the new academics with the cultural context. As a result, new faculty members may get the chances of incorporating shared values, achieve goals, influence others, establish relationships, give messages about self, and get approval from others. Trowler and Knight (2000) indicated that this is basic to accomplish what they labeled as "intersubjectivity", which they defined as the engagement of the new comer with the common set of understandings and assumptions held collectively in the community of practice.

Focusing on uniqueness of academic fields Austin (2002) highlighted the importance of contextual dynamics. She argued that each discipline possesses unique academic practices including teaching and research as well as unique work relationships between scholars. Gaff (2002) advanced parallel arguments indicating that knowing a specialization and how to conduct research may not be sufficient to perform academic job effectively. Faculty members are typically expected to develop courses, handle diversity of students, contribute to institutional development (e.g., curriculum development, curriculum internationalization, material development), incorporate new technologies into teaching, research and other daily practices, and serve committees (Murray 2008). Formative socialization of faculty members does not cover training on such tasks; rather, these tasks are largely learned in the work context. The incongruence between the content of formative socialization, including training programs and the demands of the work setting has been indicated as one of the obstacles in the socialization of the newcomers. Murray (2008, 125) stated that "the doctorates are prepared in a limited number of research universities of which missions, values, cultures, and conceptions of faculty roles and responsibilities are far different from employing institutions.” This incongruence gives way to the development of unrealistic expectations from both the academic job and work setting, which impact job satisfaction of the new faculty member. Different contextual dynamics such as knowledge sharing, social interaction, and peer and managerial support function a mechanism to replace such expectations with realistic ones.

The collective side of the academic profession emerged as another reason for focusing on the contextual dynamics in explaining socialization of the new faculty members. Although the academic profession has traditionally been conceptualized as an individualized enterprise, several scholars highlighted the collective side of the profession. Boice (1992) stated that although academic autonomy is at the core of academic profession, new faculty members rely extensively on peer and senior support in excelling their teaching and research. Likewise Murray (2008) addressed that new faculty members demand social interaction with peers and support from senior faculty. Such interaction seems to be vital in the socialization process because of what they get from their social interaction can be a useful input for constructing aspect of their academic job. Social interaction functions as a source of support, mechanism of material share, context of discussing approaches, a basis for advices to deal with administration, and even as a basis of knowledge for different research funds. Austin (2002) identified social interaction as a source of learning for the new comers. Through social interaction the new comers identify role models, benefit from informal mentoring, develop time management skills, share research interests, spot strategies of dealing issues in relation to students, and decide to take on various tasks. Social interaction can be perceived as a source of support, cooperation, coordination, and guidance which are considered as major principles in socialization of the new faculty members (Hessler 2006; Tang and Chamberlain 2003). Social interaction may function as a factor dealing with negative experiences and feelings (e.g., feelings of isolation and loneliness, lack of solidarity feeling and support of the academic community) which characterize early stages of academic employment (Bogler and Kremer-Hayon 1999). Using Vygotsky's social learning theory, Brooks (2010) advanced similar statements about the importance of social interaction in the socializations of the new comers. Social interaction is considered as a way of sharing knowledge and expertise. This reflects the community of practice understanding of

Lave and Wenger (1991) or “localized activity systems” of Trowler and Knight (2000, 28).

This study aims to reveal the role of contextual dynamics in the socialization of the new faculty members. As indicated above, several scholars have discussed the role of contextual dynamics anecdotally. Hence, there is a need for a more comprehensive studies aiming to reveal the role of contextual dynamics in the socialization process of the new faculty members. One may argue that contextual dynamics are broad and may cover several factors impacting the socialization process. This argument is largely valid and hence, it justifies the need for a comprehensive framework in studying socialization of new faculty members. This study implements the process, context, content framework of Armenakis and Bedian (1999), which was originally developed for the analysis of organizational change process. Conceptualizing change as a process, Armenakis and Bedian (1999) suggest that the factors impacting the change phenomenon can be analyzed under process, context, and content categories. In this study, a similar framework is proposed in analyzing another process phenomenon, the socialization process. For this study, content factors refer to the socialization process itself. Since the aim of the study is reporting the factors surrounding the socialization process, the findings will not cover the content dynamics. Second, Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) conceptualized contextual factors as the forces existing in an organization’s environment. The degree of specialization or work specificity required by existing technology, level of organizational slack, and experiences with previous changes, workload, top management attitudes, communication, organizational trust, and power dynamics are some instances of internal contextual factors of change. Finally, Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) conceptualized process factors as the actions undertaken during enactment of a process phenomenon (in the case of this study, socialization process) and employee responses to these actions.

Considering this discussion, the purpose of this study is to answer the following research questions: What are the content, context and process factors impacting socialization process? How do these factors contribute to socialization process of the new faculty members?

Method

This study is a part of a larger research project which investigated socialization and professional identity development processes of faculty members holding tenure track positions in 13 universities located in different parts of Turkey. The first part of the study, which is presented in this paper, was designed as a phenomenological study and implemented interview technique in order to collect data. A common belief in phenomenological studies is that different people in different settings who are possessing similar characteristics and/or experiences in relation to a phenomenon will reveal similar patterns to a phenomenon. Phenomenogical design is suggested as a potent design choice to reveal the commonalities or patterns among different individuals sharing the same qualities in relation to phenomenon (Creswell 2007; Patton 2002).

Forty faculty members were interviewed in this study. The participating faculty members share three basic characteristics. First, all of them gathered their PhD degrees at a university different from their current university. In other words, they experienced a different academic culture during their PhD studies and after their arrival to the new work environment they have been confronted with the challenge of adapting to the new work environment. Second, all of the faculty members are working at public universities in Turkey. This suggests that they are exposed to similar expectations concerning three basic roles of the university (teaching, research, and community services). Besides, they go through similar recruitment, promotion and remuneration processes. They are expected to develop their own courses and teaching materials on the one hand and contribute to research productivity of their own institutions, on the other. They are demanded to fulfill some basic criteria of both Higher Education Council (HEC), a supreme body regulating higher education in Turkey, and the criteria of their individual employers/universities. The third commonality across the participants is that all of them are in their first five years in their academic career following their PhD degrees. This is particularly important because socialization process is largely associated with the early years of the employees in their new work settings (Boice 1991). As a result of these commonalities, phenomenological design is believed to be a potent design choice serving the purpose of this study.

Semi-structured interview guides were utilized in collecting the data. The interview guide covers questions to reveal their socialization process and the content, context, and process factors relevant to this process. The literature on the socialization process and the content, context, and process framework were reviewed in developing the questions for the interview guide. Typical questions are "Could you describe your role model? What do you think about the level of social interaction in your work setting? What do you think about the level of knowledge sharing in your work setting?" The interviews took about 90 minutes and, except for three of them, they were audio-recorded. The data were collected in 2009 fall semester and 2010 spring semester.

Content analysis was conducted in analyzing the data. Before coding the data, first, the audio-recordings were transcribed verbatim.

Following transcription of the audio-recordings, each text file was sent to the relevant participant for "member check." In this procedure the participants were asked to read their written version of the interview and to indicate whether they still agree with their answers to the questions. After getting the member checks of the participants, the interviews were coded by utilizing a pre-developed initial code list. A new code was generated when the code list fell short to code a part of the text. Subsequently, similar codes were brought together and major themes in socialization process were identified. Finally, the report of findings was written.

Findings

Internal contextual factors in socialization process

Contextual factors refer to different characteristics in the internal and external environment of the organization intervening in the socialization process. Findings suggested that internal context possesses several challenges in the socialization process of faculty members. First, several interviewees indicated that they find the internal context undefined. For these interviewees the written and unwritten rules of settling down in their own organizations are not clear, structured and accessible. In some cases, there may be guidelines defining roles, responsibilities, and expectation from faculty members. However, the organization may fail to make these roles, responsibilities, and expectations public. Hence, implementing different rules or implementing inconsistent rules for different cases emerge as a challenge in their adaptation process. One interviewee stated his/her discontentment with this issue:

I think quite a lot over this issue. I do not think that they specifically target me but there is a total chaos, there is no rule, or it's because they do not like to follow the rules. It is bad to have this vague situation (Engineering)

Some of the interviewees stated that the problems caused by internal environment are partly related to public bureaucracy which forms the underlying structural-functional characteristics of the employing organizations, namely public universities. These universities are bounded with uniform implementations in their financial and administrative practices. For example, in the promotions all public universities have to follow the criteria set by the Higher Education Council (HEC), a supreme body regulating higher education in Turkey. Other interviewees suggest that internal dynamics of each unit (department) within the organization (university) can be another source of challenge. Interpersonal or intergroup conflict can be sources of challenge for the newcomers in their adaptation process because these conflicts lead to strained relationships and weaken social interaction. Interpersonal and/or intergroup conflict is closely related to power dynamics within the organization. Following we report more on different internal contextual variables which intervene with the socialization process of young faculty members.

Power dynamics

The interviewees expressed ambivalent thoughts, experiences, and observations about power dynamics. First, some of the interviewees expressed positive perception about power dynamics in their organizations. In other words, they implied that power-based groups, membership to these groups, possession of authority and exercise of authority in their work setting accelerate their socialization process. These interviewees indicated that power-based groups are a natural consequence of organizational life because these groups facilitate interaction among group members, function as a support mechanism for the newcomers, and serve the unity of the group. Some interviewees suggested that positive or negative perception depends on interaction among group members and communication of the group with other groups. According to these interviewees, when the group interacts with other groups, then power dynamics are likely to produce positive outcomes for themselves, and as a result for the organization. Hence, in their perception, the open nature of the group mediates the negative consequences of group dynamics. The following quotation maintains this understanding of group dynamics.

> *… the level of groupings is important of course. I think as long as we have communication between groups there is no problem. But when the groups are closed or isolated from the rest of the department then we may have a problem. It is quite natural that some people may be close to the others with whom they get along. But there must be a limit for this. I think if you are able to sit down and handle a professional matter with someone with whom you may not want a social contact, then I think you do not have any problem with groupings in the department. (Arts and Sciences).*

Interviewees holding positive perception on power dynamics expressed that they have authority over their basic activities (teaching and research). In other words, they indicated that they possess the authority over their research practices as well as determining the content and method of their teaching. Particularly for teaching practices, they indicated that they feel free to open new courses, decide on the teaching materials and they choose their teaching methods. Nonetheless, other interviewees indicated that their authority over their basic practices is limited by the needs of the department. In many cases they are obliged to teach courses which are not compatible with their expertise or research topics. Interviewees in this group indicated that they understand the need to teach these courses because of the limited number of faculty members and excessive demand for certain courses.

Another finding on positive perception of faculty members toward power-based groups is that faculty members tend to develop a positive perception about power dynamics when they feel/see themselves as a member of a particular group. They suggested that groups are formed around both academic topics and social interests. In other words, the groups are formed by people working on the same topic, in the same field, in the form of peership, or in the form of the extension of social interaction. Hence, these groups have the potential to serve the professional development of the faculty members.

The interviewees advanced statements describing the instrumentality of being a member of power-based groups in their adaptation process to their new work setting. These statements can be considered as another reason behind their positive perception toward power-based groups. They implied that being a member of a group serve their adaptation in the new organization in general. The relationships established in the work setting are carried to social setting and vice versa. Hence, the relationships in each domain reproduce each other. As a result, for several interviewees being a member of a group is inevitable if adaptation is at stake. More importantly, these relationships functions as a tool accelerating the socialization process of organizational members. The following quotation demonstrates this state of power-based groups.

> *To be honest, I've been close to one group and this has had impact on me. I am not regretful about this. There are not two groups in our department. But whenever I experience a negative thing or a problem, friends in the group went to the administration and undertook my advocacy against the administration…*

I mean I do not remember negative experiences. I have had problems because of power groups but I do not remember negative experiences. (Social Sciences).

Despite these positive expressions about power dynamics, the majority of the interviewees expressed negative perception of power-based groups and group membership. They perceive power-based groups as a source of conflict and as a factor limiting productive behaviors (e.g., collaboration or cooperation) in the organization. Besides, they expressed the belief that these groups intervene in their promotions and promotes other negative behaviors (e.g., conflict) in the organization. Hence, the new-comers perceive power-based groups as a source of problem for their adaptation.

The underlying reason behind the negative perception of the interviewees suggest that power-based groups limit their autonomy over their basic practices, particularly in teaching domain. They indicated that teaching functions are compartmentalized and shared by different power groups. They are obliged to offer the courses which they do not reflect their expertise in the field. As a result, the newcomers perceive power-based groups as a factor inhibiting their authority over their practices in their teaching. The following statements illustrate this perception of the interviewees,

…but in teaching I do not have choice at all. Academically everyone has a research focus and delivering courses related to this focus is very easy. This is so because you master every aspect of the topic as a result of extensive reading and research. But I deliver courses which I am not interested in at all because they are considered as related to my field. I want to offer some elective courses but because of my course load I cannot offer them. (Education)

The participants indicated that power-based groups are inevitable and they have potential to serve socialization of the newcomers. However, these expressions of the participants imply that the level of realizing this potential is very limited. The interviewees advanced negative meaning to power-based groups because of their limiting effect on their autonomy in teaching domains.

Role models

The interviewees suggested that the newcomers perceive their senior faculty members, chairpersons, or supervisors as role models. In general, these individuals or role models are described as successful persons in their academic and administrative performance. It is important to note that the role models mentioned by the interviewees are informal ones. In other words, the interviewees did not indicate having been assigned to work under the mentorship of a senior faculty member. Their role model understanding reflect admiration the productivity of significant persons in their work settings rather than having a coach or mentor. The following quotations describes these qualities of the role models,

> *There are people who have done good things in this department. I have been inspired by their studies during my undergraduate study. The paths I draw for my current academic career have mostly been specified as a result of taking these people as models (Arts and Sciences).*

However, technical skills and professional success is not the only defining criteria in identifying a role model. In addition to technical skills, establishing good relationships with people in the work environment, their stance toward academic life, and other social skills are expressed as defining characteristics of the role models. Faculty members who are identified as role models serve as mentors or visionary leaders for the new comers. This indicates the fact that exhibiting social proximity and willingness to support in the adaptation process determines whether certain senior faculty members will be identified as a role models, as indicated in the following quotation.

First of all their academic accomplishments, being someone who value social interaction, being responsive to demand for help on academic and non-academic issues determine my role model choice. I know a professor who possess these qualities. He is working at another university. I think he can be considered as a role model for academic and non-academic matters (Education).

Organizational trust and trust in top management

The interviewees expressed both negative and positive statements about trust in their organizations. Some of the interviewees expressed that they find the internal context of their organizations trustful and fair. However, the expressions of the majority of the interviewees suggest that young faculty members' trust in the organization is problematic. Limited support, lack of knowledge sharing, and limited collaboration are some of the underlying problems causing distrusting environments. Although these problems contribute to the lack of trust within the organizations, unfair conducts form a more prevalent reason causing lack of trust within the organization. Particularly distribution of facilities (e.g., housing facilities) is found as unfair by the participants. The following quotation relates these problems to the dominant culture of the department.

I do not think we will have it (trust) in our department…Considering people, the general philosophy of the department, the sense of share in the department, and the dominant culture in the department, I would say we do not have trust. Indeed, it would be wrong to share every detail about me with others. I personally do not like to share my ideas in details with everyone. For example, I do not share ideas about a developing project (Arts and Sciences).

The most immediate consequence of limited trust within the organization is diminished collaboration and increased individualized work, as indicated in the following quotation.

> *There is no orientation at all for the newcomers. There is no support, there is no sharing. You always share your materials with others but you do not see the same from others. There is not a real collaboration. I always prefer to collaborate with projects, share news about conferences, and do research with my colleagues. (Education).*

These statements indicate the limited state of trust within the departments of the interviewees. In fact, negative state of trust becomes worse when higher levels of organization (e.g., faculty, university) are considered. Young faculty members expressed less trust with higher levels in their organizations. These statements suggest that trust in top management is an issue in the socialization of the newcomers.

The interviewees stated various reasons that inhibit trust in top management. Failing to protect the rights and incentives of the young faculty members (e.g., promotion issues, fair application of rules and procedures, protecting rights at upper levels, and fair distribution of facilities), failing to provide necessary technical and social support, and distant management styles are the most commonly expressed factors diminishing trust of the new faculty in top management. In general, most faculty members find different applications unfair. These applications are related to assessments made in distributing rewards and facilities, as illustrated by the following statement,

> *When I arrived they did not give me a PC, they said "do a project and get a PC for yourself." For almost one year, I brought my own lap top. I was very very angry. You start to work here as a faculty member, but they do not give you a PC. This should not be possible. Interestingly they gave PCs to the ones who joined after me…It does not work for me, and I think I am exception. For some, there is every service for their offices (Engineering)***.**

Particularly promotion is one of the most commonly stated issues giving rise to diminished trust in top management. The interviewees particularly complained about the intentional disregard of the pre-specified promotion criteria and applying arbitrary ones. The following quotations illustrate the complaints of the interviewees about promotion problems,

> *I am suspicious whether they implement the rules, there are rules but they are applied differently to different people. The attitude is "we have rules but shall we apply it, can we postpone it?" There are arbitrary practices especially with regard to applying rules in the promotion of new faculty (Architecture).*

Besides, many of the interviewees expressed distrust in top management because of their distant and closed leadership styles. Although this may contradict the general understanding of academic autonomy, this is understandable since they seek active help in shaping their research and teaching at the beginning of their career, as illustrated below.

Process factors

In this study the interviewees suggested three process factors as key to their adaptation. The findings on social interaction, information seeking and knowledge sharing, and participation are presented in the following sections.

Social interaction

The interviewees expressed both positive and negative statements about social interaction in their organizations. Some of them expressed their contentment with social interaction in their work settings. They stated that there are multiple channels for both formal and informal interaction. The participants suggested that social interaction is a source of information for technical and social knowledge. Hence, social interaction is a factor contributing to the adaptation of the new comers, as suggested in the following quotation.

The following quotations illustrate the positive state of social interaction.

When I think of social interaction, of course social interaction becomes a factor facilitating adaptation to the department. In the end, taking part in [social] activities help to get familiar with the dominant culture. In other words, social activities in the department and in the campus help to get rid of stress, provide a context of social interaction; and as a result bring in positive outcomes for adaptation. I think these activities fasten adaptation (Arts and Sciences).

Despite these positive statements, negative statements about social interaction with the organizations of the interviewees are very frequent. Several interviewees stated limited social interaction as one of the underlying reasons behind lack of participation, boredom, and alienation to their organization, as illustrated in the following quote.

There have been times when people were not instructive. Here people are more closed in terms of what they do in daily life. In the USA especially senior people are more instructive. In [a different university] there is what they call mentoring. Here we do not have such things. Here, senior people are following their own agendas. Indeed, senior people are involved in many other things (Economics and Administrative Sciences).

Different interviewees suggested different underlying reasons for the limited social interaction in their work setting. Some of the interviewees indicated the workload while others indicated the nature of academic profession (including the individualized work) as the basic underlying reasons behind limited social interaction. The following quotations illustrate both the limiting effect of workload and the individualized nature of the academic profession on social interaction, and the consequence of limited social interaction on socialization of the new faculty members.

I think social interaction is negative because there are deadlines constantly. Even in the workplace, there is a very limited time/occasion (i.e., formal meetings) to *interact. There are some administrative tasks. Except for this, social interaction is not evident. I have the same observation for almost everyone in here. Everyone thinks in this way "let's come, do our job, publish our papers and go back"…People here are extremely individualistic. I think limited social interaction has negative impact on adaptation, maybe because of the nature of our department, social interaction is not evident in my department. People do not come together even for conducting academically joint work, let alone individual interaction. We could do academically nurturing studies together but this is not evident for us in the department (Education).*

Information seeking behavior and knowledge sharing

Before stating the findings about knowledge share, the findings on information seeking behavior are presented. Information seeking is a critical indicator of effective socialization process. Together with knowledge sharing, information seeking provides the technical and social knowledge necessary for adaptation to a new environment. The interview findings suggest that young faculty members rely on reaching directly to the source or asking the source directly when they need a particular information. They suggested that they use a variety of media to directly collect the information from various sources. In some other cases the informants stated that they prefer indirect information seeking behavior especially when the social cost associated with information seeking is high. The indirect information seeking behavior is commonly demonstrated by use of social relations or friends to reach the necessary information.

Another important issue in relation to information seeking behavior is related to the frequency of information seeking over time. Most the interviewees stated that the frequency of information seeking behaviors decrease throughout time. This is an important indicator of socialization because throughout time new faculty members may have developed the essential understanding about information sources and the way to seek this information. However, some other interviewees suggest that the frequency of their information seeking behavior has not decreased but the way they seek information has been changed, as illustrated in the following quotation.

> *The first way I follow is asking the more experienced administrative staff, not my friends. I've learned what to ask and where to ask throughout time. Hence, rather than asking my friends I ask these experienced administrative staff or units. Sometimes of course I dial some wrong persons or units but they direct me to the right place. Hence, I prefer to get the information directly from its sources. (Education).*

Interviewees suggest that knowledge sharing is largely accomplished through informal channels. This can be related to the individualized nature of the academic job. However, overreliance on the informal channels for knowledge sharing indicates a problematic state of knowledge sharing in the organizations of the interviewees. Most of the interviewees stated that they do not observe a wide knowledge sharing in their organizations.

Besides, the interviewees expressed that the formal knowledge sharing channels do not function effectively. The expressions of the interviewees suggest that there is a limited awareness about knowledge sharing within the organization. As a result, the organizations give very limited space in their structural-functional choices to accomplish knowledge sharing. For example, none of the organizations possess a distinct unit for accomplishing knowledge sharing. As a result, when asked about knowledge sharing the interviewees complained about the limited awareness about knowledge sharing and the ineffectiveness of the administrative mechanism for accomplishing knowledge sharing. The following statements illustrate this perception of the interviewees about the negative state of knowledge sharing.

> *To be honest, I have some complaints about access to information. Let me give you an example about publication rewards. I filled the form and there were at least six or seven different phone numbers about where to sent the form. Whenever I contact someone in the rector's office he/she forwards me to another persons. After one hour I realized that the process begins in the department (Education).*

The limited knowledge sharing in the organizations has some negative implications on the adaptation of the young faculty members. The following statements illustrate the negative implications of limited knowledge sharing on organizational trust in general and on adaptation of the newcomers in particular.

> *Yes, it is loss of time, my patience is vanishing, I am worried, and I feel my productivity is decreasing. It affects my, what you call my adaptation, as well. As a result, it [limited knowledge sharing] negatively affects my trust toward my institution and desire to stay in the institution (Education).*

Participation

Some of the interviewees suggested that there is a space of participation in academic and administrative issues. Their expressions suggest that they are satisfied with their participation in administrative and academic processes. Incorporating their opinions in critical decisions especially on issues related to their career (e.g., promotion) satisfies their participation expectations. The interviewees described the atmosphere democratic and participative.

