

**Leadership Succession in Schools –
An Approach to Developing a Leadership Philosophy
in Teachers**

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Certificate of Originality

I, Cheryl Margaret Bell, certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree except as fully acknowledged within the text.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

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All research procedures reported in this thesis received the approval of:

- University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee,
UTS Approval: HREC REF No. 2006-175
- NSW Department of Education and Training SERAP Committee,
DET Approval: SERAP 06. 384

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This thesis is the outcome of a long period of commitment by the author to further academic study. It is the fruition of an area of interest and reflects a belief in the importance of educational leadership in NSW state schools.

As the research is concluded, there are a number of people I wish to thank and to acknowledge their support.

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List of Abbreviations

DBR	Design Based Research
DBRC	Design Based Research Collective
DP	Design Principles
FRPC	Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching
GROW	Acronym for Goals, Reality, Options, Way forward (also known as Wrap-up)
HREC	Human Research Ethics Committee
LLI	Leadership Learning Intervention
NAPLAN	National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy
NSW	New South Wales
NSW DEC	New South Wales Department of Education and Communities
NSW DET	New South Wales Department of Education and Training
PLC	Professional Learning Community
PLLD	Professional Learning and Leadership Development
PPA	Primary Principals’ Association
SERAP	State Education Research Approvals Process
SLELU	School Leadership and Executive Learning Unit
SPC	Secondary Principals’ Council
SSNP	Smarter Schools National Partnerships

Abstract

Recent trends within the NSW state school context point to possible concerns for succession planning and leadership capacity building in the future. The trends indicate a potential reduction in the number of aspirants for school principals' positions. The study investigates how the inclusion of experienced teachers might expand the target group for leadership succession. The purpose of the study is to address an apparent knowledge gap in leadership learning and development for this group and a lack of preparation of teachers for effective and sustained succession into the principal's role, in often challenging and complex contexts. The study explores the research question: What are the ways in which an intervention can promote leadership learning, development and succession in schools?

The study draws on three key learning theories: Argyris and Schön (1978), Isaacs (1993) and Kolb (1984). These theories underpin ways to achieve effective leadership development through the use of experiential and reflective learning strategies. The literature reviewed suggests that leadership strategies, focused on collaborative work-based practices such as "Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching," leadership projects and informal conversation, together with iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection, promote the capacity building essential for quality leadership development. This study explores whether these leadership strategies motivate experienced teachers to engage in leadership development activities and build their leadership philosophy.

This study is distinctive because it uses elements of Design Based Research (DBR) methodology to collect data on the participants' experiences of a Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI) and the researcher's observations of leadership development. Data were gathered from interviews, the LLI itself, participants' learning journals and the researcher's observations. The LLI focused on collegial groupings of participants working on a range of experiential and reflective learning activities. These collaborative learning processes broadened the participants' understanding of the nature of leadership, fostered their attitudes and beliefs about leadership and developed contextual expertise. As a result of the processes used in the LLI, the participants developed Design Principles for leadership learning and development. The findings, drawn from the Design Principles and the data sources, led to the identification of four major factors for enhancing leadership learning, development and succession with experienced teachers in NSW state schools.

The research is significant because it addresses a gap in knowledge, regarding the impact of learning processes, on the engagement and motivation of experienced teachers in ongoing leadership development. Further, the study provides valuable insights for future leadership development programs that explore ways to support experienced teachers to achieve their goals and develop self-confidence in their abilities.

Chapter One

Introduction

Preamble

After attending their son's Parent/Teacher night at a local inner city state school in New South Wales (NSW), a father remarked to his wife, "are the teachers getting younger, or am I just getting older?" His wife laughed, but thought, "He's right you know". She considered her husband's comment and one thought kept popping into her mind, "even the school principal looks much younger than me".

The comments of this couple not only raise queries about societal expectations and the image held of teachers and principals in NSW state schools but, above all, highlight the parents' assumptions regarding the age profile of the teachers and principal at their local state school. These parents have anecdotally recognised a significant trend in the profile of teachers in NSW state schools. Recently, the NSW Institute of Teachers reported that, from 2005–2010 the number of teachers retiring from NSW state schools has meant that fifty per cent of the teaching workforce is now in their first five years of teaching (Mamouny, 2011). While this change in the teacher profile has been acknowledged in the state school domain it has also been an area for discussion by senior management from non-government schools (Cameron, 2009). The change in the teaching profile has major implications for schools, because of the significant role both the principal and experienced teachers play in promoting an effective school (Kirk & Jones, 2004).

1.1 Leadership Succession in Schools

This study examines the principal's role in leading school improvement processes and achieving quality education outcomes. Sustaining a culture of school improvement relies on continuity of this formal leadership position and that can only be achieved through coordinated leadership succession planning. The state of the current NSW school system has the potential to create a crisis in leadership development processes and succession planning in the near future. The problem relates to a potential reduction in the number of trained aspirants for formal leadership positions, particularly for the role of the school principal, and the implications of this trend for leadership succession. This is crucial because of the social expectations and the global, legal and political pressures currently placed on the school

principal's role. One of the most effective ways to address this problem is to include experienced teachers in development programs set up for strategic planning of leadership succession. Since the effectiveness of leadership succession planning is linked to leadership preparation as well as leadership learning and development this study investigates an intervention on leadership development in NSW state schools. It explores the research question: *What are the ways in which an intervention can promote leadership learning, development and succession in schools?* Using Design Based Research (DBR) methodology, the study further considers how Design Principles arising from the Intervention can guide leadership development.

1.1.1 What is Leadership?

Over the years, there have been many and varied attempts to explain the term “leadership”. In this study, there is a need to distinguish between the individual qualities that a leader may display (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Zaccaro, 2001) and the context in which leadership is practised (Southworth, 2004). In exploring the literature on leadership some authors see leadership as comprised of certain skills and knowledge (Jago, 1982). Others view leadership as the influence of power and authority (Northouse, 2007). In this respect, the power is not over people but power is seen as exercised with people (Greiner & Schein, 1988).

Since this study explores leadership within the context of a school organisation, the most appropriate perspective is to view leadership as a process, placing emphasis on the social interaction and relationships within an organisation rather than on the position (Uhl-Bien, 2006). For the purposes of this study, the Hersey and Blanchard (1988) definition of leadership is used. “Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual, or a group, in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation” (p. 5). This definition refers to the idea that leadership is a type of relationship, one that typically includes influencing others within an organisation to move in a common direction. In context this influence is not dependent on a leader's title or position. The nature and functions of leadership and the dimensions of educational leadership are explored in the next chapter.

1.1.2 School Improvement

In the national and international marketplace, society's most important investment is increasingly seen to be in the education of its people. Consequently, those leading schools

have an enormous responsibility. A growing body of research documents the importance of effective school leaders when placed in formal leadership positions (Leithwood & Carolyn, 2003; Marzano, Walters & McNulty, 2005; Reese, 2004; Sweeney, 1982). More specifically, evidence from the literature on effective schools highlights the notion that one of the major contributors to school success is the leadership provided by the school principal (Marzano et al., 2005; Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1995). In 2006, further support for this notion came from the Report on Improving School Leadership prepared by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) team, as part of the Australian Country Background Report for the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), (ACER, Australian Country Background Report, 2006). This report, based on nation-wide school surveys, confirms that school leaders contribute to improving student learning and advancing the provision of quality education through their influence on staff, organisational capacity and context. The literature indicates that there are three major forces that contribute to successful improvement in schools, these being: leaders who have the capacity to build a culture for change (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006), commitment to the reform among key stakeholders (Cotton, 2003) and a likelihood of leadership continuity (Dantow, 2005).

Additionally, the literature consistently indicates that principals are responsible for fostering an ethos of continuous improvement, by initiating reforms and sustaining those reforms. Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley and Beresford (2000) identified the tensions in the principal's role of managing the everyday challenges, whilst moving the school forward. Fullan (2002) supported the significance of the principal's role in school reform, claiming that successful school leaders are the key to sustaining quality education. Valentine, Clark, Hackmann and Petzko (2004) take this notion one step further by pointing out the significance of the principal's role in establishing a school culture of improvement.

In essence, the principal is arguably the most essential element in a highly successful school. The principal is essential to setting change into motion, establishing the culture of change within a learning organisation, and for providing the support and energy to maintain the change over time until it becomes embedded, as a way of life, in the school. Over time, the principal's leadership will shape the school, positively or negatively. Without high-quality leadership, high-quality schools cannot exist.

These ideas strongly suggest that the sustainability of school improvement processes is limited without the continued presence of a school principal who is committed to leading and

influencing the culture for change in schools. The reasons for supporting leadership succession planning then are, to ensure there is continuity in principal roles and that these principals have the capacity to successfully lead and sustain school improvement processes. If planning for this occurs, then school improvement has a strong likelihood of being effective.

1.2 The Role of the School Principal

In this section, the legal, social and political expectations of the school principal's position in NSW state schools are explained. The multi-faceted nature of the principal's role is one of the most important aspects of this issue. This formal role gives critical significance to the principal, as the leader who is responsible for setting the direction for quality education in NSW state schools.

1.2.1 A leadership hierarchy

An initial step in understanding the role of the principal is to consider the relationship between this role and the organisational structure of NSW state schools. In 1980, the *NSW Teaching Services Act* determined the legal structures and functions under which teachers would operate in state schools. The research of Scott and Brennan (2003) relating to the context of leadership in NSW state schools revealed that the organisational structure is hierarchical. Formal leadership positions can be depicted diagrammatically as aligned to the shape of a pyramid (see Figure 1.1) with the school principal as the only person at the top of the pyramid, a small group of executives in middle-management positions and the larger mass of classroom-based teachers at the base of the pyramid.

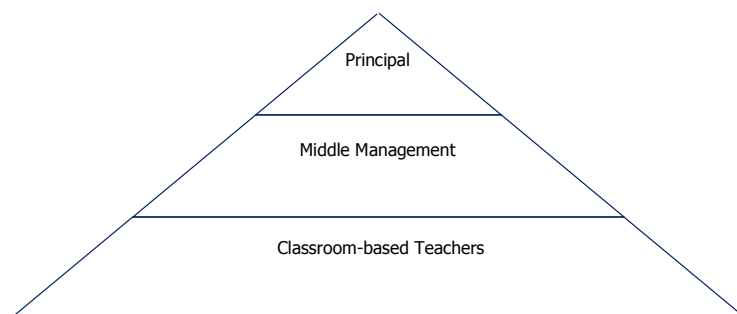


Figure 1.1 School Hierarchy

Whilst on a daily basis, the social interactions are less formal, the operational systems, policies and procedures of the school are legally and politically aligned to this hierarchy. Of note is that while the state school operates within the larger structure of the NSW Department of Education and Communities (DEC) [known as NSW Department of Education and Training (DET) until 2011], the legal position of the principal, based on the constructs of the *NSW Teaching Services Act* (1980), is that they are autonomous within the school. However, the current system, policy and curriculum requirements mean that there are a diverse range of groups to whom the school principal is accountable. This creates a situation whereby at any one time schools can be simultaneously experiencing greater autonomy in financial and staffing matters, and lesser autonomy in curriculum development and student assessment. This tension, although not examined in this study specifically, adds to the complexity of the school principal's role. The responsibilities, accountabilities and societal expectations of the principal intensify in schools with targeted funding such as for low socio-economic schools, special education schools (Schools for Specific Purposes), and rural schools.

1.2.2 The School Principal's responsibilities

The school principal's leadership role is not just based on their position in the school hierarchy but is guided by a key policy document. In 2000, the NSW Department of Education and Training (DET) introduced the *Leading and Managing the School* policy document on current practice within NSW state schools. This policy outlined "the seven accountabilities of principals in the effective educational leadership and management of New South Wales government schools" (NSW DET *Leading and Managing the School*, 2000, p. 1). The document is significant because it legitimises the school principal's position of authority by aligning their role and responsibilities with the legal constructs already mentioned. This policy also sets the parameters for the operational and social practices of the principal and the staff within the school.

Many researchers and educators suggest that because of the principal's responsibilities there is a link between high-quality leadership and school effectiveness (Archer, 2004; Cotton, 2003; Kannapel & Clements, 2005; Reese, 2004). Other researchers agree that, "school leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning" (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris & Hopkins, 2006, p. 4).

Whilst empowering the principal with the authority and sole responsibility for the leadership of NSW state schools, the role statement also places societal expectations and political pressures for achieving quality education, on the school principal. “The complexity of the role and the responsibilities attached to it mean that today’s school principal is constantly multi-tasking and shifting roles at a moment’s notice” (Fullan, 2006, p. 23).

While, the principal’s role is a complex one, it is not just a leadership role based on the position; it carries with it the responsibility for ensuring improved teaching and learning in NSW state schools. Because of these responsibilities the teachers involved in leadership development programs need to understand the nature of leadership and to develop a philosophy of educational leadership so that they can identify the best possible approach to achieve quality education.

1.3 Why Explore Leadership Succession?

Whilst the role of the principal is clearly set out, recognition of the need for formal or structured preparation for aspiring and practicing school leaders has been slow to emerge (Mulford, 2003). As Bush (2005) points out, training in many countries is not a requirement for appointment as a principal and there has been an assumption that “good teachers can become effective managers and leaders without specific preparation” (p. 3).

In the current climate of ever-increasing educational accountability and consequent high-order community expectations, the preparation of school principals for this formal role and the process of succession planning are becoming major concerns. Because of the importance placed on this formal role there is a need to strategically plan the development path for experienced teachers to prepare them for the school principal’s position. Further, the increasing complexity of the leadership role signals a need to develop coordinated professional learning processes that motivate and engage experienced teachers to become formal school leaders (Ingvarson, Anderson, Gronn & Jackson, 2006).

For the purposes of this study, “leadership succession” in schools has been defined as “talent management” or a process by which an organisation assures necessary and appropriate leadership progression for the future through a “leadership pipeline” (Charan, Drotter & Noel, 2001, p.3). This leadership pipeline consists of people who are developing the capacity to take on a formal leadership role and work with others to sustain a school’s vision.

The concept of leadership succession planning came from researchers in the business field who described the dynamic nature of strategic planning for leadership (Gratton, 2007; Hughes & Beatty, 2005; Mintzberg, Lampel, Quinn & Ghoshel, 2003). Their approach is now being considered in education. While the issue of succession planning for leadership is a multi-faceted one, the literature reviewed in this section centres on two key points. First, school improvement relies on a consistent leadership presence which can be achieved through an effective succession planning process. Second, for strategic planning at the school level to be successful, it is vital to develop personnel from within the organisation who can provide a dynamic and effective leadership pipeline for succession.

In mapping the effect of multiple changes in school principals across a range of schools, Wallin, Cameron and Sharples (2005) argued that these movements hinder the effective operation of the school. “[These shifts] undermine most efforts at sustainable improvement” (p.11). These authors suggested that a consistent and effective leadership presence was essential for quality education. Davies, Davies and Ellison (2005) built on this research and described the features of a strategic approach to leadership succession at the school level: “direction setting, ... the medium to longer term, ... whole school trends or actions, ... strategic thinking and taking a strategic perspective, ... a template for current actions [and] providing for the long-term sustainability of the school” (p. 6).

There have been criticisms of attributing school effectiveness solely to continuity within the principal’s position. Some authors argue that stability in the principalship may result in leaders becoming “entrenched” (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997). Day et al. (2000) take a different perspective, cautioning against placing too many expectations, for too long, on any one person: “[schools] ... hold too many variables and few neat solutions. ... effective leaders are not always successful at all times with all people ... a key characteristic is their determination and ability to continue to try to reconcile the irreconcilable” (p. 157). Given that changes in senior leadership positions in schools appear to have a degree of impact on quality education, increasing attention is being paid to the potential for leadership succession planning to help promote sustainability (Fullan, 2006; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006).

Coupled with continuity in school leadership, various studies have argued that improved capacity building of personnel from within the school, results in effective leaders (LaPointe, Meyerson & Darling-Hammond, 2005; Mulford, 2003). One example of this research comes from Victoria, Australia. Lacey’s (2002a) work on the leadership aspirations of school-based

educators, examined the factors that influence their willingness to lead a school. Based on these findings, Lacey recommended that a strategic approach to succession planning should be taken at the system and school levels to develop leadership potential. Following Lacey's work (Lacey 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2004; Lacey & Gronn 2004) the Victorian government developed a planned approach to leadership development including professional learning opportunities for aspiring school leaders (Victorian Department of Education and Training, 2007a). Lovely's (2004) research was along similar lines, arguing that each district needed to initiate a "grow your own" approach (p. 99). Thompson (2010) researched the career intentions and development plans of secondary school Assistant Principals in Victoria and found that experienced teachers neglected their own development in favour of ensuring the school's strategic plan was implemented. He argued that this often meant they were not ready to take on the role of school principal. Thompson (2010) claimed that taking action to provide for the future leadership of the school was a strategic activity.

In business and education there is a growing call that leadership development should not be left to chance but should be part of a planned effort at all levels from the broader organisation through to the individual. Lovely's (2004) call to "grow your own" leaders is a call to develop a strategic approach to leadership development.

In 2008, a framework and resource entitled, *Learn: Lead: Succeed* was developed by the Australian Principals' Associations' Professional Development Council (APAPDC), (2008). The APAPDC report argued the need for leadership development activities to support the capacity building of individuals and teams at all levels in schools. A different stream of thought advances the notion that the principal's role is more of a manager and less one of leadership for change (Australian Country Background Report, OECD, 2006). Terry (1998) supports this managerial perspective of the principal's role and suggests an alternative approach is to train people other than teachers to be administrators and to leave the teachers in the classroom. However, Terry's approach (1998) does not take the importance of a leader's contextual knowledge into consideration.

This study considers the problem of the reduced number of trained leadership aspirants by including experienced teachers in development programs set up for strategic planning of leadership succession. An "experienced" teacher is defined by Gadamer (1989) as "a person who has a high level of expertise coupled with an openness toward new experiences and methods of learning" (p. 355).

The main reason for concentrating on experienced teachers in this study relates to the vital role they play in fostering an effective school (Patrick, Hisley & Kempler, 2000). There are substantive commonalities in the research on the positive contribution of experienced teachers to quality education. Sadker and Zittleman (2007) list the benefits of experienced teachers working in schools as being improved student outcomes, teamwork and a positive atmosphere for learning, school community trust, continued school improvement and long term school success. Hollowell (2010) supports this view, remarking on the valuable input of experienced teachers for improved student outcomes.

Whilst the evidence reveals that experienced teachers have the potential to enhance the learning outcomes of students in schools, they also play a significant role in the school community. Stoll (2003) supports this point and maintains that the principal relies on experienced staff to support a vision for the “professional learning community” (p.7). In addition, state-wide reviews of school reform (Groundwater-Smith & Kemmis, 2004) and teacher and principal training needs in rural education (Green, 2008; Halsey, 2011), demonstrate the important role experienced teachers play in raising expectations placed on students, strengthening school community relations, assisting the community to achieve the school’s vision and in providing future candidates for formal leadership positions. Stoll (2003) further argues that experienced teachers need specific development programs to enable them to assume the leadership role and be equipped for the challenges in today’s schools.

The longstanding appreciation of the vital role of teachers is belatedly being matched by an understanding that skilled leadership is also required if schools and colleges are to thrive...However, there is now an emerging recognition that leadership is a parallel, if not separate, profession and requires specific preparation (p. 4).

Experienced teachers understand the needs of the local community. Their expertise enables them to work with the principal and the school community to ensure quality education and support the school community to achieve its purpose and direction. Some may argue that the role outlined for experienced teachers in schools is the same as the role statement for the executive or middle-management group in schools. So why focus specifically on experienced teachers in this study?

The reasons will become more apparent in the next section, when the evidence of the current trends in leadership development is explored. However, in order to develop the argument of this study it needs to be mentioned here that the numbers of principals and middle-management personnel are rapidly declining and at the moment limited numbers of experienced teachers are taking on middle-management roles. Thus, for succession planning to ensure a leadership pipeline it is important, under the current circumstances, to focus on leadership development for experienced teachers.

Based on this, and because of the important leadership role of school principals, there is a case for implementing strategic planning processes for leadership succession. Effective strategic planning has the potential to foster successful and sustainable leadership in state schools. A focus on the leadership development of experienced teachers is an important aspect of this planning because of the role these teachers play in the ongoing effectiveness of the school.

1.4 The Context of Leadership Development

In order to understand the current context for leadership development in NSW state schools, this section focuses on four trends that affect formal leadership succession planning and capacity building.

Day (2001) defines leadership development as “expanding the collective capacity of organisational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes” (p. 582). He suggests leadership development means capacity building: “expanded capacity provides for better individual and collective adaptability across a wide range of situations. A leadership development approach oriented toward building capacity is needed in anticipation of the unforeseen challenges” (p. 586).

1.4.1 Trends affecting succession planning and capacity building

Over the past decade, there has been considerable concern in Australia about an impending shortage of aspirants willing to undertake formal school leadership positions. Caldwell (2000) has observed that “reports from nation after nation refer to the shrinking pool of applicants for the position of principal” (p. 3). Watson (2007) reported that it was becoming increasingly difficult to attract leaders to the position of principal. Officials in several education

departments in Australian states and territories also reported a declining number of applications for principal vacancies (Gronn & Rawlings-Sanaei, 2003; Lacey, 2002a.).

There have been several movements in the NSW state school context that have contributed to a crisis in leadership in recent times. These trends include the complexity of the principal's role, an ageing leadership group, the changing profile of the teaching population and the limited interest of experienced teachers in aspiring to formal leadership positions. Stemming from these changes, are a number of critical issues for leadership development and sustainability. These issues focus on the preparation and development of school leaders and succession planning.

1.4.2 Complexity of the principal's role

Not only are school leaders a key factor in successful school improvement (Caldwell & Spinks, 1992; Dempster, 2001; Fullan, 1993), but also they are generally seen to be taking on more and more responsibilities. A common thread in the international literature on school reforms of the 1980s and 1990s was the effect of the increased responsibilities facing principals due to the shift to "self-managing" schools. Fullan (2003) reported that principals were succumbing to these pressures; "the role of the school administrator has increased in complexity. The ground rules have changed dramatically... across America there is a mass exodus from leadership positions" (p. 11). Bush and Jackson (2002) describe the additional effects of globalisation and technological change on the complexity of school contexts and the subsequent increased accountability for principals due to political and social pressures.

The evidence from the Australian context reveals the impact of two school reforms on the principal's role. The self-managing school reforms in the 1980s resulted in an increased workload and the lack of additional time and resources provided to meet new role expectations since the restructuring of schools (Murdoch, 2002). These reforms placed significant autonomy, efficiency and accountability pressures on school leaders (Caldwell, 2000; Lambert, 2002; Wildy, Forster, Loudon & Wallace, 2004). Crow, Hausman and Scribner (2002) emphasised that the nature of activities undertaken by principals after the restructure changed because of the pressure of accountability mechanisms on their daily work. A major Victorian government research project on principals' workload and its impact on health and well-being found seventy eight per cent of principals and assistant principals reporting "high" or "very high" levels of work-related stress, compared to fifty five per cent

of white collar workers in comparable occupations. Sixty per cent of principals indicated they spent too much time on accountability tasks and seventy two per cent agreed that the worst thing about their job was “the amount of unnecessary paper work” (Victorian Department of Education and Training, 2007b, p. 6).

The implementation of the Leading and Managing the School (2000) document was the second reform that increased the complexity of the leadership role due to the resultant responsibilities (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). Dempster, Carter, Freakley and Parry (2004) suggested that the “high tech” era, together with economic, political, social and legal forces, has also affected the decision-making processes of principals. As a consequence of these two school reforms, the role of the principal has increased in complexity.

This complexity is exacerbated in schools where distance and equity factors significantly impinge on the context and student outcomes. In rural and remote schools the contextual impact, or as Green (2008) termed it, “spaces and places” were identified as a vital factor affecting leadership responsibilities. In low socio-economic schools staff turnover and inexperience at all levels of formal leadership impinge on the capacity of the principal to effectively perform the role (Dempster et al., 2004). Factors such as “disadvantage” and school communities with “deep needs”, impact the sustainability of the leadership role (Groundwater-Smith & Kemmis, 2004). This trend raises critical issues for leadership development, specifically leadership effectiveness and sustainability, particularly with regard to the heavy workload.

1.4.3 An ageing leadership group

A second consideration has been the impact, over the last ten years, of increased retirement rates amongst principals (Scott, 2003). This trend has extended to middle-management and classroom-based teachers in schools. Empirical data on national workforce trends revealed that in 2003, more than half the teaching workforce was over forty five years of age (MCEECDYA, 2004). Evidence is provided of the ageing middle-management leadership group through the five year projection of the NSW DEC school executive age distributions (DET, Workforce Planning-Data projections, 2005 as shown in Figures 1.2a, 1.2b, 1.2c, and 1.2d).

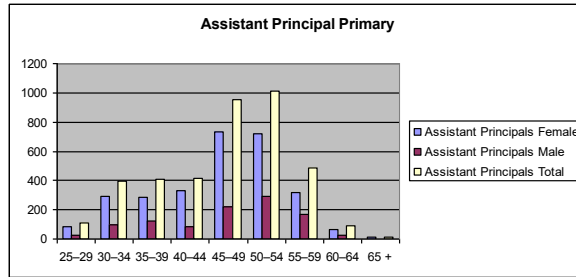


Figure 1.2a NSW DEC School Executive Age Distributions – five year projection (NSW DET workforce planning, 2005)–Assistant Principals, Primary (N=3,660)

The data show that approximately 46% of Assistant Principals, Primary were projected to be over fifty years of age in 2010.

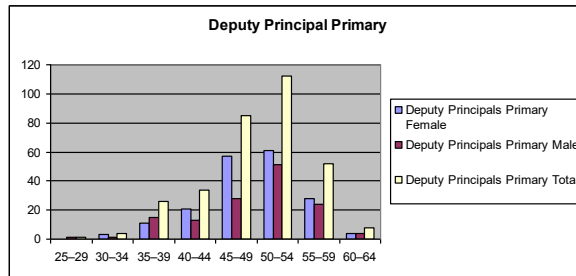


Figure 1.2b NSW DEC School Executive Age Distributions – five year projection (NSW DET workforce planning, 2005)–Deputy Principals, Primary (N=343)

The data show that approximately 48% of Deputy Principals, Primary were projected to be over fifty years of age in 2010.

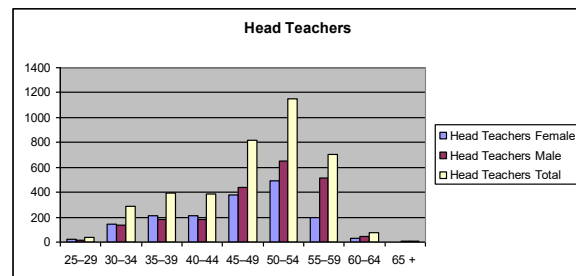


Figure 1.2c NSW DEC School Executive Age Distributions — five year projection (NSW DET workforce planning, 2005)–Head Teachers, Secondary (N=3,820)

The data show that approximately 50% of Head Teachers, Secondary were projected to be over fifty years of age in 2010.

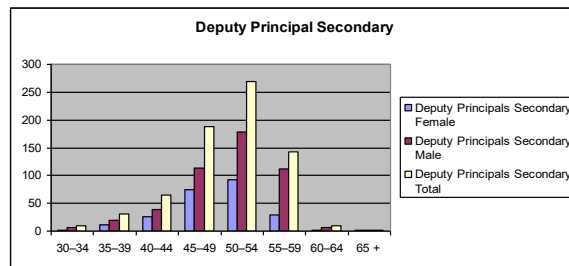


Figure 1.2d NSW DEC School Executive Age Distributions — five year projection (NSW DET workforce planning, 2005)–Deputy Principals, Secondary (N=605)

The data show that approximately 64% of Deputy Principals, Secondary were projected to be over fifty years of age in 2010.

These data reveal that, when considering leadership succession, in each of the formal school middle-management positions approximately half the executive are nearing retirement age (55 years for females and 60 years for males). These workforce projections are now being realised, resulting in an increased number of formal promotion positions becoming available within the school hierarchy. Gronn and Rawlings-Sanaei (2003) attribute the spike in retirement rates to the effect of the post-World War II baby boom. They comment that another impetus to early retirement in some jurisdictions has been the superannuation schemes that provide an incentive for teachers and principals to retire at fifty five years of age for females and sixty for males. Becker and Moen (1999) suggest the rise in two-career families is also a factor that should be taken into account. They claim that adults in dual-career families employ a range of adaptive strategies at different stages of their lifespan to attain work-life balance. Becker and Moen assert that these strategies influence both their individual career aspirations and labour market mobility.

The loss of experienced leaders and their accumulated tacit knowledge (Mulford, 2008; NSW DET Annual Reports, 2001–2009) raises two critical issues for leadership development. The impact of this trend has resulted in a narrowing of the leadership experience base and subsequently, a shrinking of the resource pool of “veteran leader” role models (Mulford, 2008). These leaders would normally provide mentorship support (Hargreaves, 2009) as a

method of professional development for the less experienced new breed of leaders coming through in the leadership pipeline. Additionally, the loss of leadership knowledge and expertise has the potential to impact adversely on school improvement and quality education.

The turn-over of experienced staff has led to a shift in the experience base within the formal positions of the principal and executive (Hopkins, 2000). The result is an emergent new group of formal leaders with limited contextual experience working within an ever-changing educational setting (Lashway, 2003). This change in the experience base raises critical issues for leadership development, particularly, leadership preparation, development programs and succession planning.

1.4.4 The changing profile of the teaching population

Along with the shift in the leadership experience base, a third emerging trend foreshadowed in the Ramsey Review (2000) is the changing profile of the teaching population. Ramsey's projections have been realised. The number of New Scheme teachers [refers to teachers who entered the workforce post-2004] (NSW Institute of Teachers, 2004), now accounts for a sizeable proportion of the teaching population. The ongoing training and development needs of this large group of New Scheme teachers put further pressure on the responsibilities and accountabilities of new leaders.

This trend also impacts on the experience base of those candidates for middle-management leadership positions in the future. A critical issue here is the type of formal leadership development practices necessary to prepare successors for these positions. Previous training methods relied on experienced teachers to provide professional development opportunities through mentoring and expert/novice coaching models. With these trends the developmental strategies that rely on experts from middle-management formal leadership positions, may need to be rethought and consideration given to broadening the forms of collegial support.

1.4.5 The limited interest of experienced teachers in aspiring to formal leadership positions

The literature review acknowledges that the contribution of experienced teachers is vital to the effectiveness of a school and to improved student learning outcomes (Hattie, 2003; McKinsey, 2007; Wenglinsky, 2000). Hargreaves (2009) takes this one step further by

predicting that, because of the pressures on principals and executive staff in the future, there will be a reliance on experienced teachers as the “emergent leadership” group in schools.

It is disconcerting that leadership succession studies across Australia have revealed a consistent trend in the shortages of applicants for school principal positions (Barty, Thomson, Blackmore & Sachs, 2005; Dorman, Dorman & d’Arbon, 2003; Lacey & Gronn, 2004). The reasons given for this trend are diverse. Hargreaves (2009) provides anecdotal evidence regarding concern about the complexity of the principal’s role. Empirical evidence, aligned to this concern, comes from a national survey on teacher satisfaction in schools (Price-Waterhouse, 1999). The survey attributed the paucity of aspirants to the lack of incentives for teachers to leave the classroom, for what is often seen as an “administrative position”. Murdoch (2002) attributes the disincentive to the increased workload resulting from bureaucracy, excessive paperwork and constant changes in curriculum and policies.

