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SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS AND EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Towards a South-Eastern Europe Research and Public Policy Agenda

Edited by
Nikša Alfirević
Josip Burušić
Jurica Pavičić and
Renata Relja

School Effectiveness and Educational Management

Nikša Alfirević • Josip Burušić • Jurica Pavičić • Renata Relja
Editors

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ISBN 978-3-319-29879-5 ISBN 978-3-319-29880-1 (eBook)
DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1

Library of Congress Control Number: 2016939240

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Printed on acid-free paper

This Palgrave Macmillan imprint is published by Springer Nature
The registered company is Springer International Publishing AG Switzerland

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CHAPTER 1

School Effectiveness and Educational Management: Editorial

Nikša Alfirević, Josip Burušić, Jurica Pavičić, and Renata Relja

Abstract This chapter provides a brief overview of the entire Palgrave Macmillan volume dedicated to school-effectiveness and educational-management research, focused on South-Eastern European research and its public-policy agenda.

This volume looks at the specific role and practices of school principals who are positioned as a nexus of educational management in schools. They are supposed to meet the requirements of the local communities and the educational-policy public simultaneously, while adhering to a rational use of school resources and exercising leadership. This requires balancing diverse stakeholder requirements, while still being able to implement contemporary management tools and approaches, in order to function against the backdrop of a specific economic reality.

There is a vast array of contributions in the existing literature concerning individual aspects of school management, leadership, governance, and other relevant educational topics. Nevertheless, we found it quite difficult to provide a concise volume presenting a practical overview of school effectiveness and educational-management topics which would at the same time focus on specific aspects of educational systems in South-East Europe. Consequently, the research team, located at the Croatian Centre

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_1

of Scientific Excellence in school effectiveness and management research, decided to create such a volume, keeping primarily in mind the needs of a diverse set of potential readers. We have striven to address the needs and interests of actors from the South-East European region, as well as to provide thought-provoking reading for those interested in educational-management and school-effectiveness issues viewed from a slightly different perspective.

The volume starts with a high-level overview of the school effectiveness concept, provided by Josip BURUSIC, Toni BABAROVIC and Marija SAKIC VELIC, in which a basic review of the historical development of school-effectiveness research is provided, the most important methodological approaches and advances in contemporary school-effectiveness research are described and the main findings of empirical studies of school effectiveness in South-Eastern Europe, with special emphasis on studies conducted in the Croatian primary-education system, are presented. Aiming to cover the fundamentals of the principals' stakeholder orientation, Jurica PAVICIC, Niksa ALFIREVIC, Goran VLASIC, Zoran KRUPKA and Bozena KRCE MIOCIC discuss contemporary public and non-profit marketing theory as implemented in the school environment. A contribution by Sanja STANIC, Darko HREN and Ivanka BUZOV concentrates on communicative and managerial practices with the local community and its actors, as well as with actors in the wider society.

The second part of the volume looks 'inside' schools and concentrates on principals' managerial and leadership practices. These are addressed in a chapter on educational management authored by Dijana VICAN, Niksa ALFIREVIC and Renata RELJA, as well as in a contribution on educational leadership provided by Dijana VICAN, Renata RELJA and Toni POPOVIC. Additional perspectives are provided by two groups of authors. Ina REIC ERCEGOVAC, Morana KOLUDROVIC and Andreja BUBIC discuss the educational and administrative aspects of school governance, focusing primarily on school boards and their relationship with principals. The discourse of democracy in school governance, viewed from stakeholders' viewpoints, is introduced by Marita BRCIC KULJIS and Anita LUNIC.

The concluding chapter addresses the practical challenges of marketing and educational-management/leadership practices, as well as the research

agenda, which is envisioned as a way to design and implement innovative policies and educational-management approaches in South-East Europe and beyond.

We hope that you will enjoy reading this volume as much as we enjoyed editing it. Please feel free to forward us your comments and feedback.

CHAPTER 2

School Effectiveness: An Overview of Conceptual, Methodological and Empirical Foundations

Josip Burušić, Toni Babarović, and Marija Šakić Velić

Abstract This chapter provides an overview of the conceptual, methodological and primary empirical foundations of school-effectiveness research. Explanations of the concepts of educational quality, effectiveness and efficacy are provided, and the main research findings regarding school and educational effectiveness are presented, along with a basic review of the historical development of this area of research. The most important methodological approaches and advances in school-effectiveness research in the areas of construct operationalization, criteria selection, data analysis and research design are then described. Finally, some important findings from empirical studies of school effectiveness in South-Eastern Europe, with a special emphasis on studies conducted in the Croatian primary-education system, are presented.

In the literature focused on theoretical considerations and research in the field of educational studies, we are faced with different views on the concepts of quality, effectiveness and efficiency in education, as well as with different interpretations of their meanings (e.g., Barnett, 1992, Carmichael, 2002). In addition to defining individual concepts that jointly point to the effectiveness in education, other fundamental issues are related with approaches to the assessment and measurement of these concepts, as well as the methods and levels of considering certain performance indicators. The final part of this chapter provides results of empirical studies in

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_2

the field of educational effectiveness, primarily those obtained in South-Eastern Europe and in the Croatian primary-education system.

1 Conceptual Foundations: What Are Quality, Effectiveness and Efficiency in Education?

It is difficult to provide a unique definition of *educational quality* that would be well-suited for diverse environments and circumstances, as well as the values, desires and goals of all stakeholders involved in education (Adams, 1993; Bramley, 1995; Chapman & Adams, 2002; Harvey & Green, 1993; Scheerens, 2004; UNICEF, 2000). In a general sense, educational quality refers to achieving the desired standards and goals, or, as Creemers and Scheerens (1994) have pointed out, quality refers to those characteristics and factors in the functioning of the school as a whole that contribute to explaining differences in outcomes among students in different grades, schools and educational systems. Although such definitions emphasize the final objective, they fail to provide a clear description of the specific characteristics resulting in quality schools and education, that is, an explanation of what quality actually implies.

Consequently, numerous authors have tried to identify and more closely describe the components of educational quality, and to provide more specific definitions of this construct. Vlăsceanu, Grünberg and Pârlea (2004) define educational quality as a multi-dimensional, multi-level and dynamic concept that refers to the contextual setting of education, the mission and the objectives of an institution and the specific standards of an educational system. According to Hawes and Stephens (1990), quality is the outcome of three types of effort: success in the achievement of set goals; appropriateness in human and environmental circumstances; and the "something more" evident in the exploration of new ideas, striving for excellence and encouragement of creativity. Adams (1993) believes that educational quality can be approached from diverse perspectives and by considering the different aspects and goals of education. Hence, educational quality can have different meanings depending on whether one focuses on diverse components and stakeholders in education, their interests, outcomes and educational process, or if one seeks to encompass all the characteristics of education. Scheerens (2004) agrees with this explanation of educational quality, joining the previously described aspects of educational quality into a conceptual framework of school effectiveness. He sees educational effectiveness as a productive system in which available

material and human potential are transformed into educational outcomes, simultaneously considering these processes in specific contextual conditions. UNICEF (2000) has adopted a more comprehensive approach to educational quality, with an emphasis on the complexity of education and the need to adopt a broad and a holistic perspective on quality. This has to include students, context, processes, environment and outcomes as interrelated dimensions that mutually affect one another. Hence, although the definitions of educational quality differ, the present authors agree that it is important to consider all aspects of education in defining educational quality. Consequently, quality refers to the availability of financial resources, qualifications of the educational staff, characteristics of students, teaching and grading procedures and, finally, different outcomes that include knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour.

Although the concepts of educational quality and *educational effectiveness* are frequently used synonymously (Adams, 1993; Chapman & Adams, 2002; Riddell, 2008; Sammons, Hillman, & Mortimore, 1995), they tend to differ considerably. Educational effectiveness can be defined as the degree to which an educational system, and its components and stakeholders, achieve specific, desired goals and effects. Since, in the context of educational systems, goals and effects are represented in terms of achievement, an educational system that contributes to greater student achievement is considered more effective than another educational system (Sammons, 2007; Scheerens, Glas, & Thomas, 2007; Vlăsceanu, Grünberg, & Pârlea, 2004). Within an educational system, the term "school effectiveness" is used to describe the differences between schools (Goldstein, 1997), and hence a school that contributes to a greater extent to the achievements of its students is considered more effective (Bezirtzoglou, 2004). The research has primarily focused on the identification of factors that determine educational effectiveness (Chapman, 1979; Edmonds, 1979; Klitgaard & Hall, 1974; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Riddell, 2008; Sammons, 2007; Townsend, 2007), as well as on the development of models of school effectiveness (e.g., Creemers & Scheerens, 1994; Creemers & Kyriakides, 2006; Scheerens & Creemers, 1989).

Researchers in the field of educational effectiveness are faced with a socially delicate issue pertaining to the question of whether education should aim at excellence, or whether the primary goal of education is to reduce educational inequality and achieve educational equity. The latter idea promotes social justice by aiming to reduce the differences in

educational achievement between students of diverse socio-economic backgrounds or with different abilities. Contemporary research on educational effectiveness combines both approaches. It has been shown that favourable characteristics of schools contribute most to the improvement of disadvantaged students (e.g., Kyriakides, 2004; Scheerens & Bosker, 1997). This leads to a general increase in educational achievement of all students in a school, particularly disadvantaged ones, which results in excellence and the reduction of differences between students, in turn leading to educational equity.

Why are Quality and Equity in Education Important and How Can They Be Achieved?

OECD (2012) has recently published a report entitled *Equity and Quality in Education*: *Supporting Disadvantaged Students and* ***Schools***. The report points out that school failure can have lifelong adverse effects on an individual as well as on society, and should be prevented by assuring quality and equity in education.

At the beginning, the report states: "The highest performing education systems are those that combine equity with quality." (OECD, 2012, p. 3). In equitable education systems, all students can attain necessary knowledge and skills, irrespective of their personal and social backgrounds (e.g., students with different socio-economic backgrounds do not differ in their attainment of knowledge and skills).

Several recommendations on how to ensure quality and equity, prevent school failure and promote completion of upper-secondary education are provided:

- Grade repetition should be decreased;
- Selection and tracking of students should be postponed to upper-secondary education;
- The choice of schools should be controlled to prevent an increase of inequality;
- Strategies of funding should take into account and be adapted to the needs of schools and students;
- Upper-secondary education pathways (e.g., academic and vocational) should be designed in such a way to support the completion of this level of education; and

(*continued*)

(*continued*)

- Schools with high numbers of disadvantaged students should receive support for improvement.

Source: OECD (2012). *Equity and Quality in Education*: *Supporting Disadvantaged Students and Schools*. OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264130852-en

Some authors emphasise methods for achieving effectiveness, which brings us to the third important concept: *educational efficiency*, which can be defined as quality performance or achievement of maximum results using minimal resources, effort or time (Hawes & Stephens, 1990; Wideman, 2003; Windham, 1990). When educational effectiveness and educational efficiency are compared, it can be concluded that efficiency implies effectiveness, with the additional requirement that the latter is achieved with minimal possible expense (Scheerens & Creemers, 1989; Scheerens et al., 2007). An educational system is considered effective when educational outcomes are achieved through investment of fewer resources and less effort, or when maximum outcomes are achieved in relation to invested resources.

2 Methodological Foundations: How Should Educational Effectiveness Research Be Conducted?

Educational Effectiveness Research (*EER*) presents a broad concept that connects an array of research approaches in diverse fields of education, whose common goal is to explore and identify the features of teaching, curriculum and environment in which the educational process occurs, at the levels of the classroom, school or broader community, to explain, directly or indirectly, the differences in student educational outcomes (Creemers, Kyriakides, & Sammons, 2010). Education-effectiveness research aims to provide answers to questions such as: What are the key features that make a good school? What makes a successful teacher? What do we need to do in order to have a greater number of excellent schools?

What Are the Key Characteristics That Make Schools Effective?
There are different models of school effectiveness aimed at explaining and determining what makes schools effective. Generally, several correlates of effective schools have been proposed (Kirk & Jones, 2004; Lezotte, 1991):

- Clear school mission developed in agreement between and shared by the principal and teachers;
- High expectations shared by school staff that students can succeed and teachers can help them succeed;
- Effective instructional leaders who reinforce the school mission and vision;
- Students are provided with opportunity and time to learn, and teachers have clear expectations regarding what to teach, as well as adequate time to teach;
- The school environment is safe and orderly, and cooperation and respect are stimulated;
- Positive school-home relations are fostered, and parental involvement in school is stimulated;
- Student progress is frequently monitored and the results used to improve performance.

Sources: Kirk, D. J., Jones, T. L. (2004). *Effective Schools.* Pearson Assessment Report; Lezotte, L. (1991). *Correlates of effective schools: The first and second generation*. Okemos, MI: Effective Schools Products, Ltd.

2.1 History of Educational-Effectiveness Research

Most authors believe that the origins of educational-effectiveness research can be traced to the reaction of researchers to the findings of fundamental research on equality of educational opportunities by Coleman et al. (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972). These authors have used different approaches, sociological and psychological, and achieved a unique and strong, empirically founded conclusion: Differences in students' school achievement can be primarily explained by their abilities and social status, while the role of schools in explaining levels of educational achievement is negligible. These findings

caused a strong reaction and encouraged the development of educational-effectiveness research. The first empirical research on educational effectiveness dates back to the end of the 1970s when Edmonds (1979) and Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston and Smith (1979) proved there was a specific effect of schools and school environment on students' educational outcomes. Soon, a broad range of research studies were conducted using similar methodology, and during the 1980s a scientific field focused on educational-effectiveness research was established (Kyriakides, 2006). Most analyses of educational-effectiveness research mention several chronological phases of development (e.g., Creemers et al., 2010; Creemers & Kyriakides, 2006; Reynolds, Teddlie, Creemers, Scheerens, & Townsend, 2000; Reynolds et al., 2014). These phases clearly show changes in basic research questions during specific periods of time, as well as the development of theoretical concepts and methodology in the field.

The first phase encompasses the period of the beginning of the 1980s, when the principal objective was to show and prove that different characteristics of teachers and school environments have a specific impact on student educational outcomes. The research within this early phase primarily showed and proved the importance of effective teachers and school environments for student achievement, and this impact was especially evident among specific groups of students who had initially been disadvantaged (e.g., socio-economically disadvantaged groups or ethnic minorities).

The second phase of research dates back to the end of the 1980s and early 1990s, when educational-effectiveness research primarily focused on identifying the correlates of educational effectiveness and positive student educational outcomes. In this phase, multi-level and hierarchical methods of data analysis began to be used (Goldstein, 1995). Using these statistical methods, researchers managed to prove the existence of school effects, the stability of these effects through time and the consistency of these effects on diverse measures of student educational outcomes. The final result of this research phase was a specific list of characteristics of both teachers and schools which proved to have a positive impact on student educational achievement (e.g., Levin & Lezotte, 1990; Scheerens & Bosker, 1997).

The third phase occurred during the 1990s and the first years of the new century, and was characterised by the development of several models of educational effectiveness (e.g., Creemers, 1994; Scheerens, 1992) and their robust empirical examination. These models aimed at explaining why and how specific factors that operate at diverse hierarchical levels—at

the levels of students, teachers, classes and schools—affect student educational outcomes. These explicit and clearly defined models of educational effectiveness encouraged internationalisation of research aimed at examining cross-cultural invariance of educational-effectiveness models. Empiricists became aware of the models' applicability, and hence stronger links between theoretical research and practical application were created (Reynolds, Hopkins, & Stoll, 1993).

The fourth phase came about at the beginning of the new century and is ongoing as of this date. Throughout this phase, educational-effectiveness research has focused on the study of its dynamic nature. The factors affecting student educational achievement are not considered to be inherent, stable and unchangeable characteristics of schools or teachers. The fact that characteristics vary over time is increasingly taken into account, as well as the fact that their impact can change depending on the measure of student achievement. Moreover, such factors can have diverse impact among different groups of students. This type of approach leads to the development and application of new methodological and statistical approaches and the appearance of new models, such as the *Dynamic Model of Educational Effectiveness* (Creemers & Kyriakides, 2006).

In Short: How Did Educational-Effectiveness Research Change Over Time?

- First phase (1980s): Attempts to prove that teachers and schools have certain effects on the achievement of students.
- Second phase (1990s): Attempts to determine the correlates of school effectiveness and catalogue the characteristics of effective schools.
- Third phase (2000s): Attempts to develop models of school effectiveness that encompass factors at the levels of students, teachers, classes and schools.
- Fourth phase (current): Attempts to explore the dynamic nature of school effectiveness that take into account the changing nature of its components.

Suggested readings: Creemers et al., 2010; Creemers & Kyriakides, 2006; Reynolds et al., 2000; Reynolds et al., 2014.

2.2 Defining the Criteria of Educational Effectiveness

The fundamental issue in the measurement of educational effectiveness, for which a unique solution has not been provided to date, concerns the best criteria of educational effectiveness. In other words, which educational outcomes are considered good indicators of school or teacher effectiveness? Many outcomes were considered fundamental throughout different phases of historical development of educational-effectiveness research. During earlier phases, measures of frequency were primarily used, such as the number of students who continued their education in secondary schools or at university level, frequency of grade repetition or the number of children involved in special education. It was subsequently recognised that these measures significantly depend on other external factors, not only on specific characteristics of schools or teachers, and were hence abandoned. Other measures were gradually introduced, primarily related to achievement in school subjects such as mathematics and native language. Further progress in effectiveness measurement was achieved through implementation of control measures, such as student background knowledge or the socio-economic status of families. Most current research uses standardised objective tests of student achievement as a measure of educational effectiveness in specific curricula. These objective measures of academic knowledge are most frequently developed and implemented at the national level or developed through large international projects (e.g., PISA, TIMMS).

Nevertheless, educational-effectiveness research has been increasingly criticised for its excessively narrow focus on measurement of academic knowledge. A large number of researchers started to raise questions about whether the acquisition of knowledge in school subjects is the most important educational objective, and especially whether this is the most important objective of public education (e.g., Sosniak, 1994). In the current post-modern society, schools need to focus on transfer of social values, development of social and artistic skills and, primarily, on the development of the capacity to transfer, evaluate and synthesize knowledge, as well as on metacognitive skills. Consequently, the future challenge of educational-effectiveness research is to develop reliable and valid measures of different educational outcomes, in addition to narrowly cognitive ones, using multi-faceted educational-effectiveness criteria.

2.3 Approaches to Operationalisation of Educational Effectiveness

Operationalisation of educational effectiveness refers to the issue of how best to measure the effects of schools' and teachers' characteristics on student educational achievement. Good operationalisation of effectiveness is a methodological challenge for all studies in this field, while the accuracy of their conclusions and a grasp of their scientific findings largely depend on the success of this operationalisation. Study-design limitations are always present as the result of organisational, material or technical conditions, and hence operationalisation of effectiveness is not always optimal. It is rather a matter of convenience and depends on specific conditions. Furthermore, approaches to operationalisation of educational effectiveness have changed and developed over time. Contemporary research manages to overcome some constraints of previous research through advanced methodological and statistical approaches. The general classification of operational definitions of educational effectiveness was provided by Scheerens and Bosker (1997) and basically consists of four fundamental approaches.

The first approach is based on raw measures of teacher or school effects. The raw average results of student achievement in specific classes or schools are used to measure educational effectiveness in a specific educational environment. This approach can be used exclusively when there is a specific criterion or reference measure for performance by which the average results can be compared. Consequently, if there is a clearly defined standard of achievement, primarily at a national or regional level, an assessment can be made whether the average performance of a particular class or school is above or below that specific standard.

The second approach consists of teacher and school effects based on so-called unpredicted achievement. The idea behind such operationalisation is that the real indicator of effectiveness of an educational environment is actually the variability in student performance that has not been explained by other factors except those related to teachers and schools. In this approach, first, a regression model is constructed in which a large number of student-background indicators, such as socio-economic status, attitudes, motivation, age, gender or ethnicity, are used to predict school achievement. The part of the variability of student school achievement that remains unpredicted by the predictors (the so-called residual part of the variance) becomes a "refined" measure of school achievement which can be explained by the characteristics of teachers and schools. The

fundamental premise of this approach is that schools and grades differ according to various student characteristics that can affect their academic performance. Hence, the impact of these variables needs to be removed from the measures of student academic achievement in order to yield clear conclusions on the educational effects of both teachers and schools.

The third approach is based on measurement of learning gain over time, and the effect of the characteristics of teachers and schools on this gain, i.e., teacher and school effects based on learning gain. The difference between student achievement measured at a first and a second point in time becomes a measure of student progress, and hence a criterion of educational effectiveness. In other words, teacher and school effects are transformed and operationalised as such within a specific period of time. The calculated measure of progress (e.g., throughout an academic year) is individualised for each student, and therefore excludes the initial difference between students concerning their background. Upon implementation of this approach, one needs to be aware that the conclusions reached refer only to the partial effect of educational environment on student performance linked exclusively to the observed period of time. Since the students attend educational institutions during a longer period of time, it is possible to make comprehensive conclusions about effects of schools or teachers on educational achievement only by measuring the entire educational cycle. Moreover, since this process is dynamic as well as cumulative, measures need to be implemented for the largest possible number of successive points in time.

The fourth approach to operationalisation of educational effectiveness combines the advantages of the second and the third approaches, and can be called "teacher and school effects based on unpredicted learning gain." The measure of student achievement is first corrected by previous student performance (e.g., achievement at the beginning of the academic year) and again corrected by student background variables that can impact their achievement (e.g., SES of the family, gender). The part of the variance of student performance related to learning gain during the observed time period, and solely this residual score purified from the impact of background variables, is used as a measure of educational effectiveness. Such measures of student learning gains are currently known as "value-added measures" in educational-effectiveness research. They are used to measure the added value of educational environment on student achievement in relation to their initial level of knowledge and predispositions (Hill, 1995).

In Short: How Do We Measure if Schools are Effective?

Possible approaches:

- *Raw Teacher or School Effects*: Calculate average results of students in a class or school and compare them to an existing standard of achievement.
- *Teacher and School Effects Based on Unpredicted Achievement*: Form a regression model that includes student background characteristics and use the remaining unexplained variance (residual score) as a measure of school achievement.
- *Teacher and School Effects Based on Learning Gain*: Calculate the difference between the achievement of students at two points in time and use it as a measure of achievement.
- *Teacher and School Effects Based on Unpredicted Learning Gain*: Form a regression model that controls effects of student background characteristics on achievement and compare the difference in residual achievement scores at two points in time.

Suggested readings: Scheerens and Bosker (1997)

2.4 Contemporary Methodological Approaches in Educational-Effectiveness Research

During the last thirty years, educational-effectiveness research has seen considerable progress in design, sampling and statistical methods. This methodological progress has enabled a more accurate assessment of teacher and school effects on student achievement. All educational-effectiveness researchers are currently faced with two methodological imperatives: assessment of longitudinal data and identification of hierarchical data organisation (Creemers & Kyriakides, 2006).

In educational-effectiveness research, the data on schools characteristics has been collected at one level, the data on teacher characteristics at other level and the data on student achievement at a third level. Hence, there is a multi-level, hierarchical structure of collected data, as the students in a single class were taught by same teacher and all the students and teachers in a single school are exposed to the same school environment and share the same school features. The described multi-level organisation of data causes several specific problems related to statistical analysis. The

characteristics of students who act within hierarchically organised units have been shown to be considerably more similar compared with randomly selected students belonging to different groups. Consequently, for example, students in one fifth-grade class at a single school are considerably more similar when compared to randomly selected fifth-grade students at the state, county or municipal levels. This is due to the fact that students from this specific fifth grade have not been randomly selected from the entire population and are not enrolled by chance in that specific class. They originate from the same geographically defined unit, or the same region, city or neighbourhood, and are hence considerably more homogeneous with respect to a vast array of variables, for example SES, ethnicity, family background or religious group, compared with the fifth-grade students in an entire population. Furthermore, students from a specific class share a common school environment, identical teachers and physical and organisational characteristics. This results in similar experiences and contributes to greater homogenisation over time.

Adequate statistical procedures have been developed, involving incorporating different levels of variables into a unique statistical model. Using these models, researchers are able to adequately process hierarchically organised data and reach accurate conclusions, avoiding loss of information on the original level of measurement of a specific feature. Such analyses are called *Multilevel Analyses* (Hox, 2002), *Multi-level Modelling* (Luyten & Sammons, 2010), *Random Coefficient Models* (de Leeuw & Kreft, 1986) or *Hierarchical Linear Modelling —HLM* (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Such procedures provide answers to multi-level problems, or enable the calculation of relationships among variables measured at different hierarchical levels. For instance, the fundamental issue in educational— effectiveness research is how different variables measured at individual (e.g., SES of families, student gender, level of background knowledge) and group levels (e.g., teacher years of service, class size, school equipment) impact on one criterion or variable at the individual level (e.g., student knowledge). Multi-level analyses can demonstrate the relation of variables measured at different levels to the criterion measure, and can additionally test the possibly moderating effect of a variable at the group level on the relationships between a predictor and criterion measured at the individual level.