Most of the interviewees, however, expressed their dissatisfaction with their participation in administrative and academic processes. They indicated that their participation is not secured in many critical academic and administrative processes. In some cases, their problem is related to failing to develop mechanisms for soliciting the opinions of crowded groups. One interviewee stated that expressing opinions in a group of sixty faculty members is almost practically impossible. Hence, it can be argued that the administrators are uninformed about alternative decision-making approaches for groups with uncommon qualities (e.g., large size, senior-junior imbalance).

Besides, the interviewees implied that there are formal or institutionalized channels of participation. The existence of such channels can be considered as advantageous for the senior members of the organization. However, the existence of these channels is a challenge for the newcomers. They need to learn and adapt to this functioning. Hence, the structured mechanisms are perceived ineffective in soliciting the ideas of the faculty members. In many cases this is challenging for the newcomers, as suggested by the following quotation.

> *…there are cases where we learn the results of decision making process rather than contributing to it. There is no discussion for consulting or soliciting our contribution to the decision. There are certain boards (or decision units) they talk about the issue and make a decision. I would expect information about the decision if not contributing to the decision-making process. Then ask for contribution to the decision. I do not think that informing the department about the decision is critical once they make the decision (Arts and Sciences)*

Discussion and Conclusions

Utilizing Armenakis and Bedian's (1999) framework, this study analyzes the role of context and process factors on the socialization of the new faculty members. The research findings suggest that power dynamics, role models, organizational trust and trust in top management as contextual factors; social interaction, information seeking and knowledge sharing, and participation as process factors play role in the socialization of the new faculty members.

The interviewees stated both positive and negative conclusions about each of the factors. At first glance the dichotomous nature of the findings may sound perplexing. However, a close look at the findings truly show that when the institutions provide these contextual and processual factors, the new faculty members express positive statements about their adaptation to the new work setting. However, when the organizations fail to provide contextual and processual factors, they express negative perceptions about their adaption and socialization.

A related outcome of this conclusion is that healthy socialization of new faculty members call for a slightly different understanding of culture. An important component of this new culture is a revised managerial practice. According in this new understanding of university management, incorporating some practices of business organizations seems inevitable. Higher education organizations have some traditional values. Sticking on these traditional values, management of higher education organizations call for artful incorporation of some general managerial practices related to business organizations, including ensuring management of power dynamics, developing an appropriate reward and remuneration system, facilitating social interaction, developing a system for ensuring senior faculty support for young faculty, taking measures to ensure organizational trust, ensuring extensive knowledge sharing, networking and participation in the organizations. The concept of *collegial entrepreneurialism* suggested by Clark (2000) seems to be instrumental in responding to the need for adapting a new behavior management in universities while preserving core values of higher education organizations. Clark (2000) argued collegial entrepreneurialism serves the interest of different internal and external groups at different levels (e.g., faculty members, administrators), while producing leadership. Hence, this understanding of university management is likely contribute to creating necessary contextual dynamics serving new faculty socialization.

Another conclusion is related to the dual nature of socialization process. Socialization covers the process of developing both technical skills for performing the job in particular work setting as well as adapting to the work setting by providing effective incorporation of the dominant culture of the organization (Jex and Britt 2010). In this study the findings show that new faculty members, at least the ones interviewed in this study, have adequate the technical skills and knowledge to survive in their work setting. However, they seem to be challenged with cultural adaptation in their socialization process. Applying Feldman's (1981) stage model of socialization, it can be argued that the faculty members successfully go through anticipatory socialization, encounter, change and acquisition, and behavioral outcomes. In other words, the faculty members successfully gather information and make some assessments about the organization, get familiar with the task and work setting as they are, develop a clear idea about job performance criteria, and develop a fair understanding of organizational culture. In this study, the findings suggest that the new faculty members demonstrate behavioral outcome of socialization process. However, accomplishing full affective outcomes is limited. Affective outcomes are essential to accomplish productive behaviors (e.g., positive attitudes toward work, high level of motivation, and job involvement) and eliminate unproductive behaviors (e.g., turnover intentions). This can partly be considered as a consequence of failing to provide context and process dynamics. Limited affective socialization suggests that in accommodating role demands and adopting values, norms, and rules of the profession, faculty members do not encounter with problems in relation to the academic profession.

However, problems related to institutions themselves hinder socialization of young faculty members. Therefore, it is appropriate to talk about "socialization to the profession" rather than "socialization to the institution." Hence, national and organizational level policy makers can be suggested to reconsider policies of recruiting faculty members in a way to facilitate a full socialization process including affective socialization.

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A New Way Forward for Social Justice Researchers: Development and Validation of the Social Justice Behavior Scale

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Abstract

Despite social justice leadership receiving an increasing amount of attention by researchers, a methodological imbalance with qualitative inquiries dominating the existing empirical literature base persists. Compounding this issue is the lack of a discipline-specific, quantitative instrument made for the exact purpose of exploring the nature of social justice leadership. This study aimed to answer the calls of a number of scholars (Jean-Marie, Normore, & Brooks, 2009; Nilsson, Marszalek, Linnemeyer, Bahner, & Misialek, 2011; Otunga, 2009) by developing and validating a scale. The Social Justice Behavior Scale (SJBS) was developed through the creation of items based on a literature review, informed directly by a meta-analysis, and refined through the Delphi Technique. Surveys were digitally distributed to principals in the United States. The final dataset consisted of 227 principals from 27 states. Following a principal components analysis with oblimin rotation, the SJBS was found to have three components made up of 23 items that accounted for 62.16% of the total variance. Cronbach's alpha for the entire instrument was .933. The SJBS shows promise as a quantitative research instrument moving forward. Future recommendations include collecting additional data for confirmatory analyses, distributing the instrument in

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additional contexts, and bolstering future investigations into social justice leadership through the use of the SJBS as a research tool.

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Introduction

The focus on social justice as a specific type of leadership has been a relatively recent development (Bogotch, 2000; Bruner, 2008; Cribb & Gewirtz, 2003; Dantley & Tillman, 2006; Theoharis, 2007, 2008, 2010). Studies concerned with and focused on leadership for social justice have explored how educational leaders have addressed issues of marginalization and inequity (Bosu, Dare, Dachi, & Fertig, 2011; DeMatthews & Mawhinney, 2014; Norberg, Arlestig, & Angelle, 2014; Scanlan, 2012; Slater, Potter, Torres, & Briceno, 2014; Theoharis, 2008, 2010). However, in existing examinations, researchers have predominantly utilized qualitative methods to drive their inquiries.

Jean-Marie et al. (2009) observed that the "dearth of quantitative... studies of social justice are disappointing and limit our ability to understand leadership for social justice in its many forms" (p. 16). The scarcity of studies utilizing such instruments has hindered the ability for scholars to fully comprehend leadership for social justice. In fact, this gap in the literature ends up limiting the ability of individuals to understand leadership for social justice in a holistic, robust, and well-rounded way (Jean-Marie et al., 2009; Nilsson et al., 2011; Otunga, 2009).

Due to the dominant qualitative research approach in the literature, few studies have provided accounts of leadership for social justice from a quantitative perspective. Nilsson et al. (2011) noted that "despite the call for greater attention to social justice... little empirical data have been published that can guide such efforts. One reason for this may be the lack of available instruments to measure such investigations" (p. 260). Much of the literature focuses on possible or theorized outcomes from social justice leadership rather than realized effects due to the limited scope of existing research designs.

Traditionally, research on social justice has taken the approach that social justice outcomes are an ends unto themselves. Effective social justice leadership occurs in socially just outcomes, which tend to center around the leader and attach to improved culture, community, equity, dialogic classrooms and not necessarily to traditional educational metrics. Examples of some specific espoused outcomes of social justice leadership include: valuing/acknowledging diversity (DeMatthews, 2014; Shields, 2004; Theoharis, 2007, 2010), creating networks of support (Furman, 2012; Shields, 2004; Theoharis, 2007), facilitating dialogue (Shields, 2004), developing inclusive learning environments (Bosu et al., 2011; DeMatthews, 2014; Furman, 2012; Oplatka & Arar, 2016; Shields, 2004; Theoharis, 2010; Zembylas, 2010), and reflective practice (Furman, 2012; Shields, 2004).

Dantley, Beachum, and McCray (2008) expressed concerns about these espoused outcomes when they commented on the gulf between "rhetoric and reality" in regards to social justice in schools (p. 124). Although they were specifically reflecting on the dangers of social justice becoming calcified in the vernacular of educators rather than animated within their actions, the same mirror should be held to researchers in the realm of social justice leadership. A general acceptance exists that tout social justice leadership to be a *good thing*, but there is little interrogation on if it is an *effective* means to increase, improve, or support a variety of *real* student outcomes. The development and validation of a scale used to measure and link social justice leadership to a myriad of outcomes is necessary. Knowing the specific behaviors and behavioral constructs in which administrators are and are not engaging leads future research to focus on approaches to link those behaviors to outcomes.

Research Questions

In line with the purpose, this quantitative undertaking addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the underlying constructs of social justice behaviors?
2. To what extent is the proposed social justice behavior scale valid?
3. To what extent is the proposed social justice behavior scale reliable?

Theoretical Framework

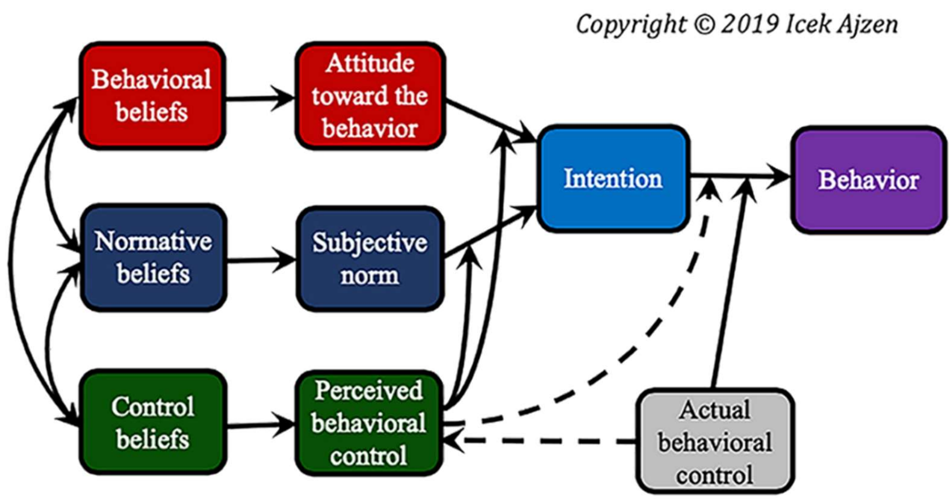
The current study utilized Ajzen's (2012) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) as a conceptual framework. Steinmetz, Knappstein, Ajzen, Schmidt, and Kabst (2016) noted that the "key determinant of behavior in the TPB is the intention to perform the behavior in question" (p. 218). The TPB posited that intentions to engage in particular behaviors could be predicted with accuracy by an individual's attitudes towards the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (See Figure 1). This framework is particularly useful in "accounting for actions in specific contexts"

(Ajzen, 1991, p. 181). Ajzen (1991) noted that the "relative importance of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control in the prediction of intention is expected to vary across behaviors and situations" (p. 188). Therefore, recognizing the individual contribution of each, as well as understanding that the domains work in aggregate to influence and affect behavior is important.

In addition to being a natural fit as a theoretical framework, the current study also identified two opportunities to use the TPB as a theoretical frame, which is widely used in multiple academic disciplines but has not been utilized in educational leadership. There is a significant opportunity to utilize the frame in a way that fits but is novel in application. Moreover, the framework acted as a conceptual umbrella to house both the Social Justice Scale (Torres-Harding et al., 2012) and the SJBS. The SJBS is a valid and reliable measure of attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intentions related to social justice behaviors. The instrument tested in this study, the SJBS, will measure components of social justice behaviors specific to educational leadership. The coupling of the two will provide unique, strategic opportunities to explore social justice leadership, especially because both were based upon the same theoretical underpinnings.

Figure 1.

Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior [Reprinted with Permission]



On Social Justice

A multitude of scholars have described the difficulties of crafting a definition of social justice (Blackmore, 2002; Bogotch, 2002; Bogotch & Shields, 2014; Furman & Gruenewald, 2004; Goldfarb & Grinberg, 2002; Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Marshall, 2004; Marshall & Oliva, 2006; Shields, 2004). Blackmore (2009) commented on the expansive range of terms that fall under the social justice umbrella, including "equity, equality, inequality, equal opportunity, affirmative action, and most recently diversity" (p. 7). Hayek (1976), commenting on the scholarly discourse and lack of a concrete definition, mused that "the people who habitually employ the phrase simply do not know themselves what they mean by it, and just use it as an assertion that a claim is justified without giving a reason for it" (p. xi). Therefore, a thoughtful and robust survey of the term and its vast conceptualizations and definitions across the literature is critical to situate and ground this study.

Despite the difficulty in crafting a definition of social justice, the literature attempted to distill the essence of the term into a written definition. Attempts at a definition generally were dichotomous in nature, assuming either a singular or pluralistic orientation (Bogotch, 2000; DeMatthews, Edwards, & Rincones, 2016; Taysum & Gunter, 2008).

Singular conceptions emphasized the relation of the individual to social justice. Bogotch (2000) summarized singular definitions as ones that privileged individual perception and emphasized the heroic actions and efforts of individuals working towards a particular vision. Bogotch (2000) outlined a singular approach to defining social justice:

> *emerges from the heroic [capital H or small h] efforts of individuals - someone with a vision and a willingness to take risks to see that vision enacted... heroic individuals often have a singlemindedness to pursue their own vision tenaciously and apart from others who may not share their particular vision. Such visions, or notions of social justice, begin and end as a discrete, yet coherent belief system which separates nonbelievers from true believers. (p. 4)*

However, as DeMatthews et al. (2016) noted, "most scholarship acknowledges a plural conception concerning the equitable distribution of goods and resources and full recognition of marginalized communities" (p. 4). Plural conceptions, unlike singular definitions, were intimately aware of and concerned with the idea and presence of others (Cribb & Gewirtz, 2003; Dantley & Tillman, 2010; DeMatthews et al., 2016; Shoho, Merchant, & Lugg, 2005). Shoho et al. (2005) traced the origin of social justice back to its Latin roots, *equitas socius,* and provided a literal definition that translates to "being fair to one's companions" (p. 49). In this conceptualization, Shoho et al. (2005)

highlighted the movement away from the concerns of the individual and towards the collective in regards to social interactions. Dantley and Tillman (2010) noted that "the concept of social justice focuses on... those groups that are most often underserved, underrepresented, and undereducated and that face various forms of oppression in schools" (p. 23).

Cribb and Gewirtz (2003) fleshed out three constructs that undergird social justice: distributive, cultural, and associational justice. The constructs are interrelated and exist in tension with each other. Distributive justice refers to the distribution of economic, cultural, and social resources among groups. Cultural justice is concerned with themes of recognition, nonrecognition, and domination between groups. Associational justice deals with the recognition *and* engagement of marginalized groups in decision-making processes.

Another more radical view is that social justice cannot be defined outside of the context in which it exists, meaning it can only be understood situated within temporal, spatial, and geographical boundaries, not universally. In support of this context-dependent notion of social justice, Bogotch (2002) posited that social justice has "no fixed or predictable meanings" (p. 153).

Social justice has been described, defined, conceptualized, and operationalized in vast and varied ways. The term tended to be used as a path toward equitable ends for marginalized, colonized, ignored, or forgotten groups. The concept of social justice exists as an idealistic notion that needs to be examined at its merger with practice.

Social Justice and Education Leadership

In the last fifteen years, social justice has received an increasing amount of attention in the educational leadership literature. This expanding body of work has influenced leadership preparation, practice, and theory. Educational leadership and social justice were inextricably linked and involved the "studying issues of diversity, literacy, equity, democracy, and specific injustices to actions based on social justice, not as a singular construct but rather as socially constructed ideas designed to fit and address local and national problems in and out of schools and universities" (Bogotch & Shields, 2014, p. 10).

The general consensus in western literature suggests that leadership for social justice involves improving educational outcomes, understanding discrimination, and challenging inequities of marginalized groups (Bogotch, 2002; Brooks, Jean-Marie, Normore, & Hodgins, 2008; Bruner, 2008; Dantley & Tillman, 2006; DeMatthews, Edwards, & Rincones, 2016; DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2016; DeMatthews & Mawhinney, 2014; Furman, 2012; Robinson, 2017; Theoharis, 2007; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Non-western conceptual ponderings have emerged to provide frameworks to understand social justice leadership that are more deeply rooted in the "collective value systems" of traditional societies (Oplatka & Arar, 2016). However, more recent findings in Israel and Turkey have mirrored similar themes to those in Western literature, including the construction of leadership philosophies around the ideas of redistribution, recognition, and representation (Arar, Beycioglu, & Oplatka, 2017).

Theoretical propositions on leadership for social justice have included Berkovich's socio-ecological framework (2014), Theoharis' models of resistance (2007), and Mansfield's striated-smooth construct (2014). Each offers a differing lens from which to understand leadership for social justice as a construct, but they do not bridge the gap between theory and practice. Rather, they provide a researcher-oriented interpretation of the real, tangible, and immediate daily struggles of educational leaders (Bogotch, 2014). The behaviors of these educational leaders are key to understanding and analyzing social justice within schools.

Meta-Analysis

The first phase in the development of the SJBS involved a meta-analysis of the literature to ground and inform the initial work of hypothesizing constructs and creating items. The meta-analysis was comprised of articles that were published from 2007 forward and produced empirical findings on the nature of social justice leadership.

A hybrid in vivo and process coding schema was used to identify the behaviors that principals were actually enacting in support of social justice (Saldaña, 2013). All codes were made to represent action words due to the focus of the study; thus, some of the in vivo codes needed to be slightly amended to maintain a consistent code written as a gerund. In sum, 335 codes were identified that led to 15 categories and comprised three themes: Self-Focused, School Specific, and Community Minded.

The Self-Focused theme was concerned with behaviors that emanated within individuals including predispositions, perspectives, positionalities, systems of support, and attitudes towards social justice leadership that weren't specifically linked to work done within the school or community. The categories that composed this theme were appreciating diversity, affirming cultural differences, reflecting critically, developing networks of support, and acknowledging and exploring power and privilege. Representative codes included "Developing reflective consciousness," "Placing significant value on diversity, deeply learns about and understands that diversity, and extending cultural respect," "Demonstrating moral courage and activism," and "Possessing an asset-based orientation toward differences."

The School Specific theme encompassed behaviors that would occur exclusively within the physical space of the school and aligned with the formal capacities and powers of a school principal. The categories that made up this theme included addressing social justice through school mechanisms, focusing on staff development, sharing leadership, communicating open and honestly, and dismantling barriers. Some of the codes that were included in this theme were: "Providing opportunities for teachers to come together and discuss best practices for addressing the needs of all students," "Restructuring school programs into new designs to support their students' learning and professional communities," "Communicating purposefully and authentically," and "Addressing staff when the vision of equitable schooling was not being achieved."

Community Minded referred to principal behaviors that extended to the families and communities that surrounded the schools. This theme moved beyond self-focused and school specific behaviors to include political action, community outreach, relationship building, and leveraging assets from the community to enrich the experiences of those within their schools. The categories I arrived at were engaging families and community members meaningfully, forging collaborative relationships, advocating beyond the school walls, building relationships, and leveraging community and cultural wealth. Codes that were used to construct those categories and the theme included: "Building family and community trust and rapport," "Inviting the participation of voices that would otherwise be silenced or left behind," "Incorporated community partnerships as a way to enhance the climate of belonging," "Focusing on developing students' talents and gifts to contribute to their community and society," and "Developing their schools to be more community oriented."

Immediately following the meta-analysis, survey items were developed and adapted that would be true to the spirit of each theme. When possible, the description and verbiage found in the literature in the items was paralleled to avoid adding researcher bias and perspective into their wording. In other cases, codes were adapted or combined to approximate the original author's intent as closely as possible. In total, 39 initial items were developed with 10 items for the Self-Focused theme, 18 for the School Specific theme, and 11 for the Community Minded theme. Item response options were based on frequency and ranged from 0 (Never) to 6 (Every time).

Delphi Technique

Following the literature review and creation of the first version of the SJBS, the instrument was distributed in accordance with the Delphi technique (Hsu & Sandford, 2007). The Delphi technique is an iterative process whereby the initial versions of the scale-items undergo multiple rounds of feedback from an expert panel. Potential experts on the panel were identified based upon their expertise in the realm of school leadership and/or social justice. The expert panel was comprised of six expert reviewers (two male and four female) who were educational leaders (four) or educational leadership scholars (two) with an interest in social justice leadership.

Initially, each reviewer received an electronic link to an electronic survey that contained all of the potential items for the instrument. The reviewers were asked to qualitatively comment on each individual item for issues with readability, wording, clarity, content specificity, construct alignment, cultural appropriateness, researcher bias, and any other issue they may notice. The SJBS was revised based upon their initial feedback. Eleven items were altered following the first round of Delphi to improve clarity, better define the scope of the statement, and qualify terms.

Following the first round, the same reviewers were sent a link to the instrument where they rated the revised items on a Likert-type scale in regards to question quality (1 = Poor to 5 = Excellent) *and* commented on items if they had any suggestions or concerns. Items had to meet a mean cut-off score of 3.7 or higher (out of 5) to remain on the SJBS (Franklin & Hart, 2007). Following their quantitative scoring and qualitative feedback, scale items were retained/revised (38) or deleted (1; due to ambiguity). This version of the SJBS was resent to the same expert panel members for a third round, which ended up being the final round, of ranking and commentary. Following this round, no items were revised or deleted based on feedback. These 38 items became the initial items used on the SJBS.

Other Measures

In addition to the SJBS, participants were administered the Social Justice Scale (SJS) and the Global Belief in a Just World Scale (GBJWS) in tandem with the SJBS to provide convergent (SJS) and discriminant (GBJWS) validity. The SJS is a 24-item, four-subscale instrument used to measure an individual's attitudes towards and, subsequent, intentions to enact social justice. The SJS exhibited strong internal consistency of each subscale: attitudes α =.95, subjective norms a=.82, perceived behavioral control α=.84, and intentions, α =.88 (Torres-Harding et al., 2012). Example of items include: "I believe that it is important to make sure that all individuals and groups have a chance to speak and be heard, especially those from traditionally ignored or marginalized groups," "Other people around me feel that it is important to engage in dialogue around social injustices," and "In the future, I intend to work collaboratively with others so that they can define their own problems and build their own capacity to solve problems." All items utilized a 7-point Likert type scale, with 1 = disagree strongly, 4 = neutral, and 7 = strongly agree.