Experienced teachers also seem to lack interest in applying for leadership positions at the middle-management level (Lambert, 2003; Tirozzi & Ferradino, 2000). Both in Australia and overseas, the increased accountability and challenges of the formal executive roles are identified as a disincentive for leadership development (Anderson, 2004; Howley, Andrianaivo & Perry, 2005). Gronn (2003a) supported this stance arguing that increased government intervention tying salary incentives to student outcomes exacerbates this level of accountability.

Another reason that has been highlighted is the personal effect on aspirants of limited preparation for leadership roles (Bloom & Krovetz, 2001; Bush & Jackson, 2002). Theoharis (2007) maintains that the negative emotional and physical effects of the role lead to discouragement and teacher burnout. Daresh and Male (2000) describe the “culture shock” of aspirants when taking on a new leadership position. “The respondents felt unprepared ...for the intensity of the job” (p. 95). Finally, James and Whiting’s (1998) work with “deputy heads” in England and Wales points to the fact that the cumulative effect of disincentives results in a reduction in applicants; “fifty one percent were not planning on applying for the school principal role” (p. 357). A critical issue emerging from the literature on this trend is the importance of appropriate leadership development programs to address the needs of aspirants:

In the respondents' view, there was a need for all deputy head teachers to receive professional careers guidance, such as mentoring and involving where appropriate those with comparative experience and frameworks for networking. "It would appear that there is a need to address the continuing professional development of all established staff" (James & Whiting, 1998, p. 361).

There is much agreement amongst researchers regarding the benefits of leadership preparation programs for fostering effective leadership practices and school improvement (Barnett, Basom, Yerkes & Norris, 2000; Orr, King & La Pointe, 2010). However, there is limited research on the developmental strategies to employ. Pettitt (1999), and Smith and Stewart (1999) suggest that the programs should be conducted at the worksite and that training should be based on problem-solving experiences. "No one can simply train for the position of leadership ...he or she must do the job to know the job" (Pettitt, 1999, p. 58). Adey's (2000) research of middle management in English secondary schools led to him recommending building leadership capacity through team approaches. "Given the growing number and increasing complexity of the responsibilities being shouldered by middle managers, the dangers of appointing people to [these] posts and then expecting them to learn [quickly] on the job are self-evident" (p. 423).

Barty et al. (2005) offer a different explanation for the apparent shortage in applicants for formal leadership positions. They suggest the declining numbers may be due to contextual variations in the level of interest in leadership positions in particular types of schools. Barty et al. (2005) claim that factors come into play such as: the location of the school, the student population and "local knowledge" about student clientele and other staff who are applying for particular jobs. Evidence varies as to the reasons for limited interest by experienced teachers in leadership positions. However, of central importance is that the literature indicates an apparent problem with the future supply of experienced teachers for the succession process.

The trends outlined have contributed to the current problem of a potential reduction in the number of trained candidates willing to undertake formal leadership positions in NSW state schools. In order to ensure future leadership effectiveness and sustainability, several issues need to be addressed in future leadership development programs. These issues relate to the best ways to engage, prepare and develop highly-qualified candidates for school leadership roles.

1.5 Current Leadership Training – NSW State School Context

An evaluation of the current NSW state leadership training context is necessary to gain a full understanding of the reasons for the crisis in leadership facing NSW state schools. This appraisal also helps to identify the factors that are contributing to the crucial nature of the problem, particularly, with regard to the leadership development of experienced teachers. Currently, the NSW DEC Professional Learning and Leadership Development (PLLD) directorate oversees state leadership development programs.

1.5.1 Principals and executive

Leadership training, in particular, draws on the School Leadership Capability Framework [SLCF] (SLCF, 2002). In general, the PLLD leadership development programs are designed around this framework. One prime advantage of the framework is that it was developed by practitioners in the relevant field. The framework is defined as the “combination of attributes, qualities, skills and knowledge that enables a person to perform to a high standard in a given context and role” (Scott, 2003, p. 3).

Some researchers have challenged the use of a standardised framework for leadership development. Norton (2002) cautions trainers on the limitations of relying on a set framework. He asserts that this can lead to a “formula approach” placing emphasis on the practitioner meeting prescribed performance standards rather than building the individual’s leadership capacity. Baker’s (2005) findings also argue that leadership training should incorporate other areas, and, “go beyond the development of skills and abilities to encompass an emphasis on the context of learning about leadership as a process” (p. 48).

State-wide formal leadership training opportunities are managed by the NSW DEC School Leadership and Executive Learning Unit (SLELU). The activities of the Unit comprise one-off formal training presentations and an online “learning leadership” program. The online program is underpinned by sound educational theory and practice. The program seeks to address leadership development needs and is based on regular participant evaluations. The online modules are conducted on a user-pay basis, generally after school, and focus on the principal and aspirant at the top of the pyramid (Dempster, 2001) as the leader of learning (Fullan, 2003). Leadership development training for the middle-management level consists of an online program with on-demand, self-paced training packages organised in a similar

manner to that of the principal and aspirant. In addition, some *ad hoc* regional and school based training is conducted but is dependent on school funds (NSW DET Annual Reports, 2001–2009).

However, there are some criticisms of this approach. A professional development survey of primary school principals (NSW Primary Principals' Association (PPA), 2010) who had enrolled experienced teachers in these leadership training online modules, reported that the programs were mainly of limited impact on the development of their staff. Some reasons given were, "the program fell apart because it was based on the demanding schedules of the principals/executive (who were the mentors/key presenters) involved". A common thread amongst principals' concerned comments about accessing the online facility is illustrated as follows: "my staff complained about the difficulties of getting into the online component because the site dropped out"; "they want to be able to talk over a problem with a 'real' person and get immediate feedback, not wait till a specific online time".

There is growing evidence to indicate there are issues with the effectiveness of online training facilities as well as the limited development opportunities accessible to experienced teachers in rural and remote areas (Anderson, 2001; Green, 2008; Halsey, 2011). Informal interviews by this researcher with members of the NSW Secondary Principals' Council (SPC) Leadership reference group (Bell, 2010) supported the survey concerns regarding accessing the online facility. Anecdotal comments about the online programs were: "my staff aren't interested in these programs"; "staff are not prepared to give up so much of their own time for professional development"; "I tried to organise one of these online programs but couldn't align my staff time with the availability of regional staff to conduct the program" and "I haven't got the funds, nor the time available to train the staff in the regional programs". Coupled with the PPA survey and SPC Leadership Reference group comments, are the remarks of Professor John Halsey, Flinders University, about the Australian Secondary Principals' Association survey of rural principals (Halsey 2011). He commented that the survey found: "46% of the respondents (Total=683) said that they had no preparation for leadership – another 29% said they had only attended short courses...given the complexity of leading and managing rural schools, these are concerning figures" (p. 4). Professor Halsey went on to assert: "school principals and leaders fulfil a crucial role in these communities and they require and deserve much better than a 'sink or swim' approach (to training) from their employers" (p. 4).

In summary, while online and packaged training modules are available for principals, aspirants and executive, the take-up rate has not increased and is demand-driven. The funding for delivery of these online modules is limited. The strengths of the development programs are that they are practice-based, address expressed needs and have been developed by personnel working in the field. Diverse feedback has revealed that there are limitations to the delivery of the online leadership development modules. These limitations relate to access to experienced staff with expertise to support the online activities, continued access to technologies to activate online modules, time and funding constraints, personal reactions to the delivery mode and rural isolation. These delivery constraints have the potential to affect the preparation and development of future leaders and contribute to the crisis in leadership facing NSW state schools.

1.5.2 Experienced teachers

An evaluation of the literature on the current professional development programs for experienced teachers has found that there are limited leadership development activities for this group. Teacher developmental programs focus on two areas, namely, improving pedagogical practices and curriculum delivery, and capacity building activities.

The NSW DET Quality Teaching Framework (2003b) was introduced with a focus on improving pedagogy, assessment and reporting. Since then, professional development programs for experienced teachers have focused on pedagogical practices, to improve student outcomes, and curriculum training targeted to subject- or course-specific teacher groups (Ingvarson, 2002). Jensen (2010) supports this claim by providing evidence that the only form of teacher professional development related to pedagogy and/or curriculum is based on the Australian federal government's intervention strategies. For example, government compliance training is currently conducted to support initiatives such as the National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) testing. Furthermore, Jensen asserts that, “only lip-service has been paid to the immensely important practical issue of effective teacher professional development” (p. 530).

The other area of professional development for experienced teachers focuses on capacity building. There appears to be limited empirical data in the NSW DET Annual Reports (2001–2009) on specific coordinated leadership development programs for experienced teachers in NSW state schools. The leadership training for this group also varies in content and depth of

delivery within each region. From a local school perspective, it appears that teacher training has taken the form of capacity building activities (Andrews, Lewis & Crowther, 2001; Crowther, 2001) with experienced teachers being viewed as members of the school's "professional learning community" (Stoll, 2003). There has been limited informal work on teacher leadership development by individual schools (Busher & Harris, 1999). Court (2001) claims that, the only formal leadership development for experienced teachers has occurred through strategies such as buddying, delegation, and mentoring. These strategies utilise the expertise of experienced teachers as knowledge providers for the development of less experienced teachers. Although they support this claim, Tsolakis and Cornford (2010) suggest another reason for limited leadership development of this group may be due to budgetary concerns; "quality, systematic teacher development programs for experienced teachers have rarely been undertaken in Australia, because of costs and complacency about the quality of the Australian education system" (p. 2).

By contrast, Lambert (2003) argued the importance of developing teachers as multiple leaders at all levels of the school community in order to spread the leadership load. She identified a gap in leadership training, by taking the focus off the concept of one formal leader. Lambert suggested, rather than leadership succession planning only offering incentives for leaders, there is a need for the provision of leadership development programs focused at the classroom teacher level that "encourage the broad based, skilful participation of teachers in the work of leadership and thus build leadership capacity" (p. 27). She asserted "this approach will help address the succession issues in leadership development" (p. 8). Fullan's (2003) research on distributed leadership supported her stance on developing a range of talented leaders within a school.

In the past, leadership development has relied on formal training methods focused on the principal and executive as the school leaders and role models (Whitehead & Ryba, 1995). Using this method, research on leadership preparation and training has made the assumption that leadership development is delivered through the influential strategies of the principal and executive. There is also an assumption that the leadership knowledge, skills and philosophy of experienced teachers are developed by processes akin to a drip-down effect from the principal's position at the top of the school hierarchy. These strategies have resulted in a limited focus on the leadership learning needs of experienced teachers. Lambert (2003)

similarly advocated the need to foster developmental activities that focus on leadership learning, “away from a teaching model, and with more emphasis on the learning” (p. 6).

An evaluation of the current state school leadership training context revealed that, although there are some constraints, leadership development activities are focused on the principal and executive in schools. The literature review also identified two factors that are adding to the current problem: an apparent knowledge gap in the leadership development programs that are appropriate for experienced teachers and the lack of engagement of experienced teachers in leadership development activities. These circumstances have the potential to exacerbate the problem of leadership succession because experienced teachers may feel they are not being suitably prepared for leadership roles.

To appropriately address the issue of leadership succession there is a need to plan leadership development programs for experienced teachers that provide learning experiences that build their capacity and strengthen their leadership philosophy; and promote a school culture of leadership learning that engages and motivates experienced teachers to take on leadership roles. Considering the current trends, there is also a necessity for the leadership development processes to be coordinated so that they address the current issues of effectiveness and sustainability.

1.6 Purpose of the Study, Research Question and Key Issues

The purpose of this study is to address an apparent knowledge gap concerning leadership development for experienced teachers and a lack of preparation of this group for effective and sustained succession into the principal’s role, in often challenging and complex contexts.

The study proposes two ways to address the problem: expand the target group of candidates for leadership development and succession to include experienced teachers, and develop and research a Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI) that promotes leadership learning, development and succession in schools.

Consequently, the overarching research question is:

What are the ways in which an intervention can promote leadership learning, development and succession in schools?

The literature review has shown there is a current mind-set amongst experienced teachers that hinders their involvement in leadership development processes. Experienced teachers view the school principal and formal middle-management positions as busy jobs with limited incentives and visible work overload. This perception gives rise to several key issues that need to be addressed in leadership development programs for experienced teachers, namely, a need to research strategies that:

- encourage a change in the attitude towards formal leadership development;
- develop an understanding of the nature and functions of educational leadership in schools;
- provide relevant leadership learning experiences that engage and motivate this group to apply for formal leadership positions;
- foster a sound leadership philosophy;
- build leadership capacity that prepares teachers for the complexity and contextual challenges of leadership positions;
- co-ordinate approaches to the delivery of leadership development programs that promote effective and sustained leadership in schools.

To address these issues, the study seeks to develop leadership development strategies that have the potential to engage, motivate and foster a sound leadership philosophy in experienced teachers. These strategies need also to provide relevant learning experiences that develop leadership capacity and prepare this group to take on the challenges of formal leadership positions in schools.

1.7 Significance

This study is significant for its contribution to effective strategic planning of leadership succession processes in schools. The study seeks ways to foster a sound leadership philosophy, build capacity and prepare experienced teachers for the complex role of a school principal. This research also explores the strategies to engage and motivate experienced teachers to take on leadership positions in schools.

The anticipated outcomes of the research are to:

- engage experienced teachers in ongoing professional development activities;
- provide a deeper understanding of the major factors that may be useful or important in the area of leadership development for this group of experienced teachers;
- provide information on the professional learning needs of experienced teachers;
- present a coordinated approach to succession planning;
- contribute to the body of knowledge on effective leadership development programs for experienced teachers.

By promoting a culture of leadership learning, this study has the capacity to inform adult learning strategies that are currently being used to engage experienced teachers from NSW state schools in developmental activities. This study can provide valuable insights for program planning to meet the needs of individual teachers and improve their leadership capacity. Ultimately, by enhancing the focus on leadership learning this study has the potential to improve leadership succession planning practices in NSW state schools and strengthen quality education.

1.8 Conclusion

Chapter one developed an understanding of the nature and scope of this study. The purpose, research question, key issues, and significance of the study were outlined. The literature review advances an argument for the significance of the principal's role and provides a rationale for the importance of leadership succession in NSW state schools. The four major trends contributing to the current problem were outlined. The problem is articulated as a potential crisis in leadership succession that has resulted from a decline in the pool of candidates willing to undertake formal leadership positions in schools, and the implications of these circumstances for leadership succession. An evaluation of the current circumstances affecting leadership development in NSW state schools, particularly in relation to experienced teachers, was presented. This revealed that the leadership development of the principal and executive is being addressed. However, an apparent "knowledge gap" exists in the leadership development of experienced teachers. The premise was advanced that the current problem could be addressed by including experienced teachers in the target group for strategic planning on leadership development. This is an important aspect of succession

planning because of the vital role these teachers play in the ongoing effectiveness of the school.

In the next two chapters the literature is reviewed on leadership and learning theories respectively, to inform the current context for leadership development in NSW state schools. Chapter two examines the general and educational fields of leadership and leadership development. The distinctive features of educational leadership in NSW state schools are identified. The review evaluates the different approaches to educational leadership and the current leadership development programs from an international and NSW perspective to determine their relevance for this study.

Chapter Two

Literature Review – Part 1: Leadership

The introductory chapter discussed the prospect of a future crisis in leadership development processes and succession planning in NSW state schools. The problem of a reduction in the number of aspirants for the role of principal was outlined and the current context for leadership development in NSW state schools was evaluated. The purpose, research question, key issues and significance of this study were presented.

Overview

Chapter Two begins by exploring the literature of the general and educational fields of leadership. Next, the review evaluates the different approaches to educational leadership since the period of the school reform movement in the 1980s, to identify approaches that have the potential to build leadership capacity and encourage a leadership philosophy amongst experienced teachers in the NSW state school context. The review strongly supports the value of Fullan's (2003) model of the leader of a "professional learning community" (p. 7), a variation on distributed leadership, as a suitable approach to foster leadership development for experienced teachers in this study. Of interest is a mapping of the current leadership development programs, internationally and from a NSW perspective for principals and the executive. The chapter concludes with a focus on leadership training for experienced teachers that has the potential to equip them for the role of school principal.

2.1 General Field of Leadership

This chapter scopes literature from the past thirty years to ascertain the foundational aspects of leadership. The literature is reviewed, first, from the perspective of the individual, to provide an understanding of the dynamic nature and interactional functions of leadership. The review indicates several factors that influence the practice of leadership. Second, the collective perspective is explored to inform the ways leadership functions within the context of an organisation. Finally, the strengths of a distributed leadership approach are outlined as promoting effective leadership practices that result in change, improved practices and capacity building in an organisation.

2.1.1 Factors that influence leadership

The literature explores the three key factors that influence the way an individual practises leadership, namely, the organisation, culture and vision.

2.1.1.1 Organisational influences on leadership

In this section, the literature sheds light on the nature of leadership, in particular the relational aspects of the organisation that affect the way leadership functions. Chemers (1997) conceptualised leadership as a process of social influence, “in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task” (p. 11). This notion highlights the dynamic and interactive function of leadership. Leadership as a process is seen to have a specific function in determining organisational goals, performance and in bringing about change (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Yukl, 2002).

Coupled with the notion of leadership as a process, is the concept of leadership as a social phenomenon and the effects on leadership of social interactions and relationships. As the process of leadership involves people, it is seen to be dependent on social interactions and aimed primarily at attaining mutual goals (Brower, Schoorman & Tan, 2000; Fletcher & Kaufer, 2003; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Bolman and Deal (2003) situated the relational and contextual nature of leadership within a human resource framework and emphasised the relationship of people with the organisation. They argued that a reciprocal influence exists between people and organisations and perceived the benefits of a “good fit”. This perspective does not restrict leadership to hierarchical positions or roles. Instead it views leadership as occurring in relational dynamics throughout the organisation and acknowledges the importance of context (Osborn, Hunt & Jauch, 2002). In relationship-based approaches, the focus is on interpersonal relationships that occur between a leader and a group (Howell & Shamir, 2005). However, in his conceptualisation of “teaming” within a human resource framework, Gronn (1998) argued that an underlying tension may occur between the people and the collective dynamic of the organisation. The functional and social aspects of leadership are important considerations in this study as they contribute to an understanding of the nature of leadership and the way it is exercised in an organisation.

An important aspect of the social interactions of leaders is their relationship with their followers. This concept is seen as integral to understanding leadership as a reciprocal process

(Kouzes & Posner, 2002), in particular, the quality of relationships and the type of influence exercised between the leader and the target person(s) as “responsive follower(s)” (Beckhard, 1996). Daft (1999) supported this reciprocal notion and asserted that the “leader-follower equation” was interchangeable. In comparison to his view, is the evidence that followers have a distinct influence on the behaviour of a leader when the followers challenge the leader’s legitimacy (Long, 2010; Long & Sitkin, 2006).

Some researchers have advanced the premise that the leadership relationship is one of “mutual influence” where leaders work through, and with, other people (Bradford & Cohen, 1998; Burns, 1978; Pearce & Conger, 2003). These authors maintain that this type of leadership helps distribute the expertise beyond the one position and establishes the conditions that enable others to be effective. Limerick, Cunnington and Crowther (1998) take this view a step further, providing a holistic description of the social interactions between leaders and followers. They assert that, because of the changing nature and structure of organisations, leaders today work in socially intricate organisations where they need the assistance not only of subordinates but also of peers, superiors, and external parties to accomplish their goals. In these contemporary organisations all members have power and exercise democratic power in working both collaboratively and interdependently. The proponents of mutual influence argue that these leadership practices encourage honest communication, higher quality decision-making, a greater commitment, and increased responsibility.

Other authors argue that when leaders use influence in a destructive way this limits the effectiveness of the organisation (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004; Padilla, Hogan & Kaiser, 2007). They maintain that abuse of leadership, such as arguments, bullying and displays of bias or favouritism in a workplace, can be counter-productive to work performance (Thiederman, 2004; Thornton, 2004). It is clear from the literature reviewed that successful leadership depends on the quality of the relationships established within an organisation. These relationships are mutual and function in both directions.

This study explores the concepts of power and authority because these concepts determine the style of leadership practised. Researchers have found that when legitimate power, derived from a formal position of authority, is exercised, this results in positive behaviours amongst followers in an organisation (e. g. Michelson, 1995; Zand, 1997). By contrast, an abuse of power, such as the practice of autocratic leadership, particularly when used for coercion,

manipulation or domination, leads to the followers' feelings of perceived helplessness and frustration (Kotter, 1995; Whetten & Cameron, 2004). Gronn (2003a) noted the tensions between the notions of power and authority at the workplace. He argued that a leader may have supervisory authority over a worker but could also exercise power in relation to a worker's conduct, particularly with regard to the leader's responsibilities under the legal concept of duty of care.

Power can also be used effectively when it is based on the talent and expertise of members within the organisation (Hatch, 1997; Helgesen, 1996). In this regard, power comes from the relationships developed rather than from the position of authority. Michelson (1995) noted that building a strong power base and developing effective influence strategies to produce power dynamics is an important aspect of leadership.

The review provides knowledge about the interactional nature of leadership and develops an understanding of the functions of leadership within an organisation. An understanding of the different ways an individual practises leadership is important for this study. In order to be successful leaders, experienced teachers need to develop knowledge of the leadership practices that foster effective organisations. The notions of leadership as a process, that can bring about changed practices, its relational context, and the exercise of leadership as one of influence and power, are fundamental concepts that underpin the philosophy and development of effective leaders.

2.1.1.2 Cultural influences on leadership

Culture is one of the most important building blocks for an effective organisation. This section explores the extent to which leadership may be influenced by the culture of an organisation. Schein's (1992, 2004) notion of culture is a useful one for the purposes of this study. He defines culture within an organisation as, "the specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organisation and that control the way they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organisation" (p. 9). Schein (1992, 2004) advanced a framework of organisational culture that comprised three levels. These cultural levels are: a first level of visible and tangible behaviours, for example, language and routines; a second level of values and norms that expressed the intrinsic worth of an organisation; and at the third level, core beliefs and assumptions about the way in which an organisation functions. For Bolman and Deal (2003) it is these interwoven elements that help

members to define who they are and how they function within an organisation. These authors perceive culture as “a product, which embodied the accumulated wisdom or collective knowledge of its members, and as a process, which is continually renewed and re-created by its members” (p. 27).

The intricate nature of organisational culture requires some understanding of the particular elements that influence, and are influenced by, leadership within an organisation. For the purposes of this study, the elements of culture are perceived principally as the traditions, beliefs, values and assumptions that grow out of the shared meanings of people and that, in turn, shape their understandings and behaviours (Alvesson, 2002; Schein, 1992, 2004).

While the community can influence the culture, the literature shows that leadership can also shape organisational culture (Schein, 1992, 2004; Yukl, 2002). Alvesson (2002) supported this view and discussed the interplay of leadership and culture in terms of both “leader-driven organisational cultures” (p. 105) and the “culture-driven nature of leadership” (p. 108). He acknowledged that leaders have the capacity to shape an organisation through their personal charisma and consequently influence many dimensions within an organisation. However, the ongoing influence of an individual leader on the culture of an organisation has been challenged by researchers who maintain that the leader’s charismatic influence is based on their personality traits, which wane once they have left the organisation (Antonakis & House, 2002; Bass, 1985; Rowold & Laukamp, 2008).

Alvesson (2002) also reflected the view that leadership is an outcome of the culture. Because leadership occurs within the life of an organisation and specifically through “the behaviours, understandings and perceptions of the members” (p. 54), culture in this sense is seen to determine leadership. By contrast, Yukl (2002) argued that leaders have the power to either change or strengthen the culture of an organisation because of their direct influence on the motivation and behaviour of the members.

2.1.1.3 Visionary influences on leadership

The literature reveals that vision is also related to organisational culture and thus to leadership. Vision has both a personal and organisational perspective. Senge (1990) initially spoke of the importance of personal vision aligning with the organisation’s vision. His later work perceived leadership as sharing a vision that connects people bound by a common

purpose and a desire to fulfil common aspirations (Senge, 1999). However, if the organisation's vision derives from the vision of only one person or one group and is not a vision that is shared by the majority of members of an organisation, then leadership is limited (Shtogren,1999).

More recent research has advanced the concept of multiple or shared visions that emerge as an integrated vision from many members within the organisation (Lipmann-Blumen, 2000). Blanchard and Stoner (2004) support this viewpoint, arguing that a shared vision empowers the group, as “when people share and believe in a vision of what the organisation can be, they generate tremendous energy and passion... take charge of their future, and there is room for creativity and risk taking” (p.3). Conviction and passion are seen as key elements of a leader's ability to develop a shared vision (Harness, 2009). The literature highlights the importance of vision as a key factor in differentiating the way leadership is exercised.

A review of the literature from the last two sections has built a sound knowledge base regarding the multi-faceted nature of leadership and its functional and relational aspects. It has developed an understanding of the way leadership is exercised through influence and power. The literature provided insights about the three key factors that are integral to the practice of leadership: the organisation, its culture and vision. Of interest is the inter-relationship between these factors. While leadership can influence an organisation's culture and shared vision, the organisation's culture can in turn shape the shared vision of its members. These factors can also impact the way leadership is exercised. The author proposes using these three factors as a point of reference for an investigation of educational leadership in NSW state schools. These foundational factors are significant for this study because they encourage a focused perspective for further discussions of leadership and leadership development.

2.1.2 The collective perspective of leadership

While the previous three sections explored leadership from the perspective of the individual, this section examines leadership from the perspective of the collective group, particularly with regard to the reciprocal influence of the group on leadership and the leader on the group. The review scopes literature from the past twenty years. Research by Limerick et al. (1998) suggested that a different perspective on leadership began to emerge with the restructuring of organisations in response to the global changes in the economy, society and technologies.

The authors referred to organisations that had restructured themselves since the 1990s, as “networked” organisations. Limerick et al. maintained that leadership in this context resulted in changes to the organisation’s profile and practices in order to adapt to a rapidly changing society. They identified three key features as shaping leadership in a networked organisation, that is, a team – with a distributed leadership approach, collaboration, and networks – both across and beyond the organisation

A key feature of networked organisations is the team structure and culture, with the expertise distributed amongst diverse individuals within the organisation. According to Limerick et al. (1998), the networked organisation does not rely on one leader, rather, it is characterised by “a high density of diverse multiple leadership roles that together are able to sustain and transform the organisation” (p. 45). The literature maintains that teams foster a collaborative culture, shared vision and shared decision-making. These processes promote a climate conducive to leadership capacity building and the emergence of “distributed leadership” (Frost & Durrant, 2003; Senge, 1999). By contrast, Lipman-Blumen’s (2000) work suggested that leadership in the networked organisation can be viewed from a different perspective. These authors introduced the notion of “connective leadership” within this global environment that promotes multiple visions yet encourages leaders to connect to the organisation’s vision; creates community yet recognises diversity; exercises ethical principles, authenticity, and accountability; and is about entrusting, enabling and ennobling self and others. Within this environment the individual leader is no longer the exclusive source of knowledge and information. Rather, leadership can emerge from any individual who has the skills and knowledge to deal with complexity and change (Bradford & Cohen, 1998; Brown, 2003). The literature identified that networked organisations foster a collaborative team culture. This culture promotes capacity building and a distributed leadership approach. A common thread emerging in this review is the influence of culture on leadership, whether from an individual or group perspective.

Collaboration is another key feature of leadership in these networked organisations. Collaboration is defined as “behaviour that facilitates collective action towards a common goal” (Limerick et al., 1998, p. 222). The research suggests that professional dialogue and collaborative evaluation of work-based practices, with a collegial group of people, develops a culture of shared learning resulting in improved practice (Datnow, Hubbard & Mehan, 2002; Seashore, Anderson & Riedel, 2003; Stoll, Bolam, McMahan, Wallace & Thomas, 2006).

The evidence has shown that the collective perspective is characterised by a potential for shared learning and decision-making, featuring the key factors – shared culture and vision – and results in changes to practice.

A major strength of a collaborative approach is leadership capacity building through the provision of a range of opportunities for members to practise leadership. Limerick et al. (1998) argued that the networked organisation fosters practitioner-based learning. This involves collective action by the team to evaluate its effectiveness through constant reflection on the purpose, vision and values of the organisation. Limerick et al. asserted that this strategy empowers individuals with a desire to improve and promote a shared vision. Shtogren's (1999) model of six "leadership value enablers" supports this view by identifying, empowerment and self-determination as essential for leadership development within an organisation. He claimed that leaders, who assist others toward competency and confidence in turn, promote "cooperation, commitment, and community" (p. 259).

There are criticisms of the collaborative approach to leadership. Reynolds (1996) suggested that dysfunctional relationships can have a negative effect on leadership and result in barriers emerging. Other authors identified inhibitors of an ethos of collaboration, such as internal politics affecting change (Blase, 1988); altered power relationships (Sarason, 1990); beliefs, values and norms not being universally shared and inherent conflicts between subcultures resulting in divisiveness and fragmentation (Martin & Frost, 1996).

A third key feature of networked organisations is the leadership provided through networks both across and beyond the organisation. Limerick et al. (1998) described the ascendancy of the networked organisation as "loosely coupled, flexible, innovative networks" (p. 7). These leadership networks are characterised by global connectedness, fluidity, flexibility, and interdependence with an emphasis on processes rather than structures (Hesselbein, Goldsmith & Somerville, 1999). The literature focuses on the strengths of these networks. Networks provide opportunities for professional development and the sharing of expertise, in addition to strengthening relationships (Ogawa & Bossert, 1997; Tieglund, 2007).

2.1.3 A distributed leadership approach

The review suggests that a distributed leadership approach has the potential to foster a collaborative perspective. The literature provides a rationale for the potential of this approach

to foster a positive atmosphere for learning and decision-making, and to build leadership capacity that results in change (Bennett, Harvey, Wise, & Woods, 2003; Gronn, 2000; Spillane, 2006). There are many forms that distributed leadership can take and the literature reviewed does not generally prescribe one over others.

The literature indicates that distributed leadership is a non-hierarchical and inclusive leadership approach. This approach fosters collaborative work, values practitioner learning and empowers individuals through shared decision-making (Ryan, 2002; Starratt, 2004). Lambert (2003) maintains in this increasingly complex world it is an unrealistic expectation that leaders are experts in all matters. She argues with this approach, that leadership is not dependent on a position where power and authority is exercised by the designated few but is distributed throughout the organisation.

There are some criticisms of distributed leadership. Day and Leitch (2001) suggest distributed leadership makes use of an individual area of expertise. They maintain this approach is more likely to encourage social networking for the delivery of that expertise, rather than developing the leadership capacity of each member. MacBeath (2005) argues that distributed leadership is difficult to cultivate because it is premised on trust and implies a mutual acceptance of one another's leadership potential. He further remarks that it requires formal leaders to relinquish some of their control and authority, and favours consultation and consensus over command and control.

The review has proposed that distributed leadership is a powerful representation of leadership well suited to complex, changing and inter-dependent environments emerging in today's world. The literature has shown that teams and networks provide opportunities for collaborative practices through which individuals and groups can exercise and develop their shared culture, vision and leadership capacity. Since this study seeks to discover the ways the individual operates within a collaborative organisation such as a school, the next step is to examine whether a distributed leadership approach is relevant to educational leadership in the context of NSW state schools.

Summary

The general leadership literature provides an overarching perspective for viewing leadership in this study. An understanding of the impact on leadership practices, of the organisation,

culture and vision, was gained. A comparison of the individual and collective perspectives of leadership revealed significant insights that are useful for consideration in this study:

- Leadership is not solely position-based, nor does it belong to any one person. Rather, leadership is multi-dimensional;
- Distributed leadership fosters cooperative and collaborative practices and is open to all members of an organisation;
- A distributed approach provides opportunities for leadership development through practitioner-based learning and individual empowerment resulting in capacity building and changed leadership practices.