The second challenge in educational-effectiveness research, which concerns the dynamic nature of effects of teachers and schools, is tackled through application of longitudinal research designs. These designs include several observations or measurements of the same entities (e.g., students) at more points in time. During the formation of longitudinal designs, attention needs to be paid to the provision of accurate definitions

of the concepts behind multiple measurements. For instance, we are aiming to measure student school performance, operationalised through school grades, at the end of the sixth and the eighth grade of primary school. But the research is conducted only at the end of the eighth grade, at which point we also ask students about their performance at the end of the sixth grade. This type of design, in which we have two measurements not conducted at two points in time, is referred to as retrospective longitudinal design. This generally, due to the nature of the first measurement, provides data of a slightly inferior quality compared to what is referred to as prospective longitudinal design (Gustafsson, 2010). A prospective longitudinal design implies the collection of data from the same students in both the sixth and eighth grades. There are two obvious advantages to prospective design compared with retrospective design. Firstly, the data collected is not based on student recollection and self-report, which are susceptible to errors. Secondly, specific changes occur over time in the student sample that cannot be easily identified. Some students who were included in the measurements in the eighth grade perhaps did not share the same educational environment as other students when they were in the sixth grade, since perhaps they came to the school later, changed classes, or skipped, accelerated or repeated a grade during this period.

An additional problem with longitudinal designs is linked to entities or units whose features are measured repeatedly. As has already been highlighted, one of the features of educational-effectiveness research is the fact that there are diverse levels of data that are nested into one another in specific ways. The most common approach adopted during longitudinal research is that performance of students, as entities at the most basic level, is monitored over time, and data on characteristics of teachers or schools are collected at the same points in time. Such designs are referred to as "panel designs." Nevertheless, researchers are occasionally interested in another data level, such as for example that of schools. A research issue that can be discussed is to what extent educational achievement at particular schools is stable and consistent over time, and the achievement of eighth grades can be observed over several years within these particular schools. However, it has to be pointed out that data collected over the years is related to different student samples. Hence, the schools are identical throughout the research, yet specific eighth-grade students change from generation to generation. Another frequent example is research in which units are stable at the macro level, but units at the micro level change, as in international educational-achievement studies such as PIRLS, PISA or TIMMS. This type of international research study is conducted once every few years in the same countries, and each time samples are selected from a

population of schools or students in the country to which standardised knowledge tests are applied. Consequently, these research designs are longitudinal at the level of the educational system, but not at the student level. Their specific objective is to identify trends at the national level for educational achievement in countries that participate in such projects on a regular basis.

In Short: How Should We Research School Effectiveness Today and in the Future?

Tips for good research:

- Keep in mind that students are nested in classes, classes are nested in schools, and so on: The data is hierarchically organized, so it is necessary to use multi-level and hierarchical methods of data analysis.
- Keep also in mind that students, teachers, schools, policies and so on change over time: Effects are dynamic, so longitudinal research designs are preferable.

3 Empirical Foundations: What Are the Findings of Educational-Effectiveness Research in Croatia?

In order to reach the desired level of educational quality and effectiveness, the majority of developed countries have turned to research and base their policies and activities on research findings. The approaches and the types of research differ, but they are considered necessary for obtaining impartial confirmation of the extent to which the educational system and its components comply with established standards and expectations.

In Croatia, comprehensive empirical studies of achievement of schools and students, conducted as part of an external evaluation of education, are rather recent. We will shortly present the basic findings of a comprehensive study conducted in all 844 primary schools in Croatia. Approximately 94,000 students attending the fourth and eighth grades of primary school participated in the study, and objective-knowledge tests in the majority of curriculum subjects were used as a criterion for measuring achievement (Babarović, Burušić, & Šakić, 2009; Burušić, Babarović, & Šakić, 2008; Burušić, Babarović, & Šakić, 2009). In this study, the basic determinants of achievement of students and schools were identified, and

the findings can be used as a guideline in providing answers to important questions on what can be done in order to increase educational quality.

The first issue addressed in the study referred to the identification of determinants of academic achievement of eighth grade students at the end of their primary schooling. The aim of the study was to determine to what extent student achievement can be predicted on the basis of various student characteristics, their environment, teachers, teaching processes, schools and principals (Babarović et al., 2009). The results showed that the largest proportion of the variance in student achievement across different subjects, around 5–16% of variance, depending on the school subject, can be explained by student characteristics. Student gender, parent education and family structure proved to be significant predictors of achievement. Characteristics of teachers and teaching explained a small proportion of variance of student achievement in specific subjects, no more than 1%. A similar proportion of variance of achievement in specific subjects, less than 1 %, was explained by the characteristics of schools and principals. It can generally be concluded that, in this study, the most significant determinants of student academic achievement were their individual characteristics, while the contribution of teachers, teaching schools and principals was much smaller. Additional support for the importance of student individual characteristics, as well as the importance of their family characteristics, in explaining differences in academic achievement throughout primary schooling, was provided in studies conducted by Burušić, Babarović and Marković (2010) and Burušić, Babarović and Šerić (2012).

The second issue was to examine the determinants of achievement of primary schools in Croatia, where diverse sets of school characteristics were observed as predictors of achievement: class size, school status features, leadership characteristics, characteristics and conditions of teaching and school climate indicators (Burušić et al., 2008; Burušić et al., 2009). The results showed that the majority of characteristics that refer to the status features of schools and characteristics of teaching considerably contributed to school achievement. Moreover, the features that reflect the basic conditions and properties of the organisation and the functioning of the school had the greatest predictive effect. Such findings indicate the difficulties encountered by the Croatian primary school system. The unresolved fundamental issues of unequal availability of material and human resources in primary schools led towards inequality in academic achievement. The study of Burušić, Šakić, Babarović and Dević (2013) provided further evidence of the problem of inequality in Croatian

primary education. The significant differences in academic achievement between schools in urban and rural areas of the country were clearly demonstrated, where schools located in socially and economically more-developed areas proved to have substantially better achievement compared to those located in less-developed areas.

School Effectiveness in Some Other South-Eastern European Countries
Several studies conducted in South-Eastern European countries point to similar conclusions as those drawn from studies conducted in Croatia. Firstly, equity in education is not yet fully assured, and secondly, it is questionable how effective schools are in fostering school achievement and preventing school failure for every student.

An Example from Albania:
An analysis of PISA 2000–2012 results for Albania shows that significant inequities in results exist between students of different socio-economic status, geographical location, and gender (Gortazar, Kutner, & Inoue, 2014). Moreover, students in Albania generally do not perform well in comparison to OECD standards.

An Example from Bosnia and Herzegovina:
Agencija za predškolsko, osnovno i srednje obrazovanje (2015) analyzed data from studies conducted with primary school students in Bosnia and Herzegovina: TIMMS 2007 and APOSO 2010 and 2012. Their results generally showed that student-level characteristics had the strongest effects on student achievement, the effects of classroom-level characteristics were weaker, and the effects of school-level variables were not significant.

An Example from Serbia:
Teodorović (2011, 2012) reported the results of studies examining student, classroom and school characteristics related to student achievement in mathematics and Serbian language in primary schools in Serbia. The results showed that student-background characteristics were important determinants of achievement. Classroom-level variables were weakly related to student achievement, while school-level variables did not prove to be important for student achievement.

Empirical studies, such as those described here, based on conceptual and methodological foundations originating from the paradigm of educational-effectiveness research, provide a realistic picture of the current conditions in the educational system of a specific state. Moreover, they enable the identification of weak points in an educational system and careful planning of educational policies aimed at ensuring equal opportunity for high-quality education for all students, as well as for the realisation of student potential both for personal and social benefit.

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CHAPTER 3

School Principals, Environments and Stakeholders: The Blessings and Heresies of Market Organization

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Abstract In this chapter, the authors emphasize the need for schools and their principals to focus on the needs of their students and other relevant stakeholder groups. This orientation also implies flexibility in the management of educational systems, instead of the bureaucratic accountability currently prevailing in the South-East European education. Schools and their principals are advised to recognize the nature of market orientation and apply the ambidextrous integration of strategies that are both market-driven (implying adaptation to the educational environment) and market-driving (implying active exploration of the target market, influencing the market structures and managing relevant stakeholder relationships).

Contemporary school principals (managers) generally do not perceive themselves as modern Robin Hoods[1] or re-interpreters/performers of Marxist social classes ideology[2]—enablers of positive class mobility driven by education. They also do not always need Noam Chomsky's kind of civil courage to oppose or overcome rigid political, economic, social and technological issues within the education industry and society in general. However, they have to be sovereign, wise, daring and educated enough to lead and promote institutions that could at least be perceived as "*abstract models constructed to interpret certain selected abstract relations between*

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_3

individuals"(Popper, 1957). Nowadays, principals cannot merely focus on the pedagogical/scholastic components of educational processes, but need to understand wider contexts and manage the role of schools in challenging, interdependent environments (Larusdottir, 2014). Remaining focused on "standardized" knowledge dissemination patterns without perpetually questioning existing paradigms implies a strong assumption: that the current principles of educational systems are optimal and thus dogmatic.

By using recent managerial/marketing tools and techniques developed both in the for-profit and non-profit sectors, available in numerous textbooks, papers, study programs, courses, seminars and (other) internet sources, school principals can be more focused on their main mission: **utilizing education for the perpetual creation of new value for local communities and society as a whole**. Unfortunately, principals might be selected by using the convenience principle, thus having little to no experience or modern business-related education. In selecting principals, the expertise principle is often ignored: Valuable experts in mathematics, geography or language, who have a great capacity in developing young talent, are "wasted" by have a managerial role forced upon them. In doing so, schools: (a) lose an expert in a specific field; and (b) get a principal without sufficient managerial knowledge and skills. As a result, schools are led by experts in diverse scholastic fields, thus focusing schools on curricula and content dissemination, without proactive approaches focused on possible new means for value-creation.

While marketing principles can be negatively perceived as "better suited for money-oriented and greedy society," by both principals and teachers (see Oplatka, 2006), the benefits from applying those principles in a school context makes them important allies for principals in value-creation. A market-driven mindset, within a given or created context, along with possible market-driving components, is the logical orientation for reasons of responsibility—not only for pupils and employees, but for the future of society in general. School principals should be sovereign leaders in all crucial components of their work, clearly identifying:

(a) value-creation through curriculum and knowledge dissemination routines; and
(b) development of value-creating opportunities through interactions with other relevant stakeholders.

Most school principals worldwide are dedicated and hard-working individuals, coping with numerous internal and external/market challenges, pertaining to diverse target groups having different, sometimes highly divergent, expectations. Students (current and potential), universities and companies (as target users of students' knowledge/skills as a school's key output), parents/families and the local community (creating self-sustainable young individuals), local/municipal/national authorities (which influence traditional PEST[3] elements)—all are amalgamated in a stakeholder 'bundle'.

Therefore, the crucial decision-making arenas for school principals should be derived from at minimum the following list of challenges[4]:

- Determining present/future wants according to (re)created "want categories" of selected "market" segments strongly related to a school's mission and vision;
- Determining the possible match between the offering and needs/wants of each segment;
- Co-operating with all relevant stakeholders in order to provide resources and ensure implementation of value-creating strategies; and
- Informing and persuading stakeholders to interact with the school and demand/use its available offerings.

Schools are no longer accepted as the only socially viable option for personal development and growth. Individuals and institutions in general are increasingly challenging the role of the educational system:

- Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs) offer alternatives to "traditional" educational paradigms.
- Numerous organizations are increasingly offering tailor-made educational programs targeted at maximizing value for highly specific target segments.
- Companies are increasingly organizing their own in-house educational programs for employee development, which are not only limited to highly educated employees, but increasingly organized for employees with various levels of formal education and educational backgrounds.
- Some are calling for forsaking the formal educational system altogether (e.g., PayPal co-founder Peter Thiel offers scholarships for

individuals who decide not to attend formal educational programs, but would rather learn through involvement with diverse knowledge/skill-generating options[5]).

These developments are creating new challenges for formal educational systems, which need to recognize these challenges as opportunities, rather than threats, and become competitive (Bauch, 2000). Formal educational systems need to ensure that some of the top talent does not drop out because of either the content or structure of the educational process. Rather, schools should explore ways for both the "average" and "misfits" to flourish in school systems. Competitiveness in this context implies that the formal educational system should create efficient and effective ways to drive individual capabilities, enabling the creation of future *Nikola Teslas* and *Leonardo da Vincis* who can thrive in such a system and change the world. At the same time, schools should ensure that they fulfill their social purpose and ensure that top talent is not lost in socially disadvantaged communities (Bauch, 2000).

In such a context, it is advisable to equip schools' top management teams with sophisticated business knowledge, ensuring high-quality leadership capable of creating value in the system. The concept of markets in education has long been discussed from various perspectives (Foskett, 2012): (a) the philosophical domain of the nature and purpose of education (Jonathan, 1990); (b) the policy domain of governments and public funding (Raffe & Spours, 2007); (c) the domain of leadership and management in educational organizations (Foskett, 1998); and (d) the educational and career choices of individuals/families (Forsey, Davies, & Walford, 2008; Foskett & Hemsley-Brown, 2001; Fuller, Heath, & Johnston, 2011).

One key aspect which has been shown to have an impact on organizational success is market orientation (Kumar, Jones, Vankatesan, & Leone, 2011), representing operationalization of *marketing as a philosophy* and taking all relevant target groups/stakeholders into the heart of every activity.

1 Market Orientation: Definition and Context

The marketing concept has been defined as "a corporate state of mind that insists on the integration and coordination of all the marketing functions which, in turn, are melded with all other corporate functions, for the basic

purpose of producing maximum long-range corporate profits" (Felton, 1959). The importance of implementing the marketing concept was later also recognized in non-profit organizations (Lazer, 1969; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971), which measure their success in terms other than profits. While the marketing concept and its importance have been recognized since the mid-twentieth century, and numerous contributions aimed at defining the measurement of this concept, marketing literature has widely accepted two main approaches, both developed in 1990.

Market orientation (*process perspective*: a process of generating, disseminating and responding to market intelligence (market-related information) within an organization.

Kohli and Jaworski (1990) conceptualized a process perspective on market orientation, encompassing organization-wide generation of market intelligence, dissemination of market intelligence within an organization, and organization-wide responsiveness to such generated and processed intelligence. On the other hand, Narver and Slater (1990) conceptualized a cultural perspective on market orientation, defining it as the extent to which an organization is focused on its customers and competitors, and integrates all its employees to best serve the market.

Market orientation (*cultural perspective*): the extent of organizational focus on customers and competitors, including employee incentives to serve the customer interests.

While market orientation has shown positive impact on results (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993), its implementation is highly contingent on the engagement of an organization's top management (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). In the school context, this implies a strong reliance on principals as drivers of market-orientation implementation in schools. Moreover, even though both key contributions to market orientation require consideration of multiple stakeholders when market information is generated, distributed and responded to, this is often misinterpreted as a focus on just one stakeholder group: customers.

2 Market-Orientation Concept Developments: Historical and Contemporary Challenges

Ever since market orientation was conceptualized and measured, highlighting consumers as a source of sustainable competitive advantage (Kumar et al., 2011), firms have been increasingly recognizing consumers as "kings," and have asserted consumer-centricity as their key value. Market orientation, conceptualized as the philosophy of learning about markets, dissemination of this information and adapting to market changes (Jaworski, Kohli, & Sahay, 2000), has become and remains one of the central topics in marketing. Marketing literature generally adopted a view that consumers know what they want, and firms should understand consumer preferences and cater to them (see Ajzen, 1991; Leonard & Rayport, 1997; Kotler & Armstrong, 2009; Kumar et al., 2011; Toubia, Johnson, Evgeniou, & Delquie, 2012).

This narrow understanding of the marketing concept led firms to struggle in markets with diminishing profitability by satisfying existing consumer expectations (Kim & Mauborgne, 1999). Christensen and Bower (1996) critiqued market orientation as a key source of firms' demise in the long run, as firms would remain consumer-led in the face of disruptive innovations. Narver, Slater and MacLachlan (2004) confirmed the idea that simply competing on those aspects that markets value is not sufficient for a firm's success, and especially not for the success of innovative offerings.

Marketing literature addressed this critique in two notable ways: (a) Narver and others (2004) differentiated between responsive market orientation, responding to expressed needs, and proactive market orientation, addressing latent consumer needs (operationalized as the willingness of a company to search for unexpressed consumer needs); while (b) Jaworski and others (2000) proposed that, besides "learning, understanding, and responding to stakeholder perceptions and behaviour within a given market structure" (p. 47) (i.e., being market-driven), firms can be market-driving and manage market structures and player preferences. These authors have stressed that market orientation encompasses an understanding of both expressed and latent consumer needs, which is especially important in educational contexts since they need to respond to current expectations of diverse stakeholders, while simultaneously creating programs/solutions which should satisfy expected future (i.e., latent) stakeholder needs. Market orientation enables firms to balance between exploitation and exploration (Atuahene-Gima, 2005), thus encompassing

and addressing both existing and latent consumer preferences, as well as acting upon the environment and changing consumer preferences (i.e., market-driving strategy) (Jaworski et al., 2000).

In a school context, market-driving and market-driven strategies reflect different assumptions about markets. In a market-driven approach, schools (and their relevant top-management teams, encompassing principals and school boards) consider the market (i.e., the educational context) as being exogenous to school efforts. In this case, the school is considered as an entity responding/adapting to market requirements and realities, without exerting much influence on its context. On the other hand, a market-driving approach implies the school's active role in (re)shaping its environment, which is, in this approach, considered to be, at least in part, endogenous to school efforts. As Carpenter and Nakamoto suggest (1994, p. 172): "[market driving is] a different view of competition in which brands battle over consumer preferences rather than simply responding to them. Competition in such a world becomes a struggle to define consumer preferences with the winner receiving a tremendously valuable asset—a favorable, asymmetric preference structure—producing a persistent…advantage."

Challenges of market orientation in education: The notion of the "educational market" may not be accepted by a school's stakeholders, or even formally established; students and their parents (as "customers") may not be aware of their best interests; and principals and school staff may consider "market orientation" as a deterrent, or could be opposed to any "marketing" effort, considering it as inapplicable to education.

Implementation of market orientation in the education industry, as in the health industry, inherently implies additional challenges. While it is important to consider consumer preferences and respond to them, schools and hospitals (i.e., teachers and doctors) are at the same time expected to be the experts who "know better" what are the best available options for their customers (i.e., pupils and patients). In these industries, implementing a market orientation creates new challenges, as organizations are not able merely to respond to the preferences of customers or other stakeholders, who for their part are not able to identify all available alternatives and

their potential positive and negative impact, but need to implement more sophisticated strategies. In the context of the educational industry, this implies simultaneous:

- consideration of pupils' preferences, where in "non-crucial" areas, decisions are based on pupils' and their parents' preferences (e.g., mode of content delivery, location, etc.)
- identification and implementation of an optimal solution balancing current and future needs/problems, where schools (including teachers, principals, school boards, etc.) should maintain decision-making authority over "crucial" areas of the educational process (e.g., expected qualifications, content and curriculum that ensure those qualifications, etc.)

3 Managing Market Orientation in Schools

As previously described, implementation of the market-orientation concept in schools presents numerous challenges. Its implementation changes the generally well-established *status quo*, in which all stakeholders have clearly identified and sometimes petrified roles. One can argue that there are no individual or organizational benefits to change, but, instead of considering school's context as fixed and by implementing market orientation, a school can be a facilitator of social change, potentially having numerous, strong positive impacts on the local and broader communities.

To address and moderate these challenges, we propose a process, together with a practical "check-list," that can help principals adapt and implement the market orientation concept in the context of a particular school.

Situational (*PEST*, *SWOT*) *and stakeholder analyses:* systematic approach(es) to analyzing the school environments and/or the school stakeholder group(s) and their needs/preferences. Market intelligence is created, on the basis of such analyses.

3.1 Analysis of the Environment: PEST

The first step in implementing the market-orientation concept in schools encompasses identification of key environmental characteristics which determine the context for the school's activities. While PEST analysis is

generally performed only for an organization's immediate environment, it would be advisable to analyze multiple contexts in order to determine similarities and differences which could facilitate benchmarking across contexts, and identification of best practices and their underlying principles.

Focusing only on one context, e.g., South-Eastern Europe (SEE), schools might perceive the non-availability of alternatives to already existing patterns, thus making predictable decisions and reducing the competitiveness of the system. For example, while in diverse contexts the choice of a primary school is determined by the pupil's family's residence location, the role of the school in the same context is considered differently. As a result of such "residence-based-distribution" of pupils in primary schools, in SEE and other European contexts) families do not perceive the existence of choice and schools are assumed to be homogenous (i.e., equally distributed educational availability and quality). Such a perspective leads to various aspects of primary schools' non-competitiveness. In the same context, in Europe, a family's home location determines the choice of school, while in the USA/UK (see Foskett 1998) the location of desired school determines the choice of family's home location. As a result, in the USA, primary-school competitiveness leads to labor/life mobility and drives competitiveness of other industries (e.g., real-estate market valuations).

By analyzing specificities of diverse contexts, schools are exposed to a multitude of available alternatives, allowing them to better frame their strategic options. In these analyses, the key is to identify underlying differences in environmental contexts that drive different strategic choices by schools and other stakeholders. This enables further analyses of market-driving options that do not take context as given, but rather aim at changing it.

Diagnosing the environment is a relatively demanding assignment for non-business oriented or educated school principals, especially if they manage public schools, educational institutions perceived as having less "market-driven" incentives. However, either principals' knowledge/skills or their common sense and other relevant diagnostic resources should be engaged in: (a) *observation;* and (b) *forecasting* of issues related to culture, economics, government, general external analysis, scenarios and technology (see Aaker, 2001).

For both aforementioned purposes, various contemporary managerial tools are available. One such tool is the often-used, popular PEST analysis in a variety of forms easily obtainable from secondary academic and non-academic sources. Its condensed categories—**P**olitical,

Economic, **S**ocial and **T**echnological—are four common denominators for classification of all relevant environmental elements into transparent, easy-to-understand and standardized settings. In addition, using PEST analysis in transitional and relatively turbulent social and political environments in regions such as South-East Europe could have additional benefits because of easily obtainable role-modelling practices (i.e., benchmarks) from various local/regional/international business and non-business contexts (e.g., similar schools, other educational institutions, firms, governmental agencies, etc.). Therefore, know-how for PEST analysis implementation in schools exists and is in "user-friendly" format. The "scholastic routine" for PEST-analysis implementation could be a flexible six-step framework (see Fig. 3.1.), a sequence of steps recognized and used by many entities worldwide, as well as by institutions in the SEE region (see: Langer, Alfirevic, & Pavicic, 2005, pp. 157–160):

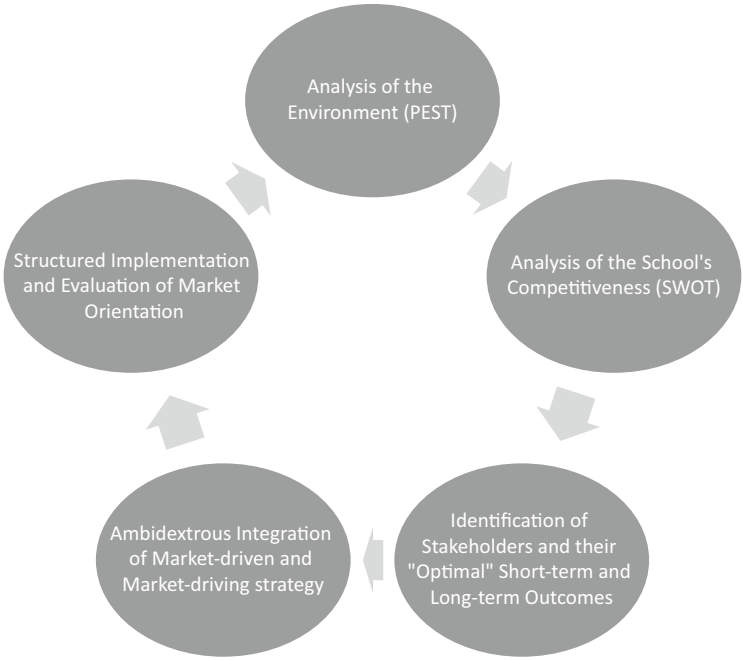

Fig. 3.1 Market orientation implementation process

1. Achieving consensus on the need to conduct a PEST analysis (principal, school board, outsourced advisors);
2. Determining the potential participants and scope of the PEST-analysis process (principal, selected teachers, selected members of the school board, selected pupils, outsourced advisors);
3. Selecting the PEST analysis team/project leader;
4. Collecting *secondary* (already existing documents, reports, articles, books, etc.) and *primary data* (findings of performed surveys, focus-groups, interviews, etc.) relevant for the school environment, organized according to four main groups of elements: P-E-S-T;
5. Selection, analysis and interpretation of collected data relevant for a school and its stakeholders (preparing a consolidated report);
6. Reporting to principal and/or school board; and
7. Application of the PEST analysis findings within general and/or specific school strategies.

3.2 Analysis of a School's Competitiveness: SWOT

An even more popular and widely used and recognized situational analysis implemented in numerous business and non-business contexts is the SWOT analysis (**S**trengths, **W**eaknesses, **O**pportunities and **T**hreats). Employing a general and widely used common-sense directive—*analyze yourself/analyze your environment/find a match*—this situational analysis encompasses diagnosing and matching relevant elements of a school's internal and external environment (i.e., both controllable and uncontrollable elements).