Table 1.

Original and Modified SJS Items

Original SJS Item	**Modified SJS Item**
If I choose to do so, I am capable of influencing others to promote fairness and equality	If I choose to do so, I am capable of influencing others to promote fairness and equity
I feel confident in my ability to talk to others about social injustices and the impact of social conditions on health and well-being	I feel confident in my ability to talk to others about social injustices and the impact of social conditions on educational issues
I am certain that if I try, I can have a positive impact on my community	I am certain that if I try, I can have a positive impact on my school
In the future, I intend to talk with others about social power inequalities, social injustices, and the impact of social forces on health and well-being	In the future, I intend to talk with others about social power inequalities, social injustices, and the impact of social forces on educational outcomes for marginalized groups

This 7-item instrument measures the "belief in a just world... whereby people get what they deserve and deserve what they get" (Lipkus, 1991, p. 1173). Items were measured on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strong disagreement; 6 = strong agreement) indicating their level of agreement with how applicable a statement was to themselves and others. The Alpha coefficients for the scale was α = .827. Examples of some of the items were "I feel that people get what they are entitled to have" and "I basically feel that the world is a fair place."

Table 2.

Function of Each Measure in the Study

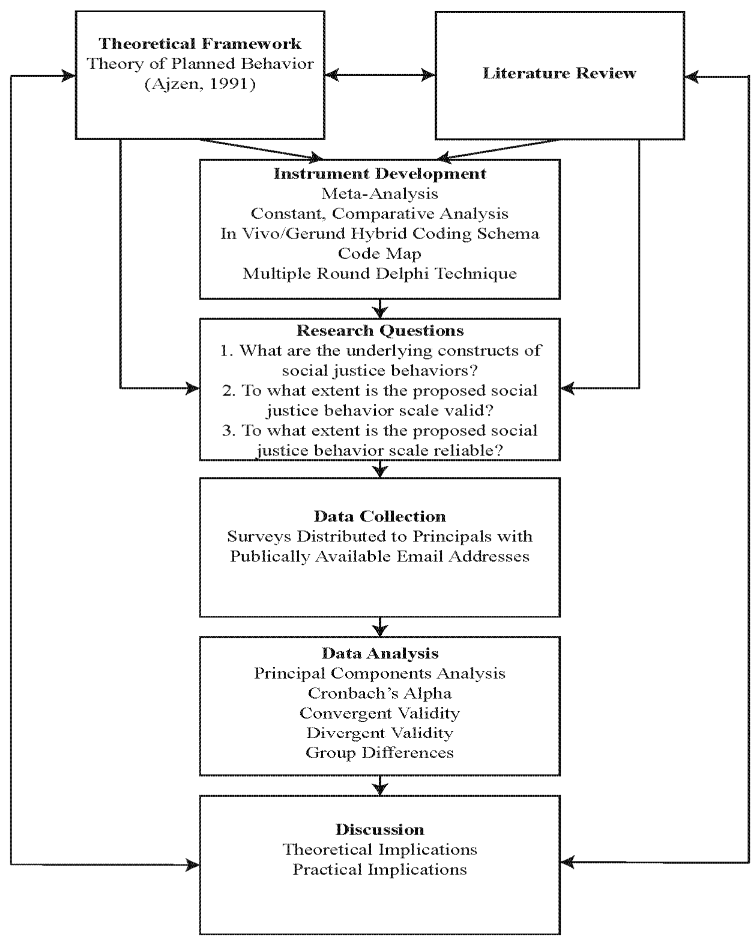
Measure	Acronym	Use in Study	Reference
Social Justice Behavior Scal	SJBS	Primary Instrument	Flood (2019)
Social Justice Scale	SJS	Administered to study participants in tandem with the SJBS to establish convergent validity	Torres-Harding, Siers, and Olson (2012)
Global Belief in a Just World Scale	GBJWS	Administered to study participants in tandem with the SJBS to establish discriminant validity	Lipkus (1991)

Sampling

Publicly available principal email lists were culled to distribute the instrument via email. These email lists contained nearly 60,000 principal emails from 30 states. However, not all of the emails were valid with over 5,000 bouncing back and, presumably, many going unnoticed into SPAM folders or being screened out by email filtering software. Also, approximately 400 principals opted out or requested to be removed. Of all surveys distributed, the instrument was viewed by 2,158 individuals, started by 1,555 respondents, and completed by 230 principals. The completion rate of those who started the survey was 14.79%.

Figure 2.

Visual illustration of research design

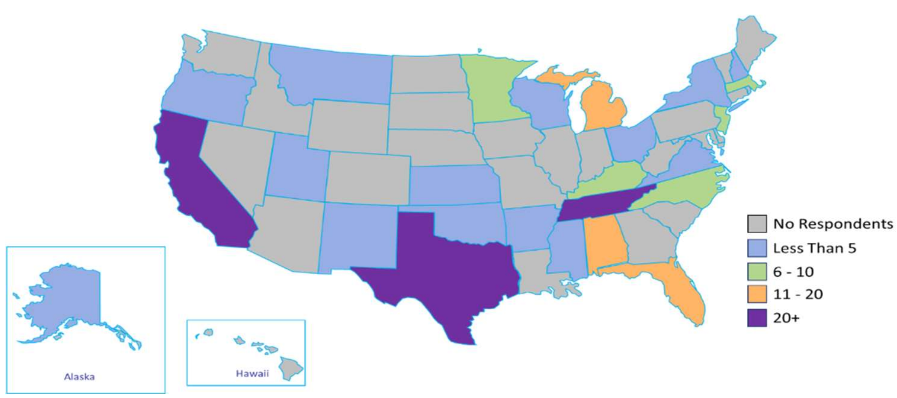


Results

In total, 230 principals finished the online survey. Of those 230 responses, three individuals were deleted due to their nonresponse on the final question of the instrument. The final dataset consisted of 227 principals from 27 states. Generally speaking, the dataset tended to be more ethnically diverse, female, and educated than the available, nationally representative data on the 2011-2012 cohort of public school principals (Hill, Ottem, & DeRoche, 2016). The majority of the principals were White (72.69%), female (58.1%), held a Master's degree (51.5%), and served as principals at suburban schools (37.9%). Over forty two percent (42.7%) of the sample were between the ages of 45 and 54. Two thirds of the sample (n = 152) considered themselves to be a social justice leader. Twenty-seven states are represented in the dataset with California (50), Tennessee (28), and Texas (21) having the highest numbers of respondents (Figure 3). It's important to note that this information is simply used to explain where the sample participants came from and not that the participants are in anyway representative of their states as a whole.

Figure 3.

Respondents by State



To address Research Question 1, a principal-components analysis (PCA) with an oblique rotation was conducted. The purpose of the PCA was to reduce the number of items on the original survey down to a smaller yet more focused collection of statements *and* to determine what items loaded together. By analyzing the items that loaded together, the items on that component can be analyzed and assigned a qualitative label to further make sense of their relationship to one another and in aggregate.

The goal of PCA "is to extract maximum variance from the data set with each component" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, p. 640). Beavers et al. noted that PCA "serves as a means to accurately report and evaluate a large number of variables using fewer components, while still preserving the dimensions of the data" (2013, p. 5). Therefore, a "good" PCA is judged by the extent that it makes sense of the data and provides a robust and accurate account of the variables that determine the factors. An oblique rotation was chosen because of the correlation between items intimated in the literature and demonstrated within the analysis. To this end, I used information derived from multiple sources, including the scree plot, eigenvalues, item factor loadings, reliability statistics, and general factor interpretability to inform decisions and arrive at the factor solution.

Assumptions of a PCA that must be met include sample size considerations, sampling adequacy, and sphericity. The sample size of 227 is considered fair by Comrey and Lee (1992), but was mitigated by following the recommendation of Stevens (2002) to increase the critical value for factor loadings to .364 for a sample of 200. Assumptions related to sampling adequacy and sphericity were tested and met.

PCA is an iterative process requiring several researcher-based decisions rather than a standardized solution in the form of a test statistic or concrete value. Items that cross loaded, that is loaded onto two or more constructs at .364 or more, were deleted if the absolute value of the difference in loadings was less than the absolute value of .20. Following item deletion for each round, a follow up PCA was conducted using the same guidelines until a final solution was determined. If a component had less than three items load onto it, those items were deleted prior to arriving at the final solution. The descriptive statistics of the items can be found in Table 3.

Table 3.

Descriptive Statistics for Initial SJBS Items

Item	**n**	**Mean**	**SD**
I actively work to understand my own bias so I can better counteract inequity within my school.	227	5.48	1.21
I extend cultural respect to individuals from diverse backgrounds.	227	6.38	.87
I engage in self-reflective, critical, and collaborative work relationships.	227	6.04	1.00
I work to develop a reflective consciousness.	226	5.95	1.07
I continuously reflect to avoid making unjust decisions.	226	6.12	1.03
I am transparent about my practice as a school leader.	225	6.30	.87
I acknowledge my ability to decide which students have access to resources.	225	5.88	1.36
I acknowledge that privilege operates on many levels and provides benefits to members of dominant groups	225	5.56	1.67
I consciously account for and resist my personal biases.	227	5.89	1.04
I demonstrate moral courage.	226	6.23	.84
I empower marginalized student groups through collaborative strategies.	226	5.49	1.13
I nurture socially conscientious teacher-leaders.	227	5.73	1.19
I pose solutions to structural injustices in education.	226	5.33	1.27
I enact a vision for my school focused on equity.	227	6.15	1.07
I create a climate of belonging for all students.	227	6.41	.80
I provide students with greater access to their culture.	226	5.12	1.29
I dismantle barriers that hinder the practice of social justice in my school.	225	5.60	1.19
I embed professional development in collaborative structures.	225	5.76	1.16
I contextualize professional development in a way that tries to make sense of race, ethnicity, class, gender, sexuality, and disability.	223	5.30	1.33

I address deficit perspectives that staff members have of certain student groups.	223	5.59	1.23
I provide equitable access to learning for all students.	227	6.28	.76
I provide equitable learning opportunities for all students.	227	6.27	.83
I participate in political and policy-related advocacy work on behalf of marginalized student groups.	227	4.19	1.93
I model the value of providing equitable access to our students.	227	6.25	.96
I model the value of providing equitable opportunities to our students.	227	6.26	.92
I ensure that the teachers are mindful of both the academic and social issues that students face.	227	6.11	1.03
I prepare students to confront the challenges that face historically marginalized communities.	226	5.25	1.37
I build trust with the community.	227	6.06	.94
I engage in community organizing work.	227	4.74	1.78
I engage in community advocacy work.	227	4.43	1.77
I learn about the lived experiences of marginalized individuals within my school's community.	227	5.33	1.30
I enhance collaboration with stakeholders.	226	5.64	1.10
I ensure that schooling reflects the community's culture and values.	224	5.65	1.16
I raise awareness to advance the school communities' levels of understanding about social inequities.	226	4.96	1.57
I utilize parent networks to strategically recruit teachers, parents, and other community leaders wit	226	4.09	1.65
I act as a catalyst for advocacy work within the community.	224	4.10	1.82
I access community cultural wealth to benefit my school.	227	4.54	1.64
I encourage staff members to view the school through the eyes of the students and communities that they serve.	227	5.89	1.16

The three-component, 23 item solution accounted for 62.16% of the total variance (Table 4). The School Specific component was composed of nine items. Seven of those nine items had loadings greater than .60. The School Specific construct explained 42.35% of total variance. The Community Minded component had seven items, all of which loaded higher than the absolute value of .60 on the component. This component explained 13.55% of the total variance. The Self-

Focused component had seven items. All seven of the items loaded greater than .60. The Self-Focused component accounted for 6.26% of the total variance. The component correlations of the Three-Component solution can be seen in Table 5.

Table 4

SJBS Items Factor Loadings for Three- Component Solution

Item	**1**	**2**	**3**
I pose solutions to structural injustices in education.	0.82	-	-
I provide students with greater access to their culture.	0.81	-	-
I dismantle barriers that hinder the practice of social justice in my school.	0.80	-	-
I empower marginalized student groups through collaborative strategies.	0.78	-	-
I nurture socially conscientious teacher-leaders.	0.74	-	-
I enact a vision for my school focused on equity.	0.74	-	-
I prepare students to confront the challenges that face historically marginalized communities.	0.64	-	-
I contextualize professional development in a way that tries to make sense of race, ethnicity, class, gender, sexuality, and disability.	0.53	-	-
I embed professional development in collaborative structures.	0.50	-	-
I engage in community advocacy work.	-	-0.91	-
I act as a catalyst for advocacy work within the community.	-	-0.88	-
I engage in community organizing work.	-	-0.81	-
I utilize parent networks to strategically recruit teachers, parents, and other community leaders with social justice agendas.	-	-0.79	-
I access community cultural wealth to benefit my school.	-	-0.74	-
I participate in political and policy-related advocacy work on behalf of marginalized student groups.	-	-0.66	-
I raise awareness to advance the school communities' levels of understanding about social inequities.	-	-0.64	-
I continuously reflect to avoid making unjust decisions.	-	-	0.77
I engage in self-reflective, critical, and collaborative work relationships.	-	-	0.76
I actively work to understand my own bias so I can better counteract inequity within my school.	-	-	0.75
I am transparent about my practice as a school leader.	-	-	0.75
I consciously account for and resist my personal biases.	-	-	0.71
I work to develop a reflective consciousness.	-	-	0.65
I extend cultural respect to individuals from diverse backgrounds.	-	-	0.62

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. 62.155% of Variance Explained.

Table 5.

SJBS Three-Component Solution Correlation Matrix

Component	School Specific	Community Minded	Self-Focused
School Specific	1.00	-	-
Community Minded	-0.48	1.00	-
Self-Focused	0.54	-0.22	1.00

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The SJBS included 23 items whose creation and wording was directly derived, influenced, and informed by the literature (**APPENDIX**).

The reliability of the three subscales ranged from .872 to .916 (Table 6). The reliability of the Three-Component solution was .933 demonstrating excellent internal consistency. Supplying further evidence to the reliability of the majority of the factors was Guadagnoli and Velicer's (1988) perspective that components with four or more loadings above .60 in absolute value were reliable regardless of sample size. All of the components exceeded that criteria by having at least seven items that loaded above .60.

Table 6

Reliability Statistics for SJBS and Subscales

	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
SJBS	23	.933
School Specific Subscale	9	.914
Community Minded Subscale	7	.916
Self-Focused Subscale	7	.872

Convergent validity refers to the extent of which two scales, instruments, or constructs that are hypothesized to have a relationship end up displaying the theorized relationship (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Divergent validity is similar but refers to the lack of a relationship with a construct that is hypothesized to be unrelated (Holton III, Bates, Bookter, & Yamkovenko, 2007). To assess for both convergent and divergent validity, correlations between the subscales of the SJBS and other measures were analyzed to determine the direction and strength of the relationship and whether a relationship between the variables should (SJS) or should not exist (GBJWS).

Correlations between the SJBS subscales and each of the SJS subscales were calculated to measure for convergent validity. The scores for the items in each component were first averaged to create a composite score for the component. The correlations between the Self-Focused, School Specific, and Community Minded subscales and all of the SJS subscales ranged between .26 - .55 and were statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level (Table 7). The values primarily demonstrated a moderate positive relationship (falling within the range of .40 - .59) between the components of the SJBS and the subscales of the SJS (Evans, 1996). Of particular importance is Ajzen's (2012) perspective that even when the measures for behaviors are carefully constructed the correlations between behaviors and intentions rarely exceed .80 due to theoretical limitations. The percentage of variance explained by the linear relationship between the SJBS Components and SJS Subscales (r^2) ranged from .063 to .301.

Table 7.

Correlations Between SJBS Components and SJS Subscales

	SJBS Self Focused	SJBS School Specific	SJBS Comm Minded	Att (SJS)	PBC (SJS)	Subj Norm (SJS)	Beh Int (SJS)
SJBS Self-Focused	1						
SJBS School Specific	.63**	1					
SJBS Comm Minded	.34**	.60**	1				
Attitudes (SJS)	.41**	.48**	.35**	1			
PBC (SJS)	.36**	.32**	.26**	.47**	1		
Subj Norms (SJS)	.25**	.42**	.40**	.40**	.29**	1	
Behavioral Intentions (SJS)	.37**	.55**	.43**	.73**	.45**	.57**	1

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

Correlations between the SJBS subscales and the GBJWS were analyzed to assess for divergent validity. The Self-Focused Component (r=-.19, r^2=.036), School Specific (r=-.23, r^2=.053), and Community Minded Component (r=-.05, r^2=.003) all displayed negative relationships. The Self-Focused and School Specific Component correlations were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. The Community Minded component was not statistically significant. However, the statistically significant values indicated weak to very weak negative relationships between the SJBS components and the GBJWS (Evans, 1996).

Demographic Variables/ Group Differences

Finally, group differences among the sample participants were assessed using a series of one-way between subjects ANOVAS. The purpose of using one-way between subject ANOVAs was to see if individuals scored differently on the instrument because of their age, education, or location of the school that they worked in. No differences on SJBS scores due to categorical variables were hypothesized. If differences existed, there would have been concerns that the SJBS might be biased for membership in one of these groups. There were no statistically significant mean differences based upon age [F (5, 207) = 1.379, p < .282], gender [F (2,209) = 1.503, p < .225], highest degree completed [F (3,207) = .308, p < .820], and school urbanicity [F (2, 210) = 1.399, p < .249].

Differences on SJBS scores between those who did and did not self-identify as social justice leaders were also analyzed. Logically, it makes sense that those that self-identified as social justice leader would demonstrate a proclivity to engage in social justice behaviors at a higher frequency than those that did not. There were statistically significant differences on SJBS scores between individuals who did and did not self-identify as social justice leaders on the three-component solution [F (1, 212) = 22.15, p < .000]. There were also statistically significant differences between individuals who did and did not self-identify as social justice leaders (Table 8) on the Community Minded [F (1, 222) = 24.12, p < .000], School Specific [F (1, 217) = 21.85, p < .000], and Self-Focused [F (1, 222) = 5.46, p < .020] components.

Table 8.

Average Scores by SJBS Component

	Self-Identify as a Social Justice Leader?	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Community Minded**	Yes	151	3.75	1.34	.11
	No	73	2.80	1.39	.16
School Specific**	Yes	147	4.73	.75	.06
	No	72	4.13	1.15	.14
Self-Focused*	Yes	151	5.11	.62	.05
	No	73	4.86	.98	.12

*** Group difference is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

** Group difference is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

The Three Components of the SJBS

The School Specific component encapsulated those social justice behaviors aimed at addressing issues of social justice within the schools themselves. As schools continue to have a growing number of students from traditionally underserved and marginalized groups, school leaders need to actively develop ways to provide equitable educational opportunities within these challenging and dynamic contexts (Jean-Marie, 2008). Scholars have encouraged principals within these contexts to engage in the behaviors under the School Specific component to promote social justice. In fact, the literature has suggested that educational leaders should foreground context in many of the behaviors that they engage in within the school including professional development (Cooper, 2009; DeMatthews, 2014, 2016; Jean-Marie, 2008; Theoharis, 2007; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011; Rivera-McCutchen, 2014), the nurturing of socially conscientious teachers (Cooper, 2009; DeMatthews, 2015; DeMatthews et al., 2016;

DeMatthews & Mawhinney, 2014; Jean-Marie, 2008; Kose, 2009; Place, Ballenger, Wasonga, Piveral, & Edmonds, 2010; Rivera-McCutchen, 2014; Theoharis, 2007, 2009; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011), and merging student culture with school processes and operations (Cooper, 2009; DeMatthews et al., 2016; DeMatthews & Mawhinney, 2014; Theoharis, 2009). Leaders should promote a vision of equity and proactively work to identify and remove barriers that threaten their work towards that end.

The Community Minded component examined behaviors that expanded beyond the walls of the school and out into the surrounding community. The behaviors within this component were primarily concerned with engaging families and community members, forging collaborative relationships, advocating for the school, and leveraging community and cultural wealth. Cooper's (2009) notion of the role of the principal being that of a "cultural worker who views demographic change and cultural difference as being enriching and educative, not threatening or deviant" is particularly relevant to the spirit of this component (p. 720).

DeMatthews (2018) echoed this sentiment in his case study on successful community engagement by stating that principals must recognize the "innate value and resources within parents" and be able to utilize the cultural capital in their communities to benefit their schools *and* to develop networks of trust where they might not have existed in the past (p. 190). The essence of the Community Minded component really is an added element of social awareness (DeMatthews, 2018; Theoharis, 2007; Wasonga, 2010), connectedness to community (DeMatthews, 2016, 2018) responsibility to the students' network of people (DeMatthews, 2018; Wasonga, 2010), and being engaged at a grassroots level in community organizing issues. These behaviors include political advocacy, interrogation of unjust circumstances, and coalition building that go far beyond the scope of what is traditionally considered good leadership (Theoharis, 2007; Wasonga, 2010).

The Self-Focused component was different than the other two components in that the behaviors emanated from and occurred within the principal themselves. While there is some measure of objectivity with behaviors that are outwardly and, to some degree, observable, most of the items making up the Self-Focused component were more subjective in nature. In their study on rural school principals' perceptions of LGBTQ students and social justice, Bishop and McClellan (2016) adamantly posited that:

> *school leaders must be able to recognize and resist personal biases—despite contextual parameters. Until they are able to do so, creating a school climate geared toward the just treatment of all students is unlikely. Nonconsciousness and the inability to question personal assumptions may result in upholding community norms…School leaders must be prepared to foster inclusivity of diverse student identities. They must resist internal and external communities, and they must learn to question the socialized, conventional norms that shape their own thinking and leadership. (p. 147)*

Similarly, the literature is ripe with calls for leaders to actively work to interrogate their own bias (Bishop & McClellan, 2016; Cooper, 2009; Jean-Marie, 2008; Shields, 2010; Theoharis, 2007, 2009), engage in self-reflection (Bishop & McClellan, 2016; DeMatthews, 2014, 2018; DeMatthews et al., 2016; DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2017; Jean-Marie, 2008; Theoharis, 2007) and demonstrate transparency in their work (DeMatthews, 2016; DeMatthews et al., 2016; DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2017; Theoharis, 2007).

While schools are composed of a variety of people, school leaders play vital roles in creating culture, developing processes, and making decisions that affect all of those under their purview. Ajzen's (2012) model reminds us of the importance of attitude towards the performance of a behavior so conscious reflection and interrogation of bias is needed by those committed to social justice work.

Negative Correlations Between Components

The Community Minded component negatively correlated with both the School Specific (r = -.48) and the Self-Focused (r = -.22) components. The negative correlation with the School Specific component was statistically significant (r > |.32|). This was an unexpected finding and warrants an expanded discussion.