2.2 Educational Leadership in Schools

A major focus of this section is to investigate whether distributed leadership is a suitable approach for promoting effective and sustained educational leadership for experienced teachers in the NSW state school setting. The literature on educational leadership from the past thirty years is examined to identify the distinctive features of educational leadership in schools that differentiate it from the general field, and to provide knowledge about the influence of school culture and vision on leadership practices. An evaluation of the different approaches to educational leadership, since the period of the school reform movement in the 1980s, is conducted to determine the relevance of a distributed leadership approach. The appraisal suggests the value of Fullan's (2003) leader of "a professional learning community" approach (p. 7), henceforth this model is referred to as Fullan's (2003) PLC approach. This approach has the potential to foster collaborative practices and a culture of practitioner-based learning resulting in changed practices that enhance the quality of education in the NSW state school context.

Since this study focuses on educational leadership in the NSW state school context, a broad definition of educational leadership in schools has been drawn from the 2006 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) project on educational leadership. The Australian federal government commissioned an Australian Centre for Educational Research (ACER) team to prepare a national background report in accordance with the OECD's guidelines and questions. The processes identified by the research suggest that educational leadership contributes to organisational learning, which in turn influences what happens in

the core business of the school, the teaching and learning. Educational leadership influences the way students perceive their schooling, how teachers organise and conduct their instruction, and their educational interactions with, and expectations for, their students.

The literature on educational leadership in schools identifies a key element that differentiates this type of leadership from the general field. This element pertains to the need for educational leaders to provide quality education that keeps learning at the “cutting edge” of change in the global society. To achieve this success, educational leaders need to build leadership capacity that promotes changed practices and sustains ongoing school improvement (Harris, 2002b, 2003b; Harris & Muijs, 2002; Lambert, 2000). The term “leadership capacity” denotes particular synergies at work. Hopkins and Jackson (2003) define leadership capacity as “the route to generating the moral purpose, shared values, social cohesion and trust to make this happen and to create impetus and alignment” (p. 89). Capacity-building occurs when leaders develop the school’s resources, structures, culture and the professional skills of staff at the levels of the individual, whole team and whole school, and in turn, generate change for school improvement (Hadfield, 2003; Harris, 2003a).

In research undertaken in the secondary school context as part of a Leadership for Organisational Learning and Student Outcomes (LOLSO) Project, Silins and Mulford (2000) conceptualised six dimensions of educational leadership practice that promoted organisational learning. These included communicating vision and goals; creating a culture of care; creating a structure that distributes leadership, promotes shared decision-making and encourages teacher autonomy; facilitating opportunities for intellectual stimulation; providing moral support to individuals; and setting high performance expectations. This indicates that educational leadership in schools is highlighted by a distinctive feature, the ability to build leadership capacity that fosters organisational learning, promotes changed practices and results in high quality education.

2.2.1 Leadership, school culture and vision

In this section, the literature examines educational leadership in the context of NSW state schools. The review dwells on the integral nature of leadership, school culture and vision in this setting. Culture and vision were identified earlier (see section 2.1.1.2, 2.1.1.3) as influential factors in the exercise of leadership. This review proposes that for the school context, fostering a collaborative school culture and a shared school vision are key factors

that influence educational leadership practices in schools, encourage capacity building and promote student achievement and school improvement.

The literature indicated that educational leadership fosters, within the school community, a collaborative culture and shared vision (Beare, Caldwell & Millikan, 1997; Bennett et al., 2003; Deal & Peterson, 1999). As culture and vision are integrally linked to organisational processes, it is important to consider these aspects as factors influencing educational leadership practices in schools.

The strength of a cooperative and collaborative school culture and shared vision for educational leadership is the opportunity these factors offer for building leadership capacity amongst experienced teachers. Collaboration develops shared values and vision amongst practitioners that fosters reflective dialogue, problem-solving and group learning, empowering the group for decision-making and change (Andrews & Crowther, 2002; Bolam et al., 2005; Brockbank & McGill, 2006; Hargreaves, 2003). “Professional learning communities demand that teachers develop grown-up norms in a grown-up profession – where difference, debate and disagreement are viewed as the foundation stones of improvement” (Hargreaves, 2003, p. 73). The review strongly suggests that collaborative school cultures and a shared vision promote practitioner learning, teacher empowerment and an ethos of continuous improvement. As well as capacity building, a collaborative school culture and a shared vision encourage practitioner learning and school improvement. The literature suggests that, in a collaborative school culture teachers pursue a shared vision, engage in collaborative activities that foster practitioner learning and accept a collective responsibility for improving student learning and achievement through changes in practice (Marzano et al., 2005; Newman & Wehlage, 1995).

The literature reviewed suggests that the school principal’s educational leadership plays a vital role in fostering a culture and vision for school improvement. This influence can result in teacher empowerment, practitioner learning and a shared commitment to school improvement (Dantow, 2005; Mulford & Silins, 2003). The review confirms the significance of the three factors, organisation, culture and vision, identified earlier (see section 2.4) as also influential to educational leadership practices. A crucial aspect of this study is that the literature provides convincing evidence of the value of using a leadership approach that incorporates a collaborative culture and shared vision to promote capacity building, develop and sustain change practices and enhance school improvement in NSW state schools.

2.2.2 Educational leadership emerging from the school reform movement

For the purposes of this study the term, school reforms and the broader educational reform movement, refer to the processes in which policy makers and educators review the nature and purpose of education to enhance student learning and student outcomes (Mai, 2004). School reforms are considered to be a central context for the changes that have occurred in leadership in schools and in the resultant leadership approaches that have impacted the professional practice of teachers (Riley & Seashore-Louis, 2000).

The school reforms implemented over the last three decades resulted in a shift in power, authority and decision-making (Caldwell, 1998; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999). Educational leadership began to be separated from the role and status of the individual and moved to an approach that was based on collaborative relationships and empowerment (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Caldwell and Spinks (1992) highlight the restructure in NSW state schools from a centralised system of management with heightened dependency on the system toward autonomy in a self-managing school. They see the role of the principal as two-fold; a school leader “responsible for creating and sustaining a ‘self-managing’ culture” (p. 4), and a leader within a wider education system. Central to this change were the expectations placed on the leader by the system and the community.

This section evaluates three different educational leadership approaches that have emerged since the period of school reforms in the 1980s. These approaches are the transactional leadership, transformational leadership and distributed leadership. The three key factors drawn from the general leadership field, namely the organisation, culture and vision, are used as a point of reference for the appraisal. The evaluation considers which approach best displays the distinctive features of educational leadership in schools, the ability to build leadership capacity and to foster changed practices that result in quality education. Finally, the review proposes using Fullan’s (2003) PLC approach in this study for its potential to foster effective and sustained educational leadership in the NSW state school setting.

2.2.2.1 Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership refers to a relationship where the leader and the follower exchange needs and services in order to accomplish independent objectives (Barker, 2002; Kirby, King & Paradise, 1992). The leader gives direction, vision and recognition by motivating followers

to work towards the organisation's goals rather than for self-interest (Leithwood, 1992). Transactional leadership creates within followers a capacity to develop higher levels of commitment to the goals and vision of an organisation (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Miller & Miller, 2001). While transactional leadership inspires individuals, little attention is given to promoting group collaboration to achieve the organisation's vision.

Educational leadership in NSW state schools focuses on elements of transactional leadership (Smith & Stewart, 1999). For example, a major responsibility of a school principal is to set specific goals for teachers and students with an emphasis on the accomplishment of tasks over which the leader has formal control (Leithwood, 1992). Under these circumstances, the principal as leader and teachers as followers have commonalities in respect to the purpose of the set goals. This process is often perceived as a common school vision. However, this imposed vision is often superficial and collapses when faced with contextual challenges. Barnett, McCormick, and Connors' (2001) research on the indicators of transactional and transformational leadership found that the transactional factor of "individualised consideration", meaning the care and concern the principal shows for the teacher, "is a greater impact on teacher perceptions of overall satisfaction with leadership than the transformational factor of vision" (p. 5).

Transactional leadership combines the strengths of making expectations and requirements clear, and increasing performance levels based on the rewards offered (Leithwood, 1992). This type of leadership assumes that people are largely motivated by simple rewards. The limitations are that its success depends on the influence of the leader's values and beliefs on their leadership practices. Additionally, employees have little control over their job satisfaction and this leadership style provides little incentive for up-skilling workers (Day et al., 2000). The success of this model is limited by the level of worker engagement. At the work site, the lack of constructive feedback, or workers feeling that the task violates their values and ethics, can result in limited participation and ineffective outputs (Barnett, 2003).

The literature reveals that to a limited extent a transactional leadership style is used by principals to achieve school goals (Barnett et al., 2001). This approach focuses on the school's vision rather than the development of a collaborative school culture. The review indicates that opportunities for leadership capacity building and learning for changed practices are limited with this relational, transaction-exchange model. Since the development of an organisation's culture, together with its vision, have been identified as key factors in

promoting effective leadership, the transactional leadership approach is of little value for this study.

2.2.2.2 Transformational leadership

In contrast to a transactional model, transformational leadership was proposed as an appropriate leadership approach for schools experiencing a change in policy and other organisational reforms. According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership encourages collaborative practices that help the group to develop a shared vision of the school compared to transactional leadership that focuses on inspiring a school vision in each individual. He believed that transformational leaders have the ability to use strong vision and their personality to inspire followers to go beyond their self-interests, change their expectations and perceptions and become motivated to work towards the common goals of the organisation.

Burns' (1978) discussion of transformational leadership was further expanded by Bass (1985). According to Bass' transformational-transactional theory, leadership is a balance of elements of the traits theory of leadership based on charisma, and elements of transactional leadership behaviour focused on the role and tasks. He defined transformational leadership as the transforming nature of the leader, in particular their charisma, persuasion, idealism, and intellectual stimulation. Bass identified a further defining aspect as being the leader's impact on their followers. He suggested this type of leader gains trust, respect and admiration from their followers. Gurr's (1996) research on the transformational leadership model was conducted from teachers' perspectives in relation to principal leadership. His findings suggest that a transformational leadership model provides a sound basis for the further exploration of leadership approaches.

By 1992, Sergiovanni had shifted his position from a focus on leadership traits to the notion of transformational leadership. His model comprises a set of five forces, operating at different levels within the organisation that a leader should use to shape the organisation's culture. Sergiovanni (1992) described these forces as being, technical (the systems and structures), human (the individual's actions), educational (the teaching and learning), symbolic (the images created) and cultural (the traditions and practices). His research focuses on a shared vision between the leader and the learning community. Sergiovanni asserted that leadership is not based on personality or authority behaviours, but more on actions and personal values. In

the early 1990s, Sergiovanni's model of transformational leadership was promoted, with staff undergoing NSW state leadership training programs.

Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (2003) identified several aspects of quality leadership in schools. These included building the school vision and establishing school goals; providing intellectual stimulation and offering individualised support; modelling best practices and important organisational values; demonstrating high performance expectations; creating a productive school culture; and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions. Findings in the research undertaken by Gurr (1996) revealed that elements of transformational leadership could be identified in the work of school principals with regard to improvements in teaching and learning and student outcomes.

Although the literature has detailed the value of transformational leadership in schools, there have been criticisms of the model from academics in Australian educational circles. Gronn (1999) criticised transformational leadership because it focused on the charismatic nature of the leader and was limited in the explanation of the leader's qualities and the moment in time that determined the transformational character of the leader. He also suggested that the model offered no value in its capacity to further democratise leadership. Although Lakomski (1995) advocated the transformational role of the leader in bringing about change, she criticised the model for not reflecting a sufficient understanding of the influence of organisational structures on learning. Lakomski proposed a model based on organisational learning whereby the school, "becomes its own transforming agent and the notion of leadership of the one becomes leadership of the many" (p. 211).

In the transformational leadership approach, the leader fosters a collaborative culture, highlighted by shared vision and shared decision-making to bring about change. However, criticisms of this approach stem from its reliance on the character traits of the individual to achieve the organisation's goals and vision. An earlier review revealed that the individual's use of power and control limited the development of a distinctive feature of educational leadership, namely teacher learning for changed practice and quality education. Since this study seeks an effective approach to engage and motivate experienced teachers in leadership development, the absence of this aspect means that the transformational leadership approach does not address the learning needs of experienced teachers. While this approach addresses the key factors for effective leadership, it is of limited value for this study because it hinders the degree of leadership development offered.

2.2.2.3 Distributed leadership

Gronn (2000) and Lambert (2002) argued that leadership cannot be the domain of one individual or a small senior group because of the complex nature of the school principal's work in today's global society. They claimed that accomplishing workplace responsibilities depends on the reciprocal actions of a number of people. Other authors have supported this stance and advocated the need for joint leadership action. They have termed this action 'distributed leadership' (Crowther, 2001; Harris, 2002a; Spillane, 2006). The literature describes distributed leadership as, principals working with teachers in joint enquiry and providing opportunities for teachers to take on leadership roles related to bringing about changes in teaching and learning for school improvement. Little (2002) proposed a scheme to identify teacher development and improvement and found that teachers working collectively can "ratchet up" the quality of learning and teaching, while participation and interaction in collaborative groups enables teacher learning and the reform of practice.

A wide range of noted authors have interpreted distributed leadership in a variety of ways. Gronn (2000, 2002a, 2002b, 2003a, 2003b), an Australian educator, advanced the premise that while recognising the role and authority of a principal, leadership in schools can be distributed throughout the school to any teacher whose ideas and views influence others. In this capacity experienced teachers become "autonomous leaders" (2000, p. 333). However, research by Moore, George and Halpin (2002) counters this argument revealing that a principal could use their influence to subordinate such leadership to a managerial status and authority, therefore polarising teachers.

In Britain, Frost and Harris (2003) highlighted the strength of the distributed approach to be the concept of "multiple leaders" (p. 480). The function of the group in which members "pool" their expertise, is emphasised above the contribution of the individual (Bennett et al., 2003). However, Harris (2002a) suggested that distributed leadership should not necessarily preclude formal leadership roles. He asserted that those who are in formal leadership roles have a responsibility to ultimately oversee the function of the organisation and to create a culture of right relationships in order to empower others within the organisation.

One stream of research on distributed leadership advocates developing schools as "learning communities" (Leithwood et al., 1999) to address the global changes and provide improved student outcomes. The concept of a learning community builds on the work of Lave and

Wenger (1991) who advocated a “community of practice” (p. 31), where the members of the community embody certain beliefs and behaviours and construct meaning within this social unit. A learning community views the school as a learning organisation that is built upon collaboration, communication, professional growth and leadership that encourages learning (Caldwell, 1998). The literature suggests that a professional learning community encourages capacity building for sustainable improvement (Aubusson, Steele, Dinham & Brady, 2007; Lambert, 2000; Seashore, Anderson & Riedel, 2003; Stoll & Earl, 2003).

The characteristics of professional learning communities are that these communities have shared values, take collective responsibility for practitioner learning and promote reflective professional inquiry (Hord, 2004; Newmann & Wehlage, 1995; Stoll & Earl, 2003). The literature dwells on the strengths of professional learning communities for fostering capacity building, including increased teacher confidence and greater commitment to experimenting and changing practice (Bolam et al., 2005; Little, 2002). In Australia, Andrews, Lewis and Crowther (2001) also found that where teachers developed a professional learning community, it not only enhanced their knowledge base, but also had a significant impact on their classroom work. Some benefits were the scope for teacher participants to identify their own professional development focus; processes to encourage, extend and structure professional dialogue; and processes for sustaining the professional development over time to enable teachers to embed the practices in their own classroom settings.

There have been some criticisms of professional learning communities. Bryk, Camburn, and Louis (1999), caution that the path between professional community and instructional improvement is not necessarily direct, because instructional improvement may be only one of the school’s many purposes. At the school level a limiting aspect to distributed leadership can be the behaviour of school principals, by holding tightly to power and control, refraining from nurturing alternate leaders, and choosing to involve only those who support their agenda (Anderson, 1990; Barth, 1999; Hatcher, 2005; Ng, 2003). Moreover, ethical considerations were raised around the use of distributed leadership to inadvertently or explicitly secure and coerce the commitment of teachers to improvement interventions and government reforms (Burns, 1978; Hatcher, 2005). Consequently, distributed leadership can be challenged by the influence of a leader’s values and beliefs.

Recent literature on distributed leadership concentrates on an important dimension of educational leadership, namely the influence of the school principal both within and on a

professional learning community. Fullan's work is relevant for this study because his research has contributed to important aspects of leadership training in NSW state schools. Fullan's (2003) PLC approach discusses the power of the school principal as the leader of a professional learning community in bringing about organisational and system change. The purpose of this approach is twofold: the community of learners, are continuously working together and supporting each other to achieve better practices (the knowledge dimension) and to foster greater cohesion and shared commitment toward a higher purpose (the moral imperative). His variation on a distributed leadership approach also supports the importance of building leadership capacity through a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) where teachers are empowered through collaborative activities to achieve school goals.

A major strength of Fullan's (2003) PLC approach is the ability to manage both the leader and community roles. The model balances the predominance of a leader's role – by maintaining the authority of the principal's position, while fostering the collaborative perspective of distributive leadership – by advocating the principal's leadership of a professional learning community. Fullan referred to the principal as the moral leader and suggested that his leadership of a professional learning community empowers teachers, through practitioner learning and shared decision-making, to improve their practices. “The moral imperative of the principal involves leading deep cultural change that mobilises the passion and commitment of teachers, parents, and others to improve the learning of all students, including closing the achievement gap” (p. 5).

Some additional strengths of Fullan's (2003) PLC approach are its relevance, flexibility and capacity to promote the opportunities for experienced teachers to enact a collaborative culture that encourages leadership learning and fosters the necessary understandings about the dimensions of leadership that enhance their leadership philosophy (Stoll et al., 2006).

A common thread in Fullan's later work (2004, 2006, 2009) concerns the strategies that principals can use to reshape the culture and context of leadership whilst also working as a member of the learning community with a shared vision of continuous school improvement. Fullan (2004) advanced the concept of “sustainable leadership” (p. 2), focusing on the principal working together with individuals and systems to bring about change. He stressed the outcome of this approach is “a critical mass of leaders at all levels committed to... sustainability” (p. 11). In 2006, Fullan expanded on this stance, arguing that principals should encourage the professional learning community to base their actions on goals, values and a

commitment to change, known as “ideas-based leadership” (p. 34). Recently, Fullan (2009) advocated “motion leadership” (p. 3), whereby the principal and community engage in strategic behaviour and capacity building for school improvement. These strategies highlight the influence of a leader’s values and beliefs in bringing about change through the collaborative activities of a professional learning community.

While it is clear that there are diverse interpretations of distributed leadership, the review proposes Fullan’s (2003) PLC approach for use in this study because it is well suited to the NSW state school context. The strength of this approach is that it balances the leadership role of the school principal regarding their current government accountabilities, whilst also focusing on building a collaborative culture, through the professional learning community, thus promoting practitioner learning, resulting in changed practice and school improvement.

Summary

This section explored the educational leadership domain particularly with regard to NSW state schools. The literature review increased the knowledge base regarding the multi-dimensional nature of educational leadership. Coupled with this is the awareness that school organisation, school vision and culture are integral and influencing factors on the type of educational leadership practiced in NSW state schools.

Two predominant insights have been highlighted for consideration in this study:

- The benefits of a collaborative culture for encouraging teacher empowerment and learning;
- The distinctive features of educational leadership, practitioner learning and changed practices, that promote school improvement.

Finally, the evaluation of the different approaches to educational leadership has resulted in the review proposing Fullan’s (2003) PLC approach for use in this study. This approach is significant because it has the potential to address the leadership development needs of experienced teachers, empowering them and creating the environment for practitioner learning, leadership capacity and changed practice, as well as retaining the importance of the principal’s role for school and system accountabilities. The next step is to evaluate the field of leadership development, from an international and state level to determine whether the

proposal for using Fullan's (2003) PLC approach is an appropriate model for leadership development in NSW state schools.

2.3 Overview of School Leadership Development

A major indicator of a country's progress in contemporary society is the level of education of its citizens. The literature has revealed that the school principal's role is strongly linked to providing high-quality education in NSW state schools. In this section the literature on leadership development from the 1980s to 2010 is reviewed. The school reforms of the 1980s not only affected the system and school management structures, but more particularly, impacted the school principal in a major way, by legitimising their position as leader of the school (Sherman, 2000). Consequently, as was mentioned in Chapter One, the role, responsibilities and accountabilities of the school principal are now under pressure from a range of influences (see section 1.2.2). According to Gurr (1996) the principal is now acknowledged as, "the person in a school who must accept ultimate responsibility for what happens" (p. 223).

The preparation of people for the complex role of a school principal has been identified as an area of concern (see section 1.5). Sherman's (2000) research revealed that school improvement programs were embedded with the shared assumption that leadership is complex and that school principals and aspirants need to undertake training to cope with the role. The approach to leadership development programs needed to change to a focus on developing an individual's leadership skills and expertise as well as preparing them for the complex role of a school principal.

In this section the literature on leadership development from an international and state perspective is evaluated, particularly those programs comprising the preparation, induction and developmental aspects of school principals and executive. Finally, the leadership development programs for experienced teachers are examined.

2.3.1 School principal and executive leadership development

This section focuses on the international leadership development programs for school principals and executive in the United States of America (USA), England and Canada. In each country, the research and development of different national training models was

examined. Elements of these models are now being used as the research base from which the NSW state school leadership training programs have been drawn.

An evaluation of these international leadership development approaches is conducted to establish the current state of practice in the selected countries. The review highlights several key elements relevant to the current context for leadership development in NSW state schools. The review then explores leadership development from the NSW perspective. Fullan's (2003) PLC approach is examined to determine which developmental program has the potential to prepare experienced teachers for the role of principal in NSW state schools system.

2.3.1.1 International perspective

The leadership development trends in the USA, England and Canada, since the school reform movement in the 1980s, were evaluated. The findings revealed that, while each country's trajectory differed, there are four key elements that are important for this study.

The evidence indicates that each country has moved away from "instructional" delivery models (Callahan & Button, 1964) to leadership development programs that focus on an integrated training approach (Cardno, 2002). This new approach combines formal training and learning theory by universities with work-based practice training at the school level, and supports the principal in addressing the needs of the school community. The USA is leading the way, with the success of these integrated leadership development programs (Murphy, 1998). In England, however, the integrated approach has been hampered by government policy focusing on compliance training (Brundrett, 2000). Canadian developmental initiatives are similar in their focus on integrated programs. Wotherspoon's (2006) research of the Canadian education system indicates that the progress of integrating programs has taken a different course with small, localised programs of delivery that are tailored to the leadership development needs of school principals who are often serving in remote schools with diverse communities. The success of an integrated approach provides a key element for this study.

The establishment of leadership centres in England and Canada (Leithwood, Steinbach & Jantzi, 2002) to support research on leadership development and improve practices is an important initiative. The success of leadership development programs emanating from these centres has been based on the elements of sound research on adult learning theories and the

development of practitioner contextual expertise. This theory-based practitioner research approach provides another key element for this study.

The literature from each country has been examined and an analysis of the different approaches shows the success of work-based programs of development. Together with this approach, is the move away from the perspective of individual training that focuses on formal delivery through in-services and specific training to fulfil competency-based frameworks; and towards the use of collective networks of personnel for conducting the work-based activities. The collaboration of school-based personnel supported by government funding and expertise and sound academic research practices, in the three countries examined, has proved another effective element in developing successful leaders.

An important insight that stems from the analysis has been that increased government intervention in leadership development in each country, particularly in England, has hindered leadership growth (Stoll et al., 2006). This intervention can be directly attributed to the growing accountabilities of the school principal's role and the increasing global pressures and concomitant social and political expectations of that position. The government push has resulted in leadership development programs that focus on mandatory training aspects and school leaders being held accountable to regulatory bodies. The evidence reveals that the preparation and induction programs for school principals and executive in England focus on compliance training to address government issues. The tension between government funding to deliver integrated successful leadership development programs for leadership growth and compliance training to fulfil leadership accountabilities is one challenge identified from the international perspective that needs to be explored when examining the NSW perspective.

In summary, a review of the international literature established the current state of knowledge regarding leadership development in the selected countries. The evaluation shed light on four key elements of leadership development. While there has been a shift from instructional models of delivery towards integrated collaborative networks for theory-based practitioner research, each country's approach has been different. A second aspect has been the growing importance of the school context, particularly the culture and visionary elements, as a key influential feature on leadership practices. The evaluation revealed an emphasis on research and innovative leadership development practices at the workplace (England and Canada – leadership centres; USA – joint projects by universities and government bodies). Finally, the international literature mapped the growing influence of government compliance training.

2.3.1.2 The NSW perspective

In this section, the NSW state school context for leadership development for principals and executive is examined. The review explores whether the four key elements identified in the international literature also pertain to the NSW perspective. The PLC approach proposed by Fullan (2003), and identified earlier in the literature, is examined in light of the state leadership development programs for principals and executives.

In NSW, since the school reform movement of the 1980s there has been a shift away from training programs aimed solely at serving principals, to the preparation of prospective principals and executive for leadership positions (Dempster, 2001). A significant aspect of training in this state has been the promotion of leadership development through the distributed leadership approach (see section 2.1.3). This parallels the changes that were identified in England, the U S A and Canada.

An appraisal of this distributed leadership approach is conducted in light of the NSW initiatives in leadership. The evaluation determines whether this approach, currently used with school principals and executive groups working within state schools, has the potential to address the leadership development needs of experienced teachers in the same context.

Given the demands, and accountabilities placed upon school principals since the movement to “self-managing schools” (Caldwell, 1998), the literature reviewed in section 2.1.2 suggests that collaboration and collegial support are necessary in order for leaders to provide quality outcomes.

The distributed leadership approach adopted by NSW features two key concepts, namely, the importance of schools as learning communities with the principal trained as the leader of the learning community (Fullan, 2003, p. 3); and collaborative activities at the workplace that foster practitioner learning and a shared vision for the school. Fullan qualified this distributed leadership focus by commenting that “leaders need to focus on both (student) achievement and the development of future leaders” (p. 34). His research indicates the significance of the local leader’s guiding influence on the learning of this collegial group.

This approach has gained momentum because it builds, among experienced teachers, leadership capacity in context (Munro, 2002) resulting in changed practice. It is also a way of spreading the principals’ workload (Lambert, 2003).

A common concern in the literature was the growing challenge to the distributed approach from government interventionist policies. These policies have the capacity to exacerbate the complexity of the principal's role and diminish the interest of experienced teachers in leadership development. The international literature noted the growing interventionist policies in the three countries explored; this movement is paralleled in the NSW developments. Since 2000, Australian federal government and state government intervention has intensified in NSW state schools. Legislation has given increased power and authority to the school principal's position and embedded system structures for leadership (see section 1.2.2). While principals are more responsible for the school's governance, policy and pedagogy standards, this changed policy and practices has also led to government intervention through an emphasis on performance appraisal rather than developmental methods. In 2001, several government reforms were introduced that reflected the social and legal pressures on school leaders and their communities. This government intervention has focused on teacher and school principal performance and accountability. This trend has resulted in government funding for compliance training of leaders in schools. However, this type of training hinders experimentation, risk-taking and leadership growth (Von Frank, 2009).

Fullan's (2003) PLC approach addresses the tensions of such government intervention. Under his approach, the leader works within the context of their professional learning community and the community's needs, to address government accountabilities on student outcomes, whilst developing leadership capacity and a commitment by teachers to achieving change. For these reasons, Fullan's (2003) PLC approach is of value in this study, because the model has the potential to address the development needs of experienced teachers whilst promoting the accountability aspects of the principal's role in NSW state schools.

In summary, this review has considered the current state of knowledge of leadership development. The influence of the school context on leadership and growing government intervention were identified at both the international and NSW levels. While leadership centres established at an international level were research-based and designed as collaborative networks, the function of similar centres in NSW is with a nominal leadership centre for resource sharing established by the DEC Professional Learning and Leadership Development (PLLD) directorate. The review indicates the value of using Fullan's (2003) PLC approach as an appropriate model for leadership development in NSW state schools.

2.3.2 Leadership training opportunities for experienced teachers

In Chapter One, an apparent knowledge gap was identified in the current leadership development approaches for experienced teachers. The chapter argued for including experienced teachers in strategic planning for leadership development in schools (see section 1.3). This raises further questions about the current nature of leadership training for experienced teachers in NSW state schools.

In this section, the literature of the past thirty years is explored concerning leadership training opportunities for experienced teachers, to gain an understanding of the extent that their needs are being addressed. A synthesis of the recent literature has identified two key training opportunities that focus on leadership development for experienced teachers: capacity building and professional learning activities. While these activities have the overarching outcome of professional development, they have been mainly centred on improving pedagogical practices rather than promoting leadership development for experienced teachers.

2.3.2.1 Capacity building

The literature reveals several initiatives to improve the leadership capacity of experienced teachers from the perspective of “teacher-led” leadership development. Frost and Durrant (2003) developed a conceptual framework that focuses on teacher-led development work to challenge experienced teachers to evaluate their classroom practice, their personal and interpersonal capacities, and the resultant impact that these capacities have on their professional development. In subsequent sections of the framework teachers evaluated the impact of their development work in relation to the school’s structures, processes, culture and capacity and beyond the school. These authors argue that the conceptual framework of teacher-led development might occur either independently within the school or through a supporting partnership arrangement with a university. Teachers responded positively to this evaluative activity.

According to Crowther (1996) the concept of teacher leadership in Australia had its foundation in the “Advanced Skills Teacher (AST) classification” (Crowther, p. 304), developed in a number of Australian states in the previous two decades to improve the professional status of teachers. Although this initiative was not sustained, the concept of

teacher leadership gained some recognition. Crowther's initial research addressed two key aspects that hindered the development of teacher leadership: the notion of lead teacher as a formal role and the idea of school leadership stemming from a teacher undertaking a formal leadership position within the school hierarchy. His premise was that educational leadership theories were grounded in traditional leadership models and did not take into account the leadership that was exercised by teachers in their classroom practice.

In the ensuing years, Crowther and his colleagues (Andrews & Crowther, 2002; Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson & Hann, 2002) developed a Teachers as Leaders framework. The framework was underpinned by the concept of teachers working as part of a learning community to improve their school's outcomes. From the research, five premises were developed which helped to conceptualise teacher leadership. The premises promoted the idea that teacher leadership was real, that it was grounded in authoritative theory, that it was both distinctive and diverse, and that it required nurturing.

Having established a sound educational philosophy for teacher-led development, Crowther and his colleagues introduced the concept of "parallel leadership" wherein teachers and administrators work collaboratively to build school capacity as a "shared professional responsibility" (Crowther et al., 2002, p. 38). Parallel leadership facilitates the professional learning of teachers, the building of school culture and the development of whole-school pedagogy.

Researchers claimed that teacher-led initiatives fostered leadership capacity in experienced teachers (Frost & Durrant, 2003; Grant, 2008). Cranston (2000) argued that experienced teachers have limited opportunities to demonstrate leadership. His research attempted to conceptualise a professional standards framework for teachers, which identified leadership competencies.

The following two studies provide important insights into the leadership development needs of experienced teachers. Silins and Mulford (2000) drew upon data collected in the Leadership for Organisational Learning and Student Outcomes (LOLSO) project conducted in secondary schools in Australia to make a case for the influence of teacher leadership on student outcomes and organisational learning. The data revealed that experienced teachers participate in leadership opportunities when they feel a sense of being valued and supported by the principal. Their conclusions were that school communities that worked together to

develop a collaborative climate and shared vision operated as a professional learning community. These professional learning communities developed trust and promoted teacher leadership through informal strategies rather than formalised roles. Experienced teachers were encouraged to take initiatives to experiment with new ideas, to work collaboratively to influence activities within the school as well as taking into account the wider community, and to share in decision-making.