Although the SWOT analysis is both cheap and simple to conduct, these benefits might be, ironically, interpreted as its weaknesses, as well. (See examples from the SEE region in: Pavicic, 2003.)

The sequence of steps in the practical performance of a SWOT analysis is quite similar to the one recommended for a PEST analysis (Langer et al., 2005, p. 164):

1. Achieving consensus on the need to conduct a SWOT analysis (principal, school board, outsourced advisors);
2. Determining the potential participants and scope of the SWOT-analysis process (principal, selected teachers, selected members of the school board, selected pupils, outsourced advisors);

3. Selecting the SWOT-analysis team moderator and organizer of session(s) with participants;
4. Collective discussion of S-W-O-T elements and creation of a SWOT matrix according to consensus achieved by all participants;
5. Creation of final SWOT matrix with lists of elements separately categorized as Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats: Moderator should provide suggestions/recommendations regarding each of the relevant elements:
6. Reporting to principal and/or school board; and
7. Application of SWOT-analysis findings within general and/or specific school strategies.

3.3 Identification of Stakeholders and Their Preferences

In order to be able to manage markets, schools (and principals/school boards) need a comprehensive analysis of stakeholders and their goals/preferences/expectations, both expressed and latent. If these are correctly identified, schools can bridge different stakeholders and work toward achieving aligned goals for diverse stakeholder groups.

The first set of stakeholders is those who determine inputs into the educational process: (a) legal context (rules and curricula); and (b) availability of school funding. These stakeholders primarily include local, regional and national governments, as these tend to be the key decision-makers regarding both the legal and financial context for schools. However, with globalization, schools are increasingly faced with global competition, and programs need to be globally competitive and recognized. In addition, increasingly, the role of principals is no longer to disseminate money received by the government. They are increasingly responsible for seeking out funding from foundations, companies, wealthy alumni and other sources of income to stimulate a school's enhanced competitiveness. Principals that do not find a way to create value for the school are increasingly considered not to be doing their job properly. Their job encompasses finding ways to go beyond the minimum expected (for example, starting a school trust to ensure additional funding options for school activities). It can be argued that only schools with proactive principals will be able to create new growth opportunities, beyond the government-funded minimum, in order to enable a school's differentiation and development.

The second set of stakeholders is users of educational services. These stakeholders include pupils. Schools should differentiate between pupils who are currently attending that school and those that the school wants to attract. In the first case, school should exert effort to maximize its

current pupils' intellectual, social and other potential. These pupils benefit from the knowledge gained and skills developed through the educational process, which lead to their personal growth. On the other hand, schools should actively work on drawing the best pupils to their school, i.e., they should have clearly defined approaches for attracting top young talent. As a school manages to attract a greater "quality" of pupils, the potential for their further development and subsequent success is strongly enhanced. In addition, attracting top talent can create a virtuous circle, where talent attracts top teachers, which attract top talent. Such a circle can also encompass attracting top partners for schools, more funds, greater learning opportunities for pupils, etc. Schools should simultaneously extract the maximum from their existing pupils, and strategically attract top talent as future pupils. Such a dual approach requires two separate committees/individuals to devise and execute strategies to achieve both goals.

The third set of stakeholders is direct beneficiaries of the young talent who are the output of the educational process. These stakeholders primarily include educational organizations where pupils continue their education (e.g., high schools or universities) and companies which are continuously looking for top talent in the local and other communities. Business models of both of these stakeholders strongly depend on pupil quality as an important ingredient for their success. Therefore, for these stakeholders, schools play a dual role: (a) development of the potential of young talent; and (b) selection/ranking of pupils according to their capabilities. To fulfill this purpose, besides lectures and evaluation of the knowledge a pupil was able to acquire (i.e., *what* they learn), schools should continuously evaluate/track pupils' cognitive styles and other indicators of *how* they learn, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The fourth set of stakeholders is indirect beneficiaries of educational-process output. These encompass families and communities. While schools are expected to stimulate and ensure maximum personal growth for pupils, their parents and families have their own expectations of schools. Besides ensuring maximum personal growth, schools should provide a safe environment and increase pupils' likelihood of professional success, i.e., of becoming independent and productive members of society. In many cases, especially in the SEE region, where parents are used to having less choice regarding their children's schooling, schools present a trusted source of necessary information for making informed (or outsourced) educational choices for their children. This role of schools reduces parental risk in making important choices for children and enables choice-making in situations where parents are not competent to make a choice themselves.

Community is an important stakeholder in several ways. First, schools which are recognized as superior draw top talent and their families to the local community, which is likely to stimulate growth and prosperity. Second, as described before, school quality can strongly influence real-estate prices in the community, increasing the wealth of its members (i.e., homeowners). By increasing the desirability of a school, local community can increase taxes, thus acquiring greater revenue for local budgets and allowing for an enhanced quality of life. Great schools also ensure that each young individual is challenged and their potential for professional success is maximized, thus enhancing the likelihood that these individuals will have better salaries (i.e., pay more taxes), better jobs (i.e., have decision-making authority), prefer the same community for their family/children, etc.

3.4 Ambidextrous Integration of Market-Driven and Market-Driving Strategy

In interactions with the above-mentioned stakeholders, schools cannot only respond to the expectations of each stakeholder (be market-driven), but rather should manage and actively shape their expectations (be market-driving). Since each stakeholder might have self-centered, short-term interests which can be in collision with the interests of the community, and even the stakeholder's own the long-term interests, schools need to serve an important role as a community corrective, ensuring long-term prosperity of individuals, organizations and communities. Such balance between fulfilling short-term goals and ensuring achievement of long-term benefits requires an ambidextrous organization (March, 1991). Such organization implies the simultaneous operation of two groups: (a) one in charge of exploitation, i.e., optimization of established school activities executed within the existing system; and (b) one in charge of exploration, i.e., development of new understandings of school and stakeholder interests which can question the existing system and propose advancements.

'*Market-driving*': a proactive approach to market orientation, implying that an organization actively explores its options in the target market, influences market structures and manages relationships with relevant stakeholders.

Therefore, schools should actively identify and evaluate the relative importance of diverse stakeholder-group expectations in order to prioritize them for implementation. Some expectations (e.g., laws) are expected to be followed directly, while others (e.g., mode of lecture delivery) can be best addressed and assessed by each school individually.

Even a highly dynamic approach to prioritization and implementation of solutions addressing stakeholder expectations will not necessarily lead to a school's long-term success. To do so, a school should take an active part in engaging its stakeholders. by means of stakeholder relations, to drive and create systemic changes in education. Such activities can encompass: (a) changing the intensity of stakeholders' involvement with the school (e.g., stimulating individuals/companies/government to take a more active/passive role in educational system); (b) changing the role and intensity of a school's involvement with different stakeholders (e.g., the role school plays for families, the community, etc.); and (c) changing the short-term and long-term expectations of diverse stakeholder groups (e.g., stimulating the postponement of short-term goals to create a virtuous circle, with a school being the key driver of change).

3.5 Structured Implementation and Evaluation of Market Orientation

Once a school has identified the strategy and structure for ambidextrous integration of market-driven and market-driving strategies, implementation follows. As schools and their stakeholders are inherently interwoven, several interdependency challenges arise:

- Geographical Interdependency: This implies global competition across educational systems and schools for top talent and output-recognition. Programs offered by schools need to be globally competitive and ensure pupils' competitiveness at a global level. Therefore, schools should ensure that their curricula/approaches are at the same time comparable to and differentiable from others on the global scale. Geographical interdependency can only grow in importance with the development of global interactive technologies which further intensify competition.
- Platform Interdependency: With the continuous development of educational platforms, education becomes inseparable from delivery platforms. Educational approaches require "modern technologies"

to be included in educational processes, and teachers and the content they provide compete with globally available content via numerous educational (and even non-educational, e.g., Google, YouTube) platforms.

- Time Interdependency: Schools have to reinvent themselves and their programs continuously. One of the key challenges for schools is simultaneously to develop pupils' competencies for today's world, and to envision, and create programs that develop, the competencies which are likely to be in demand in the future. Therefore, curricula should be more fluidly defined, allowing for deviations that would ensure flexibility in adjusting to and creating the demand for a school's outputs (i.e., pupils with highly developed competencies and capabilities).
- Stakeholder Interdependency: Since schools present an important aspect of each community, family and individual, schools and their environment necessarily co-evolve over time. Every decision made by the school influences its environment, which in turn influences the school. Similarly, every change in the school's environment influences the school, which in turn influences the environment. As schools are inseparable from their environment, principals need to be able to grasp the wider concept of environment-school co-evolution as having significant short-term as well as long-term effects.

To manage these interdependencies, ambidextrous organizations should be developed, balancing conflicting exploitation-exploration goals. The market-driven aspect of a school should always: (a) analyze its market and all stakeholders; (b) prioritize among stakeholders and their expectations; (c) identify alternatives for addressing stakeholder expectations; (d) select the best alternative; (e) define the implementation team, resources and time-plan for activities; and (f) execute. At the same time, the market-driving aspect of a school should perpetually question existing dogma by: (a) identifying all current and potential stakeholders; (b) identifying utility functions of diverse stakeholder groups and their interdependencies; (c) identifying diverse, non-obvious elements of their utility functions and the mechanisms that lead to outcomes; (d) selecting the best alternative; (e) defining the implementation team, resources and time-plan for activities; and (f) executing. It is advisable that these

two teams work separately and be linked only through their nexus—the school principal (see Tushman, 2014).

4 Market Orientation in the SEE Context

One of the key challenges of market-orientation implementation in the SEE region comes from the negative perception of introducing "economic principles" (and anything related to a business approach) to schools, which has been called "economic extremism flourishing in education" (Magyari-Beck, 2003: p. 69). It is often argued that educational challenges, given their broad social impact, might *not* be best addressed "on the basis of economics" (Magyari-Beck, 2003; p. 70).

Due to long periods of stable education systems and mild reform, most changes in SEE will require long incubation periods in order for all stakeholders to accept schools' new strategic approach and more active role in managing stakeholder relations (Karstanje & Webber, 2008). However, one can see the increasing importance of school competitiveness, primarily at high-school levels, where competitiveness was primarily stimulated by introduction of standardized student evaluations upon finishing high school (Logaj & Trnavčevič, 2006). Such tests provided objective information about the "quality of schools' output," leading to some schools being regarded as better than others.

Challenges of market orientation in South-East European educational systems: Educational reforms often disregard aspects not directly related to curriculum and educational outcomes. Bureaucratic accountability still prevails in educational systems, and there is no social consensus about the role of the market in education.

While the introduction of such competitive factors is notable, most reforms in the SEE region are oriented toward curriculum or education-outcomes reforms (Brejc & Poličnik, 2012), disregarding other important aspects of educational-system change, such as structural and cultural changes likely to drive innovation in the way schools are managed. In addition, although parents generally give equal weight to academic and child-centered values (Woods, Bagley, & Glatter, 1996), schools in SEE

are focused strongly on academic considerations, disregarding, often due to funding reasons, child-centered values.

With respect to the above-mentioned challenges, the following activities are likely to stimulate a broader evaluation of schools' competitiveness and role in bridging diverse stakeholder interests:

- Management: Schools' Top-Management Teams' "Duality."

- Since principals are innately interested in "being the leaders of professional work environment aligned with schooling, teaching and learning" (Larusdottir, 2014), to stimulate market-orientation implementation in SEE schools, it might be advisable to organize schools' top management teams into two roles: (a) the principal, in charge of academic and scholastic qualities; and (b) a manager, in charge of managing and marketing the school, defining strategies and ensuring resources for strategy execution. These roles can be executed by two different individuals, or can also be integrated in one individual with adequate competencies in both roles.
- Culture: Organizational Culture Change.
- While principals and teachers tend to see themselves primarily as academic experts, and tend to consider introduction of market principles to be negative (Oplatka, 2006), it is of paramount importance to change these norms and create a culture where school is not a mere disseminator of knowledge following standardized curricula, but a highly competent organization with strong influence on the lives and success of diverse stakeholders. An important component is introduction of "market-driving teams" who should be focused on active interactions with stakeholders to mold their expectations for a "greater good." Introduction of such a culture is likely to stimulate activities that would create a virtuous circle of positive returns to the school and stakeholders.
- Accountability: Market vs. Bureaucratic Accountability.

- As SEE evolves increasingly toward a market economy, it will be important to introduce non-bureaucratic accountability indicators for schools, which enable pupils and their families to make better informed decisions (see Garn, 2001). Moving away from formal bureaucratic measures of school performance will enhance the importance of the market valuation of schools by diverse stakeholders. Such a change will align schools' goals with those of interested stakeholders and further stimulate the desired organizational culture.

It is important to note that implementing these principles to stimulate market orientation in schools should not be interpreted as "educational quality reduction" in favor of "other worthy goals." These are not conflicting goals. Rather, implementation of market orientation is likely to stimulate schools' broader impact, introducing their role as an important social bridge across and within social groups, stakeholders, periods of time, etc.

5 Concluding Remarks

Literature on market orientation (Narver & Slater, 1990) shows that implementation of such market orientation has strongly significant positive linear influence on organizational performance in the case of differentiated products/services. While in certain countries (e.g., the USA) schools can be considered as differentiated, in other countries (e.g., Croatia) schools are mainly considered to offer non-differentiated commodity services. In such a context, the literature (Narver & Slater, 1990) shows a U-shaped relationship between market orientation and organizational performance, thus implying that schools should either fully implement market orientation, or not implement it at all. An intermediate level of implementation leads to the worst outcomes. Not implementing market orientation will result in schools executing predetermined activities, as defined by relevant regulators, and thus not "wasting" resources on "unnecessary" understanding and interaction with their environments in all their complexity, as is the case with schools implementing an intermediate level of market orientation. However, those schools that fully implement the market-orientation concept are likely to be rewarded in terms of both short-term and long-term performance.

In many if not most schools worldwide, infrastructure/funding for proper implementation of market orientation might be inadequate, thus stimulating various improvisations. However, even if implementation of market orientation follows certain simple "guerilla" patterns and shortcuts (Levinson, Adkins, & Forbes, 2010), such shortcuts should follow a certain sequence of planning-implementation-control routines, as with any other entity in the for-profit or non-profit sector. Of course, sometimes ideas of market orientation might be seen to lack "tangibility" regarding the results of its implementation in institutions such as schools, especially public schools.

Successful implementation of market orientation in schools brings benefit not only to schools and their local stakeholders, but to the image of the entire educational industry. If we consider some recent bestselling books on education, such as Amanda Ripley's *The Smartest Kids in the World*

(Ripley, 2014), where school principals are identified as one of the crucial elements of every education puzzle, it follows that principals themselves should find unique ways to implement market orientation and participate in wide public attention to and the popularity of schools, teaching and studying, in order to improve the perpetually changing education industry in all relevant aspects. As John F. Kennedy said: "*Things do not happen. Things are made to happen.*"

Notes

1. In terms of providing high-quality education not only for members of rich and powerful families, but for everyone—by "stealing" from the rich in order to support "poor people"— according to the traditional, well-known reputation of the popular folk figure Robin Hood.
2. In terms of dealing with social class conflicts – tensions existing in every society, leading to radical social and economic changes (see *Communist Manifesto* (e.g., Marx & Engels, 1998 edition) and all "derived" literature on social antagonisms and, in many cases, more or less violent social struggle).
3. **P**olitical, **E**conomic, **S**ocial, **T**echnological interdependent environments.
4. Adapted from O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy(2002). This original text provides valuable insights on categories relevant to (re)considering marketing within contemporary consumer societies.
5. For more information, see: http://thielfellowship.org/ (November, 2015)

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CHAPTER 4

Schools, Local Communities and Communication: Above and Beyond the Stakeholders

Sanja Stanić, Darko Hren, and Ivanka Buzov

Abstract Schools, as parts of local communities, have the central role in communication among stakeholders in the educational process. Stakeholders comprise all those holding stakes in relation to schools and their students, and who can contribute to decreasing problems and improving results. Stakeholders aim to promote and clarify communication. It is essential for them to have an informed approach to communication and consider its fundamental principles. The authors concentrate on stakeholders in education and communication processes, emphasizing the health problems of schoolchildren and youth. Communication in the field of health promotion, in particular concerning obesity prevention, is presented as an issue that is of fundamental importance for society, which includes both internal and external stakeholders in schools.

1 Introduction

It is precisely the promising and desirable affinity of children for life that can only be realised in a stimulating environment which should, *inter alia*, be developed through community-oriented schools and families. The need for school activity in a child's environment is developed by creating activities through school curricula, which, as a rule, express the need of teachers and children for a certain type of communication within both the

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_4

school and local community, based on the personal competencies of teachers and school administration and on projected student competencies and expected educational accomplishments. This also emphasizes that the issue at hand is to support the process of changing approaches to education and expectations about the character of its effectiveness, and to provide an answer to the question of whether formal education can contribute to the development of an affinity for life. In other words, in addition to the learning matrix designed for acquiring knowledge in certain subject areas, it is also important to develop the dimensions and characteristics of a school curriculum which prepares students for life outside the classroom. This is the way to contribute to one of the basic approaches to the curriculum, namely the capacity to recognize certain schools and the paths they follow in their work. Hence, teaching processes based on the curriculum are founded in expert school management. It is said that the school curriculum provides plans for the co-habitation of students, teachers, parents, school management and the local community (Topolovčan, 2011, p. 33). Consequently, curricula become areas for the development of co-operation and partnership. Co-habitation in the educational process and at the level of school governance primarily involves recognition and development of human resources within the school and student families, as well as local stakeholders. The development of a school curriculum is actually based on a "situational analysis" of the requirements of students, schools and local communities, resulting in diverse learning and teaching experiences and possibilities for all students (Puzić, 2015, p. 73).

The importance of the curriculum and its development was confirmed long ago through an opinion provided by John Dewey, who observed the educational process from both perspectives: that of a child and that of the curriculum (Dewey, 2009). Therefore, it is expected that this important school document will serve to inform stakeholders about co-operation and partnership, the character and level of communication and the priority areas characteristic of a certain school.

The relationship between the family, i.e., the home, and the school, or between the home and teachers has traditionally been integrated in the educational process in schools, and can be considered a partnership relationship. In contrast, it has been observed that relationships that extend to local communities are developed or built, and are initially characterised more as relationships of co-operation, which transform into partnerships, due to the importance of common goals concerning youth education and socialisation[1]. Consequently, co-operation between the school, the home

and the community is crucial in order to decrease problems and improve results (Adelman & Taylor, 2008, p. 7).

The identification or mapping of major community stakeholders who co-operate with schools is an inevitable starting point when considering this issue. Here, the accomplishments of extending traditional school-parent co-operation are emphasised in relationship to building, in the true meaning of the word, community-based schools. In addition to equality, responsibility and mutual appreciation and respect, the quality of communication is of high importance for high-quality co-operation and development of the partnership relationship, which is why part of this discussion will follow this path. Furthermore, we pay special attention to one of the latest challenges to the development of co-operation between schools and local stakeholders in Croatia, which arises from the growing need for direct co-operation between schools and expert institutions related to a specific goal: the preservation of children's health. School-management development strategy shifts in this sense toward the concept of community-focused schools, which is respected and verified in practice. The concept implies recognising and respecting those outside-of-school factors that have a significant impact on the well-being of children and youth, their learning potential and achieving educational effectiveness (Information sheet, Community Focused Schools, 2010).

2 Stakeholder Mapping and Networking

Along with previously established co-operation between home and school, current policy recommendations in Croatia suggest on-going strengthening of the dimension of co-operation in education, as confirmed by research findings which often emphasise the established co-operation between schools and their external stakeholders as a factor fundamental to increasing school effectiveness. (Kovač & Buchberger, 2013).

All those holding stakes in the educational and socialisation process, and having the capacity to contribute to the achievement of the well-being and success of schools and students, are considered stakeholders. The usual participants in this process are teachers and students, school employees, parents and families, members of the community, local business leaders, elected officials, members of school boards, municipal bodies and state representatives. Collective entities are also considered stakeholders, including local businesses, various organisations, advocacy groups, boards, the media, cultural institutions and expert organisations (The Glossary of Education Reform).

Against the backdrop of such a broad range of options, within the context of Croatia, one can discuss co-operation with the home, local government, expert institutions operating in the field of child and youth care, non-governmental organisations and higher education institutions, to name a few. Speaking of communication as a precondition for the development of co-operation, there are, conditionally, two levels in a communication system. The first is the interior level, which encompasses the following relationships: student-teacher, student-student, teacher-teacher[2], and all the relationships involving teachers, students and other participants (e.g., management, administration, expert and other services, etc.) involved in the functioning of a single school as an organismic system.

> In general, stakeholders are considered to be all those holding stakes in schools and students, and who can contribute to decreasing problems and improving the results, sharing at the same time their personal, professional, civil or financial interests or concerns (The Glossary of Education Reform).

The second level represents "the view from outside," where it is possible to research which stakeholders a school finds attractive, or are attracted to the school, and for what reasons. Consequently, for example, this includes those linked with caring for an optimum approach of children and youth to educational resources (e.g., elected officials, publishers, libraries, etc.), for the development of existing education programmes for the life of the community (e.g., local government, non-governmental organisations, etc.), for students' mental and physical health care (e.g., public health institutions), and for a school's involvement with its community's development projects (e.g., other schools, local employers, etc.). The list continues and, in reality, becomes endless.

In situations linked with work with abused children, the effectiveness of specifically developed co-operation between local stakeholders and schools was proved during the Homeland War in Croatia, in particular in the integration of various activity levels—individual, family and community—and various assistance groups—schools, social-service centres and non-governmental organisations. Since it takes schools and governmental organisations much longer to design programmes for abused children and their families, co-operation with non-governmental organisations on support programmes is, as a

rule, inevitable (Delale & Družić, 2002). The same applies to educational programmes for children with special needs, i.e., with inclusive education when various stakeholders are involved, in co-operation with schools and parents, in designing the measures and principles of education for children with special needs (*Smjernice za školovanje djece s posebnim potrebama*, 2013). Specific education programmes for democracy, multiculturalism and so forth, are also developed and implemented through building such partnerships (Puzić & Matić, 2015). However, according to the results of school-curriculum research in Croatia, programmes testifying to the presence of a previous "analysis of the current status" of local community requirements are lacking (Puzić, 2015, p. 83).

Without addressing the topic of all the specific features related to the aforementioned fields of co-operation at this point, we shall concentrate on communication as the key process in all the relationships described above, their parts and the wider structures of which they are a part. It should be noted here that the school itself is certainly the central aspect in the architecture of building co-operative relationships between the school and the community, as this is where the foundations are laid, in particular through initiatives whose goal should be directed toward strengthening the co-operative capacity and a friendly work culture among teachers (Kovač & Buchberger, 2013, p. 525).

3 Communication: At All Times and in All Places

All parts of an organism create a circle.
Thus each part is at the same time the beginning and the end.

Hippocrates

The communication process is the connective tissue of all relationships, being ubiquitous to such an extent that it is rarely paid attention to, nor is time dedicated to understanding and hence improving it.

> The basis of the success or failure of common action, the development of co-operation and the functioning of partnership relationships, all originate in the communication process.

Outside the circles of communication experts and psychotherapists, and with the exception of situations where relationships are disrupted and

facing a crisis, the role of the communication process is most often overlooked or taken for granted. However, this process needs to be understood in order to willingly participate in it and thus build relationships which, not only declaratively, but *de facto*, promote the realisation of common goals through transparency, mutual respect and appreciation.

Watzlawick, Beavin Bavelas and Jackson (2011, p. 29), continuing the work of G. Bateson (Bateson, 2000), list the basic features of communication, three of which are described here in the context of communication between stakeholders in the educational process. The first feature they list is that it is impossible not to communicate. If we consider the fact that there is no opposite to *behaving*, i.e., a person always behaves in a certain manner, and that each behaviour implies a certain meaning, we can conclude that communication is inevitable in each situation in which there are two persons conscious of one another.

We can thus imagine two persons who, due to a recent argument, avoid and do not speak to each other. Yet, it would be entirely wrong to state that they do not communicate. In this case, each of them communicates a message saying that they do not want to be close. Furthermore, they send and receive a number of other messages which depend on the particularities of their situation. Here, it should also be noted that communication takes place regardless of whether its participants are aware of it, and that it is not necessary that the message sent by one person and the message and received by the other are the same. Hence, in this hypothetical case, one person, by avoiding the other, may send a message saying "I am afraid of starting a new argument with you," while the other may interpret the behaviour as saying "I do not respect you."

The awareness of the inevitability of communication may to a large extent change the behaviour of all the stakeholders in the educational process.

It is only after a person, or an organisation, accepts the fact that they always send a message, regardless of whether they intend to do so or not, that they can stop and decide which message they want to send, and whether the other party received and understood the message in the same way it was sent. The next key feature of communication is that it exists at two levels: the level of content and the level of relationship. Its content

refers to facts, to what can be perceived objectively—words spoken, texts written, etc. On the other hand, messages communicated at the level of relationship serve to qualify the content, i.e., tell us how to perceive the content. In general, most misunderstandings, arguments and problems that might be avoided are grounded in communication at the level of relationship. According to Shulz Von Thun (2006), the relationship level consists of messages about how their senders perceive themselves, how they perceive the other person, how they perceive the relationship and their own and the receiver's role in the relationship, what they do or do not want, etc. All that information is sent almost exclusively by non-verbal or para-verbal signs simultaneously with the "objective" content of the message.