With the identified relationship, the scores of the Community Minded component and the other components will move in opposition to one another; that is, the higher a principal scores in the Community Minded component, the lower their score in the School Specific component would be and vice versa. Reverse-coding the items to achieve a positive relationship between components would not make conceptual sense since the items were not negatively worded to begin with, were based on a frequency response scale, and would serve to obscure the true nature of the component (Angelle & DeHart, 2016). However, this unanticipated finding may shed light on the competing demands on principals' time as it relates to engaging in social justice behaviors across multiple domains.

Negative correlations between constructs should be interpreted cautiously given the exploratory nature of the work. Principals' time is finite so the negative correlations may simply indicate a preference of engaging in behaviors in one domain leading to the reduction of time spent in another.

However, the results could suggest possible tensions between the different domains/capacities that principals must operate in to enact social justice. Perhaps, principals see the community outside of the school as problematic and limit their behaviors in that arena accordingly. In turn, principals may be consciously reducing their time spent on community-related endeavors and instead focusing it within their school and increasing the time spent on those specific behaviors.

While the majority of the literature on social justice leadership suggests that the community and school interface is a place for a positive exchange of ideas and rich collaboration, a small number of studies have identified tensions at the intersection. Flood and Oldham (2016) found that principals in their quest to enact social justice within their schools feel they must sometimes subvert community values or go as far as creating a buffer between the school and the outside community to achieve their goals. Bishop and McClellan's (2016) notion regarding the importance that principals "resist internal and external communities" when community norms go unquestioned, unchallenged, and unconsciously reproduced to the detriment of certain student subgroups (LGBTQ students in their study) should be given deeper consideration given the results. In this light, this finding is certainly interesting and demonstrate that more consideration be given to the uncomfortable idea that communities and principals may be at odds regarding social justice causes at least for certain student subgroups (Bishop & McClellan, 2016; Flood & Oldham, 2016).

Theoretical Implications

This study directly addressed many shortcomings in the educational leadership literature. First, this study helped to fill an informational void regarding social justice leadership behaviors. This was accomplished in a variety of ways including a meta-analysis specifically focused on understanding and compiling the behaviors that educational leaders undertake to achieve social justice within schools. This meta-analysis led to a novel, working framework/taxonomy for classifying those behaviors into one of three domains: School Specific, Self-Focused, and Community Minded.

Secondly, this study filled a methodological gap in the literature by utilizing a nationally distributed survey to capture quantitative results from as diverse and representative of a sample as possible. The literature is full of heroic principals doing amazing things in challenging contexts (Bogotch, 2000), but the underlying aim of this study was to hopefully capture a snapshot of normal principals doing their best in a variety of contexts to devise a way to better understand how principals lead for social justice. The quantitative results should be useful to a variety of researchers in moving investigations of social justice and social justice leadership behaviors forward.

Lastly, the study resulted in a methodological tool, the SJBS, which can be used to reliably measure three components of social justice leadership. This answers the calls of a number of scholars in the field of educational leadership (Jean-Marie et al., 2009; Nilsson et. al., 2011; Otunga, 2009) and, hopefully, cracks the door open for other important work to be done from a variety of methodological perspectives on the specific behaviors school leaders engage in to advance and effect their social justice agendas in schools.

Practical Implications

From a practical perspective, this study has a number of implications. The most important involves the coupling of the SJBS and the SJS with the TPB. The positive correlation between intentions and behaviors has far-reaching implications for leadership preparation programs. According to the TPB, the creation of subjective norms in support of social justice, creation of positive attitudes towards social justice, and increasing the perceived behavioral control around social justice would lead to an increased intention to engage in social justice behaviors (Ajzen, 2012). Through continued study using the SJBS and SJS, principal preparation programs that espouse, desire, or propose to achieve social justice outcomes could investigate that linkage for actual results. I believe that by first interrogating the connection between social justice education/intention formation and the enactment of these behaviors that we might begin to work towards actually understanding the true impact of social justice leadership on a variety of student outcomes. However, I think the strategic way to begin to establish this linkage is by first making the connection through principals and then connecting those principals who are enacting said principals to a variety of changes and outcomes within their contexts.

Furthermore, the SJBS is the first real glimpse into how principals prioritize certain behaviors related to social justice. While the main purpose of the study was to develop an instrument, the results might act as a baseline of sorts for district-level administrators to understand to what extent school-level leaders engage in behaviors related to social justice leadership and how these different domains may compete for their limited time. In the same vein, the SJBS could serve as an equity audit tool to understand the social justice leadership focuses of their principals to help determine professional development or coaching needs on a district or school basis.

Limitations

All research is subject to limitations and this study was no exception. The Delphi technique used to refine the items of the SJBS posed a number of limitations related to access and control (Donohoe, Stellefson, & Tennant, 2012). Issues of access involved Internet coverage, reliability, and ease with which respondents utilized the digital response tools. Limitations related to control were more concerning to this study and involved concerns that arose from the lack of physical interactions between the individual expert panel members and myself during the process. Due to this lack of physical interaction, I had to be aware of concerns about participant distraction (Donohoe et al., 2012). While I do not think these affected the study, it is difficult to know because the interactions occurred digitally.

Furthermore, the composition of the expert panel influenced the creation of the items on the SJBS. Because it was impossible and impractical to include every expert in the Delphi technique, the possibility exists that the items may be influenced by the panel's collective viewpoint and bias regarding the nature of social justice as it relates to educational leadership.

Following the Delphi technique and the creation of the SJBS, there were limitations to the administration of the SJBS. The SJBS required that individuals responded in a truthful and accurate manner. Survey instruments are subject to a sample bias in that those individuals who respond may be more inclined to demonstrate social justice behaviors and, thus, provide a glimpse into the phenomenon that is reflective of a particular set of individuals within the sample and not a true reflection of principals in general. Future research into different demographic groups can help to ease concerns related to sample bias and help to provide evidence on whether or not the sample for this study influenced the findings. Those wishing to use the SJBS should do so with the full knowledge that this was an exploratory study based upon one administration of the instrument. While the findings are encouraging, they are by no means definitive and could change depending on the context that the instrument is administered in.

Future Directions

The Social Justice Behavior Scale has undergone item development, refinement, principal components analysis, and validity/reliability testing that provide strong initial evidence for its use as a meaningful research instrument moving forward. However, this study was exploratory in nature and should be viewed as the beginning of a research process rather than the culmination of one. The procedures utilized in this study are generally considered as "theory-generating" and would hopefully lead into "theory-testing procedures", like confirmatory factor analysis, to better understand the relationships between the items and components of the SJBS (Stevens, 2002, p. 411).

Future research should explore looking at larger samples of principals from various contexts. While the principals in this study were relatively diverse, the number of participants was comparatively small to the number of individuals that I attempted to recruit. Perhaps, the now streamlined version of the SJBS would aid in completion rates or relationships that other researchers have established would enable them to collect data from principals that didn't participate in this study.

Additionally, researchers should investigate contexts outside of the United States to determine if the SJBS is a valid and reliable measure outside of the US context. If it proves to be, international comparative data on social justice has shown to be a fruitful avenue for inquiry and the SJBS could open new doors for large scale, quantitative comparative research on social justice.

Lastly, researchers who are already doing or on the verge of pursuing qualitative work on social justice leadership in schools should consider using the SJBS to expand their research designs. Similarly, those considering solely using the SJBS should weigh the merits of collecting the stories of educational leaders so we can better understand their lived realities and how they implement their visions for equity, fairness, and social justice through their leadership behaviors.

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An Overview of Practical Experiences in The Process of Leadership Learning of Elementary Principals in Mexico

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Abstract

The educational system in Mexico has allowed teachers without preparation and training in leadership to pursue leadership positions. This paper presents the findings of a study aimed at analyzing the processes of leadership learning experienced by school principals in the course of their leadership practice. The methodology used was a qualitative multiple case study using a biographic narrative interpretative method. Findings show that principals experienced challenges throughout their practice and that these role experiences enabled leadership learning and improvement of their leadership practice. Their learning is contextualized and shaped by the practical experiences that are not only unique but they also enable on-the-job leadership learning.

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Introduction

Leadership work by principals in schools is important because they continuously focus on educational improvement of the institutions they lead. Empirical evidence shows that leadership is a key factor in the implementation of actions geared at change and improvement that ultimately impact student achievement (Bush, 2010). Research has constantly pointed out that leadership is an influential factor in school effectiveness. The importance of the practice of leadership in principals signals that a solid process of preparation and training is required in order to learn their role effectively (Instituto Nacional para la Evaluación de la Educación [INEE], 2015). In Mexico, learning to lead a school effectively usually happens while principals are in their post rather than before appointment. The way school leaders are appointed has contributed to this type of leadership learning because specific preparation and training in educational leadership is not a prerequisite. The 1973 – 2012 Mexican school system was marked by two forms of job promotion for teachers´ career. The first was through an examination of candidates that wanted to occupy tenured vacant posts. This type of appointment is based on seniority in the teaching service and academic qualifications, which could be related to teaching or any other area of the humanities, not necessarily leadership. The other form was direct nomination for appointments to fulfill temporary vacant positions. This other type of appointment was based on the application of political criteria. Therefore, leadership positions used to be offered to teachers who supported the teachers' union political activities (Álvarez, Ugalde y Casas, 2007). Moreover, the political activities carried out by teachers appointed through the influence of the union were seldom related to activities of leadership.

Most of the current principals in this school system were appointed through one of these two ways.

A new legal framework for appointment to administrative positions in Mexico was introduced in 2013. Now, teachers' promotion to administration is based on the results of two tests that evaluate competency (Diario Oficial de la Federación, 2013). However, none of the systems (neither the one established in 1973 nor the other established in 2013) required or require, respectively, specific preparation and training in leadership. These systems have favored the appointment of principals with mainly teacher education degrees and often when teachers have taken graduate courses; their education profiles are diverse and usually unrelated to their job as school leaders.

Professional preparation is usually understood as a systematic and institutionalized process undertaken by learners who acquire the ideal practices of a field before they begin their career life in the real world (Uribe, 2010; Gyssels, 2007). Following this way of thinking, common sense suggests that newly appointed principals should have received specific training and preparation for their new role. However, there are also other perspectives regarding professional development and learning. These perspectives consider that learning, and the acquisition and mastery of professional competency in a profession is a lifelong process in which people construct and reconstruct their identity in an ongoing and always unfinished process (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003; Ducoing & Fortuol, 2013). This last perspective seems to capture the essence of the Mexican case since principals are appointed without previous leadership education, and they have to learn how to lead a school while they are performing this role.

This study explored this last perspective of leadership learning and development on-the-job and the continuous building of a leadership identity. We propose that such analysis reflects the process of development that some principals experienced in their leadership learning journey. The principals who participated in the study had just teaching training when promoted to a school leadership position. The main research question that guided this study was the following: How do principals in elementary schools in Mexico develop their leadership competencies?

The general objective of the study was to analyze the learning processes that occur during the practice of leadership by primary incumbent principals appointed to middleclass and to inner city schools in Chihuahua, Mexico. The following specific objectives were proposed: to analyze the leadership learning processes of participants in the study through the narration of their history of performing their role as principals and to describe the practical experience of their role as a key element in the process of leadership learning.

Theoretical Framework

Situated learning was the theoretical framework that guided the analysis and discussion of findings in this study. This learning approach offers elements to understand the way incumbent principals have been able to learn how to perform their role. In this perspective, learning and doing are two actions mutually related. Moreover, knowledge is an element and at the same time is the result of a contextually situated activity in a specific culture (Diaz-Barriga, 2003). Situated learning needs three conditions. First, learning happens in action and in real situations. Authentic participation generates several possibilities to construct meanings and understanding. Furthermore, practical experience plays an important role because it is a point of departure for the solutions of problems present in the real world.

Second, learning occurs out of the need to perform an activity and solve a practical problem. According to Wenger (2001) situated learning is the result of an internal searching process for solutions that interacts with previous learning. Third, learning occurs through the interactions with other people. Vásquez (2011) points out that nobody can learn a new skill or practice alone. The guide of at least one more experienced person facilitates learning.

This last condition suggests the idea that learning takes place in a community where participants carry out a common activity. Wenger (2001) named this a *community of practice,* a group of people with a joint activity. Within this framework it is assumed that knowledge is distributed amongst the members of a community and constructed through practical situations they experience (Arrue & Elichiry 2014). Consequently, situated learning is the product of a practical situation that integrates several contextual elements that enable learning (Tiburcio & Jimenez, 2016). This theory offers elements to understand and interpret principals' development in the Mexican case. It has been observed that some conditions in this case are consistent with a community of practice. First, principals mainly learn some aspects of the job by facing real situations in their practice. Second, they learn this way because they need to solve problems that arise from practical experiences. And third, they learn through the formal and informal observations they conduct with other principals, the help they might ask to other colleagues, and finally the support they get from their supervisors. The supervisors were themselves principals before being appointed to a higher position in their career.

Leithwood (2009) defines leadership as the ability to influence others and to move them to actions and intentions in order to achieve some shared goals within a group. Therefore, we can infer that leadership is a competency and as such it is not innate. It is a skill we must develop. Education for leadership presupposes the development of leadership competencies. At an international level it is recommended that programs of leadership incorporate innovative changes that have at least these seven components: recruitment and selection process, program structure, curriculum, teaching strategies, induction process and evaluation of school leadership (Gordon, Oliver & Solis, 2016).

On the other hand, recent research has shown that leadership learning is favored by actions such as the exchange of experiences among equals, dialogues about topics of interest, study cases, relationship between theory and practice, internship experiences, analysis of stories or personal cases of participants in training programs and even the relationship with other members (Gordon Oliver and Solis, 2016; Ni, Rorrer, Pounder, Young and Koarch, 2019). For this reason, it is important to research how leadership is learnt in Mexican schools. Although there's lack of leadership preparation programs and the existent ones pose serious limitations (e.g. the recruitment and selection process), nonetheless there is an empirical training process worth studying.

Methodology

This study stems from the idea that each principal has built a unique and different process of professional development according to the needs, abilities, opportunities and interests present in their life histories. This vision is congruent with the existence of multiple realities supported by a qualitative paradigm. For this reason, a methodological design that enabled understanding of these realities was implemented. The method of multiple case study was chosen. This method offers valuable means to analyze a research unit in-depth so that a problem may be thoroughly understood (Stake, 2006). In Mexico preparation for school leadership is a process influenced by the socioeconomic context in which it occurs. Therefore, two criteria were applied to choose the cases, the first criterion for selection was seniority in the appointment, and the second was the socio-economical context in which schools were located.

The participants in this research was were four cases of experienced principals with more than five years in their position, and four newly appointed heads with less than a year in their position. Data collection was carried out through in-depth interviews with each of the case study participants. Interviews were conducted in three sessions. In the first interview the narrative of their life experience and in particular their schooling process was obtained. In the second we focused on their perception regarding their professional practice as principals. The third session was used to build a biogram (Bolivar, 2012). The biogram is a graphic summary used to retrieve their life history in particular their professional development. Furthermore, the last session was used to address questions that arose while constructing the biogram with the information obtained in the first two sessions. Different preparation and professional developmental experiences in their incumbency as school leaders were identified in the biogram. Fragments of interviews addressing practical experiences that contributed to their leadership learning were analyzed through open and focus coding (Saldaña, 2009). Then, micro narratives were written following chronological and analytical approaches that described in detail their development processes.

Findings

This study shows that in Mexico, given the lack of training programs for school leaders, principals basically learn how to be leaders by undertaking their role and the needs demanded by their role. In this respect, learning experiences and leadership experiences generated in practice are one and the same.

Life history analysis conducted through biograms and micro narratives showed that principals lived several developmental and training experiences related to their role as school leaders. We found in the narratives that teachers' previous experiences enable them to start constructing their self-concept of leaders and the role of principals. This conceptualization not only guided to some extent their actions in their incumbency but also helped them to develop useful skills for their leadership practice.

Principals highlighted two previous experiences that favored the construction and re-construction of their concept of what a school leader is. One of them is linked to their experience as students in different schools. The construction of their concept of principals can be traced back to their whole schooling experience in which they observed and were peripheral recipients of the actions and way of being of the principals they had. This lived experience led to an acceptance of the role and its concept without questioning. They mainly saw principals as figures of authority and power and took this constructed experience as an absolute truth.

Another relevant experience is their work as school teachers. Teachers usually required from their principals to solve several problems and meet the needs they had. According to the help offered, teachers judged the performance of their principals and this helped in their construction of the concept of leaders and their role. Participants in this research shared the following comments in this regard: "this is the way principals should be" or "this was a bad school leader". This subjective feedback received directly and indirectly enables also a *malleable* construction of the concept of headship.

We also found two other experiences that have to do with the development of skills for their role as principals. One of these experiences was the opportunity to be in charge of a group of people before appointment as principals. It does not matter if this experience happens outside education. The relevance of this experience is that it enables to build the self-concept of authority and leader within a group.

The second experience is their direct participation in activities related to school administration. This happens when they have to temporarily 'act' as heads in their school with or without appointment and in which they are not totally in charge of the school. According to participants their leadership learning depended on the length of time because some of these positions lasted days, weeks or even months. These experiences offered ideas about what the role of a principal is and should be that emerged before their formal appointment.

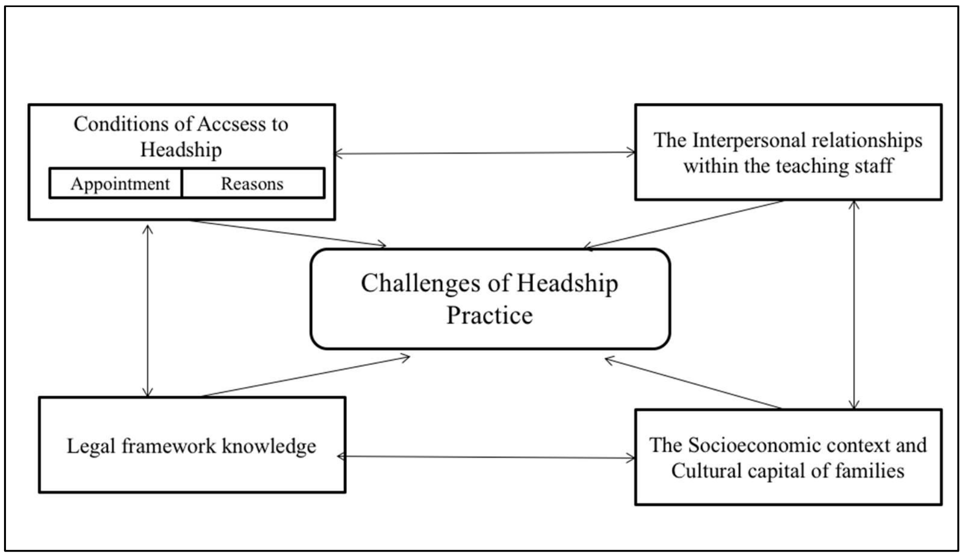
As it was reported by participants, the most meaningful experience regarding training for school leadership is the practical experience they had as school heads because they were forced to learn their role: what school leadership is, what their functions are, what the consequences of the decisions they make as principals are, amongst others practical challenges of this administrative position. The singularity in their experiences offers a unique conceptualization of the role and identity construction as principals.

From the perspective of situated learning, practical experiences play a vital role in adult learning (Wenger, 2001; Baudouin, 2009). This research showed that role enactment was a central aspect in the process of leadership learning and professional development for incumbent heads. The need to solve problems derived from the leadership practice oriented principals to learn their role and develop needed skills. Practical experiences in the post were different for each teacher and also these experiences were different when they were appointed to lead another school. This is the reason leadership learning was a singular process in which some elements enabled learning to occur.

In this respect, this research found that practical leadership learning had five key elements: the contextual conditions in which appointment happens, the interpersonal relationship with teaching staff, the socio economical context and cultural capital of families, the legal framework knowledge that appointed principals have that regulates compulsory education and their role, and the challenges they face in their leadership practice. This last element, the challenges, originates from the interaction of the first four. This makes leadership practice unique given the high stake challenges they face. Figure 1 shows these elements and their interaction.

Figure 1.

Elements That Comprise a Leadership Experience in Practice. Personal Elaboration



Challenges of Headship Practice

The challenges principals face is one of the key elements that appears in the configuration of leadership learning. A challenge is a relevant event, difficult situation or a significant problem (Baudouin, 2009). In these situations, principals know they have to do something but the solution cannot be found in a manual. It is a highly contextualized problem that requires a specific solution. Facing challenges requires that principals use several professional resources, skills and knowledge. The search for solutions enables principals an ongoing understanding of their role. Moreover, these situations compel them to use all the resources they have to make decisions and solve these problems. These decisions try to solve the challenge, but at the same time are adopted as a way to enact leadership. This contributes to an ongoing process of learning and of (re)construction of their professional identity as principals.

Each time a principals or former teacher are appointed to a new school they face new challenges. The contextual conditions influence the practice of their role and these conditions are different in each school. Then other elements, such as their type of appointment or the interpersonal relations with teachers and staff that influence the leadership experience become relevant. In this regard, if principals are appointed temporarily, they are not perceived the same by teaching staff as if they had a formal appointment. The temporary nature of acting as leaders does not favor total ownership of their posts because the teaching staff does not make a true effort to implement projects. School teachers know that once a permanent principal is appointed former initiatives and projects will probably change.

There are also other times when the teaching staff tries to manipulate the decisions of principals and challenge their authority. There is not a manual or legal document that tells them what to do in a situation like this. Consequently, principals need to find solutions, making sure they are perceived as leaders. A participant in the study narrated her first experience when she was appointed as a temporary acting principal due to retirement of the previous one. She described how she was elected by her peers in a democratic process summoned by the school inspector. However, when she needed to make decisions she found resistance amongst teachers who wanted to influence her decisions. She decided to assert her authority in the school through her actions and decisions:

> *When I was appointed as a principal, the first thing I faced was an angry teacher "I supported you to be elected and that is the way you pay me back." I called a meeting immediately and told them: "hey colleagues yes, you voted for me, but*

so sorry. I am the principal now". It was difficult at the beginning because some of them kept telling me: "you think you are better than us, but officially you are still a teacher." I let them know that I cannot be conditioned to make decisions based on what the people who supported me could think. I needed to base my decisions in what was best for our children and school. (2NUCM-1)

According with her narrative, this principal built her attitudinal knowledge and learned to be assertive and to perform her role out of these experiences. She understood at the beginning that not all actions could be made democratically or through a consensus since this could risk her authority.