Lambert's (2003) research on leadership development for experienced teachers was along a similar trajectory. She noted the influence the learning community had on empowering teachers. Her work signalled a shift in leadership training from an emphasis on teaching, to one on learning, as well as a significant shift in the nature of leadership development programs. The move demonstrates a need to engage and motivate a different audience and is an attempt to address the issues of leadership effectiveness and sustainability.

While Harris and Muijs' (2005) work was along similar lines, they introduced the power of teacher-led decision-making as an important element in the debate on leadership development for experienced teachers. They suggested that the capacity of teachers to influence decision-making was a key precursor of leadership development. Harris and Muijs commented that leadership in this informal sense was a "by-product of social interaction and purposeful collaboration" (p. 14).

2.3.2.2 Professional learning

The exercise of teacher leadership is deeply embedded in teachers' professional practice. The literature reviewed in this section uncovers key aspects of teacher professional practice that enhance leadership capacity. Effective professional practice has been a major requirement for teachers in enacting leadership, as evidenced in literature since the early 1990s. Fullan (1993) identified six interrelated domains of commitment and knowledge as requirements for teacher leadership, namely, knowledge of teaching and learning; knowledge of educational contexts; knowledge through continuous learning; knowledge of the change process; moral purpose; and collegiality.

According to Fullan (2001), systems and schools should focus on individual and group evaluations of practice; "high standards of practice and opportunities for teachers to examine their everyday practice together to encourage reform" (p. 260).

His later work expanded on this notion of collaborative problem-solving to improve practice. Fullan (2003) argued that the ability of a teacher to exercise effective professional practice reflected a teacher's capacity to exercise leadership. Fullan's premise is that leadership is for all teachers. His work maintains that when teachers engage in professional dialogue around pedagogy they are practising teacher-leadership skills and gaining the confidence to apply these same evaluative skills to other school processes.

The literature on professional learning for experienced teachers suggests that it is "impoverished" (Timperley & Parr, 2004, p.6). Any documented professional learning opportunities stem from teacher-led activities, that have commonalities with the capacity-building opportunities mentioned earlier (Grant, 2008). One common aspect was the empowering benefits of social interactions and collaborative activities for developing leadership expertise in experienced teachers (Bennett et al., 2003; Bolam et al., 2005; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 2003). This finding was supported by a review of the Quality Teaching Action Learning Projects funding under the Australian Government Quality Teaching Program. The review found that participation in action learning projects improved teacher professional learning opportunities and developed leadership capacity in the funded schools (Dinham, Aubusson & Brady, 2008).

An exploration of the literature on the leadership training opportunities for experienced teachers found that leadership in schools is not necessarily position-specific and so all teachers have the capacity to be leaders (Lambert, 2002). The literature indicated that the concept of teacher leadership was of an informal leadership that occurs within professional practice, and contributes to the professional growth of teachers (Fullan, 2003). The Australian literature has focused on developing frameworks in which teachers can recognise their particular leadership capacities and demonstrate some or all of these capacities in their everyday professional practice (Scott, 2003).

The evidence suggests that the current state of leadership development opportunities for experienced teachers relies on the proactive approach of an individual to their own professional development (Crowther, 2003; Day & Sachs, 2004), as distinct from the models of leadership training for principals and executive outlined earlier. The literature also supports the premise that these capacity building and professional learning opportunities are limited in the level of leadership development that is created by these teachers and their communities through informal professional dialogue around issues of leadership.

Consequently, the literature review indicates the need for leadership development programs for experienced teachers.

Summary

The literature provided a current knowledge-base on the state of leadership development programs for principals, executives and experienced teachers. The findings support the earlier premise of a knowledge gap in training programs for experienced teachers. Of interest, is that experienced teachers view leadership development as being aligned more formally with professional growth centred on pedagogy and leadership capacity building, and unrelated to a formal position (Fullan, 2003).

An evaluation of leadership development approaches highlighted key elements for consideration when designing these programs:

- A change from instructional models of delivery for leadership development programs to a focus on approaches that integrate training, adult learning theory and collaborative networks for practitioner-based learning in the workplace;
- The growing importance of the school context, particularly the culture and visionary elements, as a key influential feature of leadership practices. This has resulted in leadership training programs that focus on issues in the workplace and provide teachers with informal opportunities to practise leadership;
- The growth of initiatives to foster research of leadership (leadership centres, England and Canada; joint projects by universities and government bodies, USA);
- The growing influence of government interventionist policies.

The evaluation strongly supports Fullan's (2003) PLC approach for leadership development with experienced teachers because it has the capacity to provide an integrated approach to theory and practice through the promotion of a collaborative culture for practitioner-based learning in the workplace that leads to capacity building and changed practices.

2.4 Conclusion

The general leadership literature reviewed has explored the multi-faceted nature of leadership. Valuable insights were gained regarding the significance of the leadership

practices context, particularly with regard to the cultural and visionary aspects of leadership. The collective perspective of leadership was reviewed and the literature revealed the possibility that a distributed leadership approach has the capacity to foster collaborative cultures and provide opportunities for leadership development.

The literature of educational leadership fostered an understanding of the distinctive features that set it apart from the general domain. Three leadership approaches were evaluated for their potential to meet the current leadership development needs of experienced teachers in schools. This literature indicated that a distributed leadership approach is highly relevant for leadership development in the NSW state school context. The review noted the value of Fullan's (2003) PLC approach concerning leadership, to foster collaborative practices that empower learners and result in changed practices for school improvement. The next step was to consider the significance of Fullan's (2003) PLC approach in light of the current leadership development programs for principals, executives and experienced teachers.

The literature of leadership development highlighted the strengths of collaborative cultures and the influence of the school context, particularly the culture and visionary factors, on leadership. The evidence showed that effective leadership development programs focus on leadership issues and the integration of workplace practices with formal training and learning theory. The literature points to the knowledge gap in leadership development programs for experienced teachers in NSW state schools (see section 1.5.2), and proposed the need for leadership development of this group. This review indicated the value of using Fullan's (2003) PLC approach for leadership development of experienced teachers in NSW state schools because it gave opportunities for practitioner learning at the workplace and had the potential to develop leadership capacity and a leadership philosophy resulting in school improvement. Of interest is the growth in government intervention that poses an ongoing challenge for leadership development.

While Fullan's (2003) PLC approach is proposed for use in leadership development programs with experienced teachers, the literature review in Chapter One revealed the limited interest of experienced teachers in leadership development (see section 1.4.5). To address this, the next chapter explores adult learning theories. An investigation of adult learning theories is important for this study because it fosters an understanding of the possible strategies that can result in effective leadership learning. The conjecture is that these strategies, because they are

underpinned by key learning theories, have the potential to engage and motivate experienced teachers to participate in leadership development programs.

Chapter Three

Literature Review – Part 2: Adult Learning Theories

In the previous chapter, the literature of leadership was explored to gain current knowledge about the nature and functions of leadership and to develop an understanding of the dimensions of educational leadership. Next, the literature on leadership development approaches was evaluated to find the most relevant approach to address the leadership development needs of experienced teachers. The review indicated the value of using Fullan's (2003) PLC approach for this study. The literature suggested that his model has the potential to build a collaborative culture through a professional learning community and to promote practitioner learning that leads to change in practices and to school improvement. The chapter concluded with a scoping of the current international and NSW leadership development programs for principals and executives, as well as an outline of the leadership training opportunities for experienced teachers. As Meirink, Meijer & Verloop (2007, p. 150) point out, "compared to studies of students' learning processes, considerably fewer studies have focused on teachers' learning processes."

Overview

Chapter Three explores adult learning theories to identify the learning strategies that have the potential to engage and motivate experienced teachers to participate in Fullan's (2003) PLC approach for leadership development. The conceptual framework is presented to promote an understanding of the adult learning processes being explored in this study. The chapter proposes that the contextual, social and cognitive dimensions need to be taken into account in developing a full understanding of adult learning processes, especially for the purpose of leadership development. The dimensions are exemplified by the respective theories of situated learning, social learning and cognitive development. The review begins by analysing these theories. Three other key learning theories are then examined to inform leadership learning and development in terms of: "experiential learning cycle" theory (Kolb, 1984), "double loop learning" theory (Argyris & Schön, 1978) and "triple loop learning" theory (Isaacs, 1993). Of particular interest, are the strategies advocated by each of the theorists, and their theories are evaluated for relevance to leadership learning. The chapter concludes with an analysis of peer coaching, in particular, Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) as a

strategy, because it draws on the three key learning theories. The literature review indicated that FRPC can be productively used by teachers to promote their leadership development.

3.1 Conceptual Framework

In the contemporary world, adult learning has become an important indicator of the progress of global societies. One reason for this is that the level of individual knowledge acquisition and skills development within a country is seen as a means of strengthening that country's competitiveness in the global economy.

Adult learning is a very complex matter and there is no one theory that explains how humans learn (Corley, 2008). There is also no generally accepted definition of the concept. For the purposes of this study, the Illeris (2009) definition of adult learning has been adopted because it encompasses a wide range of processes; "any process that in living organisms leads to permanent capacity change and which is not solely due to biological maturation or ageing" (p. 3).

The conceptual framework being used is outlined to foster an understanding of adult learning processes. The framework does not address every facet of adult learning. However, this framework explores the dimensions of adult learning by examining situated learning, social learning and cognitive development theories. The inter-relationship of each of these theories is vital when considering the complex concept of adult learning. These theories are examined for their potential to foster an understanding of adult learning and development.

Next, the three key learning theories that underpin this study are reviewed to provide an understanding of the proposed leadership learning strategies. These theories are the experiential learning cycle theory (Kolb, 1984), the double loop learning theory (Argyris & Schön, 1978) and the triple loop learning theory (Isaacs, 1993). The three key learning theories have been selected for this study because they provide insights into the enablers of higher-order learning.

Figure 3.1 contains a representation of the three key learning theories. Note, the diagram includes the "single loop learning" theory of Argyris and Schön (1974), because this was the first loop learning theory introduced by them. Double loop learning theory is an extension of the authors' work in this area. Double loop learning theory has been selected as a key

learning theory for this study because it offers an explanation for the strategies that foster higher-order learning, whereas with single loop learning theory, limited new learning occurs.

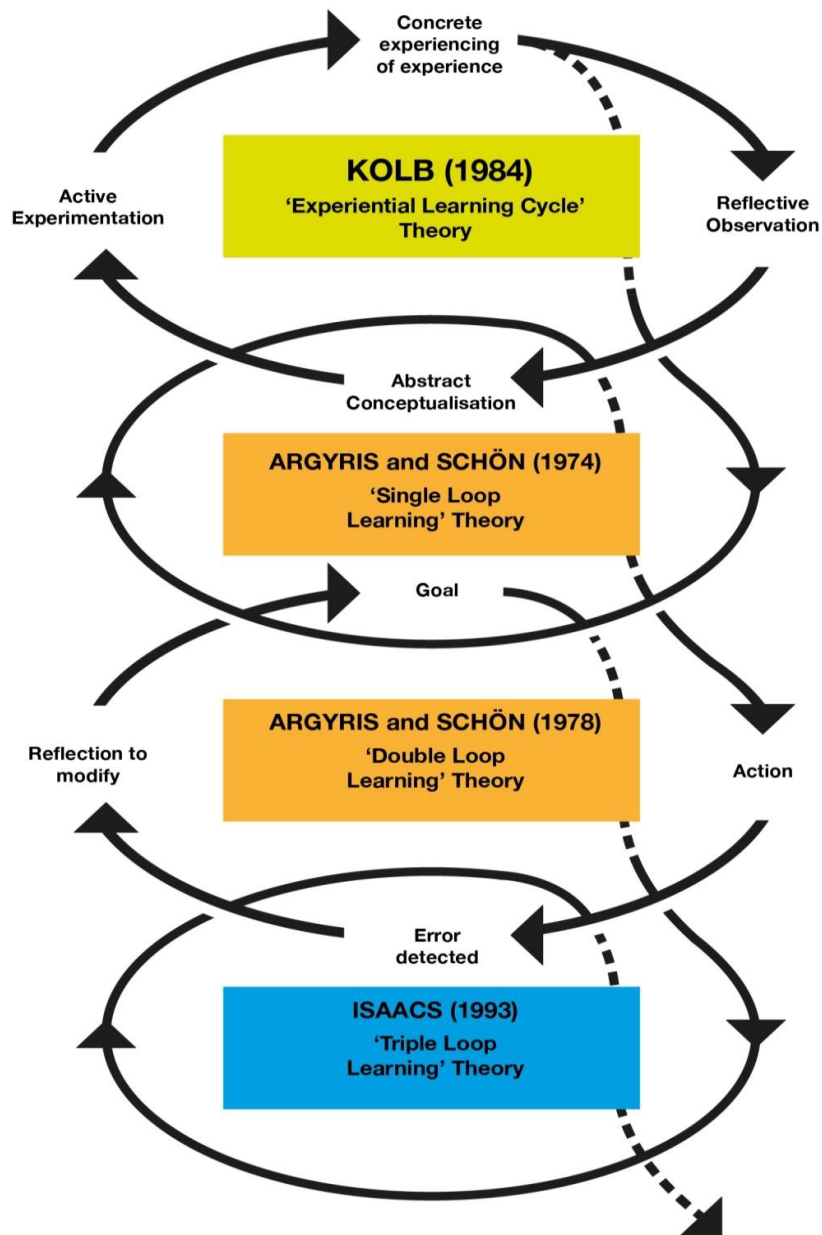


Figure 3.1 Three key learning theories

An evaluation of Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory is conducted because of the importance he places on experiential learning to develop higher-order learning and capacity building in the workplace. Argyris and Schön's (1974, 1978) single and double loop learning

theory and later Isaacs' (1993) triple loop learning theory are examined. These loop learning theories focus on the nature of reflection, and the importance of the iterative cycle of inquiry and reflection for promoting higher-order critical thinking processes at the workplace. These three key learning theories give insights into the learning experiences of the individual and their interactions with others at the workplace. An exploration of the conceptual framework is significant for this study because it has the potential to inform leadership learning and development.

3.2 Dimensions of Adult Learning

“All learning implies the integration of two very different processes, namely an external interaction process between the learner and his or her social, cultural or material environment, and an internal psychological process of elaboration and acquisition” (Illeris, 2003, p. 9).

Learning is a complex process that necessarily interacts with the world around it. The literature is reviewed to examine the contextual, social and cognitive dimensions of adult learning. Situated learning and social learning theories are investigated as they offer an explanation for the external interaction processes that influence learning in the real-life context of a school. The literature of these two theories is analysed to determine whether the theories indicate how to promote the higher-order leadership learning in experienced teachers that builds leadership capacity.

Together with these theories, the literature on cognitive development theory is evaluated because it suggests a hypothesis for the significant impact the individual's internal psychological processes have on their learning and development. The contextual, social and cognitive dimensions reflect the dynamic inter-relational components of adult learning that occur, based on the individual's thoughts and behaviours, and the social groupings within which they operate and the workplace. These dimensions are intertwined so that when talking of one there is a need to consider the other two. This chapter provides an understanding of the underlying and ever-present dimensions of adult learning, and the development processes of experienced teachers within the NSW state school setting.

3.2.1 Situated Learning Theory

Situated learning theory explains the interactions that occur in the real-life setting and the activity that takes place within that setting concerning the individual's learning (Stein, 2001). This theory is relevant to this study because the school setting is the workplace of experienced teachers and it is important to understand the impact that the context has on their learning and development. Evidence has shown that each school differs in its context and culture (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986). In this section, situated learning theory is examined to develop an understanding of the effect of the workplace context and culture on adult learning. The chapter then considers whether the workplace setting has the potential to promote higher-order leadership learning and development that prepares experienced teachers to address the contextual challenges for leadership in schools. Since situated and social learning theories are often intertwined this is taken into account in the following discussion.

Barab and Squire (2004) were amongst a field of researchers (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Collins, Brown & Newman, 1990) who have asserted that the setting is a key factor that impacts on the learning. These authors concluded that research paradigms that simply examined learning processes as isolated variables within laboratory settings would develop an incomplete understanding of the relevance of the real-life setting. Barab and Squire maintained that the research design needs to reflect the influence of the context.

To understand the nature and extent of the influence of context on learning, an examination of the theories in this field is necessary to identify key elements that have the potential to promote leadership learning in the workplace. Vygotsky (1978) hypothesised that learning is influenced by the situation and by social interactions. He suggested learning tasks are situated in "zones of proximal development" (p. 3). In order to engage the learner in higher-order learning, he advocated that the task should be set at a difficulty level beyond that which students alone can accomplish, but not to a level of impossibility. This way the learner is motivated to seek help to resolve the problem. In these circumstances, learning becomes influenced by the setting and social interaction through the support of peers. Vygotsky's research is important for leadership learning because he advances the notion of different levels of learning, with support from peers to achieve success. He maintains that higher-order learning is achieved through problem-solving activities within a community of learners.

Vygotsky's work supports the value of using Fullan's (2003) PLC approach proposed for this study (see section 2.2.2.3).

Situated learning theory has been advocated by several authors (Lave, 1988; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger 1998). These theorists diverge from Vygotsky's view (1978), because they emphasise situated learning theory as being embedded in the context and culture of the situation. They view this type of learning from the perspective of social interaction that is embedded within the activity, authentic context and culture of the organisation (Brown et al., 1989; Jonassen, 2000). As such, Lave maintains the learning is often unintentional rather than deliberate. Collins, Brown and Newman (1990) took a different view of the learning. They advance the "cognitive apprenticeship" strategy of instruction. These authors liken this type of contextual learning to "apprenticeship-like" methods, where professional practice can be observed and learning can take place in a real-life situation: "many complex and important skills are learned informally through apprenticeship-like methods—that is...observation, coaching, and successive approximation" (p. 455). This style of apprenticeship learning has come under criticism, for its suitability for the school context and its practicability because large numbers of participants means social interaction between the expert and apprentice is less viable. (Hallam & Hazel, 1998; Jarvela, 1995)

In their later research, Lave and Wenger (1991) assert that social interaction and collaboration are essential components of situated learning. These authors comment on the process of "legitimate peripheral participation" (p. 29). This theory refers to a learner absorbing elements of the culture that help to make them an integral part of the community, just as the culture is affected by each of its members. A second theory aligned to Lave and Wenger's work is the notion of a "community of practice" (p. 31), where the members of the community embody certain beliefs and behaviours and construct meaning within this social unit. According to these researchers, the situated nature of the learning refers to an inter-relationship between meaning, understanding and learning. Consequently, the learner's cognitive processes are all defined according to actual contexts.

Billett's (1996) research examined the influence of situated learning on vocational skills acquisition. His resultant framework provides a valuable tool for evaluating learning experiences situated in the workplace. Billett (1996) argues for a reconciliation of the two sides of the debate maintaining that both cognitive and socio-cultural influences can enhance the learning process. He suggests that, "the consequences of engaging in socially determined

practice are likely to have consequences in terms of cognitive development and change” (p. 17).

In his more recent work, Wenger (1998) supports Billett’s argument. He introduces the concept of “belonging”, as it relates to people feeling a sense of connection to the setting and to the social unit or community of practice. This concept emphasises the importance of learning experiences and the influence of past experiences on learning, shaping beliefs and influencing practice. Wenger proposes three dimensions to belonging: “engagement, imagination and alignment” (p. 57). Engagement refers to the strategies that result in mutual participation in meaningful activities; imagination refers to the learner’s open-mindedness and willingness to take risks; and alignment refers to the type of view or position the learner takes within the context, when trying to establish common ground with other members of the community. Wenger’s theories reveal an interrelationship between situated and social learning theory and cognitive development theory and suggest the importance of collaboration within a community of practice to achieve higher-order learning. These more recent theories on adult learning support Fullan’s (2003) PLC approach proposed for this study. Wenger’s concept of belonging provides two notable elements for consideration when promoting leadership learning. First, the significance of the learner’s experience for shaping their learning is outlined. Second, the reference to the learner’s behaviours and emotions (see section 3.2.3) provides insights into the importance of the learner’s sense of belonging. This means they are willing to reflect on their learning and change their practice, and to adapt their mind-set to fit with the notion of a community of practice.

Boud and Edwards (1999) held a similar view of the importance of the context for learning and the influence of past experience on learning, “as learners bring the totality of their life history to the learning setting” (p. 177). However, they assert that learners construct new meanings and understandings based upon their learning experiences and social interactions within the community of practice. This new understanding is influenced by the process of group discussion. They maintain that learning in these authentic situations allows concepts to evolve because the new situation and the discussions that occur amongst peers results in the information being tested and refined.

Some important characteristics of situated learning theory are that the learning environment is dynamic and that the theory addresses real-world problems (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996; Hung & Chen, 2002). As a result, the learner tends to exhibit emergent meta-cognitive

behaviours (Land & Hannafin, 2000). There are some criticisms that learning as described by situated learning theory tends to be demand-driven, either by the learner or the need to master a particular skill in a specific context (Hung & Chen, 2002). This implies the learning is not continuous, nor is it building on past learning experiences. In addition, research has shown that, in the absence of reflection and debriefing, this type of learning may be short-term (Leemkuil, de Jong, de Hoog & Christoph, 2003). Situated learning theory is significant for this study because it assists in an understanding of the impact of the authentic workplace setting on learning.

Key elements in this real-life setting indicate the ways to promote the higher-order learning that is vital for the performance of a school principal's role. These elements include the influence of the learner's past experience on their learning, the need to cater for different levels of learning, the notions of a community of practice and a sense of belonging that, together, promote collaborative learning, and the importance of ongoing interaction and discussions with peers on real life issues that improve learning. Situated learning theory has the potential to account for the effects of the school context on the leadership learning of experienced teachers, and complements Fullan's (2003) PLC approach proposed for this study.

3.2.2 Social Learning Theory

Whilst situated learning theory has been identified in the previous section as a way of explaining aspects of leadership learning, the literature reviewed showed the inter-relational aspect of situated and social learning theory. In Chapter Two, the evidence suggested that the learning of experienced teachers was enhanced by collaborative cultures and social interactions in the workplace that resulted in empowerment for decision-making and practitioner learning (see section 2.2.1).

Social learning theory hypothesises the way members interact within the group in order to construct meaning from practice (Warhurst, 2003). This theory provides information on when and how learning takes place. The literature suggests that when learning is collegial and collaborative and members share their goals, then higher-order learning that builds capacity is possible (O'Malley & Lucey, 2008). The evidence shows that this theory is significant for this study because it addresses the potential for higher-order learning through a community of

practice in the workplace (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This theory aligns with Fullan's (2003) PLC approach proposed for this study.

A school is a workplace that functions through a range of social units with close cooperation and interactions between teachers and the school principal. These social contexts provide experienced teachers both with the opportunities for learning through professional dialogue, and the sharing of ideas and teacher constructive feedback on practice, but also through practising strategies for addressing the challenges of dominant and closely held teacher values that may hinder new ideas and change (Yelon, 1992).

Yukl (2002) identified and examined different leadership perspectives and found that school leadership is enhanced by the "social influence process" (p. 14). A key element of a leader's professional practice is how they work with groups of people in schools to achieve a purpose. When exploring the elements of social learning that have a significant bearing on leadership development with experienced teachers in a school setting, two important elements are found to influence practice. These elements are social interactions, and the relationships the leader has with staff, parents and students.

3.2.2.1 Social interactions

Social interactions refer to the informal exchanges between two or more people. These exchanges take on added meaning when they occur between members of the same social grouping or profession. The evidence below demonstrates that social interactions are an important element for enhancing learning because they promote collegiality, collaborative practices and social dialogue that have the potential to improve learning.

The literature critiqued in this section argues that social interaction, in particular collegial sharing and collaborative practices amongst teachers at the workplace, leads to empowerment and creates a positive professional learning culture for teachers. Greenwood and Levin (1998) used the term "collegial climate" to describe the professional dialogue amongst groups that has the potential to enhance an individual's self-confidence and disposition for change in practice. Andrews, Lewis and Crowther (2001) also recognised that professional learning occurs when teachers share their own professional knowledge, so that learning, "takes place through professional dialogue and deliberation" (p. 14). Other authors termed this social interaction "discourse communities" (Rhodes & Sheeres, 2003), a "third social space"

(Reeves & Forde, 2004) and “collegial groups” (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 1999). Hargreaves (2003) highlighted the need for choice when he presented a counter view, which he termed “contrived collegiality” (p. 81) referring to collegiality that was mandated rather than development-orientated for teachers. His argument was that in these mandated circumstances a teacher’s professionalism was compromised.

Social interactions not only foster teacher collegiality but also enhance the nature of collaborative practices. Jarzabowski (2000) perceived collaborative practice to entail the professional activities teachers conducted on a shared basis, whilst the notion of teacher collegiality refers to both the professional and social dimensions of teacher interaction in the workplace. Collaborative bodies such as professional learning communities, networks and teams have been grounded in the mutual interest of teachers helping each other to move towards higher levels of professional practice (Troen & Boles, 1997). In their research on teacher leadership, Silins and Mulford (2000) concluded that when teachers work collaboratively they increase their own potential to exercise leadership both within and beyond the classroom. Leithwood and Carolyn (2003) similarly argue that positive collaborative cultures encourage professional interaction and provide opportunities for teachers to develop leadership capacities. Magno (2010) expanded on this to hypothesise on the important elements that promote higher-order social interactions. She refers to the interactions as the “sphere of social capital”, meaning the knowledge amassed in collaborative cultures is dependent on “trust, belonging and reciprocity” (p. 7).

The literature advances a strong case for the importance of social interactions for creating a positive climate that promotes higher-order leadership learning with experienced teachers.

3.2.2.2 Social relationships

Evidence has been presented to illustrate the value of social interactions in developing leadership capacity. However, other researchers argue that social relationships are equally important for the development of leadership attributes. Social relationships refer to the structural grouping of individuals. This collaborative grouping is sustained by a common interest and is dedicated to action surrounding that interest. The notion is important for leadership learning because it builds on the element of social interaction and refers to groups who learn together. The evidence supports the notion of a community of practice, meaning members of a similar profession who are strengthened by the social relationships within the

group. The sound relationships formed through professional learning communities support learning improvement through sharing ideas, observing and modelling each other's practices and providing constructive feedback to group members to improve their learning. This premise further evidences the value of using Fullan's (2003) PLC approach for this study.

Wenger (1998) adds to this discussion by highlighting the strengths of the community of practice. Such a community shares "a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (p. 13). In addition, Wenger asserts that the community supports the learner to improve their performance through professional dialogue, reflection and constructive feedback on the learning that has occurred. Other research on social learning theory supported the notion of using professional dialogue to establish a professional learning community to discuss leadership issues (Hodkinson, Biesta & James, 2008; Hopkins, 2000).

Groundwater-Smith and Dadds (2004) expanded on the community of practice concept by focusing on the type of collaboration that engages experienced teachers at the local level. Through studying the effects of workplace learning Groundwater-Smith and Dadds were convinced of the strengths of promoting teachers as researchers in the learning process. They termed this "a coalition of knowledge building schools" and maintained that collaborative processes were vital to ensure "evidence-based practice" becomes part of the school's culture. These collaborative processes involved providing opportunities for a community of learners to discuss the strengths of their research, then building on this research by encouraging group members to take the knowledge gained and share it with those outside the group.

At the school level, the relational aspect of school leadership is often stressed in the literature. Researchers suggest the strengths of a community of practice in schools are that it enhances group and individual professional learning, encourages models of shared leadership, and promotes genuine collegiality (Stoll & Earl, 2003; Stoll et al., 2006; ten Dam & Blom, 2006).

The literature advocates the positive outcomes of social relationships conducted through a community of practice and other networks for improving learning. The strengths of this approach can be summarised as being changed behaviours and practices, improved performance, modelling and group learning, ongoing professional dialogue on leadership issues, the involvement of the teacher as a researcher in their own learning, professional

development through the community interaction, shared leadership practices and genuine collegial support.

While social learning has its strengths, the theory does pose a number of challenges. Wenger (1998) recognised one main challenge and he termed it the “boundaries”. This term refers to the field outside the community. He saw the external field as providing opportunities for new approaches. However, if the community was insular and clinging to old ideas then they could hinder improvement and ultimately cause divisions within communities. Brogan (2008) described some practical challenges of a community of practice. These challenges included the effects on productivity and efficiency, intellectual property considerations, confidentiality, effect on policies and the participation (or lack thereof) of the individual in the organisation’s activities. Further to this are considerations of factors that may cause tensions within the community such as social and economic inequity. These factors together with power differentials and individual differences have the potential to hinder group dynamics. The challenge is to ensure that the processes are open and flexible enough to foster individual learning, yet participatory enough to effect real change (Groundwater-Smith & Dadds, 2004).

In summary, the literature reviewed identified the three main characteristics of social learning theory as being collegial interactions and collaborative practices; relational activities fostered through a community of practice; and professional dialogues to promote sharing of experiences and to build a collective knowledge. The inter-relationship between situated and social learning theory has been identified in the review. These theories align with Fullan’s (2003) PLC approach and are important for this study because they provide an understanding of the strategies that promote the level of higher-order learning that is vital for leadership development.

3.2.3 Cognitive development theory

The discussion in the previous two sections has shown that learning is a socially constructed process created through the learner’s interactions and relationships with others and their context. Having established the importance of socio-cultural influences on the learning, this section explores the influence of the psychological processes, defined as the way an individual constructs knowledge. Cognitive development theory is then analysed. The theories on cognition provide an explanation for the impact of an individual’s thought

processes on learning. In addition, they indicate significant elements about the learning processes that have the potential to engage experienced teachers in leadership development and promote higher-order leadership learning. These theories are important to this study because an understanding of the individual's thought processes helps to inform the strategies that promote effective leadership learning and development.

Although there has been a great deal of research on cognitive psychology, referring to knowledge constructed by the individual and organised by their memory, it is still not possible to advance an overall picture of the internal workings of the mind (Genberg, 1992; Wertsch, 1993). While in the past, social learning theory and cognitive psychology have offered different perspectives on the development of learning, recently a growing number of theorists argue that social practice and cultural influences are linked to an adult's cognitive development (Glaser, 1990; Pelissier, 1991; Stevenson, 1994).

Previous research on cognitive psychology suggested that knowledge construction and cognitive development occurred in a singular and objective way and was enhanced by problem-solving activities (Anderson, 1993; Shuell, 1990). However, recently this view has been shown to have its limitations, because it fails to explain how the knowledge acquired is represented in the real world (Billett, 1996). Rogoff (1990, 1995) views learning as the individual's "appropriation" of knowledge derived from social and cultural sources. Rogoff's concept of appropriation is significant because it provides a link between the social and cognitive perspectives of learning and explains how knowledge construction is influenced by immediate interpersonal interactions (Vygotsky, 1986) and more distant social and cultural contexts (Scribner, 1985). Further, research at the school level supports the importance of a strong inter-relationship of personal, social and situated conditions for teacher learning (Hoban, 2002; Putnam & Borko, 2000).

The literature makes a case for the convergence of external socio-cultural dimensions and internal cognitive dimensions and their effect on the processes of learning. At this point in the debate, an important consideration is the social activity theory of Leont'ev (1981) on the division of labour. He examined individual and collective group activity and advanced the notion of the role the individual plays in influencing their own learning. His theory implies that not only does the social and cultural environment influence the learner, but that in turn the learner makes their own impact on the learning environment. Rogoff (1995) expanded on this view, emphasising the mutuality of influence between the actions of the learner and the

social and cultural circumstances in which they act. This connection has been referred to as the “co-construction” of knowledge (Lawrence & Valsiner, 1993). The influence of the individual leader and the effects of their leadership style on the school context and on the teachers is an important element that is explored in this study.