Communication at the level of relationship takes place, as a rule, at the subconscious level, and rarely are those signs sent intentionally and consciously. In the majority of "healthy" relationships, this information mostly flows quietly, in the background. On the other hand, "unhealthy" relationships are typically characterised by difficulties at the level of relationship. Hence, it often occurs that the content aspect of communication becomes irrelevant and serves only as a stage for hidden fights related to the relationship. When individuals and organisations recognise that communication exists at these two levels, they will find it easier and be faster to recognise the real sources of possible problems in co-operative or partner relationships. Moreover, being aware of this principle enables the creation of a climate of trust and respect in daily communication, such as between a principal and teacher or a teacher and student[3], which are, as previously stated, inevitable components of efficient co-operation and partnership.

The third basic feature of communication relates to the interaction of persons included in the communication process and the fact that its causes and effects are always arbitrarily determined, depending on where the starting point is set. Thus, for example, it may be established that one person in a group is dominant, as he/she behaves in a certain manner, while the other person is submissive, as he/she behaves differently. Yet, on second glance, such distribution of roles may lead to the question of where the dominant behaviour of one person or the submissive behaviour of the other originates, as well as the issue of whether these categories might exist one without the other. This feature is called punctuation and basically relates to the fact that an arbitrarily set starting point determines the interpretation of communication and directs the entire interaction. Discrepancy regarding where the starting point of a sequence of events lies is at the root of a vast array of difficulties in relationships. For example,

a teacher may feel uncomfortable due to a feeling that a child's parents are attacking him/her and therefore may avoid a conversation by backing away and holding his/her position rigidly. On the other hand, the parents may perceive the teacher as unavailable and unwilling to listen to them, which is why they intensify the pressure. As a consequence, the teacher could back away even further, and the parents increase pressure, and a closed circle may be formed in which inefficient behaviour intensifies on both sides. It should be noted that in such a case the teacher and parents see entirely different interaction sequences. While the teacher sees "they attack me, which is the reason for my avoiding them," the parents see "he/she avoids us, therefore we attack him/her." Such interaction may, in theory, last forever. However, it is more common for a case to escalate and end in mutual accusation and blame. The understanding and awareness of this principle enable seeing the situation from the other's perspective and creating the possibility for mutual understanding and acceptance. Simultaneously, understanding that one vainly searches for the starting point of a sequence of events, even at the level of meta-communication, the participants may concentrate on the present moment and, instead of wasting their energy and time on questions concerning what caused the current situation, they may focus their attention on the type of situation they wish to create at that particular moment.

Concerning the features of communication, the stakeholders in the educational system need to develop relationships and communication channels that promote mutual support and trust[4]. As a result, social activities like promoting a healthier lifestyle may become more than a formal process. The promotion of children's health, primarily with respect to the prevention of obesity, may serve as an example of a socially important problem that includes a school's external stakeholders.

4 The Link Between the School and the Community: Children's Health as a Result of Joint Effort

The school is considered an important part of the local community. Yet, schools are often "islands" with no bridges to connect them with the "mainland." Families live in the neighborhood, but are frequently insufficiently interconnected or insufficiently connected with their children's schools. However, considering that communication necessarily starts

taking place as soon as persons or other social entities become aware of one another, families necessarily influence one another, whether in a positive or adverse manner, and whether intentionally or not (Adelman & Taylor, 2008).

One of the indispensable goals that transcends school tasks and extends from individual homes to a wider social system is children's health. Protecting children's health is an important social goal, the achievement of which requires communication and co-operation of all stakeholders, and this was emphasised during the Fifteenth Croatian Pediatric Symposium held in 2014. A positive shift in the curve of the health of children and youth is achieved by involving parents as role models, with the support of expert recommendations and leading health workers, as well as with the indispensable support provided by the school (Pintar, 2014, p. 225).

5 Schoolchildren's Health: Status and Issues

During the last decade, statements about public-health problems of children and youth have been heard with increasing frequency in Croatia. Physicians note earlier pubescence, unhealthy lifestyles, irregular diet and the issue of being overweight, physical inactivity, abuse of addictive substances and various forms of disruptive behaviour, as well as a continuously increasing number of neglected and abused children (Dabo, Tomac, & Mrakovčić, 2007). Youth health status has continuously been proved to be a growing problem which demands expert elaboration and solutions[5]. The data on youth health status indicates a growing trend in existing health issues and the arising of new ones[6].

The issue of overweight school children is an urgent one. Croatia ranks seventh with respect to childhood obesity in Europe. According to the Croatian Institute of Public Health, one-quarter of school-age children are overweight, while one-tenth suffer from obesity. The data shows youth with eating disorders, e.g., only slightly more than half have breakfast on weekdays, while between two-thirds and three-quarters take insufficient quantities of fruit and vegetables. Only every third boy and every fifth girl is involved in physical activity for at least one hour a day (Mrvoš Pavić, 2015). Obesity affects the quality of childhood, and in adulthood, when it most often continues, it is considered a serious health and social problem. Health status and the problems of children and youth are monitored in Croatia on a regular basis and presented in expert and scientific papers as well as the media. Consequently, an analysis of the problem, as well as the

awareness of competent institutions, stakeholders and the broader public, are not in question. This applies primarily to the obesity issue, which has been continuously emphasised, in light of increases in its rate and the severity of its consequences, and hence urgent interventions and measures are imperative. Warnings concerning the severity of the problem in Croatia have been issued for quite some time and can be found in literature from over a decade, along with the forecasts of escalation. Directions and activities have been defined for prevention and treatment both at the individual and the general levels[7]. Due to the worrisome data, prevention programs concerning healthy eating habits and the importance of regular physical exercise were implemented within a limited territorial scope[8].

The obesity problem in Croatia has not been sufficiently presented from the perspective of children, families or schools, and hence research on this issue is both required and seen as a challenge. Highlighting the problem at the level of all stakeholders might contribute considerably towards improvement.

The majority of targeted intervention is directed towards information and education, focusing primarily on the aspects of communication content, while generally no attention is paid to the level of relationships, where communication also continuously occurs. On the other hand, the foreign marketing industry, promoting the consumption of unhealthy foods and primarily targeting children, uses emotional communication, linking products with psychological needs. Consequently, when creating public-health interventions, it is of crucial importance to take into consideration all the levels at which a message is transmitted (e.g., Simson, Wilson, Ruben, & Thompson, 2008; DeBar et al., 2009).

It has been confirmed that obesity-prevention programmes, as well as the entire nutrition disorder spectrum, require a multi-disciplinary, harmonised approach from families, as well as all education and health-care system levels, with an emphasis on the promotion and adoption of healthy eating habits and of healthy lifestyle in general (Bralić, Javančević, Predavec, & Grgurić, 2010, p. 40). On-going communication among all the participants involved, from individuals to the broader social community, and their co-operation in achieving results, would contribute to an improvement of the current situation. Research has already shown the fundamental importance of schools in the implementation of child-obesity

prevention programmes, as schools bring all children together. Diverse stakeholders consider school as a place where child-obesity programmes may be implemented and accepted (Bucher Della Torre, Akre, & Suris, 2010). Hence, schools are venues where, through development of high-quality relationships, an environment may be created where children may satisfy their psychological needs (Glasser, 1998), and build a climate of trust on those foundations, and where children might also be given high-quality information on their health and be protected from the toxic effects of false images of lives and values they are exposed to through the media.

6 Stakeholders in Context: Croatian Case of Children and Youth Health-Care Changes

Irrespective of an unfavourable social and political position, the development of youth health care in Croatia kept pace with the commencement of this activity in Europe. For example, the first school physician in Sweden was appointed in 1840, and in Croatia in 1893. Croatia followed the first European ideas on school hygiene. The activity of Dr. Andrija Štampar in 1923 concerning the development of public-health services led to the development of systematic health care for schoolchildren and youth. The beginning of the twentieth century saw the foundation of the first school polyclinics where ill children were treated. Dental polyclinics were established simultaneously. This continuity was disrupted during WWII; nevertheless, since 1951, school health care has been continuously developed, and by 1998 student health-care units and an integrated health-care model were established (Lančić, 2009, p. 238). During the 1970s and 1980s these were unique aspects of the school health-care organisation. Health centres had clinics organised for school health care, where school teams worked, consisting, as a rule, of school health-care specialists or physicians with postgraduate education in school health care, a senior nurse, a nurse with a secondary-education diploma and provision of the services of a psychologist and/or defectologist. The integrated health-care model was the basis for this organisation. The principle of competence was ensured by having one school team responsible for health-care prevention and treatment for students of individual primary and secondary schools. This type of health-care model provided for the continuous monitoring of students from the beginning of their education, ensured good and comprehensive insight into student health status, and enabled an integrated approach in health care (Jureša, 2007).

With the changes in the early 1990s, an organisational "disorder" was created and prevention-related activities saw a significant decrease (Lančić, 2009, p. 238). The issue of contracting student preventive health care remained unsolved. The principle of free choice of a physician (which is, certainly, one of the fundamental human rights), under the circumstances of fighting for *per capita* quotas, made primary health care physicians compete (a positive, in principle), and "struggle" for their patients. Hence, student preventive health-care measures failed to reach the expert level. Since 1998, following the decision to implement preventive educational health-care measures in primary and secondary schools, school and university health-care services have been dissociated from health centres and merged with institutes for public health. The two aspects of health care of school children and youth were thereby separated: Treatment was performed by selected physicians (e.g., parents might choose for their children to be treated by the family physician, a school health-care specialist—who remained in the treatment sector—or a pediatrician), while preventive health care remained within the competence of school health-care teams. It is interesting to note that pilot research conducted in 2005, seven years following the introduction of the new organisation of schoolchildren's health care, which encompassed all school health-care specialists experienced in working in integrated care, showed that the majority of specialists in treatment and more than half of prevention specialists participating in the research, were not satisfied with this organisation, which indicated that the student health-care organisation, divided between prevention and treatment, fails to provide effective care for the population (Džepina, Čavlek, & Đanić-Kojić, 2011).

School health care, which today is part of the public health-care system, provides specific preventive and health-education measures in the health care of schoolchildren, youth and university students. Each primary and secondary school and faculty has a responsible team, which includes, as a rule, a school health-care specialist and a nurse with secondary or higher education (Jureša, 2007). Lately, a change has been observed in child and youth mortality. In place of the former prevention and treatment of infectious diseases and malnutrition, current school health-care specialists focus on risky behaviour-linked illnesses (e.g., engaging in sexual activities at an early age, an increase in the number of partners, drug abuse), chronic illnesses and accidents. The turmoil of the war and post-war period, transition-related changes and the recession affected general social processes and family dynamics. These substantial changes also affected mental health. Aggressive

and violent behaviour among children is increasing, along with depression, suicide and disruptive-behaviour rates. Increasing demands by the school and society have an adverse effect on youth health. The above-stated health issues require a new approach to solutions. Polyvalent "open-door" consultancy centres employing both school physicians and other health-care and non-health-care workers have proved to be the most effective model for resolving current youth problems (Lančić, 2009, p. 240).

7 Conclusion

The creation of a stimulating environment for children's education implies, above all, the development of a school curriculum that states that good internal communication is the foundation for creating community-oriented activities aiming to meet specific requirements of students and teachers for a more efficient education process and for students' lives outside their classrooms. The specificity of the school curriculum is, in this sense, also determined in relation to identified stakeholders in the community, who develop co-operation with schools, as well as to levels of communication within the school and with stakeholders, in the light of the problems and issues that create their ties with schools. Desirable community schools are developed as a consequence and the sustainability of educational programmes is ensured. One of the latest challenges faced by such co-operation is related to the increasing need for co-operation between schools and expert institutions and non-governmental organisations, with the goal of ensuring children's health. The importance of communication among children and youth health stakeholders was confirmed in previous research. Improvement in the sophistication of the manner in which school health programmes are designed, distributed and evaluated is encouraging. Furthermore, studies indicate good experiences, and also good co-operation between the health and education sectors in children's health planning, and in particular in programme articulation (Lawrence, 2006, p. 728).

The development of children's and youth health care in Croatia has always had the same goal: to preserve and promote children's and youth health and also therefore the health of the adult population (Dabo, Tomac, & Mrakovčić, 2007). Since its foundation in the early twentieth century, school health care has changed its content, organisation and operating methods; however, despite all the efforts invested in it, children's and youth health problems remain both an individual and a social concern. Taking into consideration the efforts invested thus far into the organisation

and scope of children's and youth health care in Croatia, and considering the importance of the issue, one also needs to consider the possibility of searching for improvement through more efficient communication and closer co-operation among those involved, i.e., the participants, the family, the school and the health system. Schools are an ideal environment for the implementation of health care programmes among children and adolescents. This was also confirmed by the 2005 Dubrovnik Declaration on School Health Care in Europe, which demands that school health care should be of the highest political priority (Lančić, 2009, p. 240).

Notes

1. The cooperation mainly determines the relationship between individuals and groups as regards their agreement in the share of responsibilities when achieving a specific goal, while partnership may be interpreted as the highest level of cooperative relationships of individuals or groups directed toward achieving a common goal within a certain time frame.
2. Communication relations may be observed on an individual, but also on the level of a group, while the principles described below are applicable to both. Therefore, and even more so for the purpose of simplicity, when writing, e.g., student-teacher, we consider all iterations included: student-teachers, students-teacher and students-teachers.
3. In case of teachers and students, it is the teachers that bear the primary responsibility, since they have more power within the relationship both in the formal sense and in the sense of development capacities (cognitive and emotional). In certain other relationships, the power is distributed in a different manner, which results in various possibilities of influencing the situation. Yet, in a relationship of adults, the awareness of the relationship level of communication is the responsibility of both sides.
4. Examples of more recent research of the communication process among stakeholders in the field of education for the area of South and South-East Europe include the issues of the development of the possibility of intercultural communication (e.g. Šulistová, 2009), the influence of the manner of communication within a family on the behaviour of children (e.g. Pšunder and Milivojeveić Kranjčič, 2010; Lebedina-Manzoni, Delić, and Žižak, 2001), the influence of communication competences on the part of the teachers on the development of students' social competences (e.g. Valjan-Vukić, 2010; Scotti Jurić, 2006), and the influence of distance learning on the quality of communication (e.g. Duh and Krašna, 2011).
5. The social importance can also be observed through demographic trends which indicate a gradual decrease in the number of school children and

youth in Croatia. A continuation of the trends is forecasted for the future (Kuzman, Pavić Šimetin, Pejnović Franelić, 2011).

6. The statistical data from regular medical check-ups in 2014 show the following: improper posture of 15 % of primary and 21 % of secondary school children. Almost half of the students smoke cigarettes, drink alcohol, and the same number has certain experience with drug abuse. Physicians report an increase in emotional problems, a decrease in self-confidence, and an increase in the level of stress and aggression. In the Split-Dalmatia County, the improper posture, flat feet and visual impairment were most common. Physicians diagnosed a 6 % increase in testicular varicose veins during the period between 2005 and 2014. Girls are frequently diagnosed with thyroid gland enlargement—in 2014, 4 % of eight-grade girls were diagnosed with it (Zenić Rak, 2015).
7. Grgurić draws attention to the problem of children obesity in 2004. The directions and activities are emphasised by Pavić Šimetin et al. (2009).
8. As an example, in the early 2015, the school-age children obesity prevention program was launched under the name of "PETICA—igrom do zdravlja" ("FIVE—play to health") at eight schools in Zagreb.

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CHAPTER 5

Managing the School: Principals as Managers

Dijana Vican, Nikša Alfirević, and Renata Relja

Abstract Vican, Alfirevic and Relja present the history and an overview of educational management/administration as a separate and applicative field addressing the specific issues of managing an educational institution. This is contextualized in terms of educational objectives to be realized, as well as boundaries set by educational policies and the 'educational market', either explicit or implicit. From the pragmatic point of view, the field is explicated by referring to principals' activities and roles, as well as their influence to the 'fit' achieved by the school and its environment. The Anglo-American roots and the emerging 'regional knowledge-bases' and practices of educational management are discussed.

1 The Field of Educational Management and its Origins

The practice of management is as old as human society, since it concerns the coordination of individual efforts toward a shared objective. It has gained prominence with the rise of modern society (Buble, 2011/2015). Further transformation of management in the twentieth century has been described by Drucker (1989/2011), in terms of application of knowledge to work processes and the emergence of 'knowledge works'. This has spread the practice of management throughout society and made it a matter of modern life, i.e., *'a new social function'* (Drucker & Maciariello, 1973/2008, p. 21), enabling people in various types of organizations to

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_5

achieve high levels of performance. The same applies to *educational management* (EM), which focuses on education, i.e., schools. This field brings together the theory and practice of business management, psychology and political/administrative studies. As it is highly applicative, it is often criticized for an instrumentalist approach, i.e., lack of underlying social theory, as well as disconnectedness from pedagogical practice (Fitz, 1999).

Educational management/administration: a separate and applicative field, addressing the specific issues of managing an educational institution; concerned with realization of educational objectives.

The differentiation of educational *management* and 'high-level' educational *policy* has been a blessing, since educational managers can and do address real-life problems without making too much ado (about nothing). On the other hand, the technical/applicable nature of the field is a curse as well, making it possible for principals to turn their heads from system-level issues of education and concentrate on narrowly defined issues of their own school's effectiveness (Glatter, 1987). Dilemmas about centralization vs. introduction of market principles (school choice) in education, as well as the (questionable) need for transfer of 'best managerial practices' are also sometimes viewed in this context and criticized as inappropriate (Glatter, 1999).

Since the beginning of the twentieth century, chairs of education administration have been appointed at US universities. Other signs of an emerging field have included the establishment of university professors' and researchers' professional associations in the USA—the *National Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (NCPEA) in 1947[1] (see a comprehensive account of its history in: Campbell, 1981) and the *University Council for Educational Administration* (hereinafter UCEA) in 1954.[2] US principals have been trying to have their profession recognized for almost 100 years, as evidenced by their professional associations: the *National Association of Elementary School Principals* (NAESP), founded in 1921, and the *National Association of Secondary School Principals* (NASSP), founded in 1916.[3] A sign that a specialized field is being formed is specialized academic publications, which included the first widely recognized book on *Administrative Behavior in Education* in 1957 (Campbell, 1981) and creation of an academic journal, the *Educational Administration Quarterly*

(hereinafter EAQ), by the UCEA in 1965. Academic journals in primarily applied fields, such as educational management, are multi-faceted beasts, torn in a procrustean manner between immediate needs for practical solutions and a wish for fundamental theory development. Such a conflict can be detected from the early days of the EAQ and UCEA, e.g., in the presidential address at the UCEA meeting in 1978 (Hoy, 1978) and the 'self-inflicted' criticism of the EAQ's founding editor (Campbell, 1979). Both of these self-questioning analyses concentrate on the need for theory-building and strengthening the scientific foundation of the field, so as to further 'legitimize' it both for internal (researchers, professors), and external stakeholders (practitioners, public-policy actors, etc.). The continuous re-thinking of EAQ's future and the impact of the field is widely shared and discussed (Pounder & Johnson, 2007), which demonstrates that educational administration/management is still heading toward a mature stage of development.

The most important topics covered in EAQ-published research are the roles and behavior of teachers and principals, school improvement and efficiency, as well as different organizational solutions (see: Haas et al., 2007). The topics of the papers published in this journal (1979–2003) include a variety of topics from organizational and management theory as applied to the educational setting (27.8 % of the published content), analysis of the field itself, i.e., the fundamentals of the profession, research, preparation programs, etc. (21.2 % of studies), and different educational topics (8.4 % of studies), including curriculum/instruction, school effectiveness and instructional management (Murphy, Vriesenga, & Storey, 2007).

The 'Americanized' field in the 1960s was diversified by developments in the UK, as the *British Educational Administration Society* (the predecessor of the contemporary *The British Educational Leadership Management and Administration Society*—hereafter BELMAS) was founded in London in 1971. Their research journal *Educational Management & Administration* (renamed *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, hereafter EMAL, in 2002) developed from the society's bulletin and covered a range of topics, including educational-management techniques and development issues. (For a historical account, see papers by the founding editor and a critical review of EMA/EMAL content in: Hughes, 1997; Strain, 1997.)

Another significant publication for the educational-management community was the first such journal, the Australian *Journal of Educational Administration* (JEA), today hosted by Emerald Group Publishing (as opposed to ASQ and EMAL, which are hosted by Sage). The first issue

was published in 1963 at the University of New England, with the aim of analyzing the interactions and synergies of administrative and teaching processes in educational settings, with the most important topics related to the fields of development, organizational structures, headship, educational leadership, and so forth (Ross Thomas, 2012). Its knowledge-base and legacies, as analyzed by Oplatka (2012), could even be generalized to represent divisions within the field, and include the empirical, practical, evaluative (as evolved by educational-evaluation practices and actors), principal-training, school-leadership and critical-theory dimensions.

Even from an analysis of published studies in major journals and their diversity, the fragmentation of the field is clearly visible, and this applies even more to the professors of educational management, the topics in which their PhDs were received and their preferred publication outlets. Educational management is, even today, highly interdisciplinary and applicative, as well as associated with public agencies and other educational administrations (Oplatka, 2010).

Regional developments in South-East Europe (SEE) build upon the legacy of a centralized, socialist system, with the role of school principals being restricted to enforcing the decisions from the levels of the former Yugoslav federation and its federal units (Sentočnik & Rupar, 2009). Development of contemporary school leadership in the post-socialist context seems to be context-sensitive (Magno, 2009), which requires the development of a relevant 'regional knowledge-base'.

2 Educational Administration, Management and Leadership: Confusing Practices…

Generic management theory deals with the successful contribution of individuals to the organization and the responsibility of managers to ensure organizational functioning. Managers work 'with' people by developing them and ensuring their contribution to an organization (Drucker & Maciariello, 1973/2008). Business management, especially its strategic branch, argues that the key to organizational success is found in achieving a successful 'fit' with an organizational environment (Venkatraman & Camillus, 1984). This area of managerial research is reflected in one of the more popular definitions of educational administration/management (hereinafter EA/EM) adopted by an influential textbook (Bush, 2007a). In this context, EA/EM concerns the internal aspects of an educational institution's functioning, so as to achieve a successful 'fit' with stakeholders from the environment, i.e., the community, governing bodies, etc.

Such a definition fits well within the generic management school of thought, which has encouraged many discussions of comparability of managerial processes in different sectors (business, public and nonprofit), as well as specific social forces shaping managerial reality (Murray, 1975; Fottler, 1981). Bush's (2007a) popular introductory text on EM/EA introduces almost the same concepts covered by similar texts in business management (see, e.g., Robbins & Coulter, 2013; Daft, 2015): organizational-structure hierarchy and authority, schools (in terms of organizational theory) as open systems, rationality of managerial actions as being directed toward goals, etc. Most of these principles/constructs are associated with the need to keep the school (educational institution) running smoothly in a given environment and accomplish objectives usually decided by an external governing body.

Another term often found in the literature is *educational leadership*. According to Dembowski (2012), the *fundamental difference between management and leadership* is related to the inherent ability of leaders to question the viability of the existing environmental fit and introduce a required change into the functioning of a system. He associates management with the *'hard skills'*, i.e., structures, plans, tools and approaches, required to 'handle' the organizational process according to a predetermined plan and achieve required objectives efficiently. On the other hand are *'soft skills'* related to motivating, influencing and leading people toward shared objectives. Leaders need to have a vision of the future which takes into account the requirements of the environment, as well as organizational changes needed to meet challenges and enable an organization to achieve a vision.

It seems the entire field of EA/EM almost tried to 'rebrand' itself by referring to itself as *educational leadership* (Bush, 2008), which can be, once again, determined by analyzing the content of academic journals (Ross Thomas, 2012, p. 17), or even observing a simple insertion of 'leadership' into the names of EA/EM institutions, journals, etc. (such as BELMAS and EMAL in the UK). The drive toward the research and application of leadership in the field has been so strong that the idea of *educational administration* (as is still reflected in the title of the AEQ journal) is considered outdated, with *educational leadership and management* becoming the preferred name of the field (Hallinger & Chen, 2014)—just as in the case of personnel vs. human-resource management. It should also be noted that the 'proliferation' of the notion of leadership might become counter-productive, being applied to 'nothing and everything' and used as a generic answer to shortcomings at the policy level (Oplatka, 2007).

Educational leadership: a managerial function, supposed to ensure voluntary involvement in achieving the organizational objectives of an educational environment. Nevertheless, the notion is often used as a synonym for the educational management (administration).

So as to avoid fundamental misunderstandings, it is important to note that, in the majority of business-management texts (cf. Robbins & Coulter, 2013; Daft, 2015), leadership is traditionally considered part of the managerial process. Its tenet is to replace the command-and-control principle of employee behavior, practiced throughout the industrial age, by influencing values, attitudes, opinions and, ultimately, behavior itself, so as to *secure voluntary involvement in achieving organizational objectives.* This fact is clearly illustrated by a quote from the integrative definition of leadership, proposed by Winston and Patterson (2006, p. 7): "*A leader is one or more people who selects, equips, trains, and influences one or more follower(s) who have diverse gifts, abilities, and skills and focuses the follower(s) to the organization's mission and objectives causing the follower(s) to willingly and enthusiastically expend spiritual, emotional, and physical energy in a concerted coordinated effort to achieve the organizational mission and objectives.* " Many other dimensions of educational leadership have been developed, and are discussed in a separate chapter within this volume. However, in many cases, even a simple differentiation of leadership, as a form of humanistic management, versus the traditional, 'command-and-control' approach of structural-rational management (Dembowski, 2012), might be theoretical background enough for a practicing principal.