This participant did not face the leadership challenge the same way when she was later moved to a different school with a tenured track position. This shows that each time principals lead a different school they face different contextual challenges. In our research we found that these challenges are related to the four contextual conditions above mentioned that offer uniqueness to the leadership practice. In our previous example we saw how the appointment conditions could generate specific challenges. Additionally, there are other elements such as interpersonal relationships amongst the teaching staff, the socio economic context, the cultural capital of families, and the official legal framework regulating teaching and the operation of schools that shape the experience and learning of leadership. In the following sections each of these is addressed giving examples of specific challenges faced in relation to each condition.

Conditions of access to a principal position: Becoming a principal by choice or by designation

The conditions of appointment influence the way principals face new challenges and how the teaching faculty and staff reacts to decisions made by the school administrator. Therefore, the experience participants had could be located within two extremes of a continuum. In one of these ends, we have the actions of the school faculty. In the other, there's the self-perception of principals about their possibilities of action. There are several conditions that characterize the promotion of teachers as school principals. Two of the most salient ones are the type of appointment and the reasons to pursue a school administrative position. There are two types of appointment, interim and tenure track. Interim appointments are offered to fill temporary vacant positions, while tenure track positions are obtained through a public examination of candidates. Prior to the 2012 educational reform, interim appointments were common because tenure principals were often invited to other positions in the ministry of education or in the teachers' union.

In their narratives, participants in this study reported that teachers and staff recognize less authority from interim principals and conversely more authority from tenured principals. A principal described that the first time he was appointed as interim was because the previous principal was promoted to a committee in the ministry of education. At the beginning the teachers and staff happily approved his appointment but later they started to disobey his orders:

> *To suddenly see two or three teachers outside the classroom chatting when they were supposed to be teaching. I think to myself "It is not possible that all of them needed to go to the restroom at the same time." I think it is a problem they are not in the place I assigned them to take care of the children during the children's break or they do it only for two or three days. I remember them as colleagues, and they were not this way with the former principal. (1NUM-2)*

The above example could be explained on the grounds of how the interim nature of their post is a condition that generates authority challenges for this type of principals. On the one hand, staff seems to respect their authority, but on the other some actions challenge this authority, e.g. by asking for permission to do things that they know they are not entitled to do. This shows that there is low authority recognition for this type of principals unlike the situation with the previous tenured head. This headteacher feels that he does not have the authority to sanction and reprimand teachers who disobey because he feels that he is still part of the teaching staff and he is at the same level thus hindering his authority.

On the other hand, this perception changes once they obtain tenure. Principals reported more ownership of their post and more commitment in comparison to the time when they were interim principals. One of them mentioned that when she was promoted to and got her tenure, she felt unprepared for her role even though she had been an acting head before.

> *I had a glimpse of this function when I was promoted as a tenured principal because I had the opportunity to be an acting head before. This experience helped me but still I felt unprepared. I had taken a course on school administration before which also helped me understanding this role. (2NUCM-3)*

This principal later in the interviews mentioned "now *my* headship" contrasting with previous descriptions of her interim experiences. Once she got a tenure school position she felt more committed to the school administration and started to think in a long term improvement project.

The results of this study also show other emerging conditions such as the motives or reasons for pursuing a school leadership position. There are principals who did not mean to pursue such position. However, they were persuaded to take up a vacant temporary post. It was found that in these cases there was less determination to face challenges and even a desire to drop the job and go back to teaching. A principal described how he did not have plans to pursue a school management position; however, there was a temporary vacancy and his coworkers proposed him as a candidate:

> *I was appointed as a school principal just by chance and not because I was pursuing it. All of my coworkers trusted and voted for me. This was motivating and favors my openness to learn new things. I said "if they trust me, I will accept this challenge." I think at this time I have learned so many things. I still need to learn many others in order to be a better school principal. However, I feel much more comfortable teaching. I feel that my true calling is teaching because I like working with children. The time I am in a classroom either modeling a lesson or substituting an absent teacher I enjoy it much. Probably I will go back to teaching. (1NUM-2)*

In his description this school principal acknowledges some shortcomings but also that he could improve his performance. However, he does not seek professional development in school administration because he would rather go back to teaching. On the other hand, there are principals who did pursue this career path and mentioned reasons for this or the desire to lead a specific school. In these cases, it was found more determination to face school administrative challenges and to look for solutions because they had their own motives to be in this position.

A participant in this study described how she tried to apply to a school position very close to where she lives and with a high prestige in the community. She shared that at the beginning of her administration, a teacher threatened to make a petition to remove her as principal if the teaching staff did not like her performance. She was not intimidated by this situation because she had personal reasons to be in this school.

> *I applied, and I said, I want a school in the north of the city, and then I had the opportunity to choose. And, I chose this school because of its good reputation, because of its academic achievement. I remember a lot one of my first days as a*

principal in this school that a teacher approached me and told me that I am very impulsive. She said 'welcome to our school and I hope everything goes fine for you because when a new principal does not meet our expectations we write a complaint to the ministry of education offices asking for his/her removal' (2NUCM-4)

In these examples we can notice how the type of appointment and the reasons to undertake this position create conditions that challenge principals to effectively perform their position. Nonetheless, in some cases, it could represent a resource to which principals turn to in order to face their challenges.

The interpersonal relationships within the teaching staff: It is not the same to be a school principal with a cohesive teaching staff than with a divided one

The particular culture of a school is created by ideas and beliefs of the school community. This includes the way in which schools operate and the dynamic of interpersonal relationships amongst the teaching staff (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1999). Participants in this study found an established school culture to which they were expected to integrate to. Some participants reported they found a school culture they did not like. There were costumes contrary to the official norms and regulations. The cultural clash between the established culture and the new ideas of recently appointed principals originated challenges for them. These challenges were related to the need to organize a new work dynamic and also to face teaching staff threats as described previously.

In addition, it was found that when the teaching staff had good interpersonal relationships this could be a point of support for effective leadership practice. A participant described that part of his job is to have good interpersonal relationships so they can reach established goals:

> *Having good relationships amongst the teaching staff and working together is part of my role, keeping this work environment. If we do not have good personal relationships, there is a possibility to have conflicts within the teaching staff and also with me as school leader. I think it is very difficult to work when there are conflicts because in these situations persons reject and oppose to good ideas just because they were proposed by someone they did not like. (1NUM-2)*

Furthermore, when there are bad relationships or antagonistic sub-groups in the school this could also be a challenge. A participant described how often he had to solve conflicts amongst teachers.

> *I as school principal could not close my eyes to the evident reality we had in the school. I had to face an extreme case, which I am not sure if I should tell you, but once two teachers physically fought in front of their first grade students. I had to intervene right away. They've had a problem for a long time, and they could not sort it out. I let them know the obvious 'we are educators; we have to set a good example for our children.' (3EUM-1)*

The official responsibilities of principals in Mexican schools do not explicitly dictate they are accountable for good interpersonal relationships among the teaching staff. However, in this study positive relations were highly regarded by principals because no conflicts mean less challenges and a smooth transition to their new position.

The socioeconomic context and cultural capital of families: Taking care of children who in turn reflect what happens outside school

In their narratives, principals reported that students' socioeconomic context which is deeply related to their cultural capital posited special conditions for their performance as principals. Cultural capital is understood as the potential the families' and context offer to an individual for his/her intellectual development (Bordieu, 1979). In this regard, the cultural capital also implies the type of participation families have in schools, which could also represent several challenges to principals.

A participant faced problems related to social violence, which from her perspective affect children and affect their emotional development, causing aggressive conducts, little attention and concentration, misbehavior and other problems. For her, it is imperative to pay attention to these issues because they affect student learning.

> *Children reflect what is going on in the wider social spectrum. Children bring to the school more and more emotional situations and conflicts that limit their academic achievement, their relationship with other classmates, and their overall performance as students (4EUCM-2)*

Some of the actions implemented in schools were aimed at preventing bullying and violence. Principals look for support in their families since it might be presumed that if children have problematic behavior is because they have been surrounded by such environment. Another participant described how she had to face low expectations of parents with low cultural capital who often mention that they as parents do not expect much from their children due to their economic limitations.

> *We tried that parents understood the importance of their children learning even though the family did not have much money. It was a challenge to overcome the perception that our students could not learn because we were the poorest school in the district (2NUCM-1).*

In the above fragments we can perceive that cultural capital is related to the socio economic context. Therefore, cultural capital influences leadership experience because it determines the type of participation families have in the educational process.

Most of the challenges faced by principals related with family participation in the educational process are closely related to the socioeconomic context and cultural capital of families. In the case of more favorable middle class contexts sometimes principals face challenges as well because parents want to impose their opinions and even threaten teachers. On the other hand, in disadvantaged contexts there is little participation due to the low expectations regarding academic achievement because parents give more importance to solving economic problems.

Legal framework knowledge: Following guidelines and regulations

There are no requirements for specific academic preparation to be promoted as school principals neither the knowledge of the legal framework to perform the role effectively in Mexico. However, this study found that not knowing the regulation that dictates the operational aspects of schools limits principals in solving several problems. In this regard, not knowing the legal framework is another challenge to carry out effectively their role. Likewise this knowledge is a useful tool as this participant described how her knowledge of the legal framework has enabled her to solve situations:

> *The following are reflections and questions we as principals continuously go through: do things this way, follow the established procedures, to who this information should be submitted, under which administrative procedure, what the administrative code says, what the official memo says, what the union regulation says. Knowing the legal aspects of school leadership has enabled me to persuade the teaching staff to respect my work and in my case respect the work of teachers (2NUCM-4).*

Furthermore, other principal mentioned that in her case it would have been much better to know the legal framework before she started her role because during her practice she has faced some problems that would have been easier to solve if she had had knowledge of the legal framework.

> *In the teaching profession when we are classroom teachers we are not aware of all legal aspects and regulations involved in the operation of schools. Then, we are promoted to the school management without preparation in these legal aspects and administrative procedures. It is when we face a problem we are looking to understand the rules, and we usually look for support from an experienced colleague. We as principals should know all the legal aspects involved in public education because you face situations that need to follow a specific procedure. I wish I had been trained and prepared in the legal and administrative procedures dictating the operation of schools before I was promoted to school principal (4EUCM-3)*

Both examples show that knowledge of the legal framework is a condition that helps the practice of effective leadership. Often this knowledge is shared by other principals or supervisors.

Conclusions

This study found a scheme of previous practical experiences, and this in turn has an influence in the leadership practice principals display, and also that these experiences are part of their leadership learning. Leadership learning is favored when several challenges are present and principals need to find solutions to solve them. This also contributes to strengthen their leadership identity. According to Diaz-Barriga (2003) doing and learning are two processes that happen simultaneously. This is why leadership learning happens when principals need to solve a problem that emerges from their practice.

Principals face many challenges that in most cases are particular to the context they experience. To overcome these challenges implies to learn how to perform effectively the role expected from them, and to develop skills that enable them to design actions and make decisions regarding the best way to lead the school they are in charge of. Likewise, Tiburcio and Jimenez (2016) point out that the context in which practice occurs enables the learning of specific aspects. This is why the configuration of leadership practice of principals is relevant because leadership learning is singular in the sense that each headteacher has to learn specific contextual aspects of their role.

However, it is relevant to ask about the kind of learning that happens in these situations we have described. This study shows that principals go through an empirical leadership learning process, which seems limited and specific to their context. International organizations as the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) suggest that the strengthening of leadership preparation favors the development of instructional and distributed leadership approaches (Pont, Nusche & Moorman, 2009). This was also highlighted by the Second Teaching and Learning International Survey in Mexico for elementary education which reported that only a fifth of the incumbent principals mentioned they had only practical preparation in regard to their abilities and skills for their role (INEE, 2015).

Moreover, these results are consistent with the findings of Garcia, Slater and Lopez (2010) who conducted a research study about the problem of new principals in Mexico and in the United States. They found that in Mexico the role is considered highly stressful given the challenges faced in the post. Moreover, some of the problems encountered are similar to the ones found internationally. Nonetheless the above researchers concluded that the challenges for Mexican principals are greater given their lack of previous training. Furthermore, this study reveals that in the first years in the job the challenges are even greater. Most principals after a few years of experience have achieved a level of development in which they have gained a group of competencies and have acquired a body of knowledge and expertise that allows them to meet more efficiently the demands and problems posed by the role.

According to these sources there is a need to develop instructional leadership in which administrative actions are focused on changing the organizational and professional conditions to improve student achievement. Leadership preparation and development in public schools could be a mix of self-learning strategies that promote the acquisition of knowledge, the development of skills and positive attitudes needed to enact properly their role. Knowing the way in which leadership learning happens through practical experiences gives elements to strengthen the empirical processes traditionally followed in Mexico by principals for school leadership learning.

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The Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale: A Tool for Principals

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Abstract	Article Info
This research aims to develop a teacher professional development assessment scale based on the dynamic professional development approach. The resulting Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale is a data collection tool consisting of 27 items under 7 factors and can explain 62.90% of the total variance. The items have a five-point Likert scale ranging from never (1) to always (5). The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of the factors range from 0.66 to 0.83. The factor loads of the items ranged from 0.47 to 0.82. The construct validity of the scale was confirmed by confirmatory factor analysis. The criterion validity of the scale was tested using a parallel scale. The scale measures the teaching-related characteristics that can determine the professional development level of the teachers from all branches. It is concluded that the scale developed in this research can be used to assess teacher professional development according to student perceptions. School principals can use the scale to determine the professional development levels of teachers and can make necessary interventions to achieve better quality in teaching.	**Article History:** ***Received*** *March, 16, 2019* ***Accepted*** *August, 07, 2019* **Keywords:** *Dynamic approach, professional development, assessment*

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Introduction

Teachers are affected by changes in education. Teachers, who came out of the position of the information transmitter, assumed the role of guiding the students. Teachers who are learner-centered, participatory, motivating and sensitive to individual differences have played a leading role in changing education (Schleicher, 2012). The role of the practitioner of change can be fulfilled by adapting the teachers to change. For this purpose, teachers should not be satisfied with the information at the time of graduation and they should be in an effort to learn continuously (Ceylan & Özdemir, 2016). This may be achieved through professional development (Seferoğlu, 2004; Yetim & Göktaş, 2004).

Professional development provides opportunities for teachers to renew themselves (Smith & Gillespie, 2007). Changing educational paradigms have begun to give importance to teachers' teaching skills and learning outcomes (Scheerens, 2010). It has been experimentally determined that professional development positively affects the success of the students by creating a change in the behavior of teachers in the classroom (Duffield, Wageman & Hodge, 2013). The most suitable environment in which teachers' professional development can be provided is the schools and classes where the teaching takes place (Postholm, 2012).

Since the classroom is a place where the teacher and the student interact, the teacher's practices in the classroom are the most influential factor in the learning of the students (Sanders, 1998; Wenglinsky, 2002; Wright, Horn & Sanders 1997). Students can learn better when professional development focuses on interventions to improve the teaching of teachers (Guskey, 1997; Heller, Daehler & Shinohara, 2003; Shaha et al., 2004). Because it is emphasized that teachers play an important role in student achievement (Buchanan, 2012; Rushton, Morgan & Richard, 2007; Seidel & Shavelson, 2007). According to the results of a meta-analysis study that analyzed the findings of more than fifty thousand studies investigating the factors affecting student learning, it was determined that the most contributing factor was the teacher (Hattie, 2009). Therefore, professional development is more effective when it focuses on classroom teaching activities and differs according to teachers' developmental needs (Creemers, Kyriakides & Antoniou, 2013). Based on this fact, the dynamic professional development approach has been developed. According to this approach, the development needs of the teachers are determined and if the professional development, which is appropriate to the needs of each teacher, is offered, the teaching skills and learning outcomes of the teachers increase (Antoniou & Kyriakides, 2011). The dynamic professional development approach applied in developed countries enables teachers to demonstrate effective behavior and increase student achievement (Antoniou & Kyriakides, 2011).

The professional development of teachers in Turkey, based on the mere transfer of information, away from the practice, does not monitor and evaluate effective teacher behavior (Budak & Demirel, 2003; Bümen et al., 2012). These activities, which are mostly compressed at the beginning and end of the academic year, are traditional lessons that consist of a fixed theoretical content that is defined without any teacher's need for improvement (Bümen et al., 2012).

School administrators play a vital role in the professional development of teachers (Glanz & Neville 1997; Hallinger & Heck 1996; Sheppard, 1996). The establishment of a professional learning culture for teachers was listed among the duties of administrators

(Fullan, 2006). Administrators should establish the appropriate school culture to develop teachers 'knowledge and skills (Elmore, 2000) and support teachers' professional development (Usdan, 2000). In this respect, the role of administrators is to align organizational features with professional development (Clement & Vandenberghe, 2001). Teachers should consider their administrators as professional development experts and should expect the necessary support, information, and resources from administrators (Payne & Wolfson, 2000). However, school administrators cannot support teachers' professional development with their guidance (Çalık & Şehitoğlu, 2006; Ekinci, 2010). Because what administrators need to do in this regard is not determined in concrete steps. The dynamic approach can provide administrators with concrete steps and tools that they can implement. These steps and tools can be introduced to them through short-term training. Thus, barriers to the contribution of school administrators to teacher professional development can be removed. Therefore, it is important to develop a teacher professional development assessment scale that takes the dynamic approach as a basis. This research aims to develop the Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale for the use of school principals.

Theoretical Approaches to The Teacher Professional Development

The Competency Approach

The competency approach that emerged in the 1970s is based on the determination of the competencies of the teachers and the acquisition of these competencies by the teachers. This approach is also called as the performance-based approach (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). In order for the teacher to give an effective education in the classroom, all behaviors (questioning, homework control, etc.) that must be fulfilled have been revealed by research. When the teacher's classroom behaviors were divided into two categories as teaching and classroom management, it was discovered that teaching-related activities were directly influential in student learning (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). Therefore, it can be said that gaining the competencies that affect learning is the basic principle of this approach.

The steps to be taken in this approach are as follows: Program requirements are determined considering the practices of effective teachers, requirements are expressed as competencies (education and evaluation are closely related to competencies) and student progress is determined by evaluating competencies (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013, p. 18). Competencies must be measurable for monitoring and evaluation. Competencies, in the simplest terms, are what the teacher should know and do (Libman & Zuzovsky, 2006). It is also possible to differentiate the tools that need to be known and the results that need to be done (Chyung, Stepich, & Cox, 2006). In education systems where competencies are also called as teacher qualifications, if performance standards are clearly identified and followed, it is assumed that the quality of teaching and student performance will increase (Delandshere & Arens, 2001). In many developed countries, the standards-based education system has become widespread in line with this assumption.

This approach has become widespread in areas ranging from teacher education to professional development in the world, as teachers are expected to gain what they need to have and that teachers can be successful to the extent that they gain them. However, the competencies are too much to be taught and the difference of the competency lists determined in each application is against this approach as a disadvantage (Gore & Morrison, 2001). The division of teaching into hundreds of small particles leads to the illusion that it is a technical job, not a professional profession, and thus the mechanical perception of teaching prevents teacher autonomy (Patrick, Forde, & McPhee, 2003), creativity (Bathmaker, 2000) and critical thinking (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). Thus, rather than the most important aspects of education, the most measurable aspects of education are taken into account (Baines & Stanley, 2006; Delandshere & Arens, 2001). Moreover, there is no consensus as to what is meant as competence, ability or performance (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). Because of these disadvantages, the holistic approach has emerged.

The Holistic Approach

The holistic approach emerged as a response to the competency approach that sees the teacher as a technician and was inspired by Dewey's reflective thought (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). According to Dewey (1910, p. 6), reflective thought is “Active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends.” Reflective thought was also defined as thinking about what we do (Schon, 1983) and thinking about solving a problem that confuses the mind (Loughran, 2002). It is influenced by cognitive developmentalists such as Erikson and Piaget, who suggest that meanings are structured from experience and that individuals are internally motivated to be competent (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). Getting reflective thought into practice can be through the teachers who are capable of problem-solving and critical questioning, are self-monitoring, conduct experiments, and action research (Cornford, 2002). Reflective thought helps effective teachers to improve themselves and their students (Jones, 2014).

In the holistic approach, it is recommended to use observation, analysis, interpretation and decision-making strategies, action research, case study, field experiences, ethnography and micro-teaching methods (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). The holistic approach allows teachers to analyze and review their own practices, to see their strengths and weaknesses, and to prepare an action plan for them. It is assumed that teachers who know themselves, who can confront themselves, who consider the values underlying their teaching will develop professionally (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). However, the fact that the holistic approach lacks a theoretical framework, that its content is not clear, and that there is not enough research on its effectiveness constitutes a gap between theory and practice (Cornford, 2002). These negative aspects have been tried to be solved with the dynamic approach.

The Dynamic Approach

The dynamic approach consists of a combination of both the competency and the holistic approach. The purpose of combining the two approaches is to take advantage of the approaches and eliminate their disadvantages. The competency approach includes a large number of teacher competencies, which are not all of which can be taught (Gore & Morrison, 2001). The dynamic approach focuses on teaching only the teacher behaviors that ensure that education is effective. The holistic approach emphasizes the reflection of the teachers by reviewing their own practices, preparing their personal action plans and ensuring their professional development (Cornford, 2002). Also, in the dynamic approach, teachers can prepare their own action plans by reflecting on the nature of their practice. The dynamic approach did not fully accept the competency and holistic approaches but was inspired by them. According to the dynamic approach, it is necessary to meet the personal development needs of the individuals by differentiating both the competences and the reflections to the competencies. Because it is assumed that teachers are in different stages of development and that the professional development activity that suits a teacher may not fit the other (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013).

Based on the results of the research, eight factors that are effective at the classroom level have been determined in order to determine the developmental stages of teachers. These are orientation, configuration, questioning, teaching modeling, application, making the classroom a learning environment, management of time and assessment (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Antoniou, 2013). Orientation is that the teacher should inform the students about the objectives of the course, convince them that they need to learn the subject, encourage them to participate effectively, and make them find the lesson meaningful. The configuration is that the teacher starts the course with a review, presents the objectives of the course, presents the draft of the lesson to the students, informs the transition between the sections of the lesson, draws attention to the main ideas and summarizes the main points at the end of the course. Questioning is the teacher's directing various types of questions at the appropriate difficulty level for the students to participate in the class, allowing the students to take appropriate time, responding to the correct, inaccurate or incomplete student responses and providing feedback. Teaching modeling is to encourage students to solve problems and to develop new solutions. The application is that the teacher encourages students to practice what they have learned by setting them in small groups and giving them homework. Making the classroom a learning environment means that keeping the students related to the course and establishing the order in the classroom by creating the rules. Management of time is the teacher's effective use of the maximum time frame to connect students to the course. Finally, the assessment is that the teacher uses the right techniques to get feedback on student learning, analyzes the data to determine student needs, announces the results to students and parents and evaluates their own practices.