While the literature suggests interconnectedness between the social, cultural and internal cognitive dimensions of learning, it is cognitive development theory that deserves further examination. Cognitive development theory takes up the earlier point made by Leont’ev (1981), that individuals make knowledge their own, and proffers an explanation concerning the nature of knowledge itself and the ways that learners construct knowledge and use it.

In order to develop an understanding of the importance of individual perception on the development of effective learning processes, it is vital at this point to outline the influences on the internal functioning of an individual’s mind. Earlier research (Bain, 1868; McDougall, 1923) identified the three domains of the mind (cognitive, conative, and affective), which can operate together or independently. McDougall suggests that all three domains are equally important in contributing to the thought process:

it is generally admitted that all mental activity has these three aspects, cognitive, conative and affective; and when we apply one of these three adjectives to any phase of mental process, we mean merely that the aspect named is the most prominent of the three at that moment (p. 112).

Research on conation waned in the mid-twentieth century. Later, Snow (1980) re-visited the concept of inter-related mental processes and suggests a synthesis of the three domains. “A theoretical account of intelligent behaviour in the real world requires a synthesis of cognition, conation and affect. We have not really begun to envision this synthesis” (p. 194).

The cognitive domain refers to the knowledge the learner constructs, comprehension and critical thinking. The conative domain refers to the learner’s actions and behaviours that they enact in the world, and the affective domain relates to the learner’s emotions and focuses on awareness and growth in attitudes, values and beliefs about themselves and others. For the purposes of the review, the literature of these three domains is evaluated separately, to determine the influence each domain has on the learning process. The literature of the cognitive domain is appraised, since a great deal of educational research has been devoted to the ways an individual constructs knowledge. Next, the literature of the conative domain,

referring to the individual's behaviours and actions is evaluated. Finally, literature of the affective domain, meaning the individual's emotions, attitudes, values and beliefs, is appraised.

3.2.3.1 Cognitive domain

The cognitive domain explains how we acquire knowledge and develop understanding. An appreciation of the cognitive domain is important to ensure the leadership learning strategies developed for this study are tailored to address the cognitive needs of experienced teachers. An evaluation of the theories on cognition and cognitive development is conducted to identify the key features that contribute to effective learning. Cognitive development theory (Piaget, 1977; Sullivan, 1953) hypothesises the way a learner's thought processes play an active role in their cognitive development. These processes result in varying degrees of mastery of knowledge and the ability to think, learn, reason, and ponder abstract notions. While Vygotsky (1978, 1986) supported Piaget's cognitive development theory with respect to the influence of social dimensions and their contribution to the individual's thinking, the difference with his research is the emphasis he placed on the influence of social and cultural interactions on cognition.

Building on Vygotsky's work were the theorists who argued for the strengths of socio-cognitive conflict within a community of learners (Doise and Mugny, 1984; Johnson, 1981; King, 1997; Slavin, 1987). These authors suggested that when disagreements occur between peers in a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) cognitive conflict is fostered. They hypothesised that socio-cognitive conflict motivates peers to find new information to resolve the discrepancy. When managed properly, they asserted that this "structured controversy" can lead to higher achievement levels (Johnson, 1981; King, 1997) and improved practices. Damon (1984) expanded on this theory arguing that the resultant peer dialogue emulates several critical features of rational thinking, in particular, "the verification of ideas, the planning of strategies, the symbolic representation of intellectual acts, and the generation of new solutions" (p. 22).

Adam (2009) found that socio-cognitive conflict enhances learning in a community of practice when the cognitive activity is task-related. In these circumstances, peers worked through the problem to understand it better and tried to integrate the different members' points of view thus enhancing their learning. However, Darnon, Buchs, and Butera (2002)

maintained that when the focus was on interpersonal relationships the “partner contributions” were perceived as a threat and the potential for conflict increased. Gredler’s (2005) research takes a different perspective and looks at the effect of the environment as well as other dimensions on learning. He proposes that the three-way interaction between the environment, personal factors, and individual behaviour are important dimensions that are responsible for learning. Gredler argues that a focus on the cognitive domain for learning suggests that the learning experience can be tailored to the individual.

Although cognitive theory offers an explanation of individual thought processes for learning and problem-solving, researchers have identified some limitations. Baddeley and Hitch (1974) identified that cognitive theory often had to be accompanied by structured approaches to help the learner gain the skills needed for the self-regulated models of learning. Later, research by deJong (2010) stressed that the learners must not only have ownership of the problem-solving process, but of the problem itself, thus implying the importance of the context and culture for learning. Other criticisms of an emphasis on the cognitive domain for learners are that it created cognitive overload and potential misconceptions (Moreno & Mayer, 1999; Sweller, 2003).

The discussion indicates the importance of the cognitive domain for promoting learning. The review proposes that the key influences for promoting cognitive development and higher-order learning are ongoing socio-cognitive interactions within a community of practice. However, theorists differ on the strategies for stimulating learning and the degree of importance to be placed on the domains identified earlier as effecting learning, social interactions, problem-solving activities and the environment. The three domains are inter-related and one cannot be considered without mentioning the other two.

3.2.3.2 Conative domain

The conative domain is associated with the mental processes that activate and/or direct behaviour and action. This manifests itself as the individual’s will and intention for achieving a goal (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven & Tice, 1998; Emmons, 1986). Kolbe (1990) aptly describes the importance of conation for learning and development. She maintains “the will enables one to move on” and “can make the difference in succeeding” (p. 23). The conative domain is significant for this study because it offers insights into the internal processes of the mind. This knowledge is vital for leadership development because it helps to determine the

type of development programs that are needed to engage and maintain the participation of experienced teachers in their learning, as well as motivate them to achieve their leadership development goals.

Recent research of the conative domain suggests there are three stages of development that explain an individual's actions, behaviour, the potential for change in practice and ongoing development (Corno & Kanfer, 1993; Huitt, 2003; Sullo, 2007). These developmental stages are preparedness for change, motivation, and the achievement of goals. While these stages of development are not discrete, they can overlap and may be repeated before the learner is able to progress to the next stage (Kolbe, 1990). An understanding of the impact of these stages on an individual's learning and development is significant because these insights can help shape the leadership development activities employed in this study. These activities are designed to ensure that the learning needs of experienced teachers are met.

The literature indicated an individual's preparedness for change was the first key stage in their learning and development (Fullan, 2001; Lambe & Bones, 2006). An important aspect of this preparedness for change stage is the individual's sense of autonomy, or having the experience of choice, regarding their learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Weick, 1995). At this initial stage, the behaviour is explicit that the individual has control over their actions and takes responsibility for planning the direction of their development. Prochaska and Velicer (1997) developed a Stages of Change Model for the health field, as a guide to show people's behaviour and how they respond to change over time. These authors asserted people can occupy more than one stage of change at the same time. An understanding of people's readiness for change and the stage of change they presently occupy furthers an understanding of adult learning processes for this study.

A common thread in the literature of the conative domain suggests the next stage of development is motivation, or inducing a person to act. Motivation is a key stage in a learner's development because, once they are motivated, this results in action and commitment to a task (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Huitt, 2003). The literature asserted a key consideration regarding motivation was the level or degree of an individual's motivation (Kolbe, 2004; Snow, 1990; Snow & Jackson, 1992). This concept of a range of behaviours, centred on motivation offers an explanation for the individual differences in behaviour and actions displayed in response to motivation. Snow and Jackson found that performance-

oriented learners are motivated to action by approval, whereas learning-oriented participants seek challenges and often persist even in the face of failure.

Deci and Ryan (1985) were also interested in the psychological processes that underpin motivation, because of the significant role it plays in a learner's development. Of key importance is the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) they offered to explain the nature of motivation and the resultant individual differences in learning and development that this stage engenders. This theory is vital because it indicates the complexity of behaviours and actions that encompass the motivation stage. SDT identifies the particular behaviours and different choices that people make regarding their development, without any external influence and interference. SDT focuses on the degree to which an individual's behaviour is self-motivated and self-determined. SDT does not advocate set behaviours, but links self-determination to a continuum of behaviours.

While SDT differentiates the behaviours and actions displayed with regard to their motivation, it also provides an understanding of the key psychological processes that affect an individual's leadership development at this stage. At one end of this continuum, intrinsic behaviours are identified. This behaviour focuses on a learner's will and is autonomous. This degree of motivation results in individual self-confidence, enjoyment and satisfaction with the developmental activities undertaken. The continuum also distinguishes between intrinsic behaviours, and behaviours at the other end of this range, that have degrees of extrinsic motivation, accompanied by the experience of pressure and control and are not representative of the individual. Deci and Ryan (1985) maintained there were different levels and orientations of extrinsic motivation. These range from a motivation, where an individual has no interest in an activity and is lacking intent to engage in a particular action, to intrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan claim there are four types of extrinsic motivation, with "external" motivation being the most controlled type of behaviour, and "introjected", "identified" and "integrated" behaviours being progressively more self-determined forms of motivation. An understanding of the nature and degree of motivation with regard to development is vital for this study because this knowledge influences the design of leadership development programs at this stage.

Illeris (2009) explores motivation from a different perspective and offers an integrated model of learning. He asserts that learning is "a very extensive and complicated set of processes" and takes into account, "the internal and external conditions that influence and are influenced

by this process” (p. 8). Illeris advances the “three dimensions of learning” theory. This refers to the special focus an individual places on “their interests, motivations and emotions that drive learning and the personal development that learning create” (p. 9). His model incorporates knowledge acquisition; social interaction and an “incentive dimension” which supports the earlier research emphasis on the importance of motivation and volition for learning. However, his model also includes emotion as an equally important incentive for learning.

The literature indicates that a key aspect of a learner’s development in this second stage relates to their will to achieve. This aspect is characterised by self-directed learning and the determination to acquire knowledge or skills irrespective of any external influences (Corno & Kanfer, 1993; Huitt, 2003). Research has shown that to enable self-directed learning, the individual needs to possess self-awareness of their abilities. Coupled with this is an ongoing willingness to reflect on their behaviour, seek feedback on their actions and acknowledge areas for improvement (Gallup, 1998; Huitt, 2003; Jones, 1994). Jones argued that learners are often unwilling to admit their weaknesses or unable to recognise them. He identified two key elements in the learner that can be linked with this type of resistance. These elements are self-concept and self-awareness. Jones claimed that many adults enlist in a learning situation, “with low confidence and poor self-concept, making it difficult to take a high degree of personal responsibility for (their) learning” (p. 65). Gallup supported this premise and advocated self-awareness as a vital leadership tool resulting from higher-order reflection. He claimed self-awareness had the potential to increase the leader’s capacity for critical thinking.

The third stage of development relates to an individual’s achievement of goals and the development of self-confidence (Dupreyrat & Marine, 2005; Hammond & Feinstein, 2006; Was, 2006). Bandura (1977) defined self-confidence as a belief in one’s ability to succeed in specific situations. Self-confidence can play a major role in how an individual approaches goal-setting, tasks, and challenges (Dupreyrat & Marine, 2005). The literature identified a correlation between achievement of goals and feelings of competence (Dupreyrat & Marine, 2005; Dweck, 1999; Senko & Harackiewicz, 2004). Senko and Harackiewicz found that learners who displayed achievement-orientated behaviours exerted extensive efforts to improve their understanding and were persistent in the face of failure. These authors indicated that the characteristics of achievement are a learner’s desire to improve their knowledge, competence, resilience, persistence and self-confidence.

This evaluation reveals that there are three main stages that encourage higher-order learning and ongoing development. These stages relate to collaborative activities that foster preparedness for change, particularly when an individual has autonomy over their learning; personal motivation, including the willingness to reflect on one's capacities; and the achievement of goals, reflected by feelings of self-confidence. When considering these stages, the affective domain is closely inter-related to conation, as one aspect influences the other. The conative and the affective domains pervade situated and social learning theory.

With the advent of self-managing schools, the review in Chapter Two indicated the need for leadership development processes that support leaders to adapt to change and gain the capacity to conduct school improvement processes. The conative domain, because of its focus on the behaviours and actions that promote learning and change in practice, is particularly significant for this study. This domain also provides insights into the three stages of development. An understanding of conation helps to inform the development of appropriate learning strategies that have the potential to engage experienced teachers in leadership learning and development processes and to motivate them to undertake formal leadership positions.

3.2.3.3 Affective domain

The affective domain relates to the learner's feelings, attitudes, values and beliefs about themselves and others. It deals with the importance an individual places on learning and a value system based on learning and experiences. The literature from Chapter One indicated that a school principal is responsible for bringing about change in schools and conducting ongoing improvement processes. Whilst there is a strong focus in most of the literature on teacher change in the cognitive domain, many authors observing teachers during daily practice have found them to be driven by not only rational motives but also by emotions and human needs (Day & Leitch, 2001; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hargreaves, 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The affective domain is important for this study because it gives insights into the effect of the emotions on learning, change in practice and an individual's stage of development.

A common thread in the literature is the inter-relationship of the conative and affective domains with regard to aspects that affect this learning. Hammond and Feinstein (2006) found that if an individual has a high personal efficacy, they are more likely to feel confident

about accomplishing a task successfully. They concluded that self-confidence can, therefore, foster participation in adult learning activities and the achievement of goals. Negative emotions may cause a learner to give up and learn far less. This self-confidence is an important aspect that can affect an individual's learning and development.

Boud, Keogh and Walker's (1985) work had as its strength, a focus on emotions. These authors suggest that attending to the gambit of emotions brought about through reflection on past experiences, was another key aspect that can affect learning in the affective domain. They argue that reflection may help or hinder actions and result in an evaluation of the experience in relation to intent and knowledge. "[People] recapture their experience, think about it, mull it over and evaluate it" (p. 19).

Additionally, the literature highlights some key emotions that teachers display when related to learning and cognitive development. These emotions centre on self-awareness, personal struggle, being valued and the inter-connectedness of leadership and job satisfaction. Self-awareness is a vital concept that underlies the ability of a teacher to evaluate their actions and improve their practice (Briere & Vallerand, 1990). Dreyfus (2007) describes a model of managerial competence composed of five progressive stages: novice, advanced beginner, competent, proficient and expert. She claims that achieving the expert status requires knowledge, cognitive awareness and meta-cognition. Nuhfer (2009) suggests that self-assessment is a learned ability and an important one for leadership. He claims this understanding involves the coordination of the affective and cognitive domains. Hence, those teachers with good self-assessment skills chose their action based on both evaluation of the real-life evidence and awareness of how their emotions influence their decisions.

The literature of personal struggle highlights the critical importance of social interactions as a key aspect of learning because they are often filled with emotion; "personal transformation ...often entails emotional struggle, it does not simply happen from a desire or a request to change" (Weissglass, 1994, p. 231). Hargreaves (2001) remarked on the influence of feelings on the affective domain. Given that "good teaching is charged with positive emotions, and teachers do not just act and think but also feel" (p. 1059), he argues that the influence of the emotional aspects of teacher learning should be considered as well as other factors.

The emotions that focus on professional identity are highlighted in two key research projects. Mitchell and Sackney's project (1998) in Canadian primary schools found that organisational

learning involved both the cognitive processes of reflection and conversation and affective thought processes that affirmed the professional capabilities of individuals. Silins and Mulford (2000) drew upon data collected in the LOLSO Project conducted in secondary schools in Australia. The data from these two projects revealed another significant aspect of the affective domain was a sense of being valued, and the connection between the practice of leadership and job satisfaction. Brockbank and McGill (2006) assert the importance to learning, of the link between emotion and reflective dialogue; “emotion offers a gateway to the energy and power needed to countenance alternative discourses and challenge prevailing ones” (p. 15). A number of researchers have argued that the link between the emotional and volitional aspects of learning is undervalued in the research of the professional development of teachers (Korthagen, 2005; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

The evaluation has shown key aspects of the affective domain that can promote or hinder learning. These relate to self-confidence and the individual’s ability to reflect on their learning and progress based on past experiences; self-concept; and a sense of personal struggle, a sense of being valued, being satisfied with how leadership functions in their school and job satisfaction.

There are also substantive commonalities across the three domains regarding the features that promote higher-order learning. Two significant features identified are, the importance of a committed community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and ongoing social interactions amongst these members at the workplace. A common thread in the cognitive and affective domains has been the importance of reflective activities that foster individual goal setting, motivation, the will to achieve goals and self-confidence.

The review has highlighted important insights for this study about the internal thought processes of adult learners and the importance of catering for an individual’s stage of development. These domains are shown to be closely related and need to be taken into consideration in the research design. Leadership learning strategies that take all three domains into consideration are more effective for promoting higher-order learning that engages experienced teachers in leadership development and motivates them to achieve their learning goals.

Summary

The evidence reveals that learning and development is interactive in three ways, namely, between peers, the environment and the personal factors influencing the individual's cognition, actions, behaviours, emotions, attitudes and beliefs. An appraisal of the three dimensions that explain the external and internal processes of adult learning identified four major elements that have a strong likelihood of fostering higher-order leadership learning. These elements are:

- The establishment of a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in the workplace that encourages a positive climate committed to improving learning;
- Ongoing social interactions and supportive relationships that foster professional dialogue, reflection and constructive feedback on learning;
- Tailoring activities to the individual's stage of development;
- Utilising activities that take into consideration the three domains to cater for individual differences in learning.

Of significance for this study is Fullan's (2003) PLC approach proposed in the last chapter. This approach incorporates the concept of a community of practice and social interaction to promote learning. The next section examines the literature of the three key learning theories and takes into account the other elements that promote higher-order learning, stages of a learner's development and the influence of the three domains on learning when proposing leadership strategies for this study.

3.3 Leadership Learning Strategies

In this topic, three key learning theories and the resultant leadership strategies are evaluated for their potential to inform leadership learning and development. These theories take into account the three dimensions of adult learning. Kolb's (1984) "experiential learning cycle" theory is evaluated and the literature is critiqued, particularly the potential of two strategies to promote higher-order learning and leadership development, work-based practices and informal conversation. Included in the appraisal, are the reflective learning theories in particular, the single and double loop learning theory of Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978) and the triple loop learning theory of Isaacs (1993). Subsequently, research is examined on

self and group reflection and the iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection with peers. These strategies result in higher levels of critical thinking and ultimately improved practices. Finally, an appraisal of the literature of peer coaching, particularly Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) is included because this proposed leadership strategy offers the opportunity for experienced teachers to practise the in-depth leadership learning advocated by the three key learning theories. These evaluations are important for this study because they provide evidence as to whether the proposed leadership strategies have the potential to promote higher-order critical thinking, build capacity and a leadership philosophy that prepares experienced teachers to undertake formal leadership roles, including the role of a school principal.

3.3.1 Experiential learning

This section evaluates the work of Kolb (1984) whose experiential learning cycle theory underpins this study. Experiential learning is an important leadership learning strategy because it offers the opportunity for experienced teachers to address their learning needs through collaborative cultures and professional practice at the workplace. An appraisal of the nature of the theory and the rationale for using it with individuals and groups is provided. Next, the literature review focuses on critiquing two experiential learning approaches, work-based practices and informal conversation for their value in promoting higher-order leadership learning.

3.3.1.1 Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory

Kolb's (1984) work on experiential learning advances three important factors for promoting leadership learning. These factors need to be considered when addressing the leadership development needs of experienced teachers. In order to understand the significance of these factors it is important to analyse Kolb's work.

Kolb stresses that learning is a cyclical process whereby the individual draws on their beliefs, ideas and past experiences to respond to the situation and social influences of the concrete or direct experience. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory (see Figure 3.2) hypothesises that there are four sequential stages in the formal learning cycle. He maintains that continuous participation in the cycle improves learning and creates the conditions for higher-order learning. This point has substantive commonalities with the single and double

loop learning theories of Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978) which are analysed later in this section.

Kolb's (1984) cycle begins with concrete experience, and then moves to reflective observation, implying personal reflection about what the experience means to the individual, or its connotations. This can then be followed by the application of known theories or practices to the experience. He terms this stage of the cycle as, abstract conceptualisation, and finally the cycle moves to the active experimentation stage, meaning the construction of ways of modifying the next occurrence of the experience. This leads in turn to the beginning of the cycle with the next concrete experience. Kolb (1984) carries the argument about the cyclical learning process further by relating topics and subject areas to the cycle. He maintains concrete experience corresponds to experiencing knowledge by acquaintance, meaning direct practical experience (also termed apprehension). By contrast knowledge about something, (also termed comprehension) is represented by the term abstract conceptualisation. The outcome of the cycle is action or more learning, which can generally be of a higher-order depending on the situation.

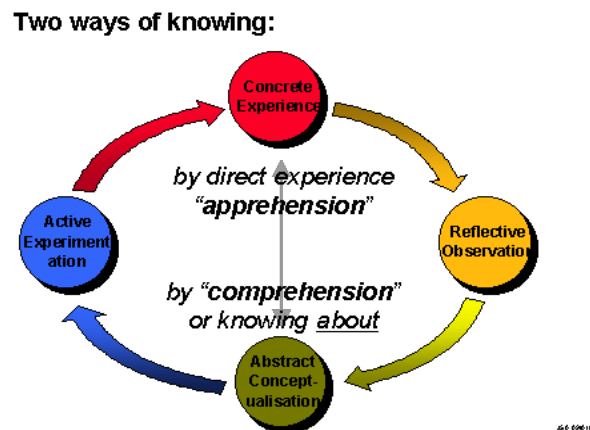


Figure 3.2 Kolb's experiential learning cycle theory (1984)

Kolb's (1984) theory suggests that individuals learn through a process of direct experience, grasping that experience and transforming that experience via reflective observation and active experimentation into new action. Jarvis (1995) terms this "sense experiences" (p. 75). An important strength of Kolb's work is that learning is no longer just a transmission of ideas from the expert to another person but a learner-centred process that involves a range of activities, in particular, observation and reflection.

Another key factor regarding Kolb's (1984) theory is the role experience plays in improving the learning of an individual. He views the learning process as stages of development that are not distinct but can overlap and are holistic involving the three domains, namely, an individual's thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Here his theory differs from that of Piaget (1977) and Vygotsky (1978, 1986) who focused on socio-cultural cognition. Kolb stresses that; the learning cycle can begin at any one of the four learning modes and can be viewed as a continuous spiral. He suggests that the timeframe for the occurrence of this cycle can vary and there can be overlap with some stages occurring at the same time. Kolb's theory identifies that there are individual differences in learning and that learning is dependent on the use of a preferred learning mode within the cycle. Kolb offers several strategies to cater for an individual's different learning style. He comments on the power of reflective observation in helping the learner understand key concepts, apply these and "embed" the practices into "the participant's real-life workplace" (p. 84). Kolb asserts that the ongoing emphasis on critical reflection has the advantage of helping the individual to improve their practice and sustain this change. Weick (1995) supports Kolb's theory, claiming that the action of visibly modelling a practice helps the individual to maintain the new experience. An interesting aspect of Kolb's theory is that the learner is empowered to choose their preferred mode of learning and can use their experience to influence their own learning. This point about catering for the individual's level of learning was made earlier in the analysis of cognitive development.

Together with learning by a cyclical process and using an individual's own experience to improve their learning, a third factor that Kolb identifies as fostering learning is collaboration and reflection with others. He asserts the need for informal collaborative learning methods that promote active experimentation in the workplace and provide constructive feedback for the individual, resulting in change in practice. This point about collaborative cultures promoting learning holds substantive commonalities with the major elements for learning identified earlier (see section 3.2) and was the rationale for the review proposing Fullan's (2003) PLC approach for this study.

The research of Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) offers examples of various collaborative methods for promoting reflection and feedback, including oral conversations, informal debriefing sessions following experiential activities, and written responses to experiences through diaries, learning journals and portfolios. Kolb's findings show that the provision of a

person-centred dialogue, with the potential to be reflective, is insufficient to promote transformational learning without ownership of objectives by the learner. He states that the purpose of collaborating with others is to resolve individual conflicts and unite the group and to “directly address this difficulty by seeking to align the personal objectives of the learner with those of the organisation” (p. 88). Kolb suggests the following collaborative activities to enhance learning, namely, to share ideas, provide constructive feedback, and align the individual’s objectives with that of the group and ultimately to change practice.

An appraisal of Kolb’s theory indicates three features that explain learning. The theory suggests that individuals can be empowered in their learning, they can use the processes of observation and reflection to improve their learning and that collaboration is shown to improve learning.

While there are identified strengths in Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning cycle theory, there have been challenges. Wierstra and deJong’s (2002) analysis reduced Kolb’s model to a one-dimensional bipolar structure of reflection versus doing. They asserted Kolb’s cycle was flawed. Ramsey’s (2005) critique identified several problematic assumptions with the cycle. He claimed not all real-world events could be addressed by direct experience and that the individual’s learning and actions are often more complex than the cycle predicts. Ramsey offered a coordinated narrative reflective cycle as an alternative to Kolb’s theory. Other researchers have argued the theory is unrealistic and prescriptive (Prichard, Stratford & Bizo, 2006; Regan-Smith, Hirschmann & Lobst, 2007; Reynolds, 1997).

In summary, Kolb’s experiential learning cycle theory acknowledges the importance of the three dimensions of adult learning - the contextual, social and cognitive. Coupled with this, Kolb advances key factors for promoting individual and collaborative learning through direct experience and reflection with others at the workplace. Although some criticisms have been advanced, the strengths of this theory with regard to experiential learning far outweigh the limitations. Thus, Kolb’s theory is of vital importance for promoting higher-order leadership learning.

In the next section, two leadership strategies that draw on Kolb’s (1984) theory are outlined, namely work-based practices and informal conversation. These experience-based leadership strategies have the potential to promote higher-order leadership learning. The literature of

these strategies is critiqued and their interconnectedness with the dimensions of adult learning is discussed.

3.3.1.2 Work-based practices

The term work-based practices, refers to the actions, behaviours, interactions and experiences that occur in the workplace with regard to the professional activities being conducted. The literature has identified the synonymous terms collaborative cultures (see section 2.1.2) and a community of practice. The review proposes that learning through collaborative activities is an important strategy for enhancing leadership learning with experienced teachers. Coupled with this, is the other stream of evidence that identified four key elements with the potential to foster higher-order learning for experienced teachers. These elements include the vital role that a community of practice at the workplace plays for improved learning; ongoing social interactions; tailoring learning to an individual's stage of development; and the importance of the three domains for leadership learning. The review proposes that work-based practices provide the opportunities to enact higher-order learning processes, while also being able to refine an individual's learning experience through practising the experiential cycle of learning. Work-based practices are an important strategy for this study because they enable experienced teachers to gain the leadership skills and expertise necessary for future school principal positions.

A critique of the work-based practice literature is presented. Yelon (1992) was amongst the first group of researchers who built on Kolb's work on experiential learning. Yelon explores the orientation of work-based learning. He argues that for skills development to be effective and the challenges to be addressed, leaders in the workplace need to be prepared to actively support skills development and foster a workplace culture that promotes innovation. Beckett and Hager (2002) describe the features of work-based learning as activity-driven and experience-based.

Recent research has dwelt on the strengths of work-based practices for leadership learning. In England, The Best Practice Research Scholarships (DfEE, 2000) scheme gave examples that linked improved learning to the workplace. Its evaluators (Furlong, Salisbury & Combes, 2003), concluded that this type of learning promoted teacher confidence in their own professional judgement and developed their knowledge base due to practitioner enquiry methods such as reading and analysis of evidence. Retallick and Butt (2004) asserted that

professional well-being is directly related to positive relationships and collegiality at the workplace. They provided evidence of the features that fostered positive interactions and termed these features as “leading collegiality”. The features included administrator encouragement and support, provision of a safe environment for risk taking, trust and respect of teacher expertise and role modelling (p. 14).

At the school level, the literature indicates that teachers learnt through involvement in a variety of work-based activities and often in informal ways that were not planned (Lohman & Woolf, 2001; Zwart, Wubbels, Bergen, & Bolhuis, 2011). Significantly, research about learning has shown that when learning processes are linked to the cognitive element, the potential for higher-order learning is increased, because these processes relate to the individual’s thoughts, judgements, decision-making and problem-solving about leadership issues (Gredler, 2005).

While work-based practices have their strengths there are some critics. Usher, Bryant and Johnston (1997) suggest that experiential validation was flawed because the learner may not be able to move beyond the boundaries of their experience. These authors argued that work-based experience could be culturally constructed, pre-interpreted and linked to status. While Beckett and Hager (2002) identified strengths in these practices, they also argued that too much emphasis was often placed on the socially situated, collective and collaborative nature of workplace learning.

While there are some cautionary points to be considered regarding work-based practices, the review demonstrated that the majority of researchers have encouraged this approach. The research promotes the strengths of work-based practices because they include the four major elements for learning, identified earlier, that foster higher-order leadership learning.

3.3.1.3 Informal conversation

Informal conversation refers to dialogue amongst colleagues in the workplace. Evidence from the earlier literature reviewed about situated and social learning theory revealed the importance of ongoing collegial interactions for creating a positive climate that fosters discussion with peers and the sharing of experiences to improve learning. Cohen (1997) suggests that teachers need to take the initiative and “engage in inquiry of their own making” (p. 155).

The strengths of informal conversation for higher-order learning have been a common thread with many researchers (Coffield, 2000; McGivney, 1999). Informal conversation is often coupled with research on work-based practices because each strategy complements the other in the informal way they both promote learning. Marsh and Hattie's (2002) work claims positive outcomes for the "talk" of teachers in higher education. They suggest that conversation influences their learning and produces higher-order thinking. Groundwater-Smith and Dadds (2004) term this interaction "critical practitioner inquiry". They claim the strengths of this practice are that it leads to a commitment to improvement and focuses the responsibility for development on the learner. Other researchers have drawn on the notion of informal collaborative practices using dialogue and reflection to promote higher-order learning (Baker, Jensen and Kolb, 2005; Brockbank & McGill, 2006).

While informal conversation has been seen to encourage a range of learning outcomes, some limiting factors were identified by Rogers and Roethlisberger (1991). These limitations were the subjective nature of the conversations, their dependence on the nature of the group, and the fact that externally imposed performance measures can destroy the conditions for informal conversations. These authors noted that system procedures often hindered informal conversation because of an individual's fears of intellectual property misuse, external regulations discouraging professional dialogue, compliance practices and competitiveness amongst colleagues.

The current research of teacher learning and informal conversation has predominantly evidenced positive outcomes. However, the review has found limited evidence of the use of this specific strategy for leadership learning. One reason for this is that informal conversation is often researched in conjunction with other strategies, such as reflective learning. Informal conversation is an important strategy for learning because it complements other proposed strategies for promoting higher-order leadership learning.

3.3.2 Reflective learning

Although Kolb's (1984) theory does not dwell in depth on the processes of reflection, his findings are significant for pointing out the connection between experience and reflection in the context of learning. For the purposes of the research, reflection is defined by Daudelin (1996) as, "the process of stepping back from an experience to ponder, ...its meaning to the self through the development of inferences; learning is the creation of meaning from past or

current events that serves as a guide for future behaviour” (p. 37). Reflection is seen as a higher form of thinking or a capacity to be critical (Usher & Bryant, 1989).

Reflective learning is proposed as a key leadership learning strategy for this study because it offers the opportunity for experienced teachers to address their learning needs through a collaborative culture. In this section the key research on reflection is evaluated. The single loop and double loop learning theories of Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978) are outlined. This loop learning theory later culminated in the work of Isaacs on triple loop learning theory (1993). As the loop learning theories indicate (see Figure 3.1), the triple loop learning theory of Isaacs (1993) builds on the work of Kolb and is related to the three dimensions of adult learning. An analysis of the nature (evolutionary and inter-connected) of each theory and the rationale for using it with individuals and groups is given.