Principals may not be even able to recognize their own job as a 'managerial' one, due to their educational and professional background, although their daily routine might fit into the theoretical characteristics of a managerial career. For revered management theorist Drucker (Drucker & Maciariello, 1973/2008), management is all about *practice, which makes managers responsible for the work of organizational members and their results.* This is achieved by setting objectives, organizing work, motivating/communicating, measuring performance and developing people (including oneself). Those actions can be described as *generic,* i.e., applicable to all kinds of organizations and organizational contexts, and are often referred to as managerial tasks/functions. Fundamental introductory texts describe them

in terms of the planning-organizing-leading-controlling cycle (Robbins & Coulter, 2013; Daft, 2015), with organizing denoting 'hard', and leading 'soft', factors for implementation of previously devised plans.

There is a long tradition of fostering managers' functions as the 'only right way' to think about the managerial work (Carroll & Gillen, 1987). The notion of a generic and orderly nature of management, which can be boiled down to planning-implementing-controlling, has a long tradition going back to H. Fayol. This nineteenth-century French engineer is the true 'father of management', as his ideas of the structural-rational paradigm required to manage a modern organization still represent the core of 'traditional' managerial thinking. Planning and goal-setting (*prévoyance*) represent the rational foundations for organizing (i.e., provision of required resource for the implementation of the plan), and directing and supervising (*commander/diriger*) operative activities and controlling performance (Wren & Bedeian, 2009).

Managerial roles (practices): actual managerial activities, performed by school principals, often conceptualized in terms of interpersonal, informational and decision-making roles (as described in H. Mintzberg's framework).

Although useful for academic purposes, the functional approach is not entirely helpful once the complexity of the job and its busy schedules are also considered. H. Mintzberg (1975) wrote about the disorganized, hectic and action-oriented nature of managerial work, which does not leave much space for systematic consideration. Challenged by the quick pace of their work environment, managers mix various roles (action-oriented and ceremonial) and prefer quick and informal communication, enabling them to take and remain in control. A certain order can be found in the taxonomy of three different roles—inter-personal, informational and decision-making—which are 'liberally' mixed-and-matched in managerial practice, in accordance with the type of managerial position and hierarchical level occupied. Textbook authors seem to accept this framework without hesitation, and often use it as a secondary tool to describe the nature of managerial work (Carroll & Gillen, 1987).

There are different conceptualizations of principals' work, which use either a single or mix of concepts from business management. In his

conceptual paper, Lunenberg (2010) referred to 'leadership functions' (instead of to managerial ones), administrative roles (i.e., Mintzberg's framework), management skills and task-dimensions frameworks. In the early 1980s, Martin and Willower (1981) studied high-school principals, and a year later Kmetz and Willower (1982) conducted a similar study on elementary-school principals—both based on the Mintzberg's (1970) methodology of structured observation and his role framework. In both cases, principals' managerial practice was empirically confirmed as hectic and characterized by multiple contacts, preferred verbal contact and similar interruptions/emergencies, just like the practice of managers in a business enterprise. These initial studies were quite simplistic, as they did not take into account either resulting performance or any contingency variables, such as personal or environmental characteristics. A later study by Martinko and Gardner (1990) tried to address these deficiencies and arrived at similar conclusions, confirming the validity of Mintzberg's findings. These authors also found dependencies of managerial behavior on contingency variables, but were not able to confirm the relationship between managerial patterns and performance. Nevertheless, this line of research proved to be a fruitful ground for studies in the (sub-)fields of educational leadership and school effectiveness, as discussed in other chapters in this volume.

In this context, some early, from today's perspective, papers, such as the study by Treider and Leithwood (1988), introducing mediators between principals' behavior and performance at the classroom and school levels, proved especially useful. The same applies to a comprehensive model linking all influences on principals to their practices and resulting staff effects and learning outcomes, proposed 25 years ago by Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1990).

Some contemporary studies have used more sophisticated methods to address sometimes confusing principals' practices. Spillane and Hunt (2010) used the mixed-methods (qualitative and quantitative) approach to determine principal archetypes (including 'administrative types', 'firefighters', 'lone cowboys'). In addition, a range of international studies on educational outcomes and their potential sources has proliferated. Although this stream of literature does not seem to be much concerned with the role of a principal in the school environment, a chapter in the TALIS 2013 research project report (OECD, 2014) provides an international comparison of principals' demographic and professional characteristics and details related to their work activities. The snapshot of an average

principal's workday includes 41 % of working time spent on administrative and leadership tasks, 21 % on curriculum and teaching-related activities, 15 % on interactions with students, 11 % on interacting with parents/guardians, 7 % on tasks related to the local community and 4 % on all other activities.[4]

The discussed studies are quite useful in understanding what principals do, but may not be very useful in normative terms, i.e., advising on what they are supposed to do so as to achieve educational goals. In addition, the majority of these studies draw from models established in business, instead of addressing the specific environment of educational organizations. This is why it might be useful to segment the educational environment and related principals' activities. It is very difficult to completely avoid the metaphors of business management, which has arrived at a generic representation of an organizational environment. Referring to such business studies (cf. Robbins & Coulter, 2013; Daft, 2015), we derive the following model:

- the *external 'macro-environment'*, i.e., general determinants of the social context (often conceptualized in terms of the political-economic-social-technical forces);
- the *external 'micro-environment'*, consisting of the immediate organizational stakeholders; and
- the *internal environment*, encompassing organizational resources and core operative processes.

This is why one might draw a direct comparison between generic organizational-environment analysis and Foskett and Lumby's (2003) dimensions of developing strategy/resources and leading learning processes within the internal school environment, and subsequently managing relationships with the people and local community (i.e., actors within the external micro-environment). Once again, the issue of EA/EM disconnectedness from the policy level comes into play (Glatter, 1987), which refers to activities performed in the external macro-environment. These three levels of managerial activity could serve as an excellent starting point for development of best practices and, potentially, even normative guidelines/standards for managerial development for principals. This is not a completely new concept, since it has already been applied by the authors of the *PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) survey*, which tries to uncover the relationships between educational resources, policies, practices and student outcomes (OECD, 2013), although public

perception of this study may be restricted to the dimensions of rank lists and international comparisons.

3 …and the (Management) Theory Jungle

As previously discussed, the research and interpretation of managerial practices can be a contested territory. Nor is management theory is transparent. More than fifty years ago, H. Koontz (1961) named his review of applicable theories *'the management theory jungle'*. He recognized several waves of managerial theory development, starting with H. Fayol and F. W. Taylor, an American engineer well-known for his *scientific-management* effort to analyze traditional work policies, tools and processes, in search of labor-saving opportunities. Opposing conventional ways of organizing work, Taylor sought efficiency by introducing the most contemporary technology and motivating employees to contribute by using an incentive payment system designed to maximize physical effort. Taylor and his followers are often criticized and 'accused' for an overly bureaucratic, technical and even inhumane approach to managing (Spender & Kijne, 1996). The subsequent *'human-behavior'* school of management (also referred to as the human-relations or leadership school) even today sets forth one of the fundamental dichotomies between 'traditional vs. contemporary', 'hard vs. soft', 'management vs. leadership' approaches in management theory. This school of thought started with the intention to analyze inter-personal relationships and dynamics as determinants of organizational behavior and performance (Koontz, 1961), but its consequences went above and beyond this. Based on the idea of people as *human resources,* with vast, untapped sources of motivation/inspiration and creativity, this dichotomy can be appropriated as a source of the contemporary human-resource management practices (although such a simplification should be taken *cum grano salis*—see, e.g., Guest, 1987).

Some widely accepted introductions to the history of EA/EM also try to mirror fundamental developments in the generic management field and link it to relevant theories and studies in related areas, including sociology, public administration, nonprofit management and so forth. For instance, Campbell (1987) traces the theoretical development of EA by progressing from scientific-management and human relations/democratic-administration dichotomy toward the bureaucratic model of organizations, as created by May Weber and discussed in the American school of sociological structural functionalism. The discussion is further developed by

using generic open-systems theory and, finally, some education-specific issues and drivers. This is a typical application-driven approach, contested by Tony Bush (2007b, p. 391): *"The author's view is clear and consistent, having been articulated for more than 20 years. While education can learn from other settings, educational leadership and management has to be centrally concerned with the purpose or aims of education. These purposes or goals provide the crucial sense of direction to underpin school management. Unless this link between purpose and management is clear and close, there is a danger of 'managerialism'."*

Educational management models: conceptualizations of an educational organization and variables relevant for managing/leading such an organization.

Conceding to a much earlier call to link administrative/managerial styles to underlying (or, at least, supportive) educational theories (Newton, 1980), Bush (2007a) uncovers a range of educational-management and leadership models, with the latter being outside of the scope of this chapter. The EM/EA models, singled out by Bush (op. cit.) are as follows:

- *Formal models* encompass all the structural-rational approaches, prominently advancing the notion of formalized and hierarchical work relationships, under the assumption that rational managerial processes will lead to the realization of school effectiveness and/or other objectives. This strictly positivist approach has many practical inconsistencies, arising from the complexity of the educational environment, increased professionalism of school staff and multiplicity of educational goals.
- *Collegial models* are supposed to alleviate some of the structural-rational notions of EM/EA, as the bottom-up processes of collegial discussion and consensus-forming seem to be helpful with complex and multi-faceted environments and goals. They are also quite effective within small groups, as found in typical schools, which share most of their values, as well as a similar level of professionalism. In a way, this model is also normative, since it firmly stands for the superiority of democratic management and leadership over a bureaucratic, structural paradigm. Nevertheless, the implicit variable for the

achievement of school goals, which might not be addressed by the model, is related to the support and the attitude of the principal, who is still held accountable by the school governing body.

- *Political models,* in general, look into organizations in terms of individuals' and groups' interests and negotiating processes, which lead to outcomes based on actors' power and negotiating competencies. The political dimension of administration is a well-established fact within the research of other sectors, especially when informal networks (Krackhardt, 1990) and strategy-formulation (Pettigrew, 1977) are considered. A complex and ambiguous educational environment, dependent on public policies and their implementation, provides some support to this dimension of analyzing EM/EA processes.
- *Subjective models* build upon the social constructivist view in social sciences, understanding organizations in terms of stakeholders' subjective interpretations created by social interactions. In this way, organizations are divested from their institutional dimension and interpreted in terms of individual meanings, beliefs and cultural backgrounds. Whatever one may think about such a postmodern approach, educational institutions can be compared (and many of them even belong) to non-profit organizations, whose effectiveness is socially constructed according to the interpretations of their stakeholders (Herman & Renz, 1997). What arises from well-established research on non-profit sector effectiveness is that the work and performance of such organizations are so complex that each of their stakeholders usually only looks at one small part of the big picture and interprets it according to his/her viewpoints and interests. Nevertheless, there are managerial practices which seem to be widely accepted and held as effective by a whole range of stakeholders (Herman & Renz, 1998; 1999; 2008). This comparison seriously undermines the relativizing arguments which might be applied by a postmodern thinker to the EA/EM field.
- *Ambiguity models* emphasize uncertainty of the environment and problems experienced by institutions and their managers when placed in an unstable context. The fluidity of both objectives and associated managerial processes leads to fragmented structures and constantly changing patterns of organizational action. The inspiration for this EM/EA model clearly emanates from the work of Cohen, March and Olsen (1972) on the 'garbage-can' theory of decision-making and Weick's (1976) notion of the 'loosely coupled' organizational

approach as applied in education. The educational environment seems to be ideal for the application of such theories, due to its complexity and the relative independence of organizational actors. The advantage of such a model might be an extreme form of adaptability, due to the lack of central-organizational control. Nevertheless, it is argued that the actual applicability of models that presume extreme decentralization might be limited, and that a mix of different models is required to successfully describe an educational organization (Ellström, 1983). A certain level of structural coherence is also required, both from the theoretical (Tyler, 1987) and the practical viewpoints of implementing public educational policies, as discussed by Lutz (1982) in the case of higher education, but applicable to all levels of education.

- *Cultural models* concentrate on the notion of organizational culture, which represents the deeper, underlying ideology of organizations, consisting of values, beliefs, expectations, etc., as well as their social representations through stories, material artefacts and rituals (Hoy, 1990). A school culture leads to the establishment of norms which informally direct staff behavior, although different subgroups (such as teachers, administrative staff, school management, external stakeholders involved into the work of a school, etc.) with particular subcultures may exist. While shared organizational ideology may be a strong ground for a principal's leadership, a potential problem could be generated by an attempt to achieve domination by instilling homogeneity into an organization.

4 Toward a Global and a Local Synthesis

A range of different literature traditions has been discussed as (at least partially) relevant for understanding and fostering a principal's managerial competences. The stream of literature related to the experiences of generic non-profit organizations (see, e.g., Anheier, 2005) seems to be the most neglected. It might provide interesting insights, since non-profits function in a very similar, complex environment, with many stakeholders who might have different or even conflicting perspectives on an organization's characteristics and requirements. The analysis of generic business management still influences specific, applied contexts in which the individual disciplines are developed. This also applies to EA/EM, which struggles to find its own rightful place in the arena of educational research and scholarship,

but still needs to be practically relevant for the obvious purpose of developing successful school leaders.

The international context of the field is a topic in itself, as Anglo-American roots still dominate many of the fundamental aspects of EA/EM. Even with all of these major professional journals and fora providing an ample space for discussion of global experiences, the production of an applicable global knowledge-base remains unbalanced. In the case of Asia, for example, 'positive outliers' were highly developed Hong Kong and Israel, while many studies, such as the Chinese national literature (Hallinger & Chen, 2014), remain 'locked' from the view of the international professional public.

The authors of this chapter could not identify a systematic movement in South-East Europe which could be described as an EA/EM 'regional knowledge-base'. Along with other individuals affiliated with the Croatian Education and Teacher Training Agency (Croatian acronym: AZOO),[5] the National Centre for External Evaluation of Education (Croatian acronym: NCVVO)[6] and the Scientific Center of Excellence for School Effectiveness and Management,[7] the authors of this volume have produced several empirical studies and practical handbooks during the last several years. A national program for the preparation of principals has not yet been developed, although a consortium, headed by the University of Zadar and funded by the European Social Fund, is currently working on this task. A somewhat more developed context, both in terms of theory coverage and principal preparation, can be found in Slovenia, where a national school for leadership in education was established[8] in 1995. It is engaged in a range of activities, including organizing professional events, publishing a specialized journal in English,[9] and so forth. Some European training organizations have been active throughout the region, with an example of good practice for headship preparation in Bulgaria available in the literature (Kastanje & Webber, 2008).

Based on additional literature and Internet searches, additional studies and webpages of national principals' associations can be found, although the knowledge of local languages seems to be of paramount importance for such a task. The majority of information is fragmented and requires an understanding of the local social and political context as well. Countries that have already started to integrate into the global EA/EM community of researchers and practitioners, such as Slovenia and Croatia, could try to develop wider regional initiatives. In addition, it would be of extreme importance for educational administration/management/leadership

authors and practitioners from this as well as other peripheral regions, to assume a more active role in major journals, conferences, and events, which would help the transfer of the best global and regional practices. The authors hope that this volume is one step in that direction.

Notes

1. The association is still active and its website can be perused at: http://ncpeaprofessor.org.
2. See website http://www.ucea.org/
3. See websites http://www.naesp.org/ and http://www.nassp.org/.
4. Raw statistical data, with international comparisons of principals' workday activities, is available from the following OECD code: http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041231
5. See: http://www.azoo.hr (most of the content is in Croatian).
6. See: http://www.ncvvo.hr/drzavnamatura/c/portal/layout?p_l_id=PUB.1001.23 (some downloadable studies available in English).
7. See: http://zci-sem.eu
8. See: http://en.solazaravnatelje.si
9. The journal *Leadership in Education* is partially available in open access. See: http://en.solazaravnatelje.si/publishing/leadership/leadership-31/.

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CHAPTER 6

Principals' Educational Leadership

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Abstract The decentralisation of the educational system, as demonstrated by an increased autonomy of schools regarding the content and methods of teaching, is an ever-more present practice in developed countries. It is given significant consideration in South-East European countries following their abandonment of the socialist regime. Principals' vocational training is often obligatory in these countries, although discrepancies are emphasised between education and modern-leadership requirements, as is the case with the importance of introducing principal licensure. Efficiency of leadership which attends to teachers' needs is observed, and enables teachers to participate in decision-making. South-East European countries' teachers are seen as participating less in school management compared to more developed countries, and as having less possibilities for the vocational development required for informed responses.

1 The Preconditions and Limitations of Leadership as a School-Efficiency Factor

Leadership becomes an increasingly required feature of organisational management, determined by bringing about vision, creativity and orientation toward change. It implies exerting influence over others while aiming to achieve specific goals. Since it takes place among people, it is an active process with considerably different outcomes (Daft, 2008, p. 489). In the context of schools, this means that it is neither teachers alone nor principals

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_6

alone who improve schools, but teachers and principals working together. (Schmidt-Davies & Bottoms, 2011, p. 2). Efficient principals know how to motivate employees and encourage them to become dedicated to their schools' goals, thus improving their performance. On the other hand, inefficient leadership creates ambiguities and leads to the deterioration of human relations and organisational decline (Robbins, 2013).

The importance of the discussion of school leadership has been increasing over the past three decades. Emphasis has been given to the unsuitability of bureaucratic leadership with a rigid downward hierarchy and centralised decisions reached by public authorities outside schools, which are detrimental to the quality of teaching and learning (Elmore, 2000, Muijs & Harris, 2003; Harris, 2005; Bush, 2008; Louis, Leithwood, Whalstrom, & Anderson, 2010). On the other hand, the importance of *democratic leadership forms* is emphasised, where principals attribute importance to teachers as co-workers, respecting their knowledge, opinions and needs in setting the school's goals, selection and introduction of employees, collecting funds, creating the curriculum and the methods of teaching and valorisation of the results of learning (Currie & Lockett, 2007). Although purposeful leadership cannot be isolated from a wider socio-cultural context, and studies outside the milieu of the West indicate leadership styles other than cooperation as factors in school efficiency, such as authoritarian and collectivistic styles which do not stimulate individual initiatives (Al-Safran, Brown, & Wiseman, 2014; Lai, Luen, Chai, & Ling, 2014), it is obvious that rapid social change requires innovation and timeliness of education (Fullan, 2001). Schools in the Republic of Croatia are a clear example, where staff participates frequently in the decision-making process, and students, according to the 2006, 2009 and 2012 PISA results, achieve better results at reading, mathematics and science compared with other former-Yugoslav countries (with the exception of Slovenia) (OECD 2007, 2010, 2014a). This can be linked to Croatia's general fulfilment of requirements for EU accession, which led to modernisation and democratisation of education during recent years (Andevski, Arsenijević, & Spajić, 2015). Irrespective of the fact that studies show mediocre results for Croatian principals in the promotion of democratic leadership (Baranović, Dominović, & Štirbić, 2006; Matijević Šimić, 2011), its realisation in the Republic of Serbia and in Bosnia and Herzegovina is even poorer (CPG, 2009; Josanov-Vrgović & Pavlović, 2014), while the Croatian educational system is currently launching a reform that should lead toward strengthening of the competencies of principals in a decentralised educational system.

The significance of leadership has been recently shown by educational policies, practices and research. The strategies adopted by a large number of states emphasise the requirement of flexibility, while the USA went even further by adopting the 2002 *No Child Left Behind Act,* which prescribes legal responsibility for principals whose students fail to achieve expected results (including limitations to authorisation for school leadership or termination of employment), with the possibility of school closure (Van Roekel, 2008). Institutions have been established during the past two decades which issue licences to principals and provide for their vocational training (e.g., *The National College for School Leadership* in the United Kingdom, *Center for Educational Management Research* in Norway, *Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium* in the USA, etc.). An increasing number of EU member states prescribe principal vocational training prior to and following appointment, and it is rare that no experience in the education system is required prior or during the appointment (as is the case in the Netherlands, both the Walloon and Flemish communities of Belgium, Latvia and Sweden) (EACEA, 2013).

With respect to Eastern Europe, it is significant that EU member countries' educational policies recognise the importance of educational training and principal licensure, and all countries' regulations stipulate work experience in the field of education for applicants. Licensing and vocational training of principals are mandatory in Italy and Slovenia, while in 2012 Romania introduced regulations stipulating vocational training. There are no such regulations in Bulgaria; however, consideration is being given to launching a mentorship programme for newly appointed principals (The World Bank, 2014). The intention of principal vocational development is also observed in the new study programme *Master of Educational Management*, launched by the *European Polytechnical University,* which will enrol its first students in late 2016. Training and licensing are still not compulsory in Croatia; however, they are anticipated in the Strategy for Education, Science and Technology adopted in 2014. This is important because research conducted in Croatian primary schools show that those principals who use diverse approaches to training (workshops, lectures, seminars or consultations on management, administration, budget, curriculum, classes and projects, to name a few) meet with greater success in meeting the requirements of their schools' stakeholders (staff, students, parents, employers, local authorities, ministries, etc.) (Alfirević, Pavičić, Mihanović, & Relja, 2010). The professionalisation of principals is increasingly considered by EU candidate countries. For example, specific steps

have been taken by Albania and Serbia, where training and licensing are obligatory, although discrepancies are noted between the programme and the requirements of modern leadership (Terek, Nikolic, Gligorović, Glušac, & Tasić, 2015, Nathanailli, 2015).

National School for Leadership Education
Following the breakup of Yugoslavia in the early 1990s and the commencement of educational reforms which included changes in the duration of primary and secondary school programmes and the content of their curricula, the Slovenian Ministry of Education established the *National School for Leadership Education* in 1995. Its programmes include principal licensure and monitoring and annual expert conferences intended for their education. The institution was among the first of its kind, except in the USA, where school-leadership training had been developed previously. Its goal is to prepare principals for successful leadership in a decentralised educational system, wherein school autonomy increases in the selection of instructional content and manner of teaching, funding and the selection of staff. Its programmes are primarily for principals. It is therefore recommended that it should also pay attention to teacher leadership, either by their inclusion in educational programmes, or through increasing the number of topics of pedagogical leadership in the education of principals, compared with issues of resource management or legislation.
Sentočnik (2012)

Increasing research has been conducted on sampled principals, teachers and students in a large number of countries, implying that leadership oriented toward teachers' opinions and attitudes increases educational accomplishments (Anderson, 2008; Yavuz, 2008; Simkin, Charner, & Suss, 2010; Adeyami, 2011; Josanov-Vrgović & Pavlović, 2014, etc.). Moreover, Louis et al. (2010) claim that leadership is the most important factor for the success of a school, second only to high-quality teaching. Although quality depends on multiple factors, principals may unite them cohesively through their initiatives. Branch, Hanushek and Rivkin (2012) specify that principals have an influence on the increase in the amount of time their students dedicate to work, while Waters, Marzano, and

Mcnulty (2003) claim that successful principals improve their students' standardised test results by 10%, within a single school year.

What makes successful leadership? Mendels (2012), following the 2012 Wallace Foundation (USA) report, emphasises the requirement of creating a vision of educational accomplishments based on high standards. Consequently, leadership cannot be separated from the efficiency of daily management and administration, i.e., adequate management of human resources, data and processes for achieving organisational stability, order and successful problem-solving (Daft, 2008). Respect for colleagues and communication lead to efficiency, unlike demotivated employees working under rigid hierarchical leadership, as indicated by the statements of principals issued during research conducted in the USA, according to which teachers may come up with very creative ideas when informed of resources and encouraged to contemplate and solve problems. In this manner, trust, respect and efficiency increase in a school (Reitzug, West, & Angel, 2008). Otherwise, low morale and disinclination prevail: Teachers regard themselves as martyrs in hopeless situations, and discussions are limited to student problems and other management problems (Marshall, 2003).

Preconditions for Successful School Leadership

- Understand, respond to and influence the broader political, social, economic, legal and cultural context;
- Collaborate with families and community members in responding to diverse community interests and requirements and mobilising community resources;
- Establish safe and modern school facilities equipped with adequate technologies;
- Ensure fair compensation and benefits for personnel;
- Validate teaching and learning as the central activities of the school;
- Promote collaboration among teachers by providing them with sufficient time and resources for professional development tied to educational results; and
- Share authority and responsibility for efficiency by stimulating and empowering personnel in their roles.