Method

Research Design

The survey model was used to develop the assessment scale. The research consisted of two phases. In the first phase, an already existing scale was adapted into Turkish. The resulting factor structure was not adequate to use it, for it has too few factors that suit to the dynamic approach. The approach employs 8 factors, but the adapted scale had only 2. Therefore, in the second phase, a new assessment scale was developed on the basis of the dynamic professional development approach.

Data Collection

For all phases of the study, permissions were obtained from İzmir and Artvin Provincial Directorates of National Education. Permissions to use the data collection instruments which were not developed in this study were also obtained from developers. All the participants filled the forms voluntarily. The administrators of the schools were informed about the research during the preliminary interviews to appoint the most appropriate time for data collection.

The students were provided with one-to-one guidance when filling the forms.

Data Analysis

Before the analysis of the forms collected from the students, missing or incorrectly filled forms were eliminated. The statistical analysis of the data transferred to the computer environment was done by the R programming language. Then, it was determined whether the data had a normal distribution. To determine the factor structure of the student observation form adapted to Turkish in the Turkish sample, to determine the construct validity of the developed scale and to confirm that the scale can be used in similar samples regardless of the population, confirmatory factor analysis was performed using the maximum likelihood estimation. Reliability, construct validity and criterion validity analyses were made while developing the scale.

Phase 1: Adaptation of the Student Observation Form

The student observation form was developed by Creemers and Kyriakides (2008) based on the dynamic professional development approach. The form consists of 49 items in a five-point Likert type, ranging from never (1) to almost always (5) (see appendix 1). The purpose of developing the form is to measure the perceptions of secondary school students about their teachers' teaching activities in the classroom. The reliability and validity of the form were established by various studies (Creemers & Kyriakides, 2008; Kyriakides & Creemers, 2008; Panayiotou et al., 2014). The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of the 8 factors were between α=0.67 and α=0.75. These factors explain 65% of the total variance.

A translation team has been established to adapt the original form from English to Turkish. This team consisted of 3 field experts, 2

Turkish language experts, and 4 English language experts. The form was first translated into Turkish by the English language experts one by one and then presented to the field and Turkish language experts. The translated items were scored by experts and the items with the highest score were brought together to obtain a new form. This form was then translated back into English by the English language experts who were not included in the first translation. The resulting form was compared to the original form. As a result of the comparison, the translations were repeated for items with significant differences and the final version of the Turkish form was given.

Secondary school students studying in İzmir were selected through the two-stage random sampling technique (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). Among the secondary schools in İzmir, 6 public secondary schools were determined by the simple random sampling technique in the first stage. The schools had 6176 students and 1500 students were selected by simple random sampling technique in the second stage. As a total of 979 returning forms were analyzed. The sample consisted of 487 males and 492 females from grades 5 to 8.

To determine the factor structure of the student observation form in the Turkish sample, confirmatory factor analysis was performed using the maximum likelihood estimation. This analysis is a set of statistical techniques in which multiple relationships among independent and dependent variables are examined (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In the interpretation of the analysis results, the statistical values called indexes that are χ^2/degree of freedom, RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation), NFI (normed fit index), CFI (comparative fit index), IFI (incremental fit index), RMR (root mean square residual), GFI (goodness of fit index), AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit index) are accepted as criteria (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). The index values of the student observation form, which were calculated by the confirmatory factor analysis, were compared with the ideal values stated in the literature (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Kline, 2011). As a result, an incompatible factor structure was determined (χ^2/df=3.30, RMSEA=0.59, NFI=0.60, CFI=0.68, IFI=0.69, RMR=0.13, GFI=0.77, AGFI=0.75).

Phase 2: Development of the Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale

Since it was found out that the student observation form adapted to Turkish did not have sufficient psychometric properties, it was decided to develop a new form suitable for Turkish Culture. The aim of the scale is to get the opinions of the teachers of secondary and high school students about the teaching activities in the classroom. The items have a five-point Likert scale ranging from never (1) to always (5). The scale measures the teaching-related characteristics that can determine the professional development level of the teachers from all branches.

In order to create a pool of items, the theoretical framework subject to measurement should be established. The theoretical framework of the dynamic approach was used in creating the item pool of the scale. 39 items were written according to 8 factors affecting learning. The items were presented to 3 experts from the field of education management. When 7 items were eliminated due to lack of expert agreement, 32 items remained in the draft scale. Four of the items must be reverse-coded during the analysis (see appendix 2).

For the development of the Student Professional Development Student Assessment Scale, the proposed steps in the literature were followed (Oppenheim, 1992). The steps to be followed in the development of measurement instruments are similar to each other in the literature (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2009; DeVellis, 2012; Saris & Gallhofer, 2014): 1) Identifying the need and purpose, 2) creation of a pool of items, 3) getting expert opinion, 4) pilot applications, 5) initial analysis, 6) determination of sample and application, 7) final analysis of factor structure.

In the step of identifying the need and purpose, issues such as the need for the development of the scale, its purpose and the content of the scale have been clarified by answering the questions suggested by Cohen and Swerdlik (2009, pp. 250-251). These questions and answers are as follows:

1) What will the instrument be designed to measure?

The scale is designed to determine the quality of classroom teaching given by teachers based on student perceptions.

2) What is the purpose of using the instrument?

It is aimed to determine the professional development needs of teachers with the scale. The level of professional development of the teachers will be determined and the necessary interventions will be made in order to reach higher levels.

3) Is there a need to develop the instrument?

For this purpose, it was understood that the scale of student observation scale previously developed by Creemers and Kyriakides (2008) was not suitable for use in Turkey.

4) Who will use the instrument?

School principals will use the scale to determine the professional development needs of teachers.

5) Who will answer the instrument?

The scale will be answered by middle and high school students.

6) What content will the instrument have?

The scale consists of items determined according to the factors on which the dynamic approach is based.

7) How will the instrument be implemented?

The scale will be answered by the students at certain times of the academic year.

8) What is the ideal scale of the instrument?

The scale consists of items graded in a Likert type which measures the frequency of classroom behaviors of teachers.

9) Do I need to develop more than one form?

There is no need to develop parallel forms. This is because the scale measures the teaching behaviors that can determine the professional development level of the teacher from any branch.

10) What kind of special training will be required for the application and interpretation of the instrument's users?

Application and interpretation of the scale do not require any expertise.

11) Who will benefit the implementation of the instrument?

As the implementation of the scale is aimed at increasing the quality of the teachers and thus better learning of the students, and ultimately gaining a better-educated society and contributing to the development of the country, the implementation of the scale can benefit the whole society.

12) Are there any possible damages from the implementation of the instrument?

Measures will be taken to protect confidentiality during the implementation of the scale. Students' credentials will not be collected, and the data obtained about the teachers will be shared with the teachers only.

13) How will the scores obtained by the instrument be understood?

The scores obtained with the scale will be used to interpret the professional development level of the teachers. Points will be meaningful according to the means determined by the dynamic approach.

For the first pilot application, a draft form distributed to all students in a secondary school and a high school determined to be randomly selected from Artvin province. The number of participants in the first pilot application was 311. For the second pilot application, the draft form distributed to all students in a secondary school and a high school determined to be randomly selected again in the same province. The number of participants reached was 256 in the second pilot application.

After the pilot applications, it is necessary to determine whether the items are compatible with the scale and to eliminate the incompatible items (Seçer, 2015). When the data obtained from the first pilot application were analyzed, item-total correlations higher than $r = 0.35$ were found except in 2 items. When the item-total correlations were examined after the last pilot application, item-total correlations higher than $r = 0.35$ were found in all items except 3 items. These 5 items were dropped from the final form.

A Two-stage random sampling technique was applied to form a sample (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). In 3 middle schools and 3 high schools determined by simple random sampling technique from Artvin province, there were 2315 students. Forms were distributed to 1000 students determined by simple random sampling technique. In total, 832 forms were analyzed. The sample consisted of 340 males and 492 females from grades 5 to 12.

Since the items of the form were written according to the 8 factors which constitute the theoretical basis of the dynamic approach, the factor model was constructed according to these factors and the fit of the model was tested with CFA. When the scales are developed according to a certain theoretical background, it is recommended that the CFA be done instead of EFA (Kline, 2011; Suhr, 2006). The values of the fit indices indicate that the model is compatible ($\chi^2/df=2.39$, RMSEA=0.05, NFI=0.90, CFI=0.93, IFI=0.93, SRMR=0.04, GFI=0.92, AGFI=0.90). In the confirmatory factor analysis, AVE (average variance extracted) value is examined for structure validity (Hair et al., 2010). Since AVE is a very strict criterion, it is sufficient to have a value of 0.50 and above (Malhotra & Dash, 2011). The final factor structure is presented in Table 1. The final structure consisted of 7 factors and 27 items (see appendix 3).

Table 1.

The Factor Structure of the Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale

Factors	Items	Factor Loadings	α	Variance %	AVE
Orientation	4	.71-.78	.83	15.00	78
Configuration	5	.56-.67	.77	11.00	69
Questioning	4	.47-.77	.76	8.77	.58
Teaching modeling	3	.70-.76	.79	7.89	.63
Application	3	.58-.82	.70	7.48	.64
Learning environment	4	.50-.61	.66	6.42	.52
Assessment	4	.47-.70	.70	6.31	.60
Total	27	.47-.82	.93	62.90	

A validity scale was used to test the criterion validity of the Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale. In Student Evaluations of Educational Quality scale developed by Marsh (1982, 1987) and adapted to Turkish by Özgüngör (2013), 11 items were used related to educational quality. The first four items belong to "Learning and Academic Benefit", the other four belong to "Classroom Interaction" and the last three belong to "Assessment" factors. The correlations between total points and scale factors (F1-F7) and between total points and validity scale factors (O1-O3) were significant and high ($r>0.70$, $p<0.001$).

Table 2.

Correlations Between Factors

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	Total	O1	O2
F2	.69**									
F3	.67**	.63**								
F4	.66**	.64**	.66**							
F5	.63**	.65**	.61**	.64**						
F6	.51**	.49**	.52**	.51**	.47**					
F7	.57**	.61**	.55**	.52**	.60**	.42**				
Total	.85**	.85**	.82**	.81**	.81**	.69**	.77**			
O1	.62**	.58**	.59**	.60**	.55**	.49**	.48**	.69**		
O2	.65**	.59**	.62**	.63**	.55**	.50**	.53**	.73**	.71**	
O3	.66**	.61**	.62**	.60**	.55**	.50**	.50**	.72**	.70**	.75**

**:p<.001

In order to confirm the factor structure of the developed scale in a different sample, the secondary school and high school students studying in İzmir were selected. Data were collected from the students who were volunteered in a secondary school and a high school. A total of 327 students participated. The index values calculated by the confirmatory factor analysis were compared with the ideal values stated in the literature (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Kline, 2011). As a result, an acceptable factor structure was determined (χ^2/df=1.76, RMSEA=0.04, NFI=0.98, CFI=0.99, IFI=0.99, SRMR=0.03, GFI=0.89, AGFI=0.87).

Conclusion

The Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale is a data collection tool consisting of 27 items under 7 factors and can explain 62.90% of total Hens. The items have a five-point Likert scale ranging from never (1) to always (5). The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of the factors range from 0.66 to 0.83. The factor loads of the items ranged from 0.47 to 0.82. The construct validity of the scale was confirmed by confirmatory factor analysis. The criterion validity of the scale was tested using a parallel scale. The scale measures the teaching-related characteristics that can determine the professional development level of the teachers from all branches. The scale is based on the dynamic professional development approach. The 7 factors are aligned with this approach. However, the scale cannot measure the time management factor. This is due to the items designated in that factor cannot capture student perceptions related to time management or maybe students cannot observe time-related activities of teachers. Future studies should try to focus on developing tools that can measure teachers' management of time. In conclusion, the scale developed in this research can be used to assess teacher professional development according to student perceptions. School principals can use the scale to determine the professional development levels of teachers and can make necessary interventions to achieve better quality in teaching.

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APPENDIX 1.

The Student Observation Form developed by Creemers and Kyriakides (2008)

After each statement, there are five numbers. Think carefully and put a circle around the number that most fits your opinion: 1) this never happens in your class, 2) this rarely happens in your class, 3) this sometimes happens in your class, 4) this often happens in your class, 5) this almost always happens in your class.	
1	In Mathematics, we start the lesson with things that are easy to understand. As the lesson goes on, what we cover is more difficult.
2	The teacher gives us exercises at the beginning of the lesson to check what we have learnt from the previous lesson.
3	At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher starts with what we covered in the previous lessons.
4	My teacher helps us to understand how different activities (such as exercises, subject matter) during a lesson are related to each other.
5	A few days before the test, my teacher gives us similar exercises to those that will be in the test.
6	My teacher tells my parents how good I am compared to my classmates when they visit her/him (or in my school report).
7	When the teacher is teaching, I always know what part of the lesson (beginning, middle, end) we are in.
8	When doing an activity in Mathematics I know why I am doing it.
9	When we go over our homework, our teacher finds what we had problems with and helps us to overcome these difficulties.
10	Our teacher has good ways of explaining how the new things we are learning are related to things we already know.
11	At the end of each lesson, the teacher gives us exercises on what we have just been taught.
12	During the lesson our teacher often covers the same things that we have already been taught or done exercises in.
13	The teacher immediately comes to help me when I have problems doing an activity.
14	The teacher gives more exercises to some pupils than the rest of the class.
15	The teacher gives some pupils different exercises to do than the rest of the class.
16	The teacher gives all pupils the chance to take part in the lesson.
17	Our teacher encourages us to work together with our classmates during Mathematics lessons.

18	Some pupils in my classroom work together when our teacher asks us, but some pupils do not.
19	Our teacher makes us feel that we can ask her/him for help or advice if we need it.
20	Our teacher encourages us to ask questions if there is something that we do not understand during the lesson.
21	During the lesson, our teacher encourages and tells us that we are doing good work (i.e. she/he says to us 'well done').
22	When we are working in teams, our teacher encourages competition between teams (If you do not work in teams, please circle the number one).
23	In Mathematics lessons, some of my classmates hide their work and answers so that none of the other pupils can see it.
24	When a pupil gives a wrong answer the teacher helps her/him to understand her/his mistake and find the correct answer.
25	When the teacher asks us a question about the lesson she/he asks us for the answer but does not ask us to explain how we worked out the answer.
26	When one of the pupils in the class is having difficulties with the lesson, our teacher goes to help her/him straight away.
27	There are some pupils in the classroom that tease some of their classmates during Mathematics lessons.
28	I know that if I break a class rule I will be punished.
29	The teacher has to stop teaching the class because one of the pupils is being naughty.
30	When a pupil gives a wrong answer in Mathematics class some of the other children in the class make fun of her/him.
31	Our teacher keeps on teaching us even though it is break-time or the lesson is supposed to be over.
32	When I finish a task before my classmates my teacher immediately gives me something else to do.
33	When the teacher talks to a pupil after they have been naughty, sometimes after a while, that pupil will be naughty again.
34	We spend time at the end of the lesson to go over what we have just been taught.
35	There are times we do not have the necessary materials for the lesson to take place (e.g. dienes, unifix, test tubes, thermometers, calculators, rulers)
36	There are times when I do not have anything to do during a lesson.
37	During a Mathematics lesson, our teacher asks us to give our own opinion on a certain issue.
38	Our teacher asks us questions at the beginning of the lesson to help us remember what we did in the previous lesson.

39	Our teacher uses words that are hard to understand when she/he asks us a question.
40	When we do not understand a question, our teacher says it in a different way so we can understand it.
41	When a pupil gives a wrong answer our teacher gets another pupil to answer the question.
42	When I give a wrong answer to a question the teacher helps me to understand my mistake and find the correct answer.
43	Our teacher praises all pupils the same when we answer a question correctly.
44	When we have problem solving exercises and tasks in Mathematics lessons, our teacher helps us by showing us easy ways or tricks to solve the exercises or tasks.
45	Our teacher lets us use our own easy ways or tricks to solve the exercises or tasks we have in Mathematics.
46	In Mathematics lessons, our teacher teaches us ways or tricks that can be used in different lessons.
47	Our teacher encourages us to find ways or tricks to solve the exercises or work she/he gives us.
48	I am there when my teacher talks to my parents for my progress.
49	When we are having a test, I finish up within the time given to us.

APPENDIX 2.

The Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale Draft Form (English Translation)

There are five numbers according to the frequency of occurrence of each expression. Please circle the number that best fits your thinking: 1) Never, 2) Rarely, 3) Sometimes, 4) Frequently, 5) Always		Factors
1	Our teacher informs us about the aims of the subject.	Orientation
2	Our teacher explains why we should learn the subject.	
3	Our teacher enables us to participate in the lesson effectively.	
4	Our teacher makes the lesson meaningful.	
5	Our teacher starts the lesson by reviewing what we have learned before.	Configuration
6	Our teacher starts the lesson by telling us what to do.	
7	Our teacher makes us feel the beginning, development and closing stages of the lesson.	
8	Our teacher draws our attention to the important points of the lesson.	
9	Our teacher finishes the lesson by repeating what we have learned.	
10	Our teacher helps us to attend the class by asking questions.	Questioning
11	Our teacher gives us enough time to answer the questions she/he asks.	
12	Our teacher guides us to find the right answer when we answer the questions incorrectly.	
13	Our teacher rewards our correct answers.*	
14	**We have difficulty understanding our teacher's questions.**	
15	Our teacher shows us how to solve the problems we face.	Teaching modeling
16	Our teacher asks us to find solutions for the problems we face.	
17	Our teacher helps us learn by ourselves.	
18	Our teacher asks us to work in small groups in the classroom.*	Application
19	We find the opportunity to apply what we learn in the classroom with the tasks assigned by the teacher immediately.	
20	Our teacher helps us to reinforce the new knowledge we have learned by making us to repeat them.	
21	The teacher's homework assignments allow us to repeat what we have learned in class.	

22	**There are times when our teacher fails to maintain discipline in the classroom.**	Learning environment
23	Our teacher has certain class rules.	
24	Our teacher prevents us from engaging in disruptive activities.	
25	**It is easy to spoil our teacher's lesson.**	
26	When our teacher enters the class, she/he starts the lesson without wasting time.*	Management of time
27	**There are times when our teacher finishes the lesson early and releases us.***	
28	The time allocated for a lesson time is passed in full.*	
29	Our teacher tells us about his / her opinion on our performance in the classroom.	Assessment
30	Our teacher conducts quizzes to determine how much we have learned before moving on to a new topic.	
31	Our teacher conducts oral surveys to determine how much we have learned before moving on to a new topic.	
32	If the teacher determines that we have not learned enough, she / he repeats the subject.	

APPENDIX 3.

Item Statistics of the Teacher Professional Development Student Assessment Scale Final Form

Item	***Mean***	***SD***	***Factor Loading***	***Item Difficulty***	***Item Discrimination***
1	3.91	1.07	0.713	0.78	0.646
2	3.63	1.22	0.705	0.73	0.62
3	4.17	0.98	0.742	0.83	0.668
4	3.92	1.14	0.784	0.78	0.682
5	3.8	1.13	0.671	0.76	0.594
6	4.03	1.08	0.604	0.81	0.541
7	3.42	1.2	0.602	0.68	0.543
8	4.41	0.94	0.613	0.88	0.581
9	3.43	1.2	0.564	0.69	0.515
10	4.08	1	0.716	0.82	0.644
11	4.1	1.09	0.772	0.82	0.668
12	4.4	0.91	0.710	0.88	0.602
14	4.03	0.9	0.472	0.81	0.424
15	4.15	1.03	0.754	0.83	0.66
16	3.99	1.09	0.761	0.8	0.662
17	3.74	1.13	0.701	0.75	0.628
19	3.07	1.24	0.584	0.61	0.554
20	3.92	1.1	0.822	0.78	0.734
21	3.98	1.18	0.670	0.8	0.594
22	4.04	0.98	0.614	0.81	0.497
23	3.91	1.17	0.503	0.78	0.466
24	4.18	1.06	0.561	0.84	0.439
25	4.03	1.12	0.612	0.81	0.481
29	3.59	1.18	0.494	0.72	0.429
30	2.88	1.33	0.470	0.58	0.402
31	3.08	1.28	0.569	0.62	0.504
32	3.8	1.2	0.697	0.76	0.636

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The Relationship Between Followership Styles and Leadership Styles

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Abstract

This study aimed at identifying patterns of the followership styles and their relation to the leadership styles of academic leaders as perceived by faculty members in public and private universities in northern Jordan. The researchers used the descriptive correlation approach. The Kelley's scale was adopted for the followership styles, and stellar's leadership scale for leadership styles. The study instruments were administered to a stratified random sample of 304 faculty members at (Yarmouk, JUST, Al-Bayt, Philadelphia, Ajloun Private University, Jerash Private University and Irbid Private University). The validity and reliability of the study tools have been verified. Chi-Square Goodness of Fit was employed to compare the expected with the observed distribution of frequencies. The results showed that the Exemplary followership type was the highest observed, followed by the pragmatic pattern and finally the Alienated and the Passive pattern. The results showed that the most prevalent leadership styles are the empowering, democratic, and autocratic. Study results also showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the leadership and the followership styles.

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Introduction

"The best of men for you to hire is the strong, the trustworthy." (Al-Qasas, vs 26). With these few words in their number, and the great in its meaning, the daughter of Shuaib - peace be upon him –summarized the importance of the availability of leadership qualities to occupy the leadership position, or as it is said today, put the right man in the right place. Leadership though, has an important and effective role to play in achieving the goals. The leader is as the captain of the ship who holds the reins of his hand; either he achieves his goals successfully or fails to do so and this eventually will affect the entire crew.

Hassan (2004) noticed that, leadership is a collective role since no one can be a leader alone, but can exercise leadership by actively participating in a group within a given situation. Thus, the leadership is the interaction of the leader and subordinates in a certain situation, each of these parties has a unique network that branch in several directions and intersect these networks with each other, and the network of these collective internal relationships is the real basis for the success of any institution. Institutional work passes through these invisible infrastructures (Chaleff, 2009) and failure to establish effective communication leads to the extinction of institutions. The basis of effective personal communication is how to listen to others. If the leader listens well he will offer a suitable climate in the relationship between the employee that climate which motivates individuals to accept opinions and ideas willingly (Black, 1957).