The learning cycle theories of Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978), Isaacs (1993) and Kolb (1984) are compared to support the argument for using reflective learning and experiential learning as leadership strategies in the intervention. The review focuses on analysing two reflective approaches to learning, self and group reflection and the iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection.

3.3.2.1 Argyris and Schön’s single and double loop learning theories (1974, 1978) and Isaacs’ triple loop learning theory (1993)

The loop learning theories examine the behaviours, feelings and actions that underpin the strategies an individual or a group uses in social interactions and with the environment.

Argyris and Schön (1974) introduced three important concepts to explain the processes of learning for an individual and for a group. The first concept involves “theories of action” (p. 7). These theories offer an explanation for the strategies an individual uses to link their thoughts with their behaviours and actions. Espoused theories of action are the thoughts/actions which an individual professes to hold, and in-use theories of action are the ones implied by a person’s behaviour. These theories of action have a number of elements: action strategies, which are the behaviours we use to manage our immediate surroundings; consequences for self/others; governing values and action strategy effectiveness.

A second concept is that of “governing values” (p. 11), which these authors state are the goals an individual seeks to achieve. Dalmau and Dick (1990) interpret these as “a mix of motives,

values, beliefs and feelings, which are dependent on the person” (p. 7). The governing values are reflected by two models of behaviour/actions: Model 1 may be characterised as adversarial, competitive, defensive and narrowly rational. Model 2 is more collaborative, consensual, open to change, less defensive and provides more opportunity for choice.

The third key concept in the theories of action of Argyris and Schön (1974) is a learning cycle which outlines the dynamic learning processes of organisations and groups. The learning cycle, which takes into account the dimensions of adult learning, stems from the theories of action described earlier. The authors suggest there are two basic types of learning cycles that, in general, correspond with Models 1 and 2 described earlier. According to Argyris and Schön (1974) single loop learning theory involves the generation of new action strategies to hold to the same governing values. Argyris and Schön claimed that with single loop learning little or no learning occurs because the governing values are maintained and limited insight is needed. These authors assert that most organisations operate according to single-loop learning. They report that this type of learning is characterised by organisations with stable environments, where beliefs are unchallengeable, behaviours are often automatic, ingrained and compliant and traditional socialisation strategies are used. “Members establish rigid strategies and policies and there are limited deviations, everyone follows the ‘rules’” (p. 10).

Argyris and Schön’s (1974) single loop learning theory is, to some extent, similar to Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning cycle theory. Some commonalities are that both theories focus on the individual’s thought processes and see learning as a continuous process of adaptation and knowledge construction. Other similarities are the cycles of action and reflection, the focus on individual and group actions and the interaction in each theory of the individual’s mind with the environment and social practices, when the individual seeks to make sense of their circumstances. The individual learns which behaviour achieves a positive outcome (Rulla, Imoda & Ridick, 1978) and, because it is self-satisfying, the individual continues with this compliant behaviour, thus generating a governing value. McNamara (2005) is in favour of single loop learning because it is “focused on the question, how can an existing goal be reached in the best possible way, within existing norms” (p. 8). Hargrove (1995) took a different perspective and defined single-loop learning as incremental learning meaning that it allowed people to build on their skills and “embody new skills and capabilities” (p. 6).

While the single loop learning theory possesses some similarities with the work of Kolb (1984) on the experiential learning cycle, these theorists differ in their focus as to the type of learning that occurs and the practices that result from this learning.

The main point of divergence with Kolb's (1984) theory is the emphasis he places on learning by direct experience and participation in the events of life. With Kolb's cycle, learning occurs and new practices are tested that have the potential to change the norm of behaviour. When the learner enacts Kolb's cycle they can interact successfully with their environment and with others and be equipped with the strategies for addressing the challenges posed. However Argyris and Schön's (1974) single loop learning focuses on reflection in this mode that is designed to maintain the norm of behaviour. Innovative and lateral thinking is not part of this cycle and the status quo is maintained. However, Argyris and Schön (1978) also focus on double loop learning and Isaacs' (1993) on triple loop learning, where reflective practices and the value of the loop learning theory become vitally important for their contribution to the creation of higher-order learning.

In their research Argyris and Schön (1978) jointly advanced the theory of double loop learning. By comparison with single loop learning, the authors claim that this theory involves creativity and critical thinking "outside the box" (p. 9). They suggest it challenges assumptions and has the potential to threaten the governing value/s themselves. This learning is characterised by circumstances where the overall values are open to challenge, which results in a change in practice. This variation occurs when people within the organisation are encouraged to change their beliefs and feelings, and to focus on ongoing improvement. Argyris and Schön (1978) comment upon the difference between the two learning theories; "in single loop learning, we learn to maintain the field of constancy by learning to design actions that satisfy existing governing values. In double loop learning, we learn to change the field of constancy itself," (p. 19).

The result of double loop learning is that the participants enact a thinking process of re-examining their values and beliefs in light of the issue under consideration and display a capacity to change their practices. "Participants compare experiences and develop an understanding of the learning processes that underpin the solutions" (p. 9). Hargrove (1995) agreed with this argument stating double loop learning is "fundamentally reshaping the underlying patterns of peoples' thinking and behaviour so that they are capable of doing different things" (p. 11). McNamara (2005) supports this view and claims this is a deeper

level of critical thinking because it incorporates, “insights about why a solution works” (p. 10).

For effective organisational development Argyris and Schön (1978) argued that both types of learning are needed. Single loop learning strategies encourage an individual to change their methods but do not challenge the individual’s values and their mind-set remains unchanged. The research shows that double loop learning occurs when the learner has the “energy for engaging in critical debate” (Barnett et al., 2000, p. 259). This strategy can challenge the individual’s assumptions and has the potential to “threaten underlying values and lead to changed practice” (Russell, 2005, p. 201). Argyris and Schön (1978) applied this theory to organisational learning as follows: “double loop learning occurs when error is detected and corrected in ways that involve the modification of an organisation’s underlying norms, policies and objectives” (p. 11). The thinking process involves the correction of mistakes and/or challenging of assumptions based on defined norms. The strengths of double loop learning are that it produces valuable insights when practised with collaborative groups.

When compared to Kolb’s (1984) later experiential learning cycle, Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978) give greater coherence and structure to the function of abstract conceptualisation. Argyris and Schön’s (1978) double loop learning theory differs from Kolb’s work in that the iterative cycles occur twice allowing for more intensive reflection and modification of behaviours and actions. With this type of double loop learning there is more opportunity to practise skills and refine the individual’s actions.

At this point it is important, to briefly outline Schön’s (1983) work in the field of reflection because his theories help to develop an understanding of the various aspects of the reflective learning process that are drawn upon later in this study. Schön’s research led to his action theory that encouraged the learner to conduct “reflection *in* action and reflection *on* action” (Schön, 1983, p. 58). This aspect of reflecting on experiences at the time when these experiences are being enacted represents a significant change to the perspective placed on learning. Previously, reflection was only encouraged after the event. In this latter aspect of reflection, Schön’s work is similar to that of Kolb (1984).

In enacting double loop learning theory, practitioners become involved in the inquiry process, questioning the activity or practice at the time of its inception. The concept of a repertoire of images/ideas/actions is central to Schön’s theory. In this way he is advocating a range of

learning processes and encouraging practitioners to engage with the situation and to learn from it. This is an important principle of both experiential and reflective learning.

After extensive research, Isaacs (1993) expanded on single and double loop learning theory to advance the concept of triple loop learning theory or the capacity for a complete transformation of practice. Isaacs remarks that his theory involves, “learning how to learn” (p. 20) with participants reflecting on the operational aspects of their thinking processes. Isaacs claims that the process is ongoing with “permanent questioning of inconsistencies and incongruencies in the action theory of the organisation [context]” (p. 22). McNamara (2005) supports the theory claiming it has the strengths of “permanent learning that considers the facts and norms against the context and helps participants understand their own values, beliefs and perceptions about the practice under consideration” (p. 10). However, Hargrove (1995) disagrees with the extent of the change in learning suggested by Isaacs. He asserts that triple loop learning motivates people to re-consider their actions rather than enact a complete change in practice.

Isaacs’ theory expands on that of Kolb (1984), while incorporating the three dimensions of adult learning. The triple loop component of this theory gives it strength by encouraging learning through the complete transformation of practice; involving the learner in a breadth of learning processes to enact and refine practice; and allowing for greater forms of creativity and lateral thinking on an issue. Isaacs’ (1993) triple loop learning theory highlights the concept of iteration and explains the actions necessary to achieve transformational leadership. His theory maintains that this in-depth learning process creates the conditions for a change in practice and suggests that this type of learning is at a higher level than the double loop learning theory. However, some limiting factors of realising the change are the time to practise and access the processes of the model, its complexity, and the fact that it may involve large groups of people.

In comparing the three key learning theories, the main difference that gives Kolb’s work significance for inclusion in this study is his focus on the role of experience. Experience in this case refers to the individual learning by direct experience or concrete experience, and the group learning collaboratively through dialogue and reflection. Although Kolb advocates learning by experience, his theory involves more activities and places more emphasis on the experience than on the reflective learning process. Together these three theories (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Isaacs, 1993; Kolb, 1984) have valuable elements that can contribute to higher-

order learning processes. There have been some criticisms of reflective learning. These challenges dwell on the need to strategically plan reflective activities aligned to goals and targets (Kahn, 1999; Russell, 2005)

Reflective learning is proposed as a strategy for this study because the literature review reveals that this type of higher-order self and group critical reflection and iteration is an important element for the promotion of leadership learning processes for experienced teachers.

3.3.2.2 Self and group reflection

Educational research has much to say about the importance of self-reflection, in particular, teachers as reflective practitioners. With individuals, the inquiry process helps them develop the skills of reflective practice and at the organisational level members of groups are supported to develop communities of inquiry (Bennett-Levy, Thwaites, Chaddock & Davis, 2003; Reason & Marshall, 1987; Saxe, Moran, Scholz & Gabrieli, 2006).

Schön's (1983) notion of "reflection *in* action and reflection *on* action" (p. 58) provides a transparent view of reflective practice. Day and Leitch (2001) delineated the two processes by asserting that reflection-*in*-action occurs in the active engagement of teaching activities, while reflection-*on*-action occurs either before or after the teaching activities and provides a structure for critical reflection on the teaching activities. Schön's (1987) later work recognises the significant contribution of critical reflection in the development of professional knowledge and expertise. When the learner takes time to consider their actions and understand the reasons for these actions then they become committed to and confident in these new practices (Saylor, 1990). "It is now widely accepted that successful professionals need to reflect upon their actions as most tasks they perform involve novel elements to which there are no defined solutions" (Kember, et al., 1999, p. 18).

Research by Day et al., (2000) revealed that effective reflective practice underpinned successful leadership by head teachers in the UK. Moon's (2004) findings on reflection led to her advocating a range of reflective practices to improve learning. Of these, three are important with respect to this study, namely learning journals, informal peer and self-assessment and feedback. Her evidence shows journal writing allows "unconnected areas of meaning (to) cohere and a deeper meaning (to) emerge" (p. 7). Moon stresses that a learning

journal helps the writer to reconsider the initial experience and draw appropriate conclusions from this. She also argues for improving learning through informal peer and self-assessment practices and states that this process results in a high level of learning and involves the learner in being able to evaluate their own work. Finally, Moon advances the notion that reflection as a result of constructive peer feedback can lead to improved practice.

Researchers argue that collaborative reflective practice amongst groups has the potential to develop leadership capacity because it engages teachers in higher-order learning processes. The collaborative nature of reflective practice suggests that a relational and influential process occurs amongst group members. Hargreaves (1997) states a number of key requirements for collaborative reflective practice. He asserts that teachers need to build on existing expertise, pool resources, create a climate of trust, provide moral support and be a source of empowerment and assertiveness. Buysse, Sparkman and Wesley (2003) expand on this and advance the premise that, critical reflection is a key to collaborative learning because group members reflect with each other about “the intersection of professional knowledge and experience” (p. 267).

Tinsley and Lebak’s (2009) research with collaborative groups of adults resulted in them identifying the “zone of reflective capacity”. This term refers to the interaction between participants engaged in a common activity. The participant attributes are similar to Vygotsky’s (1978, 1986) earlier “zone of proximal development”. Tinsley and Lebak found that as adults share their feedback, analyses, and evaluations of one another’s work in a collaborative working environment, their potential for critical reflection expands. In other words, the capacities expand as trust and mutual understanding among the peers grows. The process of critical reflection, both individually and collaboratively is central to the concept of reflective practice and ultimately results in a greater understanding of learning (Bolam et al., 2005). Some challenges to self and group critical reflection include a mismatch of identities, the group’s modus operandi differing from an individual’s style, access to group members and resource allocations.

The above discussion shows that self and group reflection is a sound strategy for promoting higher-order learning. The review indicates the value of using self and group reflection strategies in this study because they promote higher-order thinking and a capacity to be critical of practice, resulting in the capacity for change and improved practice. The literature indicated that these skills assist school principals to ensure quality education.

3.3.2.3 Iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection

With regard to this study, iteration is defined as the act of repeating a process usually with the aim of approaching a desired goal. The results of one cycle of iteration are used as the starting point for the next iteration. Originally this theory was applied to the field of mathematics. However, Argyris and Schön's (1974, 1978) work on the cycles of action and reflection and Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory brought the importance of iteration for improving learning to the forefront.

The literature already reviewed has identified the strengths of professional dialogue and reflection for higher-order learning. The need to incorporate iterative cycles of collaborative inquiry and reflection into experienced teachers' developmental programs is a common thread with researchers (Fink & Resnick, 2001; Reid & O'Donoghue, 2004). These authors claim the iterative cycles provide teachers with opportunities to experience authentic leadership learning. Groundwater-Smith and Dadds (2004) argued that if evidence-based learning was consistently used in professional development programs then teachers would be motivated to work together to change their practice. The arguments against reflection mainly centre on the approach to use. While some researchers advocate getting away from constraining, formulaic approaches (Ross & Hannay, 1986; Smyth, 1993), others argue that there needs to be some guidance to foster productive learning (Russell, 2005).

The above discussion indicates that iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection are a key strategy for fostering higher-order learning because they promote activities that incorporate the three inter-related domains of the mind. Accordingly, iterative cycles will be used in this study.

Summary

The theories of Kolb (1984), Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978), and Isaacs (1993) were evaluated. The loop learning theories of Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978) and Isaacs (1993) were then compared to Kolb's model. Some crucial points emerging from the evaluation were:

- Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory underpins the experiential leadership strategies proposed: work-based practices and informal conversation. The literature

revealed these leadership strategies have the potential to promote higher-order learning and build leadership capacity in experienced teachers;

- Argyris and Schön's (1974, 1978) and Isaacs' (1993) loop learning theories underpin the reflective leadership strategies. The strategies of self and group reflection and iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection are utilised in this study. These strategies complement each other and have been shown to foster higher-order learning and the potential to strengthen a teacher's leadership philosophy.

3.4 Peer Coaching

This section reviews the literature on peer coaching models. The characteristics of peer coaching are discussed and the different peer coaching models are analysed. Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) is proposed as a strategy for inclusion in this study because it draws on the three key learning theories of Kolb, Argyris and Schön, and Isaacs. This strategy gives an opportunity for experienced teachers to participate in the experiential and reflective leadership strategies proposed for this study.

Coaching is a term often used in the field of sports and is a strategy that is used to guide others towards achieving maximal performance. Peer coaching is defined as an educational strategy in which "individuals of equal standing coach one another towards achieving higher levels of performance in an educational setting" (Ladyshevsky, 2006, p. 11).

3.4.1 Expert/novice model

The use of an expert/novice model is drawn from coaching in the sporting arena. This model features the expert, or person with the skills or expertise in the field who gives advice and guidance to the novice, or new learner. The strengths of the model are that it uses one-on-one interactions, experts who can impart sound knowledge and skills to the learner, and that it practises real-life situations in the workplace (Ladyshevsky, 2006). Originally expert/novice coaching was planned as a strategy for this study. However, the emerging retirement data on executive positions (see section 1.4.3) in NSW state schools indicated that the pool of successful leaders who would normally be used as the experts in this coaching model was diminishing. Damon and Phelps (1989) also found limitations with the expert/novice model of coaching. They demonstrated that in their study of a team situation where expert/novice coaching was practised, each member of the team broke away from the expert/team

relationship and displayed a tendency to favour a one-on-one relationship (expert/novice) with the expert thus disrupting the team dynamics. Jones (1994) suggests the limitations of this model include access to experts, the potential for a mismatch of personalities, ethics/modes of operation and the expert lacking the pedagogical skills to impart sound knowledge. The evidence reveals that, the expert/novice coaching model has some strength but, the scope and timeframe for its use with experienced teachers in NSW state schools is limited. The model was also found to result in fragmentation rather than teambuilding. For these reasons, the expert/novice model was not proposed for this study.

3.4.2 Peer coaching

Peer coaching refers to activities that are conducted in a work-based learning environment. The purpose of peer coaching is to help learners to explore their experiences and current practice, attend to their feelings, test these conceptions against the frameworks of others and then re-evaluate their experience and improve their practice. The strength of this informal social learning and problem-solving is that it stimulates professional collaboration between people in the workplace. Peer coaching differs from the traditional expert/novice model because it does not draw on a pool of experts. There is strong support in the literature for the use of peer coaching for professional development (Ackland, 1991; Gottesman, 2000; Joyce & Showers, 1982) particularly when it involves groups in “experimentation, observation, reflection, the exchange of professional ideas, and shared problem-solving” (Joyce & Showers, 1982, p. 22).

Bowman and McCormick (2000), within the framework of peer coaching, suggest that collaborative discussions allow individuals to develop their own perspectives and to model strengths for others. Brown et al. (1989) argue that peer interaction promotes cognitive development because of the occurrence of critical cognitive conflicts where the “coachees” are engaged in real life problems. Through peer discussion the learner becomes aware of a contradiction in his/her knowledge base resulting in a lapse in equilibrium. The coachees initiate strategies to restore the equilibrium for example by engaging peer(s) in working together to solve the problem. The inquiry activity enables the learner to further construct their knowledge and skills.

Peer coaching generates a more integrated and applied understanding of learning and development because learners must “reflect-*in*-action” and “reflect-*about*-action” (Schön,

1983, 1996). It is this reflection on learning that strengthens leadership capacity. Pierce and Hunsaker (1996) suggest that peer coaching increases collegiality, enhances each teacher's understanding of the concepts and strategies of teaching and strengthens their ownership of change. The evidence shows that the discussion and reflection elements of learning that are generated in peer coaching foster deeper learning.

The premise behind peer coaching is that it creates a safe learning environment for the adult learner. In this situation, the informal communication between peers is found to be less threatening than the advice from a supervisor or the principal. This stems from the unavoidable power differential between a staff member and a superior. This power differential, whether real or perceived, can impede learning.

Damon and Phelps (1989), stress that this method lends itself to “a deeper and connected conversation” (p. 24) because professional learning teams of teachers tend to “become more actively engaged in dialogue with one another on school issues, regularly observe one another's practices and provide collegial support, immediate feedback and assistance” (p. 12). With this greater perceived sense of safety, learners can be more open and inquisitive with one another and explore more fully areas of critical cognitive conflict. Even if after this exploration, they cannot resolve the cognitive conflict, learners feel confident to approach a supervisor for support because the potential for negative feedback has decreased based on the group discussion and consensus.

Hargrove (1995) found that while peer coaching often reached what he termed the incremental level (embody new skills and capabilities) and sometimes achieved the level of reframing (reshape patterns of thinking) seldom did it reach the transformational level (a shift in context or point of view) where the coachee was able to maximise their attributes and change their practices. Hargrove argues for transformational learning:

empowering people to transform who they are and reinvent themselves by helping them to see how their frames of reference, thinking, and behaviour produce unintended consequences...to surface and question the way they have framed their points of view about themselves, others, or their circumstances with the idea of creating a fundamental shift (p. 22).

Hargrove (1995) offers reasons for this lack of change in practice, referring to human nature and a resistance of individuals to reflect objectively on themselves; “facing up to anything at odds with our self-image” (p. 24). He recommends coaching activities that encouraged single-loop and double-loop levels of skills development that result in transformation. However he cautions against coaches reinforcing the personal fixations thus limiting the personal growth. Hargrove’s work indicated the importance of coaching for professional growth, the emotions and volition of the learner.

For learning to achieve the transformational element that Hargrove advocated, the literature indicates there needs to be opportunities created for deeper exchanges between coaches and learners. Such a dialogue involves a preparedness on the part of the coachee for opening up to the learning, “our emotions, our ways of feeling in the body, our ideas and our qualities of character and being” (Isaacs, 1993, p. 51). It involves coachees being prepared for change and willing to reflect on their practice. Isaacs maintains that the individual needs to be able to self-reflect and be honest about their needs. While peer coaching is collaborative and non-threatening, the review indicates there needs to be some complementary strategies built into the process that encourage an exploration of individual behaviours and create the self-efficacy and self-determination for peer coaching to result in a transformation of practice. There are some common challenges to peer coaching. Maitland (2008) outlined these as being the need for successful peer relationships, resource constraints, time, attitudinal and expectation issues, and appropriate matching of peers based on values, experience and rank. A particular criticism of peer coaching strategies in the literature relates to the dysfunctional effect of allocated pairs (Kram, 1985; Ragins et al, 2000; Scandura, 1998).

While peer coaching has some critics, the strengths of this model for leadership development far outweigh its limitations. Peer coaching is a suitable strategy for leadership learning because it has the flexibility to incorporate the experiential and reflective learning strategies proposed, within a collaborative approach in the workplace.

3.4.3 Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC)

Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching is a modification of the peer coaching model because it fosters collaboration on a focused activity, rather than on a one-to-one basis. FRPC refers to a dialogue between individuals of equal standing in a small group or team context (Ladyshevsky, 2006). FRPC has several key strengths that promote leadership learning. For

example, it fosters a level of knowledge and skills acquisition (Topping & Ehly, 1998). The strategy lends itself to being easily implemented through Fullan's (2003) PLC approach proposed for this study.

Another strength that makes FRPC preferable is that it centres on continuous improvement through employing experiential learning, constructive collegial feedback and iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection. In the FRPC model the role of the coach is significant in encouraging coachees to become engaged in open and honest self-reflection and analysis. The insights the coachees share assist the coach in offering optional courses of action to coachees. This two-way exchange can be achieved by coaches asking open-ended questions, actively listening, being positive and supportive and offering, rather than imposing, constructive feedback in a non-threatening manner using non-evaluative statements. The iterative process allows for deeper reflection and refinement of skills based on constructive feedback from peers. Ladyshevsky's findings (2006) state that this type of coaching, because it is free of pre-determined groupings (i.e. expert/novice, matched pairs), fosters better team relationships and a "greater level of engagement" (p. 11).

Evidence from Ladyshevsky's (2006) research shows that, the constructive feedback provided by participants in peer coaching situations is of vital importance to foster change in practices. Feedback (written, verbal and non-verbal) is one of the most important factors leading to a successful peer-coaching outcome. Most people need to learn how to give and receive feedback. It is not a natural skill since feedback can be both developmental and confirming in nature. It can also easily be misconstrued as evaluation, which can interfere with the coaching process (p. 69).

Constructive feedback and the two-way exchanges promote a collegial atmosphere whereby the coachee is prepared to consider their actions more objectively, removing the emotions, excuses and barriers to change. This can result in a motivation to succeed and create the self-determination to change practices, which does not occur in other coaching models.

In this context, a third strength of the FRPC model is that expertise in the field is not necessary because the coachee is stimulated, by the focused questioning used in the GROW model (acronym for: Goals, Reality, Options, Way forward) and constructive feedback, to reflect on their actions (Schön, 1983) with regard to the focused activity. Coachees feel comfortable, through the collegial support, to honestly discuss the problem(s) they encounter.

Each coachee responds to the process by enacting the iterative cycles of double and triple loop learning (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Isaacs, 1993), rather than performing the novice role and relying on an expert to provide the answers. The FRPC model encourages the coachee to “explore underlying beliefs, values, self-esteem and purpose” (Ladyshevsky, 2006, p. 72). The evidence suggests that using the FRPC model leads to change and may lead to a transformation of practice, if the triple loop learning process is enacted.

This discussion indicates that FRPC promotes higher-order learning because it encourages coachees to participate in experiential and reflective learning processes. Damon and Phelps (1989) argue that the relationships formed through the FRPC process have the strength of greater equality. They stress that this method lends itself to “a deeper and connected conversation [amongst peers]” (p. 24). Neubert and Stover (1994) advance this discussion by asserting the model fosters critical thinking on an ongoing basis. These authors emphasise that the model uses a non-judgemental feedback method that ensures participants have a heightened sense of self-awareness about the nature and impact of their performance and this motivates them to create future opportunities for professional growth.

Elizur and Koslowsky (2001) indicate the strength of FRPC is that it promotes more open and honest exchanges between the practitioner and other peer learners. This FRPC strategy addresses the needs of the affective element, building self-esteem and confidence amongst the peers so that they are empowered to improve their learning. The key skills needed by the peers include active listening, re-statement or clear language, and self-disclosure/congruence. Another strength of the FRPC process is the increased interaction around coaching communications because the professional learning teams of teachers tend to “become more actively engaged in dialogue with one another on school issues, regularly observe one another’s practices and provide collegial support, immediate feedback and assistance” (p. 595). Slater and Simmons (2001) claim that it improves skills and philosophies through fostering a deeper level of self-reflection.

More recent research outlined below suggests the strengths of the FRPC model for promoting higher-order leadership learning in schools. Robertson and Webber (2002) suggests, that “in an ever-changing and complex school context a new way of developing leaders for new institutions is needed” (p. 33). He claims that reciprocal peer coaching in the local context allows leaders to reflect on their practices and develop a deeper level of learning. Ladyshevsky (2006), in agreeing with this view claims FRPC builds leadership capabilities

“focused on internal thoughts and behaviours and designed to promote resilience and to explore underlying beliefs, values, self-esteem and purpose” (p. 78). Leaders develop their skills in context through collegial dialogue, questioning and reflection. Thorn, McLeod and Goldsmith (2007), also support this stance and believe the purpose of the coaching is “solutions-focused” (p. 4). It is well documented in the literature that a limitation of the FRPC model is the possibility of dysfunctional effects if members are placed into peer coaching groups, rather than being given the choice (Kram, 1985; Ragins et al, 2000; Scandura, 1998). Other limitations relate to the operational aspects of the strategy, namely, time, casual relief for teachers and venue.

Summary

The literature revealed that the FRPC model has the potential for productive use in the school setting. The reason for using this strategy is that it fosters mutual problem-solving and iterative cycles of individual and group professional dialogue and reflection. The review suggests the use of the FRPC model as a leadership learning strategy in this study because it can be incorporated into Fullan’s (2003) PLC approach and has the potential to result in deeper learning (Robertson, 2004), foster higher-order critical thinking (Ladyshevsky & Varey, 2003), and higher levels of leadership competency (Eaker, DuFour & Burnette, 2002).

3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter a conceptual framework incorporating a range of theories of learning was presented. The external and internal dimensions that explain adult learning processes and the three key learning theories of Kolb, Argyris and Schön, and Isaacs were proposed for this study. These theories were evaluated to demonstrate that they have the potential to promote higher-order learning and leadership development. A rationale was given for using each theory in this study. Four major elements were identified as worthy of consideration when designing the leadership strategies for this intervention. These elements are:

- The establishment of a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in the workplace that encourages a positive climate committed to improving learning;
- Ongoing social interactions and supportive relationships that foster professional dialogue, reflection and constructive feedback on learning;

- Tailoring activities to the individual's stage of development;
- Utilising activities that incorporate the three inter-related domains of the mind to cater for individual differences in learning.

The review of Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory indicated the need for experiential leadership strategies. The literature confirmed that these strategies, work-based practices including projects on leadership issues and informal conversation, have the potential to promote the higher-order learning that builds leadership capacity in experienced teachers. The loop learning theories of Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978), and Isaacs (1993), were evaluated and the review proposed the inclusion of reflective leadership strategies in this study. The appraisal showed that these strategies, self and group reflection and iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection, have the potential to promote higher-order learning and foster a leadership philosophy in experienced teachers.

An analysis of the literature of peer coaching was conducted and the evidence confirmed that a Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) strategy has the potential to foster deeper levels of learning, practise mutual problem-solving on leadership issues, promote higher-order critical thinking and enhance leadership capacity and change in practices. This study sheds light on whether the leadership learning strategies proposed, particularly the collaborative activities focused on practising experiential learning, reflection and peer coaching at the workplace, are appropriate to motivate experienced teachers to develop their leadership capacities.

The next chapter outlines the emergence, characteristics and rationale for drawing on elements of Design Based Research (DBR) methodology for use in this study. The various aspects of DBR methodology are evaluated for their ability to determine the strategies for addressing leadership development with experienced teachers in NSW state schools. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the ethical considerations related to the research design.

Chapter Four: Methodology

In the previous chapter, the author presented the conceptual framework for the study and argued that the contextual, social and cognitive dimensions of adult learning reflect the dynamic inter-relational component of the learning process. For this reason the respective theories of situated and social learning and cognitive development were appraised. Next, the three key learning theories that underpin this study, experiential learning cycle theory (Kolb, 1984), double loop learning theory (Argyris & Schön, 1978) and triple loop learning theory (Isaacs, 1993), were evaluated for their potential to inform leadership learning and development. Then, the proposed leadership strategies were critiqued for their relevance to leadership learning and development. The chapter concluded with an analysis of Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching as a valuable strategy for this study because it draws on the three key learning theories and can be constructively used in schools by experienced teachers to promote their leadership learning and development.

Overview

In this chapter key elements of Design Based Research (DBR) methodology are proposed for this study because they have the potential to explore the responses of experienced teachers and the researcher's observations, as they collaboratively engage in educational leadership development activities. The chapter begins with an examination of the literature of the context and characteristics of DBR methodology. Of significance is a consideration of the rationale for drawing on key elements of DBR methodology in this study to promote leadership development. The methodology is theory-driven hence this chapter discusses the three key learning theories, outlined in Chapter Three, that underpin the proposed leadership strategies. The data sources focusing on the teacher interviews, the Leadership Learning Intervention, participants' learning journals and the researcher's observations, are examined for their relevance to this study. Information on the research participants and analysis processes are presented. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the ethical considerations related to the research design.

4.1 Design Based Research (DBR)

In recent years, international educators (Berliner, 2002; Cook, 2002; Erickson & Gutierrez, 2002; Willinsky, 2001) have shown a lack of confidence in the quality of educational

research and commenced investigating ways to address the factors that are of concern. This movement led to the emergence of Design Based Research (DBR). This topic examines the context and characteristics of DBR and explores the potential of this methodology for addressing the concerns regarding quality educational research.

4.1.1 Context

The term, design based research, was drawn from the work of a variety of researchers. While a definition has not been widely adopted, the literature recognises that design based research has four strengths that can be advantageous for educational research. DBR provides a flexible yet logical approach, the integration of the design, research and theory components at the workplace to improve practice, iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection, and the use of a range of contextually based practitioner methods (Cobb, 2001; Design Based Research Collective, 2003; Reeves, McKenney & Herrington, 2011; van den Akker, 1999).

The definition of DBR advanced by Wang and Hannafin (2005) is used in this study because it encompasses the following four notions. “A systematic but flexible methodology aimed to improve educational practices through iterative analysis, design, development, and implementation, based on collaboration among researchers and practitioners in real-world settings, and leading to contextually-sensitive design principles and theories” (p. 6).

Since the late 1980s, the quality of educational research has come under scrutiny by international educators. These authors suggest there are two issues that contribute to a lack of confidence in the research. These issues relate to a credibility gap in the evidence (Levin & O’Donnell, 1999) and the need to align theories of the nature of learning with practice in a real world setting (Hillage, Pearson, Anderson & Tamkin 1998).