Van Roekel (2008)

The results of the above-mentioned research suggest the importance of leadership for school efficiency, as well as that decentralised leadership is not inherent in contemporary education. Maxfield and Flumerfelt (2009) emphasise that schools need to abandon traditional, stratified leadership forms that promulgate a fundamental difference between teachers as service providers and principals and school administration as leaders. For example, American society still fails to give sufficient importance to support, opportunities and education of teachers in taking a higher level of independence in performing their professional duties. Despite the growing number of voices emphasising the advantages of colleague involvement in decision-making, British society is also characterised by the prevailing image of a principal as an "extraordinary person," a "hero," which is promoted within popular culture around the world (Muijs & Harris, 2003, 437). It is not surprising that such an image of principals therefore exists in South-East European countries that were primarily socialist, with planned economies, during the second half of the twentieth century (former Yugoslav countries, Albania, Bulgaria, Moldova and Romania), so that their education systems developed uniformly at the national level. Following their opening to the market in the late twentieth century and upon their accession to the EU (except for Moldova, which is not a member country, and Albania and the former Yugoslav countries which are candidate countries or potential candidate countries: Montenegro, Macedonia, Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Kosovo) one can expect an increase in the flexibility of educational systems due to the requirement for increased responsibility of schools for successful operation. In order to promote co-operation among the principal, teachers and other staff in personal and organisational development by harmonising different goals, one should avoid the disadvantages of "loosely tied organisations," as schools in Croatia were labelled by Baranović et al. (2006), which implies that principals provide for a certain level of autonomy of teachers in their teaching activities, while the possibility of influencing decisions at the school level is centralised with the principal, and the culture of debate about work is generally not developed. This type of situation is more characteristic of, for example, Albania, where teachers rarely show any interest in general school problems, whereby a "model of isolated teachers" develops, with their concentrating entirely on their classrooms, and there is a lack of (in)formal leadership networks and co-operation with other schools and the community (Nathanailli, 2015, 202). Serbian principals also emphasise teachers' reluctance to participate in teamwork and activities outside their classrooms which are not clearly defined in their job descriptions (Ševkušić et al., 2014).

Such commitment is clarified by *contingency theory*, according to which leadership style is to a significant extent determined by the influence of environment, i.e., the situations faced by schools (Amstrong, 2009, 5–6). While many principals are aware of the importance of spreading initiative and leadership practices among the staff at all school-management levels, they are still not able to systemise such efforts, due to their being involved in a large number of activities. High expectations from principals are emphasised: setting the school's goals, curriculum, expert validations, PR, co-operation with the community, managing the budget, managing school facilities and harmonising the work with education policies and legal requirements (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007, p. 10–11). Consequently, principals often act routinely, irrespective of research, and many of them do not even recognise the usefulness of democratic leadership, having been educated in the spirit of the past. Nevertheless, in the same manner as it is possible to develop their knowledge and social skills, such as co-operation, openness and moderation can also be strengthened, which is important when motivating teachers to improve their performance, since, according to Fieder's leadership theory, the modern school is an environment where tasks are not completely predictable and the principal's authority is not based merely on a formal position, but also on the knowledge, trust and respect of employees. Against the backdrop of such an environment, people-oriented leadership which recognises the needs of others achieves significantly better results than task-oriented leadership based on hierarchy, i.e., predominantly one-way allocation of activities, schedule and terms (Amstrong, 2009). Hence, it is necessary to raise the awareness of the problem at the level of national educational strategies, alongside restructuring of principals' activities.

Staničić (2006) also emphasises the fact that principals are overburdened by administrative tasks, so that Croatian school principals have only 20% of their time left for expert pedagogical activities, while the remaining time is spent on performance of administrative tasks that frequently exert hardly any influence on the efficiency of their schools. The same author also emphasises the consequent over-representation of a managerial-administrative infrastructure, which provides support to schools, in relation to expert-pedagogical and research infrastructure, which accounts for mere 15% of the total (e.g., ministries, agencies, county and town education boards, research institutes, associations, etc.). The importance of (re)defining the role of principals is also promoted in Croatian educational reform (Strategy of Education, Science,

and Technology, 2014, p. 52). Studies conducted in Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia and Slovenia show an almost identical overburdening of principals with administrative tasks (Sentočnik, 2012; Parvanova, 2013; Gkolia & Belias, 2014; Terek et al., 2015).

Educational policies, generally at the state level, which set strict criteria to be adhered to by schools and leave insufficient space for creativity and initiative, contribute to the slow pace of change. Decision-makers nominally take studies into consideration; yet they frequently emphasise that these should be conducted with a larger sample of participants, and compare countries with respect to the clarity of leadership, as a moderating variable of school efficiency, against the backdrop of the social environment. Some authors also suggest a thesis of the unpreparedness of policies to take account of research that may indicate their defects (Foskett, Lumby, & Fidler, 2005, p. 247–248). Consequently, perhaps, more articulately directing schools and their environments toward democratic education-system management is yet to come, wherein stakeholders will need to be aware of the possibilities and advantages of leadership that focuses on student requirements. Upon making high-quality decisions, schools' experiences are unavoidable, and a starting point may also be found in principals, faculty and staff who already function in this manner, adjusting successfully to (supra)national, regional and local directives, while continuously considering student needs. Such directives support "local solutions to local problems" and have a positive effect on education results (Whalstrom, 2008, 594).

2 Toward Integration of Democratic Leadership Styles…

There are several democratic leadership styles whose differences are sometimes based only on the importance they attribute to individual activities in relation to others, while sometimes the differences existing among certain models are unclear. Nevertheless, this is always the case of styles that prefer "the leadership of many, and not of just some,, where what someone does to others is not pre-determined by hierarchical position, since *leadership arises from inter-relations of networked individuals, and manifests itself as a fluid process rather than work tied to formal positions in an organisation* (Harris, 2004, 13–14).

During the mid-1980s, as a response to school-leadership styles which prescribe strict rules and require strict adherence by followers, the theoretic model and practice of *transformational leadership* began to be developed, linking individual requirements with the expectations and roles of the group (Bidwell, 2001). Numerous studies show the influence of transformational leadership on persistency and improved performance on the part of teachers in economically developed Western countries, but also in South-East European countries (Avolio, 1994; Marks & Printy, 2003; Leithwood, Steinbach & Jantzi, 2002; Peko, Mlinarević, & Gajger, 2009; Porter et al., 2010; Matijević Šimić, 2011; Andevski, Arsenijević & Spajić, 2012; Josanov-Vrgović & Pavlović, 2014). While in the case of centralised leadership, motivation is controlled by external influences, i.e., rewards for adhering to certain rules, procedures and duties, transformational leadership links work with the wishes and aspirations of participants, whose motivation is autonomous and intrinsic, i.e., arises from interest in work rather than from outcomes like pay, respect or connections (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Such motivation strengthens *affective* (*emotional*) *commitment*, i.e., the identification of employees with their work organisation by internalising its values and rules of conduct (McShane & Von Glinow, 2010). This implies willingness to invest additional time and effort, which is of special importance for reforms or the introduction of new programmes.

Transformational Leadership Factors

1. *idealised influence charisma*: Followers identify with leaders and emulate them, while leaders have high standards of ethical conduct and set challenging goals;
2. *inspirational motivation*: Leaders promote team spirit in achieving organisational goals, by communicating to others high expectations and a commitment to accomplishing a shared mission;
3. *intellectual stimulation*: Challenging values and beliefs (personal and institutional), initiative, creativity and inclination for change; and
4. *individualised consideration*: Leaders try to respect differences and needs, creating a supportive climate for self-actualisation of all group members.

Northouse (2010)

Autonomous motivation leads to reconsideration and flexibility, unlike acting rigidly when motivating solely by outcomes. Consequently, one should not neglect the fact that increased autonomy implies increased responsibility. According to the situational theory of leadership, only employees who demonstrate willingness and the required abilities can be efficient leaders (Daft, 2008, 498). The same applies in the case of principals. Hence, it is understandable that Belgrade's Institute for Educational Research's studies emphasise that Serbian principals should be awarded a greater freedom in decision-making, but only upon acquiring the required competencies (mentorship by current principals, then replaced by new candidates, is recommended, along with harmonising licensure with school requirements, an option of holding the position for more than two terms, i.e., eight years, and so forth) (Ševkušić et al., 2014).

External motivation is linked with a lower level of teacher satisfaction with work, as well as with stress and burnout, poor engagement, and a higher turnover (Helsing, 2007). Ensuring a relatively adequate and consistent material compensation is certainly an important motivator, primarily in countries with high unemployment rates, as is normally the case in South-East Europe. Hence, research involving teachers in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, and Serbia, shows a relatively high level of satisfaction with work due to its stability, despite observed defects in management (Peko et al., 2009; CPG, 2009; Josanov-Vrgović & Pavlović, 2014). The results of the 2013 TALIS (*Teaching and Learning International Survey*) research project confirm that teachers in South-East European countries (Serbia, Bulgaria, Croatia and Romania) spend a considerably small amount of time participating in school management, the average being less than an hour a week, while the average number of hours per week is five in Singapore, three in Australia and Japan, two in South Korea and the United Kingdom, and one and a half hours in the USA (OECD, 2014b).

Nevertheless, commitment to work is accomplished by identifying with it. Studies emphasise that the work of a teacher may be very tiresome and stressful due to shortcomings in their education, public criticism, an excessive number of students per class, their diverse needs, adolescent problem behaviour, low salaries, the number of students with special needs and various parent requirements (Byrne, 1999; Dick & Wagner, 2001; Jenkins & Calhoun, 2006; Kvesić, Zenić Sekulić, & Kvesić, 2010). It is the role of leadership to create work conditions that will not reduce a teacher's motivation to the financial outcome of their work and the risk of leaving it, especially when large-scale education reforms are fundamental.

In addition to the previously mentioned studies, the benefits of transformational leadership in South-East Europe are also shown by research by Terak et al. (2015) conducted in Serbian primary schools, emphasising that such leadership promotes communication within a school and a feeling of satisfaction among the staff, the joint creation of visions and goals, intellectual stimulation and fair remuneration. Similar conclusions were reached by Gkolia and Belias (2014), in research conducted in Greek primary and secondary schools, finding that transformational leadership improves communication among principal, teachers and students, increasing educational content and teacher expectations. Along with the general strengthening of teachers' commitment to their work, intrinsic motivation is of particular importance in prosperous countries, like the USA, where about 50% of teachers leave their jobs within the first five working years, a trend which primarily affects poorer and less successful schools that in turn employ non-certified and inexperienced teachers (Ingersoll, 2001).

Since the mid-1990s, due to an intense focus on the teaching process which transformational leadership sometimes lacks, as it considers overall school performance, considerations given to *shared instructional leadership* have also intensified and the school considered an environment in which everybody learns (Blase & Blase, 1999). As opposed to the traditional instructional-leadership concept, the principal should not be teachers' supervisor, evaluating their efficiency on the basis of institutionalised inspections and tests, but rather the facilitator of their expert development (Marks & Printy, 2003). By doing so, they can make both direct and indirect contributions. Direct contributions include participation in drafting curricula, visiting classes and reflecting on the work of teachers in a way that will not be taken as an attack, but rather as suggestions aimed at improving teaching, participating in workshops intended for the acquisition of knowledge and skills lacking in their school, holding occasional sample lectures and by group visits with their teachers to other schools, aiming to exchange experiences or participate in joint projects. A positive impact of such practices is observed in statements given by interviewed US teachers, who emphasise that this type of principal conduct inspires them to thinking what they can improve, and develops their self-confidence by being paid attention to and provided with useful information (Blase & Blase, 1999, 359–362).

Although other studies also confirm the importance of the direct influence exerted by the principal on the efficiency of learning and teaching (Louis et al., 2010; The Wallace Foundation, 2012, 2013 etc.), some

authors emphasise that the indirect influence of the principal on school efficiency is even greater, by creating conditions in which teachers may improve their teaching and the outcomes of learning through mutual co-operation. This ranges from routine performance of administrative tasks and successful funding, to employing successful teachers, relevant class scheduling, forming work groups to reach decisions concerning classes, and stimulating vocational training. Horng and Loeb (2010) emphasise the fact that principals in large schools lack the time and knowledge required to be able to give suggestions to each employee concerning their work. Their research, conducted on a sample of 1900 principals and 32,000 teachers in the USA, showed that those principals who are good managers are also more efficient. According to the data, principals dedicate only one-fifth of their time to managerial activities, and as much as one-third of their time to managing documents, which is not related with the increased efficiency of their schools.

It is a common practice in South-East European countries to form boards to manage schools in which various stakeholders—students, parents, and local community representatives, along with the principal and the staff—participate in harmonising their needs. Nevertheless, these boards have many shortcomings that block the realisation of their potential. Such shortcomings include unclear criteria for the selection of board members, their lack of education, non-transparent activities and lack of an external evaluation system, to name a few. Their operation needs to be improved for allocation of possibly substantial responsibilities. Consequently, in Bosnia and Herzegovina the boards appoint principals who have no obligation to undertake vocational training and have no mandatory licensure. Consequently, they have exclusive jurisdiction over the appointment of competent candidates.

Marks and Printy (2003) emphasise the usefulness of the simultaneous practice of shared instructional leadership and a broad managerial range of transformational leadership, since building teachers' and students' competencies requires overall organisational capacities. "Whereas these leadership dimensions are analytically distinct, they may cohere in practice in an integrated model of leadership," (Marks & Printy, 2003, p. 377). Shared instructional leadership is efficient only where the principal performs all the tasks properly (Grissom & Loeb, 2009). The same is suggested by a study on the presence of instructional leadership in the New Zealand-based secondary schools of above- and below-average success (Bendikson, Robinson, & Hattie, 2012). The integrated model of transformational

and shared instructional leadership reconciles the conflict of the principal's managerial and educational roles. As controversial as decisions regarding schools reached without their participation are, decisions in which principals act by disregarding one of these roles are equally controversial.

3 …for Strategic Sustainability of School Efficiency

Strategic school leadership includes the awareness of direction, causes and activities to be undertaken. Irrespective of whether they concerns staff discussions or official documents, successful strategies direct activities toward achievable goals whose achievement requires a balance of daily activities and long-term plans. Explicit steering to action as an "investment in the future," without carefully proceeding in the present, causes crises that may render strategy implementation impossible. Similarly, insisting on exercising routines may result in neglecting long-term achievements or even their abandonment (Davies & Davies, 2006). As suggested by one of the principals who participated in a study conducted by Davies (2007), one needs to be a "pragmatopian," i.e., to have one's feet on the ground to make sure everything is working (pragmatic) and one's head in the clouds in order to see the future (utopian). Here, strategic leadership is not a novelty, but rather a key element of activities directed toward long-term sustainability.

Sustainability is linked with democratic leadership, as it implies a culture of achievement which is mindful of the needs of others. Such schools develop capacities without harming their members or the wider community, but rather adjust successfully to challenges by strengthening existing resources, acting responsibly and respecting others (Stefkovich & Begley, 2007). Although principals still have a legitimate role in stimulating ideas and decisions at a school, they are increasingly aware that leadership is not a *zero-sum* situation, but rather that personnel need to understand the operation of their school and make decisions concerning issues, in the case of strategic leadership, involving the unsuitability of current operational modes for the future. Even though individual activities hardly contribute to efficiency, school activities develop through their integration (The Wallace Foundation, 2012). The creation of wide networks of co-operation, even at the global level, and the implementation and coordination of a vast array of activities are enabled thanks to information technology, and it is therefore of high importance for principals to rec-

ognise technological possibilities. Vocational-training programmes should include such knowledge, as it was shown that principals have little confidence in using technology (Stuart, Mills, & Remus, 2009). Their activities are based on text-processing, e-mailing and online searches, and much less frequently also databases and spreadsheets (Schiller, 2003). Strategically sustainable leadership requires the highest quality of available persons for performing tasks, in what is known as *task culture* (Hammersley-Fletcher & Brundrett, 2008), while its implementation is also based on (Davies, 2003: 303–304):

1. a dissatisfaction or restlessness with the present: This leads to creative solutions regarding goals and facing the present in real terms;
2. determining the right moment for the change: Adequate organisational resources and support in the environment are desirable, primarily when changing to activities that have high-quality results because they have been properly promoted;
3. linking goals and activities precisely, and developing performance measurement instruments through wider communication: A successful strategy is based on sharing its importance with all those it will impact; and
4. adjusting the strategic approach to the current situation: More frequently, this concerns already-developed plans, but occasionally it is determined by breaking events that demand a relatively rapid response.

Professionalization of Principals as Part of the Strategic Reform of the Croatian Education System

Sustainable functioning of schools requires strategic decentralisation of the education system, which principals should be prepared for. The Republic of Croatia has just started such a reform, and similar policies are advocated in other South-East European countries. Strategic documents need to be adjusted to implement possibilities, as shown by the low initial level of principal licensure in Croatia that took place in 2008-09, despite the educational programmes and experimental workshops then held. Due to unclear criteria for principal appointment, licensure and education, as well as the uncoordinated work of various stakeholders, the 2014 *Strategy of Education*, *Science*

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(*continued*)

and Technology emphasises requirements for further professionalisation of principals, along with a comprehensive curriculum reform, according to which schools would be autonomous in creating teaching content in line with predefined learning outcomes and occupational standards, as well as an increase in the quality of work and reputation of teachers, the development of a child and student support system and other measures. The following are recommended:

1. define the role of principals, i.e., prepare documents that regulate their work;
2. design competency standards for principals;
3. create legal prerequisites for the institutionalisation of education intended for principals;
4. design educational programmes for principals and accredit organisations for their implementation;
5. develop a system for licensure and evaluation of the work of principals.

In order for strategically sustainable leadership to be ethical, it should primarily be mindful of the best interests of students. An equal, attentive treatment of all individuals is assumed, by means of which they are given the message that they should treat others in the same manner. This also includes communicating needs with students, as they can be at a substantial loss because of inadequate school leadership. Namely, education for successful participation in the family, the community and the society is required, as emphasised by the 1989 *UN Convention on the Rights of the Child*, which was adopted by the majority of countries at a global level (Stefkovich & Begley, 2007, p. 212–216). Simultaneously, complex knowledge and wisdom need to be developed in students for informed decision-making in life (Davies, 2007). Irrespective of the usefulness of the development of discipline and conciseness in students, standardised tests frequently fail to accomplish their goals, which is why certain schools complement them with their own programmes, as suggested by the statement of the principal in a study by Reitzug et al. (2008) which emphasises that the goal should be the education for a high-quality life and greater satisfaction in a democratic society, i.e., develop a learning community in which the school staff, students and parents will analyse the curriculum,

textbooks and teaching methods, in the light of what they can add, and what to omit, in compliance with regulations.

As can be seen from this paper, current principals have several options: develop leadership on their own or with a handful of colleagues, leave it to uncontrollable forces, or plan and promote democratic leadership within the school (Moller & Pankake, 2006). Irrespective of the fact that no decisions depend on principals alone, they should bear in mind that students promote the school, as well as themselves, through the quality of what they learn, which is important for attracting future students. By agreeing with external decisions without contemplating improvement of practices by school staff, the school will not see its accomplishments strengthened. This requires an interest on the part of the staff and students and an active approach, creativity and dialogue with the environment (Smith, 2008).

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CHAPTER 7

School Governance Models and School Boards: Educational and Administrative Aspects

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Abstract Through adoption of the democratic system in the 1980s and the 1990s,the countries of South-East Europe began decentralizing their school systems and introduced the school board as the governing body which, in co-operation with the principal, is responsible for the functioning of the school. In most countries of the region, the role of school boards has not been defined with sufficient clarity and, although school boards are responsible for the management and development of schools, their role is in practice frequently unclear, and they are often ineffective. Consequently, aiming to improve their quality of work, better defining their roles and enhancing the competencies of school board members are imperative, both in the professional and pedagogical field, and in the decision-making processes.

1 Introduction

Efficiency and quality of educational systems have become a prevalent topic over the last several decades. Social changes caused by globalisation and computerisation of society and the new economic environment have significantly influenced re-evaluation of the efficiency of the teaching process and accounted for a kind of confrontation between educational paradigms. This clash of paradigms at the level of curriculum

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_7

design and re-evaluation of the quality of knowledge and skills which students need to acquire through education, was demonstrated by revisions and, subsequently, organisation of the teaching process. Instead of the traditional paradigm focused on memorisation and reproduction of content outlined in the curriculum, a new, innovative, creative and co-constructivist paradigm of education was accepted, one that promoted teaching focused on students instead of teaching focused on lecturer delivery of pre-defined content. (Brooks & Brooks, 1999; Tan, 2009; Pivac, 2009; McKenzie & Santiago, 2005). In addition, a competence-focused approach to learning and teaching was accepted, as well as the importance of the quality of the educational environment, characterised by democratic leadership, as well as the responsibility and participation of all the stakeholders in the educational process. In addition to the perception of the teacher as a moderator and a reflexive action-oriented practitioner, and the perception of the student as an active rather than a passive participant in the educational process, the role of parents as important stakeholders, who can contribute to the quality of school work, was also acknowledged (Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications, 2010; Initial Teacher Education: Criteria and Guidelines for Programme Providers, 2011; Donnell & Harper, 2005; Ostorga, 2006). Consequently, we note that positive and significant changes have occurred at the level of the organization of the educational process. Irrespective of this progress, it has been recognized lately that positive changes in the classroom are not sufficient for the achievement of the quality of overall performance in the educational process and school as an institution which promotes the co-constructivist approach. The quality of a school as a supportive community is therefore increasingly analysed in theory and practice, which has, along with the definition of the new role of teachers, students and parents, intensified the re-examination of the role of principals and school boards. Efficient schools are defined as those which, in addition to furnishing a positive environment, education focused on active learning, a competence-based approach and parental participation, also have efficient governance. (Mitchell & Tucker, 1992; Melvin, Saskatchewan, & Thompson, 2004; Salazar, 2013). Nevertheless, while it is possible in most educational systems to generalise indicators of quality of the educational process at the organ-

isational level, and define efficient strategies of learning and teaching, as well as the quality of a supportive and democratic environment, school governance is considered a much more complex issue. Indeed, school governance is, to a considerably greater degree, compared with the didactic structuring of the classroom work, related to the socio-political, social, historical and ideological influences of society and the school system in which it operates, as is evident also from the fact that there currently are several hundred definitions of school governance (Land, 2002; Williams-Boyd, 2002; Lutz & Gresson, 1980). Subsequently, there are also multiple models of school governance. These include, for example, the community governance model, which emphasizes the relevance of family-school partnerships in community development, the business model that promotes the relevance of school efficiency and productivity, and the executive and stakeholder-scrutiny model that advocates the accountability of the executive team governing the school to the wider stakeholder group (McCrone, Southcott, & George, 2011). Each model has its scientific, social and educational foundations. In spite of mutual differences, the common characteristic shared by the abovementioned models of school governance is the recognition of school boards and principals as relevant factors which can contribute to the academic achievement of students and the improved work of schools because they promote effective governance and school-community partnerships (OECD, 2008; Smoley, 1999; Salazar, 2013; Williams-Boyd, 2002). However, to implement specific models, the most important factor appears to be for each country to implement models of efficient school governance which best address its specific needs by respecting its socio-political, economic and historical influences.

The importance of this principle can best be shown in the example of school decentralisation. Namely, over the last several decades, the system of education has been liberalised worldwide (Hill, 2006; Fredriksson, 2009; Larusdottir, 2014), which has significantly affected school decentralisation. On the one hand, some countries consider school decentralisation as financial autonomy from relevant ministerial bodies and some as greater autonomy in the sense of school governance, that is, decision-making, while some states accept both types of school decentralisation.

By accepting the democratic-social order in the 1980s and the 1990s, the countries in South-East Europe have attempted to abandon a long tradition of centralised school systems. A significant shift ocurred in the sense of decentralisation of school governance in which important decisions were passed by the local community, principals and boards of specific schools, rather than a ministerial body. The question of decentralisation becomes the question of educational policies and is directly linked with the co-constructivist paradigm, school stakeholders' interests and student academic achievement. The decentralisation of school systems in South-Eastn Europe commenced in the 2000s as horizontal decentralisation. The actual decentralisation process also has financial aspects. These are linked, in most countries of the region,with the provision of additional sources of financing, materials costs, maintenance expenses and student transport. However, in some countries of the region, such as Bulgaria, the school principal, as the school's governing body, even decides teacher salaries.

Irrespective of the model, school decentralisation has contributed to the intensification of the role of school boards in school management. Decentralisation of school governance can decrease school passivity concerning social and economic changes on the one hand, and on the other it can enable schools to meet the specific requirements of their stakeholders and lead them to an acknowledgment of stakeholders' social, economic, local and personal needs, which contribute to school quality and student academic achievement in the long term. Moreover, decentralisation of education, in the sense of each school's accepting responsibility and achieving autonomy, is important for "their performance to generate highly effective schools" (Identifying the impact of educational decentralisation on the quality of education, 2007). Nevertheless, previously conducted research points to different (in)efficiencies of educational policies in the implementation of school decentralisation, even though it has become an increasingly accepted type of governance over the last 30 years under the influence of globalisation (Daun, 2007; McCrone et al., 2011; Galiani, Gertler, & Schargrodsky, 2008). Regardless of various outcomes, school decentralisation has intensified the role of school boards in school governance, which will be further discussed in the next chapter.

Concerning the issue of school decentralisation, the Republic of Croatia has inherited the decades-long experience of a centralised system of education, similar to other countries in South-East Europe. Namely, under the influence of the former social order, the responsible ministerial body made all important decisions regarding school performance and activities. The diversity of schools and the role of school boards and other external stakeholders were not elements to be considered in such a closed system. School activities were carried out according to the same plan and programme, without acknowledging the specificity of each school environment. Upon transitioning to a democratic-pluralistic social order in the 1990s, the educational system in the Republic of Croatia faced significant reforms, one of which was to decrease centralisation of the educational system. However, it was only after the closing of the chapter on education, negotiated with the EU in the pre-accession phase, that this question started to be addressed with greater intensity. Concerning actual practices, real change has only recently started to be implemented. There are still no systematic results of research on relevant indicators of school governance, because they were not of greater interest to the wider public and scientific community. Thus, the Republic of Croatia, in spite of solid legislation on the role of the school boards and stakeholders, still has to define models for implementation of changes in the education system, as well as strengthen the role and the meaning of school boards in school governance.