Leaders and followers account for the breakthroughs or breakdowns in organizations. However, leaders are often portrayed as the element that 'makes or breaks'. By contrast follower's role is undervalued or neglected. Followers are treated as 'silent or passive participants' rather than assertive doers. That is why leadership literature and research studies are "leader-centric" while followership received scant attention staying on the periphery rather than at the core of leadership research. Although some leadership scholars referred to the role of followers since 1960s (Zaleznik, 1977), they did not assign an active role to them. Searching for references on leadership and followership confirms the wide gulf in favor of the former (Chaleff, 2009; Ye, 2010; Kellerman, 2008). Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson and Morris (2006) attribute the pause of research on followership to the negative connotations of 'followership' as this term conjures up weakness, submission, passivity and dependence. A follower may be thought of as a person who is on the receiving end occupying a lower position in the hierarchy. Rost (1994) mentions that followers are usually viewed as "passive, submissive, unintelligent, not in control of their lives…". As Bjugstad et al. (2006) put it followership is both under researched and under-appreciated. However, followership is an imperative irrespective of any negative association. Moreover, there is no way to escape the 'disproportionate influence'. The fact is that most people act both as superiors and followers or only as followers and rarely a person plays the "superior" role all the time (Williams and Miller, 2002).

The interest in followership intensified since the 1990s, when scholars of management recognized the importance of followership in giving the organization a competitive edge. Conversely marginalization of followers may lead to their indifference and resistance. In sum, there is no leadership without followership. Kelley

(1992) stated that followers account for 80% of the success of organizations.

Several developments contributed to the increased interest in the role of followers; the globalization and the concomitant phenomenon of diversity in the workplace made it imperative for organizations considering the follower's role in the success of the firms. Diversity and change in the workplace highlight the need for examining dynamic relationships in more depth as organizations have become more complex. The advent of the information age and the "Knowledge based economy" made followers more expressive, empowered and engaged and thus transferred leadership from the hierarchy to the parallel, horizontal and distributive forms (Fujita et al., 2009). The expanding social networks and the growing empowerment of followers through their ability to access information more easily erodes the barriers between the traditional hierarchical echelons (Cross & Parker, 2004; Bjugstad et al., 2006) and calls for more flexible leader-follower relationships (Hackman & Wageman, 2007). This 'change' of glasses revealed the need for empirical studies. Uhl-Bien (2006) considered the paucity of research on followership in organizations a significant gap that should be bridged. Henry (2012) holds that studying followers is essential to understand the role due to the mutual relationship between both sides of the coin (leaders and followers).

Awareness in institutions of the importance of the role of followers spawned a series of empirical studies in firms as well as institutions of education and higher education where leadership positions are often rotated so that many academics time and again assume leadership positions. Oyetunji (2013) called for studying the behavior of followers in higher educational institutions. Strong and Williams (2014) considered the students as followers whose behavior is worthy of research from this perspective. Although number of academics do not assume leadership positions, their influence on students inside and outside universities make them intellectual leaders. Murji (2015) finds it ironic to concentrate on the leadership part of the equation, while ignoring the followership despite the fact that leadership is the sum of mutual relationship between leaders and followers. Murji adds that the systematic review of research, books, articles and conference papers show that our interest is concentrated mainly on leaders rather than on followers. As we in the higher education prepare the leaders of the future, we should prepare them to understand the followership, she adds, suggesting that researching the followers is a new research line in its right own rather than a secondary variable. This is not meant to ignore the leadership research but is an approach from a different perspective.

Review of research on followership points to different lines of inquiry. Earlier studies analyzed types of followership styles (Kelley, 1992; Thody, 2003; Chaleff, 2009; Beekun and Badawi, 1999). Later researchers searched for correlation between followership and other concepts. Favara (2009) investigated followership styles and their relationship with job satisfaction and job performance. Almgheib (2016) studied the predictive power of followership style of followers' work outcomes in Libya. Ibrahimi (2016) investigated the correlation relationship between followership styles and organizational performance. Novikov (2016) studies the impact of followership styles on both 'in-role behavior' and 'organizational citizenship behavior'. Nejad, Naami and Beshlideh (2015) researched the relationship between followership styles and job motivation and job performance. Bjugstad et al. (2006) worked to articulate a model that combines followership styles and leadership styles. In his attempts to conceptualize the influence tactics in organizations (Yukl & Chavez, 2002; Yukl, 2013) addressed the upward and downward influence that is the influence practiced by followers on leaders and the influence practiced by leaders on followers. Expressed otherwise the relationship between followers and leaders flow in two directions rather that a one-way direction.

Despite the relative recent visibility of the studies on the followers' role there is still lacunae in research from more than one perspective. Kellerman (2008) holds that although theories and models were developed to understand the followership styles more research is needed to see how those theories are applied. Novikov (2016) believes that the findings on followership behavior are so far not conclusive therefore there is need for 'future empirical research on the relationship between followership patterns of behavior and other organizational dimensions and variables". Kelley (1992) emphasized the significance of conducting research in Non-Western cultures as "Other cultures" generate different followership styles. Fujita et al. (2009) pointed to the role of culture in determining leaders-follower's relationship in six Asian countries. By the same token, Mohammad and Saad (2016) found that followers in the Malaysian culture show patterns of behavior that are related to a strong 'power distance' as coined by Hofstead. Thomas (2014) compared followership styles in two cultural contexts: American and Rwandan. The above observations of Kelley (1992), Fujita et al. (2009) and Mohammad and Saad (2016) provide support and justification to investigate the followership behavior in non-Western culture. It is within this context that this study of the followership styles is conducted in Jordanian universities as there is a dearth of research on the topic in this part of the world as far as the researchers are informed. The researchers found only few empirical studies on the subject in Arab countries. Only one of them is in Arabic language (Alfaouri, 2002) while the others were in

English (Behery, 2016; Al mgheib, 2016; Al-kalbani, 2015). Metcalfe & Murfin (2011) pointed to the deficit in the literature of research evaluating the impact of contemporary theories of followership on follower work outcomes in developing countries in the Middle East.

Statement of Problem

The role of followers in organizations has been attached special significance in the last two decades (Barnhart, 2008; Johnson, 2009). Empirical research studies followed suit (Chaleff, 2009; Henry, 2012). However, there is still a paucity in research on the followership and followership-leadership relationship compared with the studies on leadership and leadership styles which are firmly established in the legacy of educational leadership (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Arabic language literature is still dominated by leadership focused studies (Oplatka & Arar, 2017) and is almost reticent on followership. The present authors being academics affiliated with a university in North Jordan feel that the Arabic legacy on educational administration concentrates on leadership with a shy attention to the role of followers except to the extent that it may be annexed to the role of leaders. The authors submit that the role of followers should be investigated as an independent topic. Out of this concern the researchers conducted this research study which solicits answers for the following main and sub-questions:

The Main Question is “What are the followership patterns of behavior shown by the academic staff at Universities in Northern Jordan”. From this main question the following sub questions emanate:

1- What are the most followership styles practiced by the academic staff as perceived by academic staff at the universities of Northern Jordan?

2- What are the most leadership styles practiced by academic leaders as perceived by academic staff at the universities of Northern Jordan?

3- Is there any statistically significant relationship between leadership styles and followership styles as perceived by academic staff at the universities of Northern Jordan?

Significance of the Study

The study is expected to contribute to the burgeoning literature on followership by providing data from different settings. The researchers assume as well that the study may be useful to policy and decision makers in the immediate setting of the study and beyond.

Terminology

"Follower" as Kellerman (2008, p. 213) defines is a person with less power, authority and influence compared with the leader. The former provides support to the latter in a mutual relationship. The definition of "follower" in this study is: A faculty member in the universities of Northern Jordan, who did not occupy an administrative position at the time of the study, which gives him/her the authority to decide in his/her department.

Followers' styles are types of behavior produced by followers and measured by the research instrument developed for this purpose.

According to Al-Sakarneh (2010, p. 27) a leader is " the person who is influenced by the needs of the group, expresses the wishes of its members and then focuses attention, and unleashes the energies of the members of the group in the desired direction". The definition of "Leader" in this study is: A faculty member who holds academic position at the universities of Northern Jordan, which gives him/her the authority to make decisions in his/her organizational units such as department heads, deans and others.

Leadership styles are types of behavior produced by leaders while performing their roles and will be measured in this study by the instrument developed for this purpose.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

The study is limited to identifying the types of the followers' styles and leadership styles in the universities of North Jordan as perceived by the academic faculty in those universities in the first term of academic year 2017-2018. The findings could also be affected by the research tools and methodology and the extent of honesty in responses of participants.

Review of Related Literature

This part starts with the significance attached by researchers to followers and followership, followed by an account on the followership patterns, leadership styles and the relationship between followership patterns and leadership styles.

Significance of Followership

Researchers highlighted the importance of the role of followers and the significance of studying followership behavior. Barnhart (2008) and Johnson (2009) hold that the role of followers is not less important than the role of leaders and that both enhance each other. Corrothers (2009) described the relationship between both as that which exists between 'water and fish'. Hackman & Wageman (2007) and Antelo (2010) are of the view that leaders sometimes play the role of followers and the latter show sometimes the behavior of leaders.

Typology of Followership Patterns

Having established the significance of followers and followership researchers embarked on categorizing the behavior of followers. Kellerman (2008) reported the following typology of followers: "Isolates", Bystanders", "participants", "Activists" and "diehard". Chaleff (2009) classified the followers into the 'Implementer', Partner', 'Resource', and 'Individualistic'. However, it is Kelley's categorization which is the most widely used and is used in the current study. Therefore, the researchers will elaborate on it. Kelley (1992) classified followers into five categories:

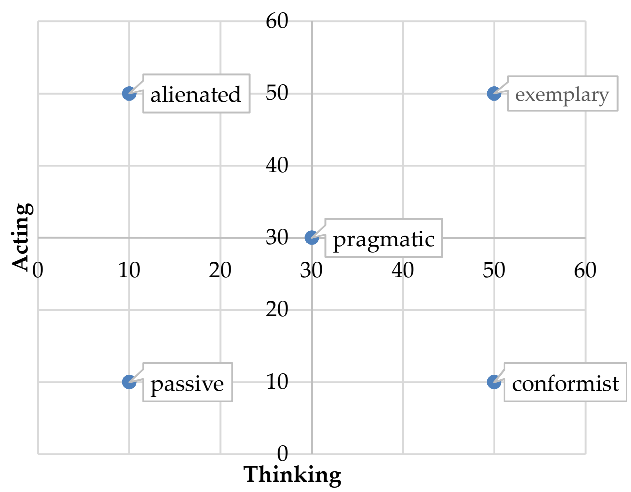
1. The 'alienated' follower is competent, independent and critical thinker, but has a sense of 'no belonging' to the organization probably as a result of a perceived feeling of ignorance and under appreciation. He does not hide his feelings, but rather expresses his different views, his resentment and dissatisfaction. He does not have a high level of job satisfaction and may gradually lose job loyalty and motivation which leads to under performance. In general, he needs to be empowered and emancipated from negative feelings to get out of this alienation.

2. The "passive" follower is a dependent under-enthusiastic person. He lacks the capacity to perform tasks on his own; lacks innovation and ambition. Quickly he feels subdued and fatigue. In sum, he is ineffective and avoids tasks that need independent thinking or act. He does not invest extra time to complete tasks much less to go extra mile to accomplish them. He neither challenges instructions nor discusses their suitability.

3. "Mr. Yes/The conformist" appreciates the decisions of leaders and diligently implements them, but never critically participate in taking them or discuss the method to implement them. He does all his best to satisfy his leader literally and maintain a good relationship with him. He is happy with his job and maintains a friendly environment with defined parameters. He executes instructions without queries or quarrels and finds that through that he serves his personal interests. Therefore, he is prepared to sacrifice and compromise own needs to satisfy the leader or the organization. He has a low level of courage, initiative and sense of innovation.
4. "The exemplary" follower is prepared to initiate acts and inquire from leaders. He ponders the consequences of acts prior to undertaking those acts. He is interested in perfection and distinction; fits properly with colleagues, provides support and enlightened criticism. He is not reluctant to withdraw support from incompetent leaders without interrupting the institutional performance. He goes to the utmost to serve the best interests of the organization. He can configure what is required and works to accomplish it. He subscribes to the vision and mission of the organization, has the skills of self-management and evaluation and is interested to leave his impact on the organization.
5. "The pragmatic" follower projects the characteristics of the above types of followers and apply the type that is suitable to the situation. He prefers his interest to the interest of the organization. He carries out tasks, but not beyond expectations. When the organization faces a dilemma, he tries to walk out, but not necessarily to rescue the organization.

Figure 1.

Kelley Followership Model



(Kelley, 1992, p. 97)

Leadership Styles

The Lewin, Lippit and White model of leadership styles has been described as the most widely cited studies in the history of leadership research and the benchmark study of its time (Billig, 2015). According to this model, leaders show the following three types of leadership styles:

1. "The Autocratic style" draws on and ab(uses) the official authority to coerce followers to execute instructions. An autocratic leader monopolizes power and set forth directions of work for all employees. This reflects badly on productivity, job satisfaction and performance. It may have a short-term positive

effect on productivity and may bring about discipline, but this may disappear with the absence of the leader.

2. "The Democratic Leader" derives power from human relationship. He gives freedom and trust to followers, takes a decision via consultation and keeps channels of communication open with employees at different levels so that individuals feel they are respected, important and appreciated.
3. "The Laissez-faire" style provides a wide space for followers to choose and decide for themselves. The leader keeps a low profile and may not have the final word, but without sacrificing the goals of the organization.

The above model was extended by many authors. Daft (2008) for instance, proposed four types of leadership styles (the authoritarian, participative, stewardship and servant). This study extended the above model to include the "Empowering Style" which is influenced by the ideas of empowerment, organizational learning, and the theories of parallel, distributive, horizontal, accommodative, servant and transformational management that emerged in the last few decades (Peachey, 2002; Hakimi, Knippenberg and Giessner, 2010; Konczak, Stelly & Trusty, 2000; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). The thread that goes through these theories is that it is in the best interests of the organization to empower employees and make them responsible and accountable for their acts, decisions and problem solving after exchanging information and ideas with the empowering leader (Dierendonck & Dijkstra, 2012; Wong & Giessner, 2016). Such follower-centered theories seem more likely to empower followers and make them as partners to achieve important objectives. (Pearce, Yoo & Alavi 2004).

Aziri, Mazllami & Sulejmani (2016) wrote about newly emerging issues in leadership such as the " Subordination" issue, through which a leader is seen as the leader of subordinates who are parties to a process that complement each other. New issues also include different perceptions of the leader who has control versus "Leaders as Coaches " who help other to develop skills and obtain information. The article also examined the subject of "Ethical Leadership" which is based on ethical beliefs and values such as honesty, trust, and mutual respect. Finally, "Virtual Leadership", which revolutionized the workplace by providing a high level of responsiveness and flexibility, eliminating time and space barriers (Mehtab, Rehman, Ishfaq & Jamil, 2018). In addition, the concept of Leadership in our time examines many topics such as Aesthetic Leadership, Servant Leadership, and Leading with love.

Leadership and Followership Relationship

Researchers investigated the relationships between followership and many other constructs such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and engagement. Others examined the relationship with leadership theories: the transformational and servant theories to cite but few (Hollander, 2009; Winston & Hartsfield, 2004; Cerff & Winston, 2006; Rittle, 2007). This current study seeks to unearth the relationship between followership and leadership styles. One of the earliest models to articulate this relationship was Garen and Cashman's "Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX Model)" (Fujita el al., 2009). Drawing on the social exchange theory the LMX model conceptualized a reciprocal relationship between supervisors and followers that influences the performance of the organization (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). They pointed to the followers' influence (upward influence and impression management tactics) that denote actions taken by a follower to advance a personal or organizational goal of influencing the boss. Bjugstad et al. (2006) presented a model for matching leadership and followership style drawing on Kelley's conceptualization of followership on the one hand and Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory on the other. The present study employed Kelley's followership model and the leadership styles typology as elaborated above.

Jordanian Universities and the Education System

Universities are social institutions that can make a useful and constructive contribution to sustainable development and raise the level of education and scientific research, services and various issues that affect society in all aspects, in addition to contributing effectively to the renewal of the life of society. Therefore, the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan attaches great importance to these higher educational institutions in order to become highly competitive and able to provide the community with lifelong learning experiences related to its current and future needs (Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research, 2019).

Most universities in Jordan apply the American University model based on the credit hour system, which gives students flexibility in choosing the number of hours, Morning or Evening. There are ten government universities, mostly affiliated with universities in the United States and the United Kingdom. There are also 17 private universities recognized at the level of Arab countries and some foreign universities, such as the American University. Jordanian universities attract a large number of Arab and non-Arab foreign students every year (Ibid, 2019).

Stages and degrees (Wikipedia, 2019):

- Degree of middle university diploma (diploma): a community college and two years.
- Undergraduate degree (bachelor): six years for medicine, five for engineering and pharmacy and four years for other.
- The second degree (Master): The duration of the study from one to two years, there are also non-Jordanian certificates in some private foreign universities equivalent to the Jordanian Master's Degree (DEA) Diploma of Advanced Studies (Diplôme d'Etudes Approfondies) German Masters (Magisterstudium), and MBA (Business Management) for experienced students.
- Third degree: Doctorate (Doctoral) duration of study from three to five years, in very limited disciplines such as Sharia and Arabic.

Previous Studies

This part includes studies on the behavior of followers and leaders, some researchers were interested in classifying followers' behavior, others looking at prevailing patterns, some linking patterns and other variables. Studies will be presented from oldest to newest.

Alfaouri (2002) conducted a study aiming at identifying the factors that influence a follower to accept the power of his superior. A sample composed of 213 employees of the bottom management in Muata University was administered a questionnaire for this purpose. The findings revealed that self-understanding and preparedness of the follower work to make him accept his superior. The responses were affected by some demographic variables such as sex, academic qualification and years in service while the responses were independent of the age and position of respondents. In a study conducted by Johnson (2003) on the relationship between the followership styles and leadership styles in some selected schools in Jackson, Mississippi, a sample of 500 hundred teachers and 8 principals were administered two questionnaires one for the followership styles and another for the leadership styles. The findings revealed that followership styles correspond with leadership styles. The majority of followers seemed to emulate their leader's general style. Based on this finding the author concluded that competent, visionary, inspiring and stimulating leaders will predictably have followers who demonstrate similar traits. Responses were independent of the demographic variables.

Beever's qualitative study (2008) on the followers' styles in the light of the principles of the servant leadership used interviews with five of the nursing professors at two universities one is a small religiously oriented university and the other is a public university. The followers reported exemplary followership styles characterized by openness, caring, honesty, respect, trust and integrity which correspond to the characteristics of Kelley's 'exemplary' follower.

Favara (2009) conducted a study to examine followership styles and their relationship with job satisfaction and job performance. This non-experimental study employed a quantitative survey design with a set of surveys returned representing 131 employees at a Midwestern automotive engineering and manufacturing company. The three standardized instruments used in this study include the Followership Questionnaire (Kelley, 1992), the Job in General Scale (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989), and the Organizational Citizenship Behaviors scale (Williams &Anderson, 1991). Findings indicate that a significant positive relationship exists between followership styles and the two organizational variables job satisfaction and job performance. The findings enhance the theoretical study of followership by providing empirical evidence needed to validate further research

In Thailand Ye (2009) conducted a study to identify teachers' followership styles and Leadership styles in international universities in Thailand. The sample comprised 365 randomly selected instructors from a number of universities. The study found that (1) Followership styles from the most to the least frequent were pragmatist or exemplary followership, conformist followership, alienated followership and passive followership. (2) Study on Leadership Styles showed that most leaders were using Participative leadership, followed by Delegative leadership and Autocratic leadership. (3) To some extent; Autocratic leadership was likely to produce passive followers; (b) Participative leadership was likely to produce exemplary or pragmatist followers; and (c) Delegative leadership was likely to produce pragmatist or conformist followers.

Smith's study (2009) related the characteristics of followers' styles as categorized by Ricketson (2008) which includes (responsibility, service, challenge, change and ethical behavior) and some demographic and organizational variables besides organizational culture. The sample comprised 661 staff in 27 community colleges in Virginia. The findings revealed a correlation between responsibility and age, educational level, specialization and tenure. On the other hand, the service was related to sex, rank, specialization, tenure and organizational culture. The challenge was related to age, specialization and organizational culture. Change was related to tenure, sex, specialization and organizational culture. Finally, ethical behavior was related to tenure and age.

Ammon (2013) conducted a study on the relationship between teachers and principals from the perspective of followers in some secondary schools in Victoria, Canada. The researcher employed questionnaires and interviews and concluded that the 'exemplary' follower style is the prevailing among teachers. The responses were affected by demographic variables.

Oyetunji's study (2013) aimed to determine if there is a significant relationship between followership styles in relation to job performance. A total of 102 randomly selected lecturers from the two private universities completed followership and job performance questionnaires. The data indicate that in Botswana private universities: (a) followership styles include passive, alienated, pragmatist and exemplary followership styles. The most common followership style among the lecturers is pragmatist followership style. (b) There is no relationship between exemplary, pragmatist and alienated followership styles and job performance (c) there is a high relationship between passive followership style and job performance.

Walia, Bansal & Mittal (2015) conducted a study entitled 'Relationship Between Leadership Style And Followership Style' to measure the relationship between leadership styles and followership style (i.e. Independent thinking and Active Engagement) using 79 usable questionnaires obtained from employees who are working in Delhi NCR, showed important findings by using Pearson Correlation analysis: first, the most preferred style of leadership is Participative leadership style; second, Exemplary style of followership is most preferred followership style; third, Participative leadership is not significantly correlated with Independent & Critical thinking.

Nejad et al. (2015) conducted a research study to compare different kinds of employees in terms of their job motivation and job performance. The statistical population consists of 320 employees of various parts of an industrial organization in Iran who were selected through the stratified random sampling. The researchers employed valid tools and scales for assessing the variables of this study. The analysis of variance was used for data analysis. Findings show that there are significant differences between various followers in their job motivation and job performance and Scheffe follow-up tests revealed that exemplary and conformist followers had substantially higher numbers of these job outcomes than other followers. The researchers concluded that leaders and mangers of an organization should regard the worthwhile roles of their followers in the achievement and productivity of the organization.

Mohammad & Saad (2016) conducted a study to examine how the followership was constructed and how identities were enacted within the 'power distance' culture. It is a qualitative study, utilizing in-depth interviews with 20 employees in the Malaysian higher education sector, using purposive sampling. Findings demonstrate that in higher 'power distance' culture, the followers were more of dependent type with subdued behaviors, high obedience to higher authority and conformity to the leaders' directives. In organizational studies, these prominent features need to be embraced appropriately so as not to be the inhibiting factors to the development of creative and innovative society, as has been laid out in the country's transformation plan and strategies to achieve the developed nation that is able to compete in the global arena.

In a questionnaire study that employed the Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis Ibrahimi (2016) sought to explore the perceptions of executive academic officers in a number of eight Malaysian universities regarding the followership styles as predictors of developing effective leadership. Quality management system was introduced a mediating variable. A sample of 395 of the executive officers in eight Malaysian universities participated in the study. The results revealed statistically significant relationship between the followership styles and leadership development.