One argument is that there are concerns regarding the validity of allegedly unscientific research methods (Creswell, 2003; Hammersley, 1992). Miles and Huberman (1994) described the ongoing debate between scientific or quantitative research and qualitative research and advocated scientific research for its systematic inquiry processes and the validity of the evidence produced (Hohmann 2005; Lincoln, 2004). Feuer, Towne and Shavelson (2002) sum up the argument by proponents of scientific research as, “an endeavour that can uniquely contribute to greater understanding and improvement of education” (p. 37). By

contrast, Harper (2003) and Maxwell (2005) advocate a qualitative approach to educational research because it takes into account the variables of the context and human nature.

This debate also focuses on another problem, that the research outcomes are not being realised in practice (Kaestle, 1993; Morris & Spark, 1997; Reeves, 2000). With regard to Australian educational research, the McGaw review (McGaw, Boud, Poole, Warry & McKenzie, 1992) supported this position and suggested a reorientation of the research processes to effectively contribute to improving Australian education. The review recommended “closer collaboration between researchers, policy makers and practitioners” (p. 21). This recommendation paved the way for designing methodology that included the participation of practitioners at the workplace.

4.1.2 Characteristics of DBR

In this section the emergence of DBR is briefly outlined together with a literature review that explores the characteristics of the methodology. The review indicates whether DBR has the potential to address the research concerns, regarding a credibility gap in the evidence produced and the need to align theories with workplace practices.

Brown (1992) and Collins (1992) were amongst the first researchers to advocate the use of design experiments in the field of education. Their approach changed the perspective of the research from one of isolating design, research and theory as discrete sequential components, towards a “design science of education” (Collins, p.17). This new design science merged the laboratory experiments with educational theory development to foster a proposed solution (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). While supporting the traditional scientific processes, Brown and Collins believed that through the use of design experiments they could foster practitioner engagement to test both scientific and educational values and principles. Their focus was on a design that was flexible and included “multiple experts” (Brown, 1992) in the research through the design processes of social interaction, revision and objective evaluation. These design experiments gave credibility to an educational approach where previously the research was perceived to have apparent limits regarding the reliability of data collected.

In 1996, Richey and Nelson took this approach a step further by advancing the notion of developmental research. Here the focus was on changing educational practice through the use of a research design that incorporated multiple research methods. A later term, development

research, used by van den Akker (1999) elaborated on this research approach. He advocated design interventions that fostered interaction and collaboration amongst research participants and the use of the systematic research processes of documentation, analysis and reflection. He supported the premise of a multiple methods approach, asserting it was valuable because it encouraged practitioners to use systematic scientific processes at the workplace to change practice. For the purposes of this study the term multiple methods refers to a sequential use of different methods (Caracelli & Greene, 1997). However, there were problems with development education. Brown and Campione (1996) identified concerns of “lethal mutations” where the goals and principles underlying the design were undermined by the way the design was enacted. They emphasised that while a research design can plan for the actions of participants it cannot be separated from how the learning occurs in context (Brown et al., 1989).

A trend began to emerge toward design research (Cobb, 2001; Collins, Joseph & Bielaczyc, 2004; Edelson, 2002) where the focus changed to one where the design generated the theories, a thought experiment (Cobb, 2001), and ultimately improved the practice. Edelson asserted that the design produces three types of theories, namely, domain theories, design frameworks and design methodologies, and that these go beyond the specific design context to analyse, refine and improve practice. Cobb, Confrey, diSessa, Lehrer and Schauble (2003) found that “design experiments are iterative, interventionist, and theory-oriented” (p. 10). One advantage of this approach for educational research was the learning orientation of the intervention. This meant that the participant activities performed a dual function of exploring a practical method, whilst also hypothesising a theoretical orientation about learning and systematically focusing on forms of learning and the means of supporting them. This approach had the advantage of generating a culture for sustainable change.

In 2003, the Design Based Research Collective (DBRC) was formed to conduct further research into how educational innovations can be incorporated into sustainable practices at the workplace. The Collective defined DBR as “an emerging paradigm for the study of learning in context through the systematic design and study of instructional strategies and tools” (p. 5). To establish validity and reliability they asserted that the interventions in DBR should use multiple research processes to integrate the theories and practice. The Collective argued that the methodology was relevant to everyday educational practices (Silverman,

2004) and blended the goals of designing appropriate learning environments and researching new theories of learning.

The Collective asserted that there are three main benefits of DBR. First, an impetus for change in practice, based on the assumption that existing practices are inadequate or can, at least, be improved upon, so that new practices are necessary (Bazeley, 2004). The significant role of practitioners as both the designer and researcher was another benefit of DBR, drawing on procedures and methods from both fields. Third, the Collective suggested these multiple research processes have the potential to foster further research. They observed that the intervention, whether it was a program, strategy or system, could be trialled in practice and participants' responses would help to refine and develop the new design principles providing a possible solution to the problem or issue. They claimed this process is ongoing with the new theories being used to form educational models and become a basis for further research.

A more recent development, that has enhanced the argument for using DBR methodology, comes from proponents arguing the benefits of “educational design research” (van den Akker, Gravemeijer, McKenney & Nieveen, 2006) for sustaining improved practice. Reeves, McKenney and Herrington (2011) also observed that educational design research is a critical process for fostering continuous improvements in education because of its link between research and practice.

In summary, DBR methodology focuses on systematic research processes in the workplace rather than the laboratory. The approach incorporates multiple methods that foster rigor and encourage reflective inquiry to address needs and issues that are central to learning in the real world context. The research processes are grounded in learning theory to ensure reliability of the evidence collected. In addition, the design centres on collaborative practitioner-based research to ensure the resultant findings are appropriately disseminated and taken into consideration because of their relevance to everyday educational practices. Finally, the approach enhances educational research because the design process has the potential to foster continuous improvement of practice.

The literature indicates DBR methodology is a promising approach for quality educational research. The literature also demonstrates the potential for this methodology to narrow the credibility gap, by using multiple systematic processes that integrate the design, theory and research. Since the aim of DBR is to inform theoretical understandings of the ways that

learning is developed it also addresses the other major concern by focusing on practitioner research in context and creating sustainable methods for improved practice.

4.1.3 Strengths

The strength of using DBR methodology for educational research is that it integrates theory and practice and explores the relationships between these domains. These processes enable the practitioner to understand the learning theories and, through collaborative involvement in the research, become convinced about the value of putting these theories into practice. The literature outlines three specific strengths of this methodology for encouraging practitioner learning and capacity building.

A key strength of DBR is that the research processes focus on the context and the participants' social interactions and experiences "rather than laboratory settings with social isolation" (Collins, 1999, p.290). This process results in stronger practitioner commitment to improved practice because participants can identify the relevance of the innovation to their practice.

Another strength of DBR is the "theoretical orientation" (Jonassen, 2000) of the methodology. This methodology results in participants gaining the capacity to engage as collaborative researchers, identify problems and develop solutions, based on practice. A variety of methods are used to test the proposed solutions via incorporating observation, documentation and iterative cycles of "enactment, analysis and redesign" (Cobb et al., 2003). Through this flexible research process, a theory is formed and refined and the result is a set of design principles or a new theory or a revised practice.

Coupled with practitioners as researchers, these systematic processes foster practitioners as designers of their learning environment. Not only do they engage in the research but they are able to take part in a range of opportunities to practise their skills. Participants benefit from this growing confidence in their abilities and sustainable practices result.

The advantages of the methodology are that the research is seen as credible and participants have the opportunity to share their knowledge and improve their practices in authentic settings. The literature indicates the value of DBR methodology for quality educational research. The methodology is theory-driven and appears to be a robust process for enhancing practitioner understanding about their learning. This knowledge enables practitioners to

develop their capacity, as researchers and designers, apply this knowledge to their practice, resulting in improved practice (Dede, Nelson, Ketelhut, Clarke & Bowman, 2004).

4.1.4 Limitations

Any discussion about the limitations of the methodology centres around three aspects. These are the role of the researcher, particularly with concerns of bias and objectivity; the multiple methods approach, especially the function of the iterative cycles; and the reliability and generalisability of the findings. Each of these aspects is discussed below.

Role of researcher: critics of DBR methodology argue that while the role of the researcher as designer, and often also evaluator and implementer is critical to the process, it may bias the findings (McKenney, Nieveen & van den Akker, 2006). Denscombe (2007), however, suggests that the multiple methods approach addresses bias because it promotes the triangulation of the data collected.

Hannafin (2005) claims that since DBR methodology is conducted in the real-world context, where the practitioners are dealing with complex problems in educational practice, these practitioners may view the researcher as an outsider in whom they cannot confide. McKenney et al. (2006) indicated the importance of collaboration and mutually beneficial activities to overcome this problem to gain participants' trust and a thorough understanding of the context. On the other hand, there are advantages to being placed in the position of an outsider with a degree of objectivity where participants feel free to speak honestly, resulting in rich data (Bazeley, 2004).

Multiple methods approach: Dede et al.(2004) raised questions about reconciling the multiple methods used in research. Bazeley (2004) addressed this concern by linking the methods to the research goals to be achieved. Smith (2006) argued the strengths of the multiple methods approach. He claimed that with evidence from one method the researcher can make dubious inferences. However, the multiple methods approach enhances the evidence produced because the data can be triangulated to identify the key points of convergence. The multiple methods are outlined in more detail in Chapter Five (see section 5.2.2).

Another criticism of the research methodology is that because it relies on iterative cycles, where the findings of the previous cycle are taken into account, the research design changes (or develops) from one cycle to the next. Whilst on the one hand, adaptability is needed for

change, on the other hand an ever-changing research design is seen as limiting because of its changeability and therefore lack of strength and consistency (Smith, 2006). In this context, McKenney et al. (2006) referred to the notion of evolutionary planning to address this claim. So this criticism can be overcome by implementing Smith's suggestion of using "snapshots" or moments in time where there are key data and experiences to analyse as areas for consideration regarding change.

Reliability challenges: A further challenge has been with regard to the reliability of the research techniques. Bazeley (2004) maintains that DBR, with its multiple methods approach, is more likely to increase reliability of the techniques because evidence from each technique is "thoughtfully weighed" (p. 24) against the other. Kroll (2011) also claims that the data convergence "improves the validity and reliability of the data" (p. 68).

One concern of researchers is the appropriate use of knowledge claims in DBR research, particularly in relation to generalisations. Wang and Hannafin (2005) assert that to avoid unreliable generalisations, the methods used to generate the goals of the design must be verified according to the theory goals of the design and the requirements of the discipline. Barab and Squire (2004) support this and claim that researchers need to optimise a local design without decreasing its generalisability. This point is significant because the effectiveness of addressing the local context is a tenet of DBR, before seeking to generalise the design principles to other settings. To address this concern, Kali and Linn (2008) developed a framework for generalisation so that ideas could be shared amongst researchers. Their Design Principle Database is a set of interconnected features and principles with each feature being linked with a principle, and principles are linked between themselves in a hierarchical manner.

Summary

The above discussion indicates the use of DBR as a suitable methodology for quality educational research because it has the potential to narrow the credibility gap and provide effective practitioner research in context.

The two main strengths of this practitioner-based research are that it:

- develops the learner's understanding about their actions and fosters their commitment to improve practice;

- enhances the practitioner's capacity, both as a researcher and a designer.

4.2 Rationale for a Design Based Research Approach

In the previous two chapters the literature reviews identified vital components for consideration in this study. At this point, it is important to briefly sketch the information gained from these reviews to determine whether the research needs of this study can be addressed through the use of DBR methodology.

4.2.1 Rationale for DBR methodology

In Chapter Two, the literature review of leadership discussed the distinctive features of educational leadership practice, particularly as it applied to NSW state schools. The review highlighted a major necessity of successful leadership development approaches was their ability to foster a collaborative culture that results in improved leadership practice. The review proposed the relevance of using Fullan's (2003) PLC approach because it promotes a collaborative culture as well as providing the opportunities for practitioner learning in context that build capacity and change practice. In Chapter Three the review explored the literature on adult learning theories to discover the most appropriate strategies to enhance higher-order learning. The review proposed the need to use a range of leadership learning strategies focused on experiential learning and reflection, because of their potential to engage and motivate experienced teachers to participate in leadership development activities.

The next step is to explore DBR methodology to determine whether it meets the needs of the study for an approach that promotes a collaborative culture and fosters practitioner learning through a range of experiential and reflective learning strategies that can be implemented in context. The characteristics of DBR outlined earlier have shown that it is a sound research methodology with structured processes for examining a problem such as the decline in the number of aspirants for the principal's role. DBR methodology is relevant for this type of adult learning because it can occur in the school context (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Additionally, it can employ experiential learning strategies to address real-world leadership challenges and issues at the local level to foster improved leadership skills, values and beliefs (Greenwood & Levin, 1998).

Practitioner-based research (Slater & Simmons, 2001) is encouraged in all phases of DBR methodology. Such research can foster a climate of collaboration and mutual exchange about

leadership amongst experienced teachers. The methodology is appropriate because it uses systematic processes and multiple methods to test underpinning learning theories. A key feature of DBR is the iterative cycle of inquiry and reflection; this process gives practitioners the opportunity to practise professional dialogue and reflection on leadership issues (Reeves, 2000, 2006). The multiple methods approach used in DBR also has the potential to incorporate in the design the range of leadership learning strategies proposed for this study. Based on the changing profile of the teaching population described in Chapter One, using this methodology has the potential to foster expertise in the new wave of future leaders.

DBR methodology proposes a way forward and develops practitioner ownership of a set of “Design Principles” (Collins, 1992) that have the potential to sustain an ongoing leadership development agenda at the local level. These principles also engage others in the next stage of collaborative research for future leadership development.

The researcher proposes drawing on key elements of DBR methodology because it provides the most appropriate approach to meet the needs of this study. The research focuses on the implications of teacher experiences with regard to leadership development. The multiple methods approach enables the collection of data on these experiences and provides the researcher with opportunities to observe participants’ responses. The range of methods promotes triangulation of the data. The data help the researcher to track the evolution of an educational leadership philosophy in experienced teachers from NSW state schools.

4.2.2 DBR processes

The research processes in DBR are cyclical in character, and comprise the elements of design, enactment, analysis, and redesign (Cobb, 2001). These elements are enacted until the practitioners reach a solution or create a set of Design Principles. The literature suggests there is no standard DBR methodology, and different authors visualise this research process in different ways (Edelson, 2002). The Design Based Research Collective (2003) identified three main features that are common to DBR processes: a focus on the context, the intervention, and the use of multiple methods. A consideration of the context has the potential to produce a better understanding of the practices being implemented which can lead to improved theories of learning. The use of an intervention helps the practitioner to connect theory and design with their practice. Finally, the use of a multiple methods approach links activities to outcomes thus generating knowledge that directly applies to practice.

The DBR processes proposed for use in this intervention are based on the phases of Reeves' (2000, 2006) Design Research model. The strengths of this model are that it uses a four-phased structured approach to promote the collective action of practitioner researchers and to change practice. These phases include the analysis of practical problems, development of solutions, iterative cycles and reflection to produce Design Principles. The phases of Reeves' (2000, 2006) Design Research model were modified for this study (see Figure 4.1). In particular, there was a reduction in the number of iterative cycles conducted to suit the school context and teacher engagement in the intervention.

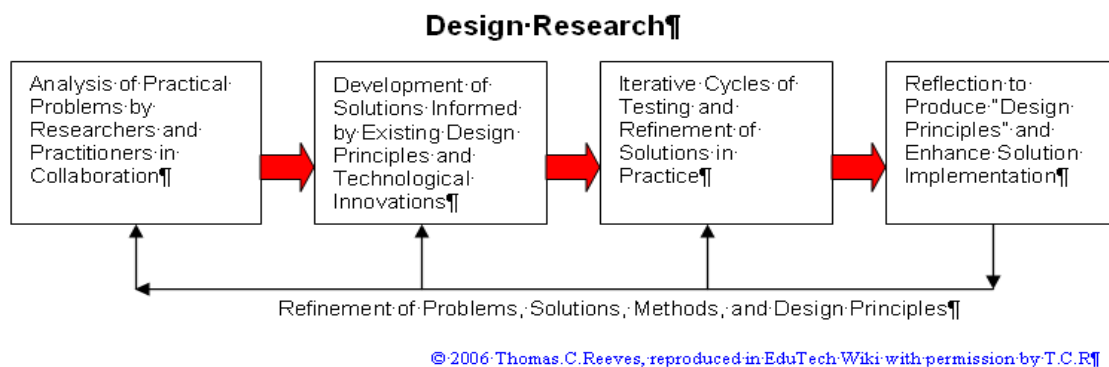


Figure 4.1 Reeves's Design Research model (Reeves, 2000, 2006)

A key element of the model, that makes it suitable for this study, is the goal orientation of Phases one and two, namely, the analysis of a practical problem, in this case the reduction of aspirants for leadership positions, and the development of solutions. Phase three, iterative cycles of testing is another key element particularly applicable to this study. Two iterative cycles were conducted in order to foster practitioner inquiry and reflection at the workplace. This gave practitioners the opportunity to research the proposed leadership strategies. This is a modification of Reeves' (2000, 2006) Design Research model. Where some critics might see the use of two iterative cycles as not strictly DBR, because this methodology normally uses four or more iterative cycles, this phase is used as a basis for developing the practice of iteration with participants. The two cycles provided an opportunity for participants to practise inquiry and reflection and apply it to their own development. Including further cycles in the intervention was not practical because of the increased teacher commitment involved. Phase four, the Design Principles, aligns with Reeves' (2000, 2006) Design Research model.

There are two main points where the structure of the intervention diverges from Reeves' model. In Phase two the entry point for researchers is based on information from the literature

reviews and NSW Department of Education and Communities (DEC) documents. No evidence was found of existing principles, as mentioned in Reeves' (2000, 2006) Design Research model. Also, the research does not involve technological solutions. This encourages practitioners to develop their own solutions, based on their experiences.

Summary

This section examined the findings of leadership development from the literature reviews in Chapters Two and Three to determine whether the research needs of this study can be addressed through the use of DBR methodology. This resulted in the researcher asserting that key characteristics of DBR methodology be used as a relevant approach for this study. The DBR processes were examined, especially the key elements, namely, the context, intervention and multiple methods approach. Finally, Reeves' (2000, 2006) Design Research model was critiqued for its contribution to the phases of the Leadership Learning Intervention.

4.3 Theoretical Position

The theory-driven nature of Design Based Research (DBR) is a significant characteristic of this methodology. Without an underlying theory support for both the framework and design processes of this approach, the research may fail to inform change in practice (Collins, 1992). The methods used also need to be grounded in relevant theory and provide opportunities for workplace practice so that participants can make the connection between theory, research and practice, and become committed to the research for what it can offer to improve practice.

The strategies being trialled in the Leadership Learning Intervention are underpinned by three key theories. These theories represent a hypothesis of the type of learning experiences that have the potential to promote leadership development in this study.

4.3.1 Three key learning theories

In Chapter Three, the literature review evaluated three key learning theories for use in this study (see section 3.3) because of their relevance to adult learning. The learning experiences suggested are broad in their diversity and convey a high level of critical thinking that fosters higher-order learning and development. In this study, the DBR methodology is used to test these three key learning theories and their applicability to leadership development, namely,

the experiential learning cycle theory of Kolb (1984), the double loop learning theory of Argyris and Schön (1978) and the triple loop learning theory of Isaacs (1993). While these theories developed separately, the researcher proposes drawing on the three theories for their combined potential to inform leadership learning and development. The three theories are briefly re-visited below. Experiential and reflective learning theories underpin the leadership strategies proposed for this study.

4.3.1.1 Experiential learning cycle theory

Kolb (1984) researched developmental learning processes and suggests that an individual's own experiences can be used as a way of improving their learning and development. He asserts that the cognitive processes of learning occur as the individual progresses through a cycle of experiential learning in the workplace (see section 3.3.1). Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory also acknowledges the importance of three dimensions that promote adult learning, namely the environment, social interactions and the cognitive, conative and affective domains.

Kolb's (1984) theory has implications for designing learning strategies for leadership development programs. Based on his theory the researcher conjectured that continuous participation in a broad range of individual and group developmental learning experiences fosters learning, and creates the conditions for the higher-order learning necessary for leadership development.

4.3.1.2 Double loop learning theory

Argyris and Schön (1978) advanced the learning concept of iteration. These authors demonstrated that learning progresses through iterative cycles of self and group collaborative inquiry and reflection about the learner's actions. This process helps the learner to develop a high level of critical thinking and, ultimately, change their practice.

Although Argyris and Schön's (1978) theory of double loop learning was developed earlier than Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory, of significance are the commonalities between the two theories. Both theories stress the importance of self and group critical reflection to improve practice. Coupled with this is the emphasis on the cycle of learning. Whereas Kolb focused on the need for a broad range of workplace learning experiences,

Argyris and Schön (1978) highlighted the importance of the depth of critical reflection, for fostering higher-order leadership learning processes.

4.3.1.3 Triple loop learning theory

Isaacs (1993) built on the loop learning theories developed by Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978). He termed his theory triple loop learning. He hypothesised that triple loop learning is a process that encourages the learner to transform their practice. Isaacs' theory has implications for leadership development because the conjecture is that practitioner-based research can foster leadership learning in change practices. The literature reviewed in Chapter One indicated that higher-order leadership skills for change and improving practice are essential to the principal's role of fostering quality education in NSW state schools.

The three key learning theories underpin this study because they conjecture ways to develop leadership learning for experienced teachers. These theories are also significant because they draw on the three dimensions of adult learning outlined in Chapter Three (see section 3.2). These dimensions emphasised that for effective leadership learning to occur the learning should be conducted in the school context and incorporate collegial strategies based on social learning theory. Additionally, the learner needs to be involved in activities that incorporated the cognitive, conative and affective domains.

Summary

The literature review proposed three key learning theories for this study. While the theories express different streams of thought, they have been drawn together in this study because of their relevance for promoting higher-order leadership learning and development.

- Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory leads to the conjecture that a breadth of context-related experiences needs to be included in leadership development programs.
- Argyris and Schön's (1978) double loop learning theory also needs to be included in this study because the conjecture is that iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection promote higher-order learning and leadership development.

- Isaacs'(1993) triple loop learning theory is an essential part of this study because it leads to the conjecture that practitioner-based research can foster change practices and improve the quality of education in schools.

4.4 Research Participants

This section includes an outline of the participant sample, selection process, teacher profiles and issues affecting the sample.

4.4.1 Participant sample

There were participants from thirteen primary schools and one secondary school. The participants came from eight comprehensive schools. Although a similar number of primary and secondary schools were contacted about the intervention, the imbalance in the ratio of primary to secondary teachers was due to the volunteer rate being higher in the primary schools approached. The schools ranged from those with large student populations and a high percentage of Non-English Speaking Background students from low socio-economic families, to small schools with a large percentage of Anglo-Saxon students from middle class families. One school had a Special Education Unit integrated into the school organisation. The schools were located in the School Education Areas of southern and south-western Sydney. The area was chosen for proximity to the researcher's home, as travel time was a consideration.

Only one teacher (Freda) had been serving in a permanent promotion position as an Assistant Principal for over six months at the commencement of the program. Another teacher (Sam) was appointed to the Assistant Principal role in 2008. The majority of participants had served in relieving formal promotion roles (Assistant Principal/Head Teacher) prior to the program. Two teachers (Katie and Joe) took on relieving promotion positions during the research program.

Of the eight participating schools, the sample included five teachers from one school who were structured into a formal "aspiring leadership group", known as Group A. The group had experienced regular monthly leadership development training in the year prior to the intervention. Two of the schools had pairs of teacher participants with experience of working

together. The remaining five teachers were from different schools. There were two males and twelve females in the group.

4.4.2 Selection process

This study was designed to explore strategies that have the potential to engage experienced teachers in leadership development. With regard to the Leadership Learning Intervention the term “experienced teachers” was expanded to refer to qualified teachers, both permanent and temporary, who met the selection criteria, as set out below.

The selection criteria comprised the following elements: experienced teachers who had served three or more years in the teaching profession; shown an interest in engaging in personal and collegial professional development; demonstrated aspirational qualities by engaging in formal or informal leadership roles within the school or across schools; shown an interest in leadership development through Design Based Research and facilitated reciprocal peer coaching; and demonstrated leadership capacity but did not show an inclination to self-nominate for a research project.

A process of cold-calling school principals from schools within the sample areas was commenced (1 November to 12 December, 2007, the end of school term 4). Each principal was given a brief sketch of the program and, if the Principal was interested, this was followed up by an email outlining the research process and attachment with further information (see Appendices: 1a, 1b, 2a and 2b). Principals who were interested were asked to nominate teachers whom they thought met the selection criteria. The principal’s (or executive’s) approach to the teachers they nominated ranged from an announcement at a staff meeting, discussion with aspirational groups and/or a personal approach to discussion with the executive who nominated people.

The rationale for principals identifying participants for this study was based on research of experienced teachers, conducted by McCulla, Dinham and Scott (2007). They claimed that, when considering departmental processes for identifying teacher eligibility for training opportunities, the “nudge factor” (p. 2) is needed. The term nudge factor was used by McCulla et al. (2007) to suggest that when the school principal consistently encouraged teachers to become involved in leadership activities there was a strong likelihood of teacher commitment. The study interviewed a selection of 2000—2005 recipients of the *NSW*

Minister for Education and Training and Australian College of Educators', Quality Teaching Awards. McCulla et al. (2007) found that the interviewees, who were experienced teachers from all sectors, some in promotion positions, overwhelmingly reported that their principal or leader nominated them for the award and that they would not have nominated themselves. These authors found that a key factor that fostered teacher engagement in leadership development was the encouragement of the leader.

The identification process for teachers who met the selection criteria was for them to verbally commit to the project shortly after they had engaged in an introductory meeting with the researcher. Guidelines were provided to participants regarding the research in the form of an approved UTS/NSW DET Participation Information sheet (regarding confidentiality and the recording, collection & storage of information). These sheets were distributed to participants in the relationship-building phase (see Appendix 2a.– UTS/NSW DET Letter to Principals and Participant Information sheet). The participants were required to sign the jointly approved University of Technology, Sydney and NSW Department of Education and Training (DET) research Consent form [Note that the DET is now known as Department of Education and Communities (DEC)]. The school principal was asked to countersign this Consent form endorsing the participant's eligibility for the research (see Appendix 2b. – UTS/NSW DET Consent form). The principal's signature was sought because the departmental procedures required this and the support of the school principal was an encouragement to the participant, particularly with their school-based leadership project.

The benefits to participants involved in the trial were outlined at their introductory meeting with the researcher and in the first session. The benefits and costs (time costs) for the teacher were formally outlined in the UTS/NSW DET Participant Information sheet as: learning about the nature of leadership, developing peer coaching and research skills, enhancing their leadership knowledge and overall skills base, strengthening their capacity to collect evidence of authentic professional development experiences, promoting leadership within a community of practice (Wenger, 1998), enriching and gratifying experiences and formal regional acknowledgement of their participation in the leadership sessions (see Appendix 2a).

The benefits of the target group being drawn from teachers in schools within the four School Education Areas geographically near to one another were the ability to utilise DEC systems and structures, manageability of the sample, reduction in travel time and costs, increased likelihood of sustained relationships and further networking post-trial, and the increased

likelihood that the high school teachers and feeder primary school teachers (depending on the group composition negotiated) would work together on other linked projects.

The teacher time commitment, outlined at the initial meeting, was for six sessions each of 90 minutes' duration with an informal 20-minute interview session prior to the intervention. The researcher held discussions with all principals asking for two of the six sessions to be held in school time, with the teachers having relief from their classes. In all other cases the teachers' personal time was used to attend the sessions, complete the learning journal (once per week) and plan the work-based leadership project they had undertaken.

4.4.3 Relationship-building phase

Maintaining participant involvement was a challenge during the intervention because of the amount of teacher time and commitment required. While the research had a specific focus and methodology, it was important that participants gained a sense of satisfaction from the time spent with enacting the process.

The level of engagement of the participants depended on the level of trust built between the researcher and participants. Attention to relationships helps to build this necessary trust and foster rapport. Prior to the commencement of the research, a relationship-building meeting was held with each potential participant or group of participants. This was done to "make the process visible to participants" and establish credibility (Dick, 1991, p. 7). The research process and the participants' contributions were explained and they were given reading materials for further reference. This meeting fostered informal conversation, an opportunity for participants to see that their opinion was valued and to build their confidence regarding the research process. At this stage, particular attention was paid to fitting in with school procedures and building rapport with the school principal and executive, where appropriate. The principal was kept informed by email and where necessary phone/personal conversations. This was done to ensure the principal would be supportive of the teacher's research and in particular the work-based leadership project where relief time for teachers was negotiated.

4.4.4 Teacher profiles

Teacher profiles were compiled based on principal/executive comments at the initial meeting. Some profiles contain additional comments that a teacher used to describe themselves, or that other teachers used to describe them. Further data came from teacher comments at the relationship-building meeting and the researcher's observations. While the following outline contains profiles of fifteen teachers, Mary withdrew after session two citing work pressures. Mary had not attended any sessions; however she was involved in a pair interview with Joe from the same school. At one school the principal commented that she had established an aspiring leadership group (this group is identified by an asterisk* next to their pseudonym in the profiles). This group had been working together for a year prior to the intervention. The profiles are as follows.

Alice: The principal described Alice as “a quiet achiever”. She had been a casual teacher for six years at a range of schools prior to her permanent appointment at this school two years ago and said, “I did not get any leadership training”. Alice queried “what can I give to the program?” She had previous experience in a relieving assistant principal role. In the initial meeting she did not comment on her leadership philosophy, but on the school context: “the others (teachers at her school) are all older than me and set in their ways”. Alice came from a small, comprehensive school.

Freda: The principal described Freda as “very accomplished”. Freda had been teaching for ten years. She was the only teacher to have held an assistant principal position for three of the ten years. In the initial meeting, Freda commented on her previous experience in leadership development programs, and stressed she wanted to be involved in this program because it “gives me the opportunity to reflect on my practice” and “engage in professional dialogue with others”. As a leader, she expressed concern about her age: “I’m supervising older people.” Her outlook on leadership was that “we are all leaders”. The researcher observed she was confident in her role and was respected by other teachers. Freda had relieved in the school principal role and described it as “complex”. Freda and Melinda were from the same school. Their school had a large, mainly Anglo-Saxon population, with parents of middle-income.

Janice: The principal described Janice as “proactive within the school” and “willing to try anything”. Janice had been teaching for five years. She had experience in a relieving

Assistant Principal role. At the initial meeting, she commented on her leadership roles in the school as one who values “a good relationship with my peers” and that “the principal asked me to be involved in this program”. Janice was conscious of her age; “I’m young to be a leader (in schools) and have older people I supervise”. The researcher observed she was a friendly, smiling teacher with good interpersonal skills who presented as willing to learn. Janice and Jill were from the same school which had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students.

Jill: The principal described Jill as “a mature teacher”, with a background of “performing varied leadership roles”. Jill had been teaching for fifteen years. At the initial meeting she spoke about her leadership roles in another country where she was “responsible for large groups of people”. The researcher observed that the leadership roles drew on her organisational abilities. Jill was conscious of her age: “I do not mind working with younger people”. The researcher observed that she presented as quietly confident and knowledgeable about leadership philosophy. Jill and Janice were from the same school which had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students.

Joe: The principal commented that Joe “had a background as a manager in private industry”. Joe had been teaching for four years. He commented on the different relationships he had with leaders depending on whether the leadership was based on the promotion position held or on the interpersonal skills displayed. Joe suggested leadership could be “positional rather than personal” and supported this view by claiming, “I value leaders who have good interpersonal skills”. The researcher observed that he compared the leadership styles of the past and present principals at his school. During the program he gained a relieving assistant principal role. Joe’s school had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students.

Jocelyn*: The principal commented that Jocelyn had been applying for formal leadership positions. Jocelyn had been teaching for five years in state schools. The teacher spoke about her experiences of leadership in the non-government system, where she taught for four years: “they worked against me” and “I think I’ve lost jobs (in government education) because of my background in the (non-government) system”. The researcher observed that her perception of leadership was influenced by her previous experience in the non-government system. Jocelyn’s school had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students.

Karen: The principal said of Karen, “she needs leadership experience that she isn’t getting at this school”. Karen had been teaching for eight years. At the initial meeting she commented on her context in the school; “I’ve taken on different roles in the school” and “there are lots of experienced teachers (at the school) who are uncomfortable with change”. The researcher observed that she was a friendly person and her colleagues spoke highly of her ability to take on a range of school responsibilities. During the research project she was asked by the principal to perform the relieving Head Teacher Welfare role. Karen’s school comprised students mainly from Anglo-Saxon backgrounds with middle-income parents.

Katie*: The principal commented that Katie was a “very quiet person”. Katie had been teaching for five years. Katie reported that she “enjoyed working with the others in the school’s aspiring leadership group”, and that “the principal gave me” the leadership role for which she was responsible. The researcher observed that she was ready to implement strategies for change when given the opportunity. Katie’s school had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students.

Kerrie*: The principal commented that Kerrie was a “quiet achiever”. Kerrie had been teaching for eight years. She had experience in a relieving Assistant Principal role. However, at the interview she said, “I’m not sure whether I want to take on a (formal) leadership role”. The researcher observed in the initial meeting that she was well respected by her colleagues, in the structured leadership group at her school, and they left her to respond to the researcher’s questions. Kerrie’s school had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students.

Leslie*: The principal commented that Leslie “enjoyed working in the school’s aspiring leadership group”. Leslie had been teaching for five years. She did not comment on leadership, except to say that she had experience in a relieving Assistant Principal role. The researcher observed that she respected her colleagues in the group and was caring in her approach toward them. Leslie’s school had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students.

Mary: The principal commented that Mary was doing external studies allied to her teaching and described her as a person who is “able to get a lot done”. Mary had been teaching for ten years. The principal commented that Mary and Joe worked well together and were mature age teachers who had worked in private industry prior to their teaching career. Mary was

unable to attend sessions one and two and voluntarily withdrew from the project prior to session three. Mary's large school comprised students from a low socio-economic status, with a high level of NESB.

Melinda: The principal commented that Melinda was a "mature teacher" with a "strong" personality. Melinda had been teaching for fifteen years. She had experience in a relieving Assistant Principal role. At the initial meeting she said, "I thought leadership was about supervision", and that "I've learnt to be more political over time" and "to hold my tongue". "Xx [principal's name omitted] is supportive of what I do and that has made me more confident". The researcher observed that she was sensitive of her mature age as a leader, prior to program. Melinda and Freda were from the same school which had a large, mainly Anglo-Saxon population.

Ruth*: The principal commented that Ruth was "a quiet person" and "a hard worker". Ruth had been teaching for five years. She had experience in a relieving assistant principal role; "I learnt how important systems and processes were in the leadership role". The researcher observed that she was friendly and contributed to the group when asked. Ruth's school had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students.

Sally: The principal described Sally as "a dedicated, teacher who deserved a promotion". Sally had been teaching for twelve years. She had experience in a relieving assistant principal role. Sally commented that her "small school" meant she "had the opportunity to take on many different leadership roles". Her interview comments reflected that she was affected by "past principals" who were "near retirement" and "made it hard to come to school". She viewed her current principal as "very supportive". The researcher observed that her relationship with the serving principal was very important to her and that her responses showed her ability to view the big picture — "the (research) program has benefits for me and for the whole school". Her school had a mainly Anglo-Saxon population, with middle-income parents.

Sam: The principal described Sam as "a quiet, mature achiever". Sam had been teaching for seventeen years. He commented that he had "limited experience in a leadership role" and that his experience of working with different leaders was with a "Queen Boadicea" [past principal] and that the current principal was "very different", "a positive person"; "she has encouraged me to apply for the (promotion) position". During the research project he gained

a promotion position as an Assistant Principal at the school. Sam's school had a large population of low socio-economic, high NESB students. A Special Education Unit for Hearing Impaired students was located at this school.

4.4.5 Issues affecting the participant sample

Several issues are outlined in this section that affected the participant sample.

4.4.5.1 Selection process

The decision to ask principals to nominate participants introduced variables into the research such as the personality of the principal, their leadership style and the participant's autonomy in the choice of their whole school leadership project. At two schools the principal did not give the teacher(s) an opportunity to choose their leadership project. The implications of the lack of autonomy are outlined in the findings chapter.

4.4.5.2 Maintaining teacher participation

One concern regarding the sample was the capacity of this study to maintain teacher participation because of the high level of commitment and the research tasks required of participants. Coupled with the relationship-building meeting, the researcher implemented the following strategies to address this:

- negotiated with the principal for one group of five participants to work together in the iterative phase because release time was not provided;
- planned the intervention sessions with a focus on stimulating materials, a variety of engaging activities, timeframe and quality refreshments;
- used specific strategies during the intervention to minimise the stress of the commitment, such as allocating one session of leadership readings across the group, then conducting a "jigsaw" activity on the readings to share feedback, and promoting the use of an audio rather than written reflective learning journal;
- conducted sessions at the participant's school to minimise travel and create school interest. The participant(s) who volunteered their school were then usually committing themselves and letting their school colleagues know about the program, thus "externalising" into the leadership role (Engeström, 2004);

- kept the principal/deputy (where appropriate) informed of progress/success/concerns so they could support the teacher(s);
- personally contacted each participant prior to each of the six sessions to ask, “How are you going?” Participants then had a chance to speak with the researcher personally. The final evaluations showed that one teacher objected to being rung “on a Friday night after a busy week”.

4.4.5.3 Participant recognition

An acknowledgement process was built into the program in the recruitment stage when some teachers queried the benefits of this project. A formal ceremony was conducted at the regional office to recognise teacher contribution to the research, their leadership projects and their commitment. This was a celebratory event where the School Education Director was invited to present a Participation Certificate to the participants who came from schools in the area for which they had supervisory responsibilities. All four School Education Directors attended the event, (some travelling quite a distance to attend) and principals were invited (three of the eight attended). This showed the teachers that their activities and contribution were valued. Photos were taken and an article about the schools involved in the research (endorsed by all principals) appeared in the School Education News a few months later.

4.4.5.4 Teacher relief (for small group sessions four and five)

Prior to the commencement of the intervention, the researcher negotiated with each school principal for them to use the school professional learning funds to release teachers to attend the two smaller Learning Group sessions four and five to be held in school time. Of the eight principals, one did not consent to this and arrangements were made for this group to work together as a discrete group (known as Group A) during the Learning Group sessions.

4.5 Data Sources

The Design Based Research methodology uses multiple data sources from which to collect evidence (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). With this methodology, the range of data sources enables the evidence to be triangulated. This process fosters reliability and enriches the knowledge base. The data sources in this study included the interviews, the Leadership Learning Intervention, participants’ learning journals and researcher’s observations (field

notes and researcher's journal). The data collection methods are grouped below according to the data gathered about the participant's experiences and researcher's observations.

Participants' experiences:

- individual interviews (prior to the intervention-audio-recording);
- reflective learning journal throughout the intervention. Option for oral (audio-recording) or written journal;
- Learning Team professional dialogue and informal conversation during sessions one to three, and six. The data-collection methods were report back sessions that brainstormed key points on butcher's paper, audio-recordings of discussions and session evaluations;
- Learning Group practicing the GROW model of questioning and the conduct of iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection in sessions four and five(audio-recording).

Researcher's observations:

- field observations (researcher's field notes);
- memoranda;
- researcher's journal.

The data from each of these sources were examined and coded for indicators of teacher learning (Merriam, 1998) and development. The codes assisted in the development of concepts and the data were then triangulated, where possible. A variety of themes emerged from the analysis process.

4.5.1 Interviews

The researcher chose an interview method for this study because it is a flexible way to obtain rich data. The value of the interview method is that it draws on experiences from the real world in which participants work and in this context they feel comfortable about talking on a topic. Face-to-face interviews were conducted in this study. The rationale when asking questions about participant experiences was that face-to-face interviews allowed the interviewer to observe the non-verbal gestures of the interviewee when responding to a topic.

Some strengths of this method are that it allows questioning to be adapted to the context, examination of the interviewee's answers, and the exploration of topics in-depth with particular individuals (Kvale, 1996).

For this study ten interviews took place at the participants' schools, at a pre-arranged time, either before or after school. Of these interviews, eight were with individual teachers, one with a pair of teachers from the same school, and one interview was with a focus group of five teachers from the one school. The interviews were conducted with a total of fifteen teachers (one teacher officially withdrew of her own volition after not attending two sessions). Each interview was of twenty minutes' duration, with the interview questions distributed to participants a few days prior to the interview.

The interviews were designed to explore the participants' views on leadership and mapped their experiences related to leadership, and leadership development, prior to the commencement of the Leadership Learning Intervention. This data source provided a reference point from which to gauge each teacher's current leadership philosophy, prior to the intervention, and established a benchmark for tracking their leadership development during the sessions. Changes in teachers' viewpoints could then be recorded.

When formulating the interview questions, care was taken with the type of questions being asked and their purpose. Questions were avoided that showed bias, were double-barrelled, confusing or resulted in a limited or closed response (where mono-responses would be received). The questions were limited to four key areas to allow more time for the participants to respond. This strategy gave participants the best opportunity to contribute as many details as possible about their leadership experiences prior to the intervention commencing. The researcher was mindful of interviewees, "saying what they thought the researcher wanted to hear" (Stephens, 2001, p. 35) and so questions were devised that were open-ended to avoid this type of response. This encouraged interviewees to provide more information on a topic, rather than be limited to a yes/no response and to express their own views. Bogdan and Knopp-Biklen (2001) claimed this format "allows the informant to answer from their own frame of reference and... express their thoughts more freely" (p. 3).

The first three questions focused on leadership experiences. This helped the participant to "respond more easily and the researcher to accumulate and summarise responses more efficiently" (Opdenakker, 2006, p. 7). The final question was an open one, designed to give

participants the opportunity to comment on any part of the research process. This question also created an atmosphere whereby individuals could express their needs and fears, provide comment and/or make enquiries about the research. The emphasis, in all four questions, was to obtain information about what the interviewees viewed as important, their explanation and understanding of events, patterns, and forms of behaviour. The interview questions were piloted informally with a sample group of experienced teachers who were drawn from a regional DEC workshop conducted in relation to the researcher's consultancy role at that time (*NSW Quality Teaching Awards* assessors).

Table 4.1 lists the focus of each interview question and its purpose. The interview questions are outlined in Appendix 3.

Table 4.1 Focus of Interview Questions

Question	Purpose
1. Participants' prior experiences of leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to focus each teacher's thoughts on leadership • to lay a common basis for discussions of leadership during the intervention • to explore a common language to define leadership amongst this group
2. A powerful example of a leadership experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to gather data on experienced teachers' philosophies of leadership • to gather information on the experiences that have influenced their leadership philosophy
3. Experiences in a leadership role	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to map their leadership abilities
4. Participants' initial expectations of the research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to establish participant expectations of the research.

The formal interview method was a key element of the DBR methodology for this study because it provided an opportunity to engage participants in collaborative practitioner research at the workplace. The interview demonstrated a familiar process because the questions (distributed prior to the interview), were relevant to the workplace and drew on teachers' current and past experiences. Participants' workplaces were visited, to establish a

time and quiet venue for the interviews and to ensure participants consented to the interviews being recorded. Each interviewee was asked the same questions. The data collected from the interview were transcribed and the commonalities were discussed in the first session of the intervention. Of interest was a comparison of the interview data with the learning journal data, as both were collected from the participant's thought processes. These data were used to map the participant's stage of development with regard to leadership.

The interview method was seen to have several strengths for this study. The interviews required limited participant preparation and helped to set the context for future professional dialogue sessions during the intervention. The interviews gave participants confidence because the method used was a familiar activity in a teacher's working life. This strategy served to show participants from the beginning that their opinions mattered and that the data collected from the interviews were significant and contributed to the overall research.

4.5.2 Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI)

The Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI), detailed in Chapter Five, was chosen for this study because it incorporates the essential design elements of collegial groupings and a multiple methods approach, which have the potential to produce a range of data for collection. The intervention is a feature of the Design Based Research methodology being used in this study. The benefit of an intervention is that it serves as a forum for testing the strategies that flow from the conjectures. The intervention used collegial groupings and multiple methods to trial the leadership learning strategies proposed for the study. Iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection were used with the fourteen participants throughout the six sessions of the intervention. Critical reflection was fostered during sessions one, two, three and six. During sessions four and five, the two iterative cycles supported participants to reflect on the leadership projects conducted in the school context through small group informal conversation and Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching. Data were collected from transcripts of these processes.

Each participant was asked to consider a whole-school leadership project that they wanted to trial during the intervention. These work-based leadership projects were designed to give participants the opportunity to gain practical experience in leadership issues in the school context. The projects gave participants a common starting point for learning by sharing their ideas, feelings and challenges regarding the leadership role.

Participants were given the opportunity, during the iterative phase of the LLI, to practise an informal Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) method. The literature on FRPC (see section 3.4.3), indicates that this strategy is underpinned by the three key learning theories, namely, Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory, Argyris and Schön's (1978) double loop learning theory and Isaacs'(1993) triple loop learning theory. Additionally, FRPC gives participants the opportunity to practise the leadership learning strategies proposed for this study.

Data were collected via information from Learning Group and Learning Team report activities, session evaluations and audio-recordings of small group informal conversations about the work-based leadership projects during the FRPC sessions. The LLI also lends itself to the potential of rich data from the focus group discussions at the end of sessions one, two, three, and six.

4.5.3 Participants' learning journals

A growing number of researchers and educators argue that a learning journal has the potential to enhance creative and critical thinking and foster professional growth (Eisner, 1998; Plummer, 2001; Smith, 1999). The concept of a learning journal draws on Schön's action theory that encourages the learner to engage with the situation and to learn from it; "reflection in action and reflection on action" (Schön, 1983, p. 58).

The literature suggests that a learning journal stimulates the individual's reflective thought processes and develops their higher-order thinking skills (Moon, 2004). These reflective processes assist teachers to develop their self-evaluation skills, by helping them to relate the situation being explored to their own experiences (Jensen, 2007; Thorpe, 2004). Additionally, these reflective processes provide opportunities for teachers to develop their capacity to critically analyse their experiences in relation to the school context (Smith, 1999). Hoban (2000) cites studies where a reflective journal, supported by a reflective framework, encourages pre-service teachers to identify factors which enhance their learning and practice. Thus reflective processes have the potential to heighten a teacher's understanding and critical thinking skills and lead to improved practice.

The researcher chose to incorporate a learning journal into this study because the method lends itself to the collection of data about the internal processes of the mind and their impact

on the participant's learning. The journal was a requirement of the intervention. The benefit of the learning journals is that they foster reflective learning and development.

The data collected from the participants' journals were used to track their leadership learning and development, as well as the evolution of their leadership philosophy.

4.5.4 Researcher's observations

Observations are a valuable tool for researchers. Direct observations, as in this study, occur when people know that they are being watched. These observations are usually flexible and based on events or behaviours. One cautionary aspect is the danger that individuals who know they are being observed do not show their true self. While this may be the case in the beginning, evidence has shown that in longitudinal studies participants "forget about the observer" (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996, p. 72). Observational research findings are considered strong in validity because the researcher collects a depth of information about a particular behaviour.

In order to record the researcher's perceptions of the trial in this study, a journal was kept, tracking observations of the interviews, the intervention sessions and informal conversations. These activities enabled the researcher to observe the process and collect data on individual behaviours, group dynamics and incidents that impacted on this study. Field notes represent observations "in action" (Schön, 1983). The researcher's field notes for this study were vital because they offered observations on participant actions/responses during the interview, intervention and focus group evaluative comments. The researcher's observations also provide an additional source of data for triangulation with the other sources so that the evidence is expanded resulting in a depth of reliable knowledge on leadership development.

There were some limiting aspects of the researcher's observations. There was a concern regarding reliability as to whether the observations could be replicated. Another limitation was generalisability. According to Trochim, Kane, Graham and Pincus (2011), this referred to the extent that the findings would also be "true for other people, in other places, and at other times" (p. 6). In this study the findings reflected the sample group and cannot be generalised. Finally, researcher bias was a concern. There was an assumption that the researcher might "see what they want to see". In this study the potential for bias was overcome by triangulation of data from different sources.

Summary

The four data sources were interviews, the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI), participants' learning journals and researcher's observations. While each source has the potential for producing a high level of rich data, the interviews and oral journals were found to produce the richest data about participants' experiences of leadership and the intervention respectively.

4.6 Analysis Processes

Analysis involves the coding and/or categorising of data and is undertaken to facilitate understanding and retrieval of information. In this study the qualitative data collection and analysis occur in an iterative fashion, known as retrospective analysis. This means that the researcher moves back and forth between the data collection and analysis processes to allow new avenues of inquiry to develop as additional data have been collected.

The key factor in data analysis is the codes. Codes are the means by which data are transferred from one format into another. The codes can be referred to as variables, themes, concepts or categories. Most issues arise in the conversion of data to codes for analysis. The codes provide direction for the analysis process by organising the data, quantifying the relevance of issues and providing a means for interpreting the data.

4.6.1 Specific criteria for analysis

The study sought evidence about the participants' experiences and the researcher's observations in relation to leadership development activities.

4.6.1.1 Participants' experiences

The data sources provided evidence of participants' experiences of the study. Data were coded here in order to gather information about participants' experiences and to track emerging patterns related to the group. This entails collecting the coded data for each individual across the methods and organising the data in order to formulate concepts and themes. The themes were categorised based on commonalities or differences in data and the patterns emerging. The data could be triangulated against the thematic analysis.

4.6.1.2 Researcher's observations

The data were gathered from memoranda, field notes and the researcher's reflective journal in order to address the overarching research question. The data were coded according to concepts and themes and contributed valuable information about the researcher's perceptions of the intervention. The evidence was triangulated with data from the thematic analysis of the participants' experiences. Consideration was given at this point to factors such as bias, interpretations by the researcher and participant, and instances of mitigating circumstances, e.g., sickness, traumatic events, that may affect the data.

4.6.2 Framing evidence

In this study the evidence was framed according to codes, concepts, themes and theories. The researcher developed a series of coded formats for identifying participant responses. A word or a short phrase was used to classify the data. Next, the codes were grouped into similar concepts to make them more workable. Similarities and differences in related codes across the data sources were identified adding to the concepts. A frequent criticism of the coding method is that it seeks to transform qualitative data into quantitative data, hindering access to the richness and originality of the data. To address this, the researcher included pertinent quotes from the transcripts next to each code, where applicable, to retain the uniqueness and validity of the evidence. The participant responses were then categorised according to conceptual themes that emerged from the data collected.

The themes enable a drawing together of important features of this study that indicate the practitioner learning and capacity building processes and whether they changed in nature or extent throughout this study. The data collected were triangulated against other methods in this study to expand the evidence base for this theme. For example, transcripts from the focus group data were triangulated with transcripts from the interviews, the participants' learning journals and the researcher's observations. Of note, was that the identified themes sometimes changed according to the different meanings of the information because of the commonalities of responses in this regard. The researcher could then map the themes and shed light on how the methods affected the participants' developmental learning experiences.

The themes became the basis for developing theories. With written data a further analysis was conducted of topics that were outside the identified themes but the researcher considered

worth pursuing. Once the themes began to emerge the researcher started to draw out some patterns and develop theories around these themes. One point of differentiation in the analysis process in relation to DBR was that the methodology produces a set of Design Principles. These principles encompass different facets of the evidence. Consideration was given to the extent of analysis of these principles. At first they were considered as stand-alone data, however as the analysis progressed they were incorporated into the analysis process. However, these principles represent a culmination of the collaborative research process and need to be treated in a way that maintains the integrity of the data so that this vital evidence is not lost or devalued.

4.6.3 Challenges

Several challenges related to the study have been identified. The role of the researcher can affect the data analysis in relation to bias, reliability and consistency of the data collected (Allan, 2003). This was addressed through triangulation of the data. There were often complexities involved in capturing all the variables affecting the data such that some of the data planned for collection were not captured in this study due to malfunctioning of audio recordings in the first two sessions. Another challenge was the difficulty with the integration of different data sources (Clark, 2005). Kelle (2005) cites “data deluge”, meaning the overwhelming amount of data for analysis, as another challenge. The multiple methods approach often leads to the criticism that it is time-consuming to transcribe data from all of the collection methods. While this argument proved true with this study, the data collected provided rich evidence because the knowledge-base was expanded due to triangulation of this evidence.

Summary

The topic outlines the initial research processes to establish this study. The participant sample is described. The details of the selection process are given and the teacher profiles are presented. Of significance, are the issues relating to the process and the strategies used to address these issues. This topic introduced the data analysis process. The stages of analysis were outlined, namely codes, concepts, themes and theories, and the specific criteria for analysis discussed. Of note were the different types of evidence. One major feature was an outline of the way that the evidence was framed. Finally the challenges for this study were presented.

4.7 Ethical Considerations

Research ethics involve the application of fundamental ethical principles to research. When conducting this study with humans, there are several ethical principles encompassing the design and implementation of the research that needed to be taken into account. In this regard, the researcher followed the University of Technology, Sydney (UTS) guidelines and submitted a research proposal to UTS Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) in November 2006. This was approved in December 2006 (see Appendix 1a. – UTS /HREC Approval letter).

At the same time a research proposal was submitted to the NSW Department of Education and Training (DET) because the proposed research was to be conducted in departmental schools with departmental employees. No children were involved in the research. The NSW Education Department's approval process took six months (see Appendix 1b. – NSW DET/ SERAP Approval letter). This meant scheduling the intervention for the second semester of 2007. The researcher considered this timing inappropriate because teachers would be busy assessing and marking students' work. The intervention was re-scheduled for commencement in February 2008. The researcher began the process of enlisting volunteers in November – December 2007.

4.7.1 Informed Consent

Participants were informed of the nature, purpose and benefits of the research, together with the time and work commitments involved at the initial meeting and via a Participant Information sheet, (see Appendix 2a. — UTS/NSW DET Letter to Principals, and Participant Information sheet). Participants were asked to sign a written Consent form (see Appendix 2b. — UTS/NSW DET Consent form), which was endorsed by the school principal.

This information ensured participants were notified of their rights prior to the commencement of this study. These documents informed participants that their involvement was voluntary. In addition, participants were made aware of the processes for obtaining more information on the research, registering complaints and the right of withdrawal.

4.7.2 Confidentiality

An ethical consideration for this study was to assure participants that confidentiality would be maintained during the research process and with regard to future use of the data in publications or presentations. This issue was addressed in the Consent Form and the Participant Information Sheet. The consent form advises participants that the research data, including audio recordings, gathered from this trial “may be published in a form that does not identify them in any way”. The participant information sheet addresses the issue of confidentiality by informing participants of the UTS guidelines for security, publication and storage of data. The use of procedures such as transcript verification and coded data, with the codes stored separately, is also designed to maintain the confidentiality of the participants.

The researcher also addressed these issues verbally with participants during the relationship-building phase. In session one of the intervention participants were encouraged to discuss and contribute to the compilation of Behavioural Protocols, including these aspects for the research. At each session participants were reminded of these guidelines. All documents produced from the data were de-identified by using a pseudonym for the participant’s name. The school details were changed from school names to general areas, e.g., southern and south western Sydney schools.

Although the researcher in the initial meeting and subsequent interviews reiterated confidentiality, she was surprised at the honesty of interview responses. Some teachers were critical of their current principal. The researcher had to be careful that her post-discussions with principals did not give any indication of the teachers’ views.

4.7.3 Minimisation of Risk or Harm

One ethical principle when dealing with humans involved in research, was for participants to feel comfortable with the research process. This entailed the consideration that the research environment was safe and free from threats that may harm participants in any way.

In this study there was very little likelihood of risk or harm to participants. One anticipated risk was the tension between the multiple roles of the researcher as facilitator and support person. To address this, the researcher explained that the constraints of the financial resources available for the trial resulted in a lack of funds to employ another person as a facilitator for the intervention. Another anticipated risk was the power of the researcher as a school

principal. However, because the researcher was a retired principal, the participants were unlikely to perceive a threat to career prospects (panel convenor/interviewee) or association with their school principal.

Another key consideration was to avoid risk of harm to participants involved in the research who may feel anxious, embarrassed and unable to answer a question/offer an opinion or who felt the information asked of them was an invasion of their privacy. To address this, the researcher adhered to the UTS guidelines by designing a mixture of open-ended interview questions and to set the scene for the interviews by explaining the ways these issues would be addressed. The researcher also planned the sessions for the intervention to avoid risk of harm.

The researcher had no pre-existing relationship with the research participants in the trial schools.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the nature, purpose and function of the Design Based Research (DBR) methodology. While the literature revealed that the approach is rigorous and theory-driven, the review proposed the use of DBR as a suitable methodology for quality educational research because it has the potential to narrow the credibility gap and provide effective practitioner research in context, resulting in improved practice.

The rationale for using elements of DBR methodology in this study was presented. The capacity of the methodology to foster the proposed Fullan's (2003) PLC approach that promotes collaborative practitioner learning, as well as to cater for the proposed range of strategies that foster adult learning, was discussed. The strengths and limitations of the methodology were critiqued. The DBR processes were examined, especially the key elements, namely the context, intervention and multiple methods approach. The three key learning theories for this study were outlined as Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory, Argyris and Schön's (1978) double loop learning theory and Isaacs' (1993) triple loop learning theory. This resulted in the researcher strongly proposing elements of DBR methodology as a relevant approach for this study.

The data sources were presented, namely the interviews, the Leadership Learning Intervention, participants' learning journals and the researcher's observations. Finally, the analysis process was outlined. Of interest was the issue of maintaining the integrity of the

Design Principles in the analysis process and the challenges of qualitative data analysis. The chapter concluded by discussing the ethical considerations for this study.

The next chapter outlines the development of the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI) that was implemented in semester one, 2008, with participants from state schools in the southern and south western suburbs of Sydney, NSW.

Chapter Five: The Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI)

The previous chapter introduced the Design Based Research (DBR) methodology proposed for this study. The context and characteristics of DBR were presented together with the rationale for using the DBR methodology in this study. The chapter also made reference to the three key learning theories: Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory, Argyris and Schön's (1978) double loop learning theory and Isaacs' (1993) triple loop learning theory that underpin the proposed leadership learning strategies. Details of the research participants were given. The four data sources: interviews, the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI), participants' learning journals and the researcher's observations, were outlined. The analysis process was also presented. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the ethical considerations related to the research design.

Overview

This chapter begins by explaining the development of the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI). In particular, the rationale and motivation for the researcher's design choices are discussed. The design choices incorporated into the LLI included collegial groupings and the multiple methods approach. These choices emerged from the researcher's understanding of the literature reviewed and the experiences she encountered at the workplace. Next, the activities of the Design Based Research (DBR) approach are presented. Of note are activities one to four from which data were collected for analysis.

5.1 Development of the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI)

This section outlines the choices the researcher made in designing the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI) to enable practitioners to test the multiple methods proposed for addressing the overarching research question: What are the ways in which an intervention can promote leadership learning, development and succession in schools?

The main reasons for the choice of DBR methodology for this study were that it provides a structured intervention for workplace research, and integrates theory and practice. A strength of DBR is the opportunity it offers for interaction and collaboration amongst research participants. The intervention design was guided by Fullan's (2003) PLC approach, described in Chapter Two. The author felt that the strength of this approach was its focus on participants' experiences. Accordingly she felt that the intervention design would benefit

from inclusion of features from Fullan's approach and would lead to capacity building and changed practices.

Another strength of the DBR methodology is the practitioner-based systematic testing of conjectures and hypotheses about the research processes of documentation, analysis and reflection (Dede et al., 2004; Design Based Research Collective, 2003; Reeves, McKenney & Herrington, 2011; van den Akker, 1999). This structured approach results in a clear direction for participants, supports collaborative practitioner-based research, and works towards an outcome of Design Principles (Reeves, 2000, 2006; Van Aken, 2005).

The researcher explored the ways DBR methodology had been applied in the field. She finally chose to use the four phases of the Reeves' (2000, 2006) Design Research model (see section 4.2.2) for this study. The researcher's rationale was that this model focused on a goal orientation phase and an iterative phase that provided a forum for testing both the FRPC and informal conversation methods for their value in leadership development.

Since DBR methodology is theory driven, the researcher chose to use the learning theories of Kolb (1984), Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978), and Isaacs (1993) to guide the intervention design. These learning theories were considered appropriate because they suggest that high-order leadership learning and development is a result of context-related learning experiences and iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection and accordingly fitted with the researcher's personal conceptual position.

The LLI tested the practice-based strategies that flowed from these theoretical conjectures. The flexibility of the DBR approach meant it had the potential to incorporate multiple methods of practice into the LLI. This aspect of the LLI placed the focus on the teacher as a learner and the multiple methods helped participants to practise and document the range of experiential and reflective learning experiences centred on leadership issues. The researcher's choice of the above design elements in the LLI aimed at ensuring participants would engage in learning processes that catered for their stage of development and would incorporate the three domains on learning. Evidence from the literature indicated that these processes had the potential to promote high-order learning through the intervention, which would result in the teachers having a broader understanding of the nature of leadership, fostering their attitudes and beliefs about leadership and developing contextual expertise.

5.2 Description of the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI)

The LLI was trialled during terms one and two (12 weeks) of 2008. Teachers were advised of their commitments and the program at the initial relationship-building meetings.

The literature reviewed and the researcher's anecdotal experiences, as an educator and trainer, informed her choice of the essential design elements that constitute the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI) outlined in this section. These design elements are collegial groupings and the multiple methods approach. These elements resulted in a diverse range of activities being conducted during the intervention which helped participants to develop their views on a set of Design Principles to address the research question. For the purposes of this study, the term Design Principles refers to the strategies developed by participants, during the Leadership Learning Intervention.

5.2.1. Collegial groupings

The rationale for collegial groupings for the intervention was initially guided by Fullan's (2003) professional learning community approach (PLC) for learning and informal conversation as discussed above. Additionally, the literature on the potential of situated learning and social learning theory for the promotion of high-order adult learning (see sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2) confirmed the advantages of using collegial groupings in the workplace, particularly with regard to teacher engagement.

Having decided on the importance of collegial groupings for the intervention, the next step was to consider models of professional development. The researcher's experience as a trainer indicated that a model for professional development designed by O'Neill and Lamm (2000) was a suitable one for the LLI, because it established a context for leadership development and contained a clear role for the collegial groups with regard to peer coaching. This model is further explicated below.

O'Neill and Lamm (2000) two-tiered model of professional development

The model features two collegial groupings that promote the ethos of a professional learning community. Additionally the model provides structured opportunities for professional dialogue, self/group reflection, Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) and informal

conversation. The literature review indicated that these strategies have the potential to promote leadership learning.

O'Neill and Lamm (2000) explored the most appropriate methods for the professional development of business personnel. Their project engaged participants through a two-tiered learning model with collegial groupings for experiential learning in the workplace enabling “practitioner inquiry, reflection and feedback” (p. 25).

In the first tier of the O'Neill and Lamm (2000) model (see Figure 5.1) were four smaller Action Learning Groups, each with six participants to practise coaching on workplace skills. The second tier comprised a Coaching Team of four peer coaches