2 The Role and the Function of School Boards: Different Perspectives

Most current educational policies consider school boards to be the key stakeholders in schools, which can contribute to student academic achievement and overall efficiency and performance. In the Republic of Croatia, for example, the school board is responsible for the advancement of the educational institution (Burcar, 2007) and its governance (Primary and Secondary School Education Act, Official Gazette no. 87, 2008, Article 118). In other words, the board is responsible for a number of highly important segments of school work, which, among others, include appointment of principals and adoption of relevant documents such as statutes, school curricula, annual and financial work plans and internal rules, to name a few. School boards in Croatia consist of seven members who represent different stakeholders in the educational process, of which two represent teachers and expert associates and one represents the workers' council

and parents, while three are nominated by the local and national government (Primary and Secondary School Education Act, 2011). However, in spite of well-defined legislation on the role of school boards in school governance, there are still no systematic results of research on their activities in the Republic of Croatia, nor about the competencies of their members. Similarly, there are no indicators of the contribution of school boards to increased school efficiency. The Republic of Croatia has a long tradition of a centralised education system in which all relevant decisions related to the functioning of schools at the national level were passed by the relevant ministerial body, while all the decisions related to schools at the local level were traditionally made by the principal.

Key Characteristics of School Boards in South-East Europe:

- School boards exist in almost all the countries in the region;
- According to legal statute, school boards are responsible for school governance and school development;
- Objectives and roles of school boards are not well-defined in practice;
- School-board members include parents, teachers and local community representatives; and
- In some countries in the region, parents are represented in school boards equally toother stakeholders.

International experiences have also pointed out the importance of the role of school boards in the system of education, in spite of differences existing in their structure and organisation in different countries. For example, in other countries of the European Union, school boards have an important role in school governance (Corner, 2015). Namely, in addition to being responsible for the implementation of educationally relevant legislation, school boards in a large number of countries can also exert influence on methods of teaching, textbook selection and sometimes even the curriculum (Corner, 2015). Furthermore, in the USA, school boards have traditionally governed the public education system (Land, 2002). Mostly comprised of five to seven members, and in some cases a larger number of volunteers, their role greatly depended on the sizes of schools and the municipalities to which the schools belonged (Hess, 2002; Land, 2002; Robinson & Bickers, 1990). The role of school boards

was subject to change over time, which also partially reflects changes in the major challenges which were to be addressed, and which recently have included securing donations, connecting with the local community, which frequently underestimates the work of public schools, and managing an increasingly diverse student body and the more complex problems students face (Carol et al., 1986; Land, 2002; Olson & Bradley, 1992). Certainly, in addition to these new challenges, school boards also need to perform their traditional duties and responsibilities successfully, and sometimes it is difficult to select which of these functions are the most important for the school. Hence, for example, some experts believe that selection and monitoring of the principal should be more significant than other tasks, that is, the task of securing successful school governance (Carol et al., 1986; Goodman, Fulbright, & Zimmerman, 1997). On the other hand, some authors point out that care for students is the crucial aspect of school-board tasks (Land, 2002). Irrespective of divergent views on the hierarchy of task importance, one needs to point out that school board members in a large number of states have a high degree of responsibility and many assigned tasks, and it is therefore important to analyse their possible influence on the overall work of schools.

In general, the importance of school boards within the educational system can also be noticed by the fact that they are considered one of the key factors which contribute to school efficiency, because they consolidate efficient management, promote democratic participation and facilitate the link between the institution and the community (OECD, 2008). It is therefore not surprising that some authors cite that school-board participation in decision-making processes in schools represents one of characteristics of a quality school (Brighouse & Woods, 2000, Jukić & Krznarić, 2010). However, it needs to be highlighted that this conclusion also depends on the efficiency and quality of the school board's work. In this context, previous research reveals that several characteristics of the board are relevant to its efficiency. Among those most frequently mentioned are the primary focus of the board on educational policies and students and their achievement, maintaining good relations with government and other relevant agencies, efficient management, and the continuous specialisation and self-evaluation of the work of school-board members (Land, 2002). Even though some authors believe that the quality of work of school-board members can be decreased by administrative overload, others say that such administration is part of school-board work and should therefore efficiently be integrated with other school-board tasks (Carol et al., 1986; Danzberger et al., 1987).

Furthermore, even though school boards were sometimes considered obstacles to educational reforms (Danzberger et al., 1987; Danzberger, 1994; Kirst, 1994) and were overvalued as stakeholders in the educational system (Corner, 2015), it is important to point out that citizens, parents and representatives of local communities frequently support the work of school boards, which include their representatives (Carol et al., 1986; Land, 2002). This does not come as a surprise if we consider that research has revealed that schools with more efficient governing bodies and school boards have more successful students with better academic performance, a lower dropout rate and who, for the most part, continue their education in higher-education institutions (Goodman et al., 1997; Goodman & Zimmerman, 2000). The work of school boards in such schools is characterised by a high degree of teamwork, good communication between the members and the principal, co-operation with all relevant stakeholders, decentralised governance and frequent meetings and continuous work (Anderson, 1992; Goodman et al., 1997; Iowa Association of School Boards, 2000). Efficient school boards are also characterised by the fact that their members take their responsibilities seriously and the fact that they represent the collective values and interests of the community they represent (Carol et al., 1986; Danzberger, 1992, 1994; Danzberger & Usdan, 1994; McGonagill, 1987). Therefore, they frequently aspire to overcome their personal interests for the purpose of achieving a consensus with other relevant stakeholders (Carol et al., 1986; McGonagill, 1987). In spite of the responsibilities and the complexity of the tasks which have been set before them, such members are also focused on continuous professional specialisation, aiming to improve their work on the boards (Carol et al., 1986). The importance of such a focus for school-board members is also reflected in the fact that in some countries school-board members are even formally encouraged to undergo continuous professional specialisation (Gemberling, Smith, & Villani, 2000). Such recommendations are not a surprise when we consider the previously described role and the potential influence of a school board on the work of its school and student academic achievement.

3 The Role and the Competencies of School-Board Members

In the previous part of this chapter, the most common tasks of the school board and its importance in the context of the entire educational system were described, but the significance of specific members of the board was

not particularly highlighted. The existing literature on the roles, tasks, competencies and efficiency of each specific member of a school board is quite modest. Also, there is scant research data on school board members' perception of their tasks and competencies, or their successful realisation. In the Republic of Croatia, for example, where school boards consist of teachers and parents and external stakeholders selected from the local and regional governments, there is no data on the professional competencies required for effectively undertaking board tasks, and there is also no research that focuses on this subject matter. This is actually surprising, since these persons are members of the authority which manages the school and carries a great load of responsibility for its effective governance. An insight into the role, structure and the field of work of school boards provides information about its purpose and membership structure, as well as the activities which they undertake. However, as of yet there is no answer to the question how successfully a school board fulfils its main role and of what its actual contribution to the institutional development of a school consists (Kovač, Staničić, & Buchberger, 2014, p. 400). The fact that there are no success indicators or mechanisms of (self-)evaluation of school board members' performance is also the reason why we have not been provided with an answer to date.

The Main Deficiencies of School Boards in the Countries of South-East Europe:

- Vaguely defined objectives forschool-board activities
- Lack of clear criteria for the selection of members
- Insufficient competencies of school-board members
- Lack of transparency in the work of school boards
- Lack of systematic monitoring of the work of school boards
- Lack of external evaluation of school-board work

Based on the results of research which dealt with the perceptions teachers had about educational policies, Kovač, Rafajac, Buchberger and Močibob (2014) stated that teachers in Croatian schools rated the degree of their participation in key decision-making processes with regard to educational policies as rather low. Moreover, it is necessary to create better conditions for the strengthening of their roles in decision-making processes, beginning

at the school level, which can be achieved through their participation in the school board. The authors concluded that teachers, when encouraged, can ensure that better decisions are made, focused on enhancement of educational and teaching achievement. Nevertheless, we can assume that teachers or associates who are appointed by teacher and worker councils possess specific knowledge in the domain of educational legislation and other documents related to the work of schools, since they acquire such knowledge either in their initial training or later during their work experience in schools. However, there is a question concerning the degree to which parents and representatives of the founders are familiar with educational legislation and other documents crucial for the successful performance of the school. There is also a question concerning their competencies for active and useful participation in discussions and decision-making processes on important issues of which the school board is in charge, such as selecting principals, adopting a series of relevant documents such as statutes, school curricula and financial work plans, to name a few. Moreover, it is important to highlight the idea of external stakeholders as members of school boards who are appointed by local and regional governments, which are the founders of primary and secondary schools, as fundamental for ensuring board-member impartiality, implying that they are not employees of the school and can therefore participate in the work of the school and decision-making processes with the aim of increasing the efficiency and quality of work. However, it has been revealed in practice that these school-board members actually ensure informal political influence in schools, a fact also pointed out by Rado (2010). The only minimum legal requirement these members need to meet is to be holders of a bachelor's degree (in any field of study), that is, any kind of undergraduate university study in which 180 ECTS (European Credit and Transfer and Accumulation System) credits have been completed. Fields of work, leadership experience, knowledge of educational practice and legislation related to the work of schools, are not prescribed by any formal act in the process of school-board member selection, nor any other necessary skills and competencies. This certainly brings into question their competencies, and subsequently the competencies of the school boards as governing bodies, which other authors have also pointed out (Danzberger, Kirst, & Usdan, 1992; Wyk, 2007; Kolb & Strauss, 1999). Experiences in the USA have revealed that school boards in most state-owned schools are composed through a process of election, in a way similar to elections for local or regional government, while in 3% of cases they are directly appointed by the city council or mayor (Kolb &

Strauss, 1999). In most cases there are no prerequisite qualifications for school-board members, except some minimum requirements in a few US states.

Concerning the process of electing parents onto school boards, in the Republic of Croatia they are appointed through Parent Advisory Councils, which consist of one parent who is a representative of each class in the school. Since the Parent Councils also give an opinion on the school curriculum, the annual work plan and other matters, it is clear that parents participate in a direct (the school board) or indirect (parent council) way in school governance. Previous research has pointed to a generally great benefit of parental inclusion in school life and work, irrespective of the type of activities, and a large number of positive effects which the partnership between parents and schools has with respect to the development and achievement of students. (Epstein, 2001; Novick, 1999, Epstein & Sheldon, 2002). Research into the role of parents on school boards in the Republic of Croatia is very scarce, with the exception of that conducted by Pahić, Miljević-Riđički and Vizek Vidović (2010), which has revealed that both groups of parents, those who participate in the work of school boards, and those from the general parent population, are considered equally competent to take part in decision-making processes relating to school governance, the only difference being that those parents who truly participate in the work of school boards, unlike others, find this more useful for their own children.

The role of parents in school-management authorities is defined differently in diverse European states, but in most cases is recognised as important and useful. According to the Education, Audio-visual and Culture Executive Agency of the European Commission (2012), all European countries except Sweden, Cyprus and Turkey have implemented legislation that insures and promotes an active parental role in school governance. Furthermore, in almost all countries, official regulations and recommendations provide for parent participation at the school level, and in almost two-thirds of countries also at the class level (EACEA, 2012). As members of school governing bodies, parents in Ireland, Portugal and Croatia participate in hiring new teachers, while in Slovenia they can also intervene in their dismissal. France and Slovenia appear to be the countries where parents are generally allocated the most influential role. The official regulations in these countries tend to allocate parents a decision-making role not only in areas that are most commonly within the remit of school governing bodies, but also in the areas usually reserved for higher-level authorities

(EACEA, 2012). In some European countries, there are national programmes intended to foster parent involvement in school activities and governance through targeted training initiatives. The research conducted by Hoffman (Hofman, 1995) highlighted the usefulness of parental involvement in school governing bodies by showing that school boards involving parents are more efficient in school governance with respect to academic achievement, even after controlling for the effects of student and other school characteristics. Shatkin and Gershberg (2007) emphasise the importance of parental involvement in school decision-making processes and education of parents for that role, as well as the role of the principal in facilitating parental involvement. The role of principals seems to be very important when it comes to parental participation in decision-making processes at schools. Principals from South-East European countries think that parents play a significant role in evaluating teachers' work, while, on the other hand, the role of parents in hiring teachers is seen as not particularly or not at all relevant (Pop, Powell, Miljević, & Crighton, 2009). Principals generally considered that higher parental involvement is positively correlated with the student outcomes and a positive school climate, which is least present in Moldova and Romania, and to a greater extent in other countries of the region (Pop et al., 2009). The authors of the study conclude that there is an evident gap between principals' perception of the importance of parents' involvement in school governance on the one hand, and the efforts being made to encourage the involvement of parents on the other. Experiences in South Africa show that, despite the fact that parents account for a majority in school-management bodies, they actually have little influence on the work of the school as a result of several factors: lack of familiarity with the tasks and role of school governance, but also lack of the development of the competencies and skills required for efficient participation in school governance (Wyk, 2007).

Even though international experiences differ significantly, and it is questionable how comparable they are with, for example, Croatian experiences, Kovač, Staničić and Buchenberg (2014) point out that most of the countries report on the relatively weak and mostly advisory role of school boards which consist of principals and the representatives of teachers, parents, the wider community and local government. Considering the insufficient knowledge and skills of board members, the authors from various countries point to a similar problem in the work of school boards (Danzberger et al., 1992; Wyk, 2007), which could be addressed by further education and professional specialisation

of school-board members, aiming to increase efficiency, at both an individual level and in the work of the board in general (Danzberger, 1992; Danzberger, Kirst, & Usdan, 1993; Goodman & Zimmerman, 2000).

Guidelines for the Improvement of the Role of School Boards in the Countries of South-East Europe:

- Increasing competencies of school board members
- Increasing the knowledge and skills required for school-board member participation in decision-making processes
- Arousing interest in membership in school boards
- More clearly defining the role and the extent of the authority of the school board
- Ensuring active participation of all board members in its activities and work
- Improving models of parental participation in school boards
- Improving co-operation between board members and other school stakeholders
- Defining a system for (self-)evaluation of school boards

Even though some authors point out that there is no data about the level of efficiency of various training and specialisation programs for school-board members (Schmidt, 1992), more recent data (Adamson, 2011) reveals a certain efficiency of training for members of the school boards, where a significant connection has been established between training and members' perception of their own performance in six areas of governance and organisational competencies: contextual, educational, interpersonal, analytical, political and strategic. There is normally no data about how much education and training has actually contributed to the actual improvement of the operation and efficiency of schools.

4 Conclusion

Over the last thirty years, significant changes have occurred on the level of class governance, although not at the level of school governance. Contemporary theorists point out that, for school efficiency, we need to look beyond the class environment only, and consider a broader quality

framework. Even though all educational systems understand and promote the innovative and creative-humanistic paradigm in the implementation of the educational process, those same educational policies for the organisation of school governance should take into consideration the historical, cultural, social, economic and socio-political heritage of the specific country. This implies that it is acceptable to have a large number of definitions and multiple models of governance. The point is that each school system constructs a specific model of school governance based on humanistic and democratic principles. Furthermore, we should construct and continually re-evaluate the efficiency of the work of school boards, whose successful performance depends on the key competencies of its members in the field of legislation related to education, and primarily in the field of pedagogical theory and practice. However, there are almost no examples of more systematic training of school-board members in the area of school governance. As long as this remains the case, significant changes regarding governance and quality are highly unlikely.

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CHAPTER 8

The Democratic Context of School Governance: External and Internal Stakeholders' Perspectives

Marita Brčić Kuljiš and Anita Lunić

Abstract The authors discuss the roles of stakeholders in educational systems in Croatia, Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Taking into consideration important differences between democratic education and education for democracy, as well as the role of education in the formation of political citizens within a democratic society, the authors analyse current tendencies, problems and required changes in the institutional, public and professional approach to education.

In the region of Southeastern Europe, the establishment of a legal framework, primarily under the influence of the European Union, which enables the development of a democratic form of school governance, is identified. However, schools and principals have still not recognised the importance and role of stakeholders, who are crucial in the process of decentralisation and democratisation of both educational systems and society itself.

1 Introduction

The countries of Southeastern Europe accepted the liberal-democratic form of government at the end of the twentieth century. In addition to other formal elements (such as the multi-party system, representative democracy, etc.) the liberal-democratic form of government also includes

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_8

value-based elements such as respect for basic human rights and freedoms, respect for diversity and an opportunity to build our lives upon our own concept of the good. In line with these rights and possibilities, it is necessary to shape and foster the democratic system of education both in theory and practice. The system of education needs to be democratised in the full sense of the word, while education must be responsive and accountable to the community as a whole (Ranson, Martin, & Nixon, 1997).

Since the type of a society we live in is democratic, it is also our desire and duty to develop democratic behaviour patterns and organise democratic institutions. The first particularly concerns educational institutions, as flourishing or even surviving in certain societies requires, as Wringe noticed, certain skills, qualities and attitudes that can be developed through education.\ (Wringe, 2012, p. 3). Secondly, the educational system resembles political structure, as education is generally adapted to particular forms of governance or a constitution. Thus, the democratic spirit ought to promote democracy, as an oligarchical one tends to promote oligarchy. (Aristotle, 1932, 1137a, p. 635).

This Aristotelian idea still holds true today. There is no democratic citizen without democratic education, because one is not born a citizen but becomes one. In that sense, when referring to democratic society, the presumption is that education will be in harmony with democratic principles. This suggests that school governance is focused on value of human rights as well as on the practice of inclusion of all interested parties in a decision-making process, as Backman and Trafford noted (Bäckman & Trafford, 2006, p. 9). Hence, we can differentiate between education for democracy and democratic education, meaning that democratic principles should be evident not only on the content level in the system of education, but within institutional relations and processes as well. This awareness of the requirement that more than just economic criteria (and consequently stakeholders from the public and private sectors who will later hire educated citizens) should be included in the educational process in a democratic society had already been noted by Dewey. He pointed out that citizens need to feel themselves to be creators of the system of values in their own society, as was highlighted in the Free School movement beginning in the 1960s. In addition to an alternative curriculum, this movement emphasised participatory democracy (see: Altenbaugh, 1999, p. 145). Participatory democracy emphasises the need to develop a civil culture that will support creative individuals prepared to participate in public life and able to achieve their own creative potential in a democratic

society, where democracy is seen as a mode of living rather than a formal kind of governance. (Dewey, 2001, p. 91). What Dewey's words point to is that educational institutions in a democratic society, and thus also their educational content and processes, are not and cannot be excluded and separated from the community, which is justifiably interested and desires to be included in events within the system of education.

What our society will be like in the future greatly depends on the current state of our education. We are therefore correct in concluding that the entire society is responsible for educational processes and content, as well as that society is the exclusive result of educational practices. In societies where democracy is merely a goal, but not also the means, we cannot speak of comprehensive democratic education. For this reason, we will analyse the perspectives of external and internal stakeholders in the democratic context of school governance in the countries of Southeastern Europe, especially Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Serbia.

2 The Democratic Context of School Governance

Concerning governance in the school system, one needs to keep in mind the difference between the terms governance and management in schools. In this sense we will refer to Gabor Halasz, who said that even though these two aspects of school leadership are tightly connected, they also differ significantly in regards to the means of their implementation and realisation. While the term "governance" is used in order to emphasize the openness of school and educational systems, the term "management" is used in order to highlight technical and instrumental dimensions of governance. When we speak of educational systems, we prefer to use the term "governance," while "management" is more frequently used when referring to schools as organisational units. However, since schools are becoming increasingly open institutions, deeply immersed in local socio-economic environments characterised by specific needs and interests, we prefer to use the term "governance."[1]

In addition to its being subject to specificities of the socio-economic context, school governance can be regulated in various ways, while also depending on state legislature, a degree of centralisation and social democratisation. However, the key factor in school governance is the fact that such governance is, directly or indirectly, also an educational process. It is thus clear that, in democratic societies, we can and should advocate a democratic approach to school governance. According to J. Dewey, we

are never educated directly, but always through using the resources in our environment, whether we allow the environment to do its job or whether we shape the environment for a specific purpose. Simultaneously, schools remain typical institutions which shape the mental and moral dispositions of their members by means of their defined environment (Dewey, 2001, p. 23). Consequently, we can differentiate between *education for democracy* as factual knowledge and *democratic education* as practical acquisition of life skills in a democratic society. Education for democracy teaches about democracy, democratic values, human rights and freedom and critical thinking, to name a few. In addition, it teaches students democracy for democracy's sake. A good example of this is the programme Education for Democratic Citizenship of the Council of Europe, whose goal is to empower learners to take an active part in democratic life by exercising and defending democratic rights and responsibilities with an aim of promoting and protecting the rule of law and democracy in general.[2]

On the other hand, democratic education is an educational ideal in which democracy is not only a goal but also a teaching method. It uses democratic practices, democratic procedures and rules in school governance to teach students about the concrete implementation of democracy. These two elements are mutually conditioned. The first enriches the theoretical knowledge of democratic values, while the second teaches us how to use democracy in practice. The idea of democratic citizenship is based on the idea of inclusivity, as opposed to exclusivity, participation as opposed to marginalisation, culture and values as opposed to simple procedures, and the active participation of all citizens.

> School governance is in itself, directly or indirectly, an educational process. Democratic governance of schools should therefore include both aspects of democratisation: education for democracy and democratic education.

Amy Gutmann (1999) believes that deliberative/participatory democracy is complementary to democratic education, and thus also to democratic governance of educational institutions. Deliberative/participatory democracy is based on the idea of reciprocity between free and equal individuals. On the individual level it refers to careful consideration in a decision-making

process, while at the institutional level it means considering and discussing *pro* and *contra* arguments in the relevant legislative body. (Gutmann, 1999, p. 52). Bäckman and Trafford refer to a few elements in the process of education which are improved in the environment of democratically organized schools. These are: ensuring discipline (developing the student's sense of responsibility) in an alternative, positive way (development of responsibility because of shown trust, and not through threat of sanction); advancement of learning through a wider selection of methods and ways of instruction/examination; reduction of conflicts otherwise present in an authoritarian environment (relations of power); greater competitiveness of schools; and ensuring stability of democracy in society. Democratic school governance ensures permanent democracy in the future because children do not develop desirable forms of behaviour from learned content, but shape it in accordance with their own experience. In this way, children who participate in democratic education, and not only in education for democracy, are already being educated to be fully participating, active citizens (comp. Bäckman & Trafford, 2006, p. 12). In addition to learning how to participate in political and social life, democratic governance also requires learning how to respect human rights, which reduces the chances of socially unacceptable behaviour and the development of authoritarian forms of behaviour.

This idea starts with the assumption that education must be a public good and as such should benefit the whole community. This is the key reason why education and educational institutions are at the center of a community's interest and have close knit ties with it.

3 Decentralised Centralism

Countries of Southeastern Europe have a long tradition of a centralised system of education. Democratic changes which occurred in the early 1990s should have also impacted the educational system through decentralisation, but research has revealed that the changes were extremely slow. Under pressure from the EU, a legal framework was defined which promotes school decentralisation and autonomy. However, it is still not clear who is responsible for certain aspects of school governance.

In 2001, reforms were initiated in Serbia, based on the principles of decentralisation, democratisation and professionalisation of the educational system.

> Reforms were planned so that lower levels of the educational system might gain greater responsibility and autonomy. On the one hand, now schools have more opportunity, as well as responsibility, to adapt to modern-day trends in their own way, and on the other hand, their freedom is limited by strictly prescribed standards, acts, guidelines and regulations. This situation can rightfully be described as *decentralised centralism* (Raković, 2012, p. 27).

Research on Teachers and Principals' Perception of School Autonomy and Collaboration with External Stakeholders in Serbia[3] was conducted in 2011 with a sample of 109 respondents (and 10 principals in a special focus group). The majority of the respondents consider school governance to be, in spite of efforts to ensure its autonomy, still rather centralised because of legal frameworks, regulations and standards adopted by the relevant ministerial body. Teachers do not take part in decision-making processes and view themselves solely as employees, not the school's partners (Raković, 2012, p. 15).

The situation does not differ significantly in Croatia, The analysis of the *Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development* (OECD) revealed in 2003 that the Croatian educational system is centralised in the areas of finances, governance, curriculum definition and implementation, and decentralised in the fields of work-quality evaluation (OECD, 2003). Legislative changes regarding education in Croatia were focused on the adjustment of the Croatian educational system to the educational systems of European Union countries. In accordance with *The Education Act* (2008; article 4), it is pointed out that education in educational institutions is based on decentralisation, which implies greater authority and responsibility at the local and regional levels.

> The adoption of the *National Curriculum Framework* for Croatia in 2011, which promotes democratic principles, school independence, and pedagogical and educational pluralism, marked a significant step forward.

Under pedagogical pluralism, we presume the introduction of heterogeneous original concepts of reform pedagogy into the organisation of educational programmes (Montessori, Steiner, Freinet and others), and educational pluralism refers to political and organisational solutions in the system of education which contribute to pro-democratic changes (Krbec, 1999, p. 269).