Al Mgheib (2016) examined the relationships between leadership styles, followership behavior and three work outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work engagement) in Libya. A deductive approach is employed, using a questionnaire to collect data from 667 participants, from 141 work groups, from across 24 Libyan public sector organizations. The findings suggest that followers with high levels of performance characteristics demonstrate positive attitudes of job satisfaction and work engagement, while those who have strong relationship characteristics are associated with positive levels of work engagement. It also suggests that followers' relationship characteristics alongside transformational leadership predict follower organizational commitment. The study suggests that managers should adopt an appropriate leadership style to achieve the desired follower work outcomes and organizations would benefit from investing in followership development to enhance these work outcomes. Specifically, followers should be educated on how their characteristics might affect not only their own performance, but also that of their leader. Finally, organizations should recruit employees who exhibit positive characteristics that enable them to be more engaged in their work when this behavior is desired for achieving the job task.

Behery (2016) called for a new conceptualization of leadership and organizational identity with the followership styles introduced as a mediating factor. A sample of 847 employees from different sectors in the United Arab Emirates were administered three measures one to measure the transformational leadership acts, another for the followership styles and one of the organizational identity. The main result is that the 'exemplary' behavior adds value to the organizational success.

Oplatka & Arar's (2017) study aimed at analyzing the leadership and the educational management researches in the Arab world since 1990 on a sample of 48 documents, the results of these analyses indicate that the vast majority of research focus on the style of leadership methods, and the directions and the barriers that the leader is facing when applying the leadership Models.

Afshari, Moein, Sharifi-Rad & Balouchi (2017) carried out a comparison of leadership patterns using a descriptive approach. A questionnaire was distributed to 300 faculty members at Zabol University of Medical Sciences in Iran. The study didn't show any significant evidence that could be attributed to gender, but statistical differences that could be attributed to practical experience.

Munir & Iqbal (2018) conducted a study to identify the leadership styles of principals in colleges of women and to find out the relationship between leadership styles and level of job satisfaction. The data were collected by using the Survey method from the selected sample comprising 1005 college teachers from 100 colleges all over the Punjab in India. Leadership style was identified using leadership style questionnaire and job satisfaction was measured by using job satisfaction questionnaire. Data were analyzed with the help of descriptive and inferential statistics. The major findings revealed that democratic leadership style is the most practiced leadership style in women colleges and this style has a positive and significant correlation with job satisfaction.

The above review of research shows that the followership studies are still in an embryonic or at best in a nascent stage in Arabic scholarship and research. The present study converges with some other studies in investigating followership styles and their relationship with leadership styles. It benefited from other studies in the design of the study and the general framework and in benchmarking the results.

Method

Participants

The population of the study consisted of all academic staff at the private and public universities in Northern Jordan (Yarmouk, JUST, Irbid Private University, Jadara, AlAlbait, Philadephia, Jerash Private University and Ajloun Private University). A random sample of 304 academic staff representing 10% of the population was selected. Table 1 displays the population and sample:

Table 1.

Population and Sample of the Study

University	Population	Sample
Yarmouk	1052 (33.9)	102 (33.6%)
JUST	994 (32%)	98 (32.3%)
Irbid Private University	80 (2.6%)	8(2.6%)
Jadara	137(4.4%)	14(4.6%)
Al-Bayt	266 (8.5%)	25(8.2%)
Philadelphia	282 (9.1%)	28(9.2%)
Jerash Private University	193 (6.2%)	19(6.2%)
Ajloun Private University	100 (3.2%)	10(3.3%)
	3104 (100%)	304(100%)

The figures in table 1 show an uneven distribution of the population and the sample as more than 50% are affiliated with the two core universities, Yarmouk and JUST both are public universities.

Method and Procedure

Kelley's questionnaire (1992) was used for the followership styles. It consists of 20 items evenly distributed along two dimensions: critical thinking (items 1,5,11,12,14,16,17,18,19 and 20) and effectiveness (items 2.3.4.6.7.8.9.10.13.and 15). Stellar's questionnaire was used for the leadership styles. It consists of 30 items distributed on three dimensions: the autocratic (items 1.4.7.10.13.16.19.22.25 and 28) the democratic (items 2,5,8,11,14,17,20,23,26, and 29) and the empowering (items 3.6.9.12.15.18.21.24.27 and 30). Translation-Back-Translation was used to ensure the accuracy of language. Face validity was used to ensure that the instruments measure what they claim to measure. A panel of 13 academics of Jordanian and Qatar universities was requested to judge the suitability of the questionnaires and accuracy of language. The internal consistency of the instruments was tested through Cronbach Alpha. A pilot study of 20 academics of the population was administered the initial instruments. Cronbach Alpha ranged between (0.78 and 0.79) for the followership styles and (0.71-0.84) for the leadership styles which are adequate for the purposes of the study.

Data Analysis

To answer the questions of this study these methods are used:

1. The items representing every particular dimension were computed, then represented in the figure of followership styles to identify the intersecting point between the two groups (X and Y axis). In the ideal situation the numerical value on both

axes represents the "exemplary" followership style; the numerical value > 35 on the acting axis and < 25 on the thinking axis represents the 'conformist' style. Values (25-35) represent the "pragmatic" style. Values > 35 on the thinking axis and < 25 on the acting axis represent the "alienated" style. Finally, values less than 25 on both axes represent the 'passive' style. Such as (40 on acting, 45 on thinking = Exemplary) or such (20 on acting, 40 on thinking = Alienated), Then Chi-Square Goodness of Fit was used to reveal the values for each style.

2. To answer the second question, the total number of paragraphs represented for each field was calculated, the type of the largest value obtained by each style was adopted and considered as the practiced style, then used The Chi-square (X2) Goodness of Fit to reveal the values for each style.
3. The third question was answered by computing the "agreement Coefficient" of followership styles and leadership styles.

Results

Question number 1: What are the most followership styles practiced by academic staff as perceived by academic staff at the universities of Northern Jordan?

Table 2.

Chi-Square Goodness of Fit Regarding Followership Styles

F Styles	Observed N	%	Expected N	Residual	Standardized Residuals	DF	Chi-square	Sig.
1. **Exemplary**	272	89.4	60.8	211.2	27.31	1		
2. **Passive**	1	0.3	60.8	-59.8	-7.75	1		
3. **Pragmatic**	30	9.86	60.8	-30.8	-3.93	1	927.67	0.00
4. **Alienated**	1	0.3	60.8	-59.8	-7.75	1		
5. **Conformist**	0	0.0	60.8	-60.8	-7.87	0		
Total	304	100				4		

* *statistically significant = 0.05*

The figures in Table 2 suggest that there is a statistically significant correlation relationship at (α=0.05) between the observed and expected frequencies of the followership styles as tested by Chi Square Goodness of Fit. The computation of the standardized resultant points to significant difference between the observed and expected styles. The findings show that the exemplary behavior ranked first (89.4%), followed by the pragmatic style (9.86%) then the conformist, passive and alienated styles which were almost not prevailing.

Question 2: What are the most leadership styles practiced by academic leaders as perceived by academic staff at the universities of Northern Jordan?

Table 3.

Frequencies, Percentages and Chi-Square Regarding Practiced Leadership Styles

Leadership Styles	**Observed N**	**%**	**Expected N**	**Residual**	**DF**	**Chi-square**	**Sig.**
Autocratic	89	29.3	101.3	-12.3	1		
Democratic	93	30.6	101.3	-8.3	1	6.401	0.041*
Empowering	122	40.1	101.3	20.7	0		
Total	304	100			2		

* *statistically significant = 0.05*

The figures displayed in Table 3 show that all leadership styles are practiced with different levels as follows: The empowering (39.4%), the democratic (30%) and the autocratic (28.7%). Chi-square results suggest that the discrepancy is statistically significant.

Question Number 3: Is there any statistically significant relationship between leadership styles and followership styles as perceived by academic staff at the universities of Northern Jordan?

Table 4.

The Relationship Between Followership Styles and Leadership Styles

		Followership Style	Exemplary	Passive	Pragmatic	Alienate	Conformist	Total
LS	Autocratic	Number	80	0	9	0	0	89
		%	26.3%	0.0%	3.0%	0.0%	0.0%	29.3%
	Democratic	N	83	0	10	0	0	93
		%	27.3%	0.0%	3.3%	0.0%	0.0%	30.6%
	Empowering	N	109	1	11	1	0	122
		%	35.9%	0.3%	3.6%	0.3%	0.0%	40.1%
Total		N	272	1	30	1	0	304
		%	89.5%	0.3%	9.9%	0.3%	0.0%	100.0%
X2		3.15						
Sig.		.789						

The figures given in table 4 show that there are no statistically significant differences between the followership and leadership styles.

Discussion

1- The first finding revealed by this study was that "a considerable percentage of participants replied that they project the "exemplary" style", that is they reflect critically on and engage to their best in their work. This finding may be lent support by the findings of previous studies (Beever, 2008; Ammon, 2013). VanDoren (1998) found that 75% of the respondents used exemplary followership, 22% used a pragmatic style and 3% conformist style. Alienated or passive styles were not used. The finding of this study also lends support to the findings revealed by Ye's study in Thailand (2009) regarding the followership styles reported by teachers at

Thailand International universities but the rank order was different. While the exemplary pattern ranked first in this study Ye's descending order of followership styles was as follows: the pragmatist, exemplary, conformist, alienated and finally passive. It is highly probable that the prevalence of the 'exemplary' behavior is the function of the academic profession being one of the most respected and service-oriented professions. The advanced education and preparation of academics is more likely to make them aware of and dedicated to their noble mission (Strong and Williams, 2014; Oyetunji, 2013). The pragmatic style came second, which is a logical result as it is not reasonable to expect all academics to be 'exemplary' all the time. Some people sometime are expected to be realistic with practical considerations. It could be that 'exemplary' does not mean necessarily "idealism" much less "over idealism". Generally speaking, this finding converges with the finding arrived at by Ibrahimi (2016) who found that except for the 'conformist' all other followership styles are practiced with different levels.

2- The second finding was that "all three leadership styles are displayed by the academic leaders at the universities of Northern Jordan with different percentage". This finding comes in contrary to the main followership style namely the 'exemplary' style practiced by participants in this study". The likelihood is high that the participants gave an ideal picture of themselves but gave a more realistic picture of their leaders. Another possibility is that the 'role expectations' and 'reference groups' of both categories are different. Leaders are accountable before a higher echelon in the management therefore academic leaders have to balance 'democracy' and 'empowerment' with using 'power'-related mechanisms such as applying laws and bylaws. Expressed differently they use both the soft and hard power. This mixture of soft and hard power may reflect a gradual shift from the "colleagueship' model according to which universities were traditionally run to the recent 'managerialism corporate' model which is 'busnocratic' model that calls to manage universities as any other business (Tight, 2004). This finding converges with the finding revealed by Ye (2009) and Walai et al. (2015) who found that the most used leadership styles practiced by leaders were the participative, followed by the delegative then the autocratic.

3- The present study did not find any significant relationship between the followership and leadership styles. This finding is not congruent with the mainstream literature and research. Bjugstad et al. (2006) anchored his integrated model on matching followership styles to leadership styles. Johnson (2003) found a correlation between the leadership and followership style. Similarly, Uhl-bien et al. (2014) related the passive style of followers to the autocratic style of leaders and the exemplary style to the empowering style. Ye (2009) found that to some extent the autocratic leadership was likely to produce passive followers, participative leadership was likely to produce exemplary or pragmatist follower; delegative leadership was likely to produce pragmatist or conformist follower. Whatever the reason this issue needs further investigations.

Recommendations

Based on the findings the researchers recommend:

- As the followership styles are still an under researched topic, despite its importance further research is needed using different methodologies and in different settings
- As followership is still under appreciated further research re-conceptualization should be reconsidered to remove the negative 'stigma' which has been attached to it
- As the finding did not show a significant relationship between followership and leadership styles further research is needed to articulate the relationship between followership and leadership styles.

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APPENDIX

Follower's behavior styles						
	Paragraph	**Always**	**Usually**	**Sometime**	**Rarely**	**Never**
1	Does your involvement help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you.					
2	Are your personal goals aligned with your student organization's priority goals.					
3	Are you highly committed to and energized by your involvement and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance.					
4	Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your peers.					
5	Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organization's priority goals.					
6	Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the organization and its leaders.					
7	When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes that are important to the organization and its leaders.					
8	Can the leader of your organization give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing you					

	will meet your deadline with high-quality work.					
9	Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your role.					
10	When you are not the leader of a project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share.					
11	Do you independently think of and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the organization's goals.					
12	Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical, organizational, etc) rather than look to the leader to do it for you.					
13	Do you help your peers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit.					
14	Do you help the leader or organization see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if needed.					
15	Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to meet them					
16	Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation					
17	Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader's decision rather than just doing what you are told.					
18	When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes".					

19	Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards					
20	Do you assert your views in important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or leader					
Leaders' behavior styles						
	Paragraph	**Always**	**Usually**	**Sometime**	**Rarely**	**Never**
1	My Boss retains decision-making authority in his inner circle.					
2	My boss tries to involve one or more of us in decision-making while retaining ultimate decision-making power.					
3	We and the boss vote when major decisions are made.					
4	My boss ignores our suggestions.					
5	My boss asks us to make suggestions and ideas for the future plans and projects.					
6	Major decisions must have the approval of the majority of us.					
7	My boss tells us what to do and how to do it.					
8	My boss calls for meeting to listen to our advice when things go in the wrong direction.					
9	In order to activate participation in the opinion, my boss uses e-mail, voice mail and memos.					
10	When things do not go as my boss wants, he informs us and record his remarks.					

11	My boss affords a key working environment where we feel that the project and the decision are ours.					
12	Our boss allows us to decide what to do and how.					
13	Our boss prevents the new staff to do initiative actions in the workplace.					
14	My boss seeks to know our work vision and take it in his consideration.					
15	My boss realizes that we know about our job more than him, so he leaves us to make decision about our work.					
16	When things do not go as my boss requires, he makes a new plan and commits us to do it.					
17	Our boss allows us to set priorities under his guidance.					
18	My boss delegates duties to us to carry out the work.					
19	My boss is observing how things are going to make sure we do the job.					
20	When our boss's vision differs from ours, we work together to resolve the dispute.					
21	Our boss gives us full responsibility to decide our duties.					
22	The main power is vested in him by his career name.					
23	My boss uses his vested power to help us develop.					
24	My boss prefers sharing power with his employee.					
25	My boss directs the employee to achieve the organizational objectives.					
26	My boss prefers self-management if we committed to work objective.					

27	My boss realizes that it's our right to decide our organizational goals.					
28	My boss thinks that things do not go on the right route without him.					
29	My boss realizes that we know how to use our potential to solve organizational problems.					
30	My boss sees that we can lead ourselves as well as.					

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Book Review

Reforming Education in Developing Countries: From Neoliberalism to Communitarism

By: Izhar Oplatka

London: Routledge
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Book Review

Copious literature has been published concerning educational reforms and the factors that influence and challenge their success in improving education systems in developed states (see: Cuban, 2013; Green & Luehrmann, 2007; Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009; Levin, 2001; Riggs, 2006;). Scholars have discussed this issue from a comparative viewpoint, relating to the effect of reform on administration, and policy-making and even examined psychological aspects of the education staff who perform the reforms. However, there has been very little scholastic consideration of reform in developing countries, despite the growing evidence that culture, context and regime shape the appearance of an education system. The similarities and differences between societies and their cultures have formed the subject matter for educational research, analyzing the effect of these factors on the shaping of education. It has become clear that the particular values, norms and behaviors prevalent in developing countries may differ substantially from those in developed countries and this obviously affects the functioning of the education systems in these countries and any efforts to introduce change (Oplatka, 2019). According to Philips and Schweisfurth (2014), comparative studies of education systems in different countries help to promote the emergence of an increasingly sophisticated conceptual framework aimed at describing and analyzing education phenomena and promoting intercultural fertilization of knowledge and practice.

Although, Levin (2001, p.19) stated: "Education reform consists of programs of educational change that are government-directed and initiated based on overtly political analysis". Educational reform is therefore a complex phenomenon involving ideological, political, structural and organizational aspects and the need to consider human history and culture. While Oplatka (2019) adds: Reforms aim to transform existing structures, regulations and processes to improve the functioning of the education system. Yet, Wrigley et al. (2012, p.4) expanded this definition, explaining that:

> *Educational change involves negotiating a tangle of taken-for granted ideas, practices, identities, histories, and deeply held 'truths', bringing about change in systems that have evolved over long periods of time, and in which there are powerful vested interests committed to the status quo. It is not an easy matter but requires hard intellectual and emotional work against the odds and, often prevailing policy trends (p. 4).*

Building on scholarly views in the field of international educational administration, which note the diversity between different education systems due to different cultures, organizations, communities and behaviors and relying on the 'communitarian' approach, Izhar Oplatka argues that developing countries need educational reforms that are tightly entwined into their cultural, social, and organizational contexts. Criticizing the main elements of neoliberalism in education he questions the applicability of neoliberal reforms in developing societies. He highlights the critical role of community and suggests new and alternative lines of thought when initiating and implementing educational reform in developing countries.

The author clearly has profound knowledge of the studied issue from his previous research that clarified the way in which culture influences the nature of educational administration. Moreover, his studies concerning different levels of educational change and leadership in developing countries have made an outstanding contribution to this field, meaning that he is most suitable to write such an important and unique manuscript. The book explains extant scholastic thinking about reform relating to terms such as "shared leadership" and "community a step forward". It documents the different streams of research and scholarship, pointing up the key role of cultural and social contexts in educational change. Relying on the work of Levin (2001), the author notes that the difference between successful and failed reforms can be attributed to the influence of the larger social context.

The book is divided into ten chapters. The first chapter lays the conceptual foundation noting the diverse cultures and societies that influence the nature of educational reforms and changes in different contexts. It points up the need for recognition of diversity that has been shown to influence the perception of educational reform, its nature, substance, procedures and practices. The author discusses how educational reforms that detach themselves from understanding and sensitivity to the experiences and cultures for which they were intended, have withered and failed. He relates to situations where the reform constituted a sort of clash between different projects. The chapter concludes with a clarification of the behavior of principals and teachers as they are formed by the culture, values and norms that shape their attitudes and functioning patterns in schools. The author stresses that: "It is likely then that the dominant cultures in traditional and transitional societies will have a greater impact on the implementation of externally designed reforms (Oplatka, 2019, p.7)".

Against this background the author stresses that it is impossible to import knowledge to change the appearance of an education system, school or its management, from other states in which the knowledge was created. This is because of differences between the two locations in values, culture and norms. Although the motivation for change in an education system is primarily economic, relating to the need to train the next generation to contribute to future economy, nevertheless, globalized programs cannot ignore local culture and cultural and organizational structures which influence the functioning of the school and its teaching and learning styles.

The second chapter describes the main features of neo-Liberal reforms in the world's education systems, and criticizes the nature of these reforms and their achievements. The chapter's summary questions universal, particular and neutral dimensions involved in neo-Liberal educational reforms.

In Chapters Three and Four, the author outlines a conceptual distinction between modern (developed) and traditional (developing) societies including different regime characteristics, cultures, norms, socio-economic structures. The author clarifies differences between current neoliberal reforms and the characteristics of traditional societies. This distinction, is sharpened through the definition of terms such as "national development", "modern theory". Confronting two distinct models one with the other the author compares the supposedly "sublime" model of modern society with traditional society. This sets the foundation for the clarification of the failure of imported educational reforms in developing societies, due to the contradictions that their introduction produces in the structural dimension and in teaching and learning practices in these societies, where the teacher stands at the center of pedagogic work. The author summarizes the main reasons for the failure of these reforms.

Chapter Five establishes the basis for an alternative way of reforming education in developing countries by presenting the main characteristics of the communitarian perspective, the theoretical framework that underlies the book. Chapter Six describes major educational ideologies and beliefs in non-Western societies that are not widely known in educational theory and practice in the developed world. In Chapter Seven, the author returns to discuss the key role of local communities in reform implementation in developing countries and allows us to better understand the educational perspective and worldviews of people in developing countries. At this point, the author highlights philosophical writing over many centuries concerning education that evolved in Asian and African societies (eg. Confucian, Islamic and African education) allowing the reader to form an alternative view of reform implementation in these countries. Needless to say, as the author clearly points out in Chapter Seven, any education reform that ignores the role of education in preserving community and its heritage and avoids recognition of its role in education, is doomed to failure.

As a researcher of educational administration and leadership, apart from the significant contribution of the first seven chapters, I found Chapters Eight and Nine were most enlightening, since they suggest a method for the introduction of reform in developing countries, at the macro-level (Chapter 8) and at the micro-level (chapter 9), while setting the cultural element at the forefront of reform. The author suggests three distinct stages to guide such reform that necessitate the involvement of the local and educational communities, highlighting the need for collaboration to bring about the consensual change of norms and behaviors. The author suggests that there should be an integration of both modern and traditional (indigenous) educational purposes and values. He draws an interesting picture of the way in which it is possible to overcome the challenge of change, with a culture-sensitive strategy for change in developing societies.

I sincerely recommend this book. The reader should especially note the last chapter, Chapter 10 that succinctly summarizes the underlying theoretical rationale of the book, the prominence of culture in any educational reform and the essential differences between different cultures that hinder the success of imported neo-Liberal reforms that attempt to impose a "one size fits all" solution to the ills of education systems in the developing world. The author clarifies that the way to overcome the contradictions between global solutions and particular local solutions is to initiate dialog and enlist the community, and to acknowledge difference, avoiding coercion and unification. Finally, the author offers a dynamic model for the construction of reform in developing countries at the state level, with initiative to be shared with stakeholders in the education system and also at the level of the school-community.

The book concludes with an epilog, from which I quote the author's words:

> *I wrote this book to evoke policymakers, reformers, change agents, school members, and community leaders to think 'out of the box' during their attempts to reform the local education system in developing world. In my view, reformers in this world face a host deep potholes and ought to cross them in ways rooted in the culture and society (Oplatka, 2019, p. 158).*

To sum up, this book offers new strategies to better schools in developing countries. The plausible contribution of this manuscript, beyond shedding light on the particular needs of educational systems and educators in developing countries, the book joins those who aim to at improving the quality and relevance of education worldwide in the generation and identification of knowledge for effective policy-making.

The book is a treasure trove of information and will interest educational researchers, students of educational policy and educational leadership, researchers studying educational reform at the systemic and school level, and those interested in comparative education and the sociology of educational systems in developing countries. Moreover, the book provides a special contribution to policy makers and suggests "culture and context sensitive" methods for educational intervention that can inform supervisors, principals and leading education teams. Above all, the book offers interesting perspectives and ideas to promote critical thinking and the development of new understanding concerning educational reform and change.

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