Under the influence of the EU, the relevant ministerial body attempted to change the methods of school management aiming at advancing quality. OECD pointed out that school quality becomes largely dependent on administration, especially the principal, including his or her capacity to manage the school's work, professional and pedagogical leadership skills, personality traits and other potentials. The changes planned also included the way principals were selected, their training, professionalisation and performance evaluation. However, the implementation of these changes has been rather slow and the results of research are disconcerting.

The results of empirical research[4] on the connection between the variables of school management, its general organisational efficiency and the school environment, have revealed that school principals were for the most part not ready to share their authority with teachers. In spite of the fact that schools have functioning school boards, the question of principal selection is still considered a political one. The reason may be because members of the school board, among other things, are appointed by political parties. Those tendencies are not satisfactory in a so-called "knowledge society" where schools are expected to implement changes, boost development, exhibit knowledge and open perspectives to change (Stoll and Fink, quoted in Peko & Gajger, 2009, p. 79).

In the case of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the situation is very specific. In addition to state government, there are also two other governmental entities: The Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (further divided into 10 separate, self-governing cantons) and the Bosnian Serb Republic (Republika Srpska), each with its own laws. There is also the internationally supervised Brčko District. Primary education in Bosnia and Herzegovina is under the authority of municipalities. Due to the complex administrative situation, there are 13 different ministries of education: one in the Bosnian Serb Republic, one in the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, one in each of the cantons and the functional equivalent of a ministry of education, a Department of Education, in the Brčko District.

Each ministry, with the exception of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, has its own Primary Education Act, in addition to which there is also the national *Framework Law on Primary and Secondary Education in Bosnia and Herzegovina,* which outlines principles for a more cohesive system of education. The Ministry of Civil Affairs is responsible for education on the state level. If we were to analyse it from a formal aspect, we might say that the system of education in Bosnia and Herzegovina is highly decentralised, but if we analyse it on the educational content level, it is clear that not much progress has been made regarding school autonomy. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2003) completed a report on educational policies in Bosnia and Herzegovina in which it highlighted the following fundamental problems: the lack of leadership competencies; absence of motivation in the system; great politicisation of educational issues; and a confusing and complex legal framework which disables formation of common standards in the educational system (OECD, 2003, p. 121). Even though a joint agency was founded in order to cope with this situation (Agency for Standards and Evaluation in 2000, renamed Agency for Education in 2007), on the state level of all Bosnia and Herzegovina, the mechanisms for monitoring and advancement of quality of education are still not developed. The only progress can be seen in the adoption of an *Action Plan* in 2015.[5] This framework could signal the beginning of the process of a standard of educational and vocational qualification and certification of education providers. Defined educational standards are a prerequisite for all efficient interventions focused on advancing the quality of education outputs.[6]

All the changes related to the system of democratic leadership (decentralisation, autonomy, democratisation, participation) are implemented under pressure from the EU, In other words, they are not yet societal needs, in spite of being defined as liberal-democratic.

What is even more disconcerting is the fact that respondents believe they are not sufficiently prepared in the educational system for the implementation of changes that would ensure more rapid inclusion in European and world trends (Rakovic, 2012).

4 The Stakeholder Position

"There is no longer any place for academic ivory towers: school has to focus on the interests of the community, in the widest sense of the local population, including its students and their parents, but also its community employers in commerce and industry, its other public agencies, its voluntary bodies and its political workers" (Watts, 2003, p. 155).

English states that democratic governance is characterised by advancement of schools through transforming teachers and students into participants in a common goal (democratic pedagogy). They empower organisational resources through joint effort and with assistance from the community (pedagogical leadership), in which leaders promote the seemingly contradictory goals of democracy and personal responsibility (democratic accountability) (English, 2006, p. 100).

Democratic school governance, that is, participatory school leadership, presumes participation of continually or temporarily interested subjects, from banks and stockholders to employees, customers and government. Generally, these are stakeholders: individuals or groups who are personally or collectively interested in the activities of a certain institution because they are directly or indirectly affected by its results or goals. For this reason, their request to participate in decision-making processes is legitimate. In the stakeholder concept, solely taking into consideration their particular needs and interests under strategic managerial policy ensures common success. (Freeman, 1984, p. VI.)

Considering the fact that schools have a central place in the community, simply by being responsible for the most sensitive aspect of community sustainability, there is a large number of interested stakeholders who would like to control, monitor and exert influence on internal processes. "We have seen that a community or a social group sustains itself through continuous self-renewal, and that this renewal takes place by means of the educational growth of the immature members of the group. By various agencies, unintentional and designed, a society transforms seemingly alien beings into robust trustees of its own resources and ideals. Education is thus a fostering, a nurturing, and a cultivating, process." (Dewey, 2001, p. 14)

The list of stakeholders is difficult to define, and in the system of education it refers to all who are a part of the school community, who serve to benefit the school and students, including administration, teachers, personnel, parents, families, community members, leading community businesses and selected local government representatives (members of the

school board, the city council and national representatives). Stakeholders can also be collective bodies such as organisations, associations, teacher associations, school boards and cultural institutions, to name a few. They include, similarly to the corporate concept of stakeholders, anyone affected by or interested in a collaborative action. (English, 2006, p. 166). They all have a personal, professional or financial interest or goal, and the reasons for their interest vary from professional to parental, political, cultural, economical and religious.

The vision of educational institutions in a democratically organised governance system should necessarily include the hopes, aspirations and expectations of all the members of a specific community, that is, it should support the endeavors of all stakeholders (Duignan, 2007, p. 21). The concept of the "voice" is important in this process—to include as great a number as possible of views, values, beliefs and cultural perspectives into the process of discussion and decision-making, especially on the local scale. (Mann & Briller, 2005, p. 120). In certain cases, existing collaboration is evident already during the realisation of the informal, unplanned or unstructured relationship with a certain stakeholder. On the other hand, we can speak of collaboration only when certain assumptions of collaborative relationship are met. Collaboration is defined as a mutual relationship between two or more stakeholders motivated by common goals or implementation of a certain activity. Goals and activities are thus mutually useful and precisely defined in a specific context, with a clearly outlined structural connection, and defined and accepted mutual commitments and responsibilities (Connors, 2011).

Fullan (2011) questions the degree to which the current reforms were envisioned as sustainable on the level of the entire (educational) system, and reflects as its key dimension the sustainability of the degree to which the roles of key stakeholders were connected during the reform on all three basic levels (schools and local and national governments). We should not here disregard the educational potential of school with respect to the remainder of the community, for example through parental meetings and inclusion of parents in children's education. In these situations, both parents and children are formed and educated and, hence, the entire community as well. Subsequently, we can differentiate between internal and external stakeholders, although they might overlap in certain areas.

4.1 Internal Stakeholders

When we speak of educational institutions, internal stakeholders are those who are professionally included and responsible for their advancement, and can be commended or sanctioned for the results of their work. These include principals, teachers, school boards, administrative staff and relevant local and state governmental institutions. In a special sense, we also classify students and parents as internal stakeholders.

Teachers have a central place in the formation of professional collaborative communities. They are stakeholders who are directly interested, both professionally and personally, which presumes the cultivation of a culture of collaboration and communication among teachers, and adoption of a shared viewpoint on the quality of learning and teaching as fundamental to the functioning of schools. In this way, educational systems are protected from external requirements, and confidence in teacher expertise and the teaching vocation in general is increased. In democratic governance, teachers are guaranteed equality in decision-making processes, all of which strongly influences their confidence and motivation. They recognise the essential need of good school principals and are committed to creative teaching, inquiry learning and, above all, the success of their students. (Fullan, 2010, p. 98) But teacher focus needs to be equally directed towards parents (and vice versa). This new relationship is the basis of a new professionalism and opens space for a culture of collaboration (Bauch & Goldring, 1998, p. 29).

However, within the school, principals still have the most significant role in empowering the collaborative dimension. They directly enhance their staff's confidence and responsibility to act innovatively, as well as development both of the educational process and professional competence. (Harris, 2004, p. 16–17). As the persons in charge, they have the final say in decision-making processes, but they also have to reconcile authoritarianism with democratic governance. That is why the majority of external stakeholders view school quality through their perception of the principal, and this can influence their readiness for collaboration with the school. Such a position enables principals to foster networks between external and internal stakeholders, which are seen as an important aspect of ensuring better overall educational atmosphere and results. School leadership's cooperation with teachers, students, parents and the general community, as well as mutual relations and cooperation between parents and community, are, aside from the professional requirements of the

teaching staff, instructional focus and student-centered learning climate, key factors that accounted for qualitative differences, according to Bryk et al. (quoted in: Fullan, 2010, p. 101).

4.2 External Stakeholders

The concept of external stakeholders implies those who are in most cases not continuously and professionally included in the system of school governance. However, their presence and interest are legitimate, since the results of the educational system are directly reflected in the community. Their participation is justified because it provides social control of institutional operation, and useful because it encourages institutional development and responsiveness to the real needs of society (Amaral & Magalhaes, 2002). The external stakeholders are students, parents, professional associations, civil-society associations, cultural, religious and sports associations, and all other interested members of the community who show a legitimate interest in participation in decision-making processes respecting a school's internal affairs.

Through promotion of their viewpoints and values, external stakeholders foster the reconstruction of the educational process towards openness and inclusion. In that sense, education for diversity does not stem only from our commitment to human rights, peace and democratic values, but also from social demands and for attaining desired goals (Halász, 2003).

5 Stakeholders and the Countries of Southeastern Europe: Croatia, Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina

The European Commission (2007) and the European Council (2009) have proclaimed the synergy between different education sectors and collaboration between teachers, parents and the community at large to be one of the means of support for the achievement of educational quality and a mechanism for the advancement of national education systems. However, in practice, and especially in the region of Southeastern Europe, few things have changed. With its *National Curriculum Framework* (2011, p. 16) the Republic of Croatia advocates school-system decentralisation and democratisation, aiming to disperse the responsibility to all stakeholders in and beneficiaries of education: parents, students, members

of the local and regional community, social partners and others. In this way, we can for the first time legally regulate the possibility of opening schools to external stakeholders. The very adoption of this act allows for the establishment of pedagogical pluralism, because this is the first time that students and their parents have the option to freely select a primary school, unlike the previous practice of school enrolment based on place of residence. A similar change has occurred for national minorities in schools, as well as in alternative and international school programs.

Although the *Analysis of Teacher Competencies and Roles in the Creation and Implementation of Education Policy* (2012)[7] was primarily focused on the collaboration between teachers in primary and secondary schools, and teachers and associates at universities who participate in the realisation of Teacher Education study programmes, the results of the analysis reveal existing collaboration with other external stakeholders as well. Analysis points to activities focused on student advancement (acquisition of life skills and competencies, increasing attention to student requirements, promoting desirable behaviour models) and on the school (increasing communication and networking, stronger connections with the labour market, offering of financial support to schools, encouraging the implementation of free programmes, activities of local community representatives, workshops and projects).

Regarding parental participation, the respondents stated that parents participated through the work of school boards and the council of parents. However, teachers viewed them more as critics than partners.

> Although collaboration is formally required, in most cases there are no actual conditions for its implementation (e.g., financial, communication-related or acknowledgment in terms of advancement).

Similar results were also obtained in Serbia[8] in a study (Raković, 2012) which revealed that teachers recognise the importance of collaboration with the local community in the realisation of recreational, cultural, social and health-related elements in educational practice, in concert with local institutions, parents and local government. It is these types of collaboration that enable teacher autonomy, since they gain assistance in their work and the option to freely choose the method of work.

Teachers believe their autonomy can be limited by the following factors:

- influence of the local community in cases when collaboration with local institutions is slow, inefficient and burdened by bureaucracy;
- when parents use their positions in society to undermine teacher authority;
- when local government in collaboration with parents can outvote teacher representatives on school boards; and
- when the allocation of finances and staff employment is conducted according to informal criteria of political eligibility.

Striving to provide an answer to whether organised collaboration between parents and schools exists in Bosnia and Herzegovina and how it affects the level of student and parent satisfaction with the school, a study was conducted. The results[9] revealed that collaboration is most frequently based on group and individual meetings organised by the school, and parents believe that they are not included in decision-making processes at all, although they should be. A certain number of parents think that they should assist the school and are prepared to do so through various forms of volunteering. The respondents believe this situation would improve if they could be regularly updated about the work of the Parent Council, school activities, development plans, projects and long-term goals. This is also the case with the school's relation with society as a general stakeholder, especially the labour market. Although the centralised system of education was implemented with the aim of increasing social cohesion amongst ethnic groups and institutions, according to research on the accountability of secondary school principals and their perception of the role of school boards in social cohesion, the results showed that school boards and principals are not actively engaged in the deliberative process of promoting *social cohesion policies and practice*, while principals often see themselves as independent decision-makers (Komatsu, 2012, p. IV; Komatsu, 2012, p. 156). The problem is in the lack of clarity as to when the principals should consult stakeholders and what decisions can be made by the principal independently, most often due to efficiency.

The social role of (external) stakeholders in the process of cohesion and all the implications brought about by democratic education, that is, schools' openness to society, is still not recognised in the highly divided society of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

As it has been stated in *Reviews of National Policies for Education*, there are many issues and barriers in school governance and education, both at the level of small administrative units that lack sufficient capacity and at the level of education ministries that lack leadership and administrative skills. It is hard to study at different levels, and general over-legislation and over-politicisation are not helping to include interested stakeholders in decision-making processes. Moreover, "top-down" decision-making principles, lack of management information, missing links between education and economic recovery, and general lack of awareness about the need to implement changes in the first place, are among the biggest problems the educational system in Bosnia and Herzegovina is facing, according to the OECD.[10]

6 Conclusion

The role of external and internal stakeholders in the countries of Southeastern Europe is still not recognised as an important element of decentralisation and democratisation of both educational systems and society itself. An excellent example of this is the attempt to implement health education (i.e., reproductive-health education) in Croatian schools as a cross-curricular theme. An association of parents who considered the proposal too radical and progressive became involved in the process of implementation. However, they did not approach this problem as stakeholders but by using their political positions in order to promote their views, the result of which was that the proposed programme was not implemented, and discussions resulted in a referendum and a constitutional provision on the definition of marriage and family in the Republic of Croatia.

A similar reaction occurred in the implementation of civic education as a subject in Croatian primary and secondary schools, aiming to provide students with civil competencies in social, legal, political, cultural, economic and ecological dimensions.[11] After an experimental period, civic education ended up as the so-called cross-curricular and interdisciplinary-content programme. According to the *Research on Political Literacy of High School Graduate Students in Croatia*, the degree of political and civil

literacy is not in accordance with what would be expected in a democratic political culture (Bagić & Gvozdanović, 2015, p. 51). Moreover, as the authors concluded, data points to the need of a systematic and quality-focused implementation of civic education, in which learning processes would take place in a democratic school environment (Bagić & Gvozdanović, 2015, p. 53). Therefore, in addition to specific steps towards the development of education for democracy, we also need to focus on the development of "the democratic environment," that is, "democratic education."

Although teachers and institutions have, according to the *Primary and Secondary Schools Education Act*, the option to propose alternative content and teaching methods,[12] which increases the possibility of implementation of a type of democratic education, such practices in schools are rare. The reasons for the lack of initiative can be found in the working conditions of teachers and principals: According to TALIS research on working conditions of teachers and principals,[13] which included 199 principals from 200 schools and 3675 teachers, teaching methods are obsolete, teachers work more than the average teacher in OECD countries, relationships with the students are poor and principals, who should instigate changes, are not sufficiently trained for the task.[14]

In general, the results of the research partially support policy trends and requirements for strengthening the following collaborative dimensions of schools and school staff: school collaboration with external stakeholders; collaboration viewed as a desirable activity: aiming to achieve important school-related goals; and the desire to increase the extent and quality of collaboration. However, it has also been noticed that within the educational system there are stakeholders that have not mutually recognised their collaborative potential. Consequently, although these results are rather outdated, most of the problems which they point out still exist, and recommendations based on the above-mentioned research still apply as relevant guidelines.

Notes

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4. A. Peko, V. Mlinarević i V. Gajger: "Učinkovitost vođenja u osnovnim školama". *Odgojne znanosti*, vol. 11, n. 2, 2009, str. 67–84. The empirical research was conducted on a sample of 265 respondents: 85 expert associates/pedagogues and 180 teachers from 48 primary schools in the region of eastern Croatia.
5. *Action Plan for Development and Implementation of the Qualifications Framework in Bosnia and Herzegovina for the period of 2014–2020* (accepted on 11 Feb 2015). Council of Ministers of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Official Gazette, No. 28/15.
6. *Osnovno obrazovanje u Bosni i Hercegovini: kvalitet, kreativnost, inovativnost*. (2010) Sarajevo, Centre for Policy and Governance.
7. V. Kovač, I. Buchberger (2013), p. 523–545. This research included three groups of participants who evaluated characteristics of collaboration between schools and external stakeholders. The research included 624 respondents, of which 396 were primary and secondary school teachers, 116 teachers and associates at universities who participated in the implementation of Teacher Education study programmes and 112 decision-making agents at various locations and levels of decision-making.
8. Similar results were also expected due to a minor difference in the corellation coefficient: While the correlation between participation among stakeholders in the school and teaching co-ordination in Croatia is 0.25, in Serbia it is 0.26. TALIS 2013a Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning, OECD 2014, http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/talis-excel-figures-and-tables.htm#Chapter3 (3 November 2015)
9. Research Parents views of parental participation in education (2008) conducted by proMENTE. Socijalna istraživanja – social research. http://www.promente.org/ESP2-bih-report-b.pdf
10. *Reviews of National Policies for Education*, OECD, 2003. 120–123.

11. *Kurikulum Građanskog odgoja i obrazovanja* (Citizenship Education Curriculas) (2012). Republic of Croatia, Ministry of Science, Education and Sports, Croatian Education and Teacher Training Agency.
12. **Law on education in Primary and Secondary Schools (introduced on 30 Dec**, 2014) Republic of Croatia. *Official Gazette*, Nos. 87/08, 86/09, 92/10, 105/10, 90/11, 5/12, 16/12, 86/12, 126/12, 94/13, 152/14.
13. Teaching and Learning International Survey. Results available on: http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/talis-excel-figures-and-tables.htm#Chapter3 (3 November 2015)
14. Tehnical Reports with complete database regarding teacher-student relations, teaching practices and participation among stakeholders are published on: TALIS (2013), Results – Complete database (2014). OECD. http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?datasetcode=talis_2013%20 (15 November 2015)

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CHAPTER 9

School Effectiveness and Educational Management: Toward a New Research and Public-Policy Agenda

Nikša Alfirević, Josip Burušić, Jurica Pavičić, and Renata Relja

Abstract Alfirevic, Burusic, Pavicic and Relja draw on the theoretical discussions provided in the previous chapters of the Palgrave Macmillan volume dedicated to school-effectiveness and educational-management research. They identify the weaknesses of the existing knowledge base and identify the challenges for future research and the public-policy agenda in South-East Europe and beyond.

This volume is one of the activities of the Croatian Center of Scientific Excellence in School Effectiveness and Management Research, a research consortium focused on improvement in educational research, especially in the context of school effectiveness and school and educational management. The general mission of the Centre is to make a significant scientific contribution in the field of school-effectiveness and management research, to produce relevant knowledge in this research field and to improve the quality of educational research. This is why a high level of importance is assigned to the concept of educational effectiveness, which can be defined as the degree to which the educational system and its components/actors achieve desired goals and effects, i.e., transform educational goals (targeted educational outcomes) into reality. Research on educational effectiveness

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1_9

is coupled with the generic notion of management, defined in terms of what managers do to achieve organisational objectives, how their tasks differ from those of other organisational actors, which patterns of actions they perform and how they control other actors and their performance (Mintzberg, 1973/1980; Tsoukas, 1994).

Better management leads to better-performing organisations, and the same applies to schools and other educational institutions, whose performance is viewed in terms of achieving planned educational outcomes (Sammons et al., 1995; Scheerens, 1992). Simultaneously, public interest (or the interests of other stakeholders providing the majority of funding) should be safeguarded by adequate governance mechanisms, which ensure that managers' behaviour is directed toward stated (educational) objectives. Traditionally, governance subjects managers to the principal-agent relationship (Eisenhardt, 1989), although in a non-profit setting, its applicability is limited by multiple stakeholders and their perception of organisational objectives (Herman & Renz, 1997). In the public sector, the issue of governance usually revolves around the choice of public policies, as well as (in)formal influences exerted on the structure and (in)formal power of school boards,[1] but it also includes other variables, such as private/public ownership and school choice, the complexity of the political landscape and its influence to school functioning, etc. (Chubb & Moe, 1998; Hofman & Hofman, 2001).

The described topics are not entirely new. School-effectiveness research originated in the 1970s in the USA and UK (Reynolds, 1997). It was subsequently developed into three partially distinct branches: the study of the scientific properties of school effectiveness, characteristics of effective schools and specific models of effective schools, i. e. school-improvement research (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2001; Townsend, 2001). Simultaneously, teacher-effectiveness research has also begun and progressed, placing an emphasis on individuals instead of schools as collectives (Muijs & Reynolds, 2001), while the study of school management and leadership has been dedicated to school managers and leaders, most often principals (Edmonds, 1979; Marzano et al., 2005).

However, there are multiple shortcomings in the current state of research, including:

- lack of a multi-level theoretical framework (model) in testing educational effectiveness and variables which might influence it at the school level and the level of the national educational system;

- lack of longitudinal studies, since existing studies are mainly cross-sectional and educational outcomes (e.g., the achievement of students and schools) poorly operationalised: Frequently, the only outcome measured is student achievement on knowledge tests for some curriculum subjects:
- lack of advanced methodology, especially of multi-level models and techniques of data analysis, including the rare usage of quasi-experimental studies of the effects of interventions at the level of policy, school and teaching aimed at increasing educational effectiveness; and
- lack of studies related to establishing the relationship between school management/governance practices and approaches to the achievement of educational effectiveness.

Consequently, future research, based on the 'state-of-the-art' theory review conducted in this volume, should be focused on achieving the following objectives:

- to identify the school-level factors and characteristics of school management and governance related to increased school effectiveness and positive student outcomes;
- to develop a model and specific guidelines for changes in school management and governance that should increase school effectiveness and improve student outcomes'
- to test empirically the model of school management and governance. and the effects of management and governance changes on school effectiveness and student outcomes;
- to develop educational policy recommendations and action plans for improvement of school leadership and school effectiveness in primary and secondary schools.

Future empirical research is to be based on the dynamic model developed by Creemers and Kyriakides (2006). It deals with learning outcomes situated at four different levels (i.e., student, classroom, school, and system) and emphasises the roles of the two main actors (i.e., teacher and student). Previous research, especially studies testing Creemers' model (i.e., de Jong et al., 2004; Kyriakides et al., 2000; Kyriakides, 2005), revealed that influences on student achievement were indeed multilevel. However, this Centre's research will concentrate on selected **school-level factors**

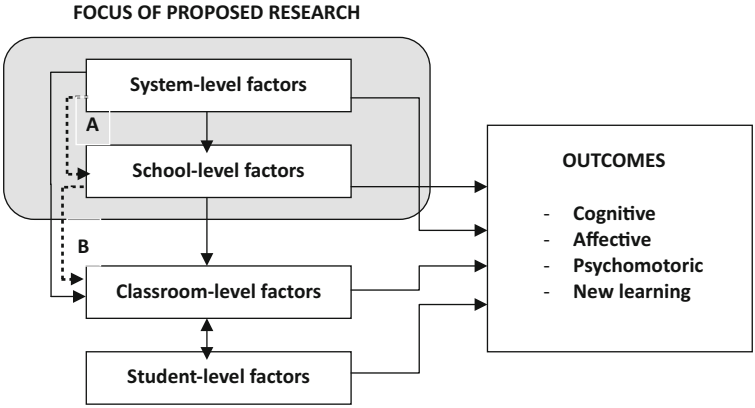

Fig. 9.1 Research model (adapted from Creemers & Kyriakides, 2008)

(based on the teaching-learning situation and learning environment at the school), as well as **system-level factors** (based on the influence of educational policy at the national/regional level). Both sets of factors are expected to have not only direct effects on student achievement, but also effects that are mainly indirect (see Figure 9.1).

Already-identified relationships include those of system-level to school-level factors, via national educational policies related to teaching and the school learning environment (with specific regulations concerning school timetables, long-term and short-term planning, ensuring teaching quality via adequate evaluation mechanisms and dealing with student absenteeism and drop-out). Potential new scientific contributions are perceived in terms of identifying and empirically testing the:

- potential influence of national policies on school management and governance in the school-level factors of educational effectiveness (see dotted line A in Figure 9.1.);
- potential influence of school-level management and governance practices and approaches to the classroom-level factors of educational effectiveness (see dotted line B in Figure 9.1.).

Dissemination and implementation of the results expected from future research open many opportunities for networking and international co-operation, as well as for attracting young researchers who might be inter-

ested in multidisciplinary educational research and producing the 'regional knowledge base' relevant for both South-East Europe and similar post-transitional environments.

Note

1. National School Boards Association: School Boards Circa 2010: Governance in the Accountability Era, http://www.nsba.org/Board-Leadership/Surveys/gm-node/364162.aspx

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1

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[1] Note: Locators followed by 'n' refer to notes.

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N. Alfirević et al. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and Educational Management*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-29880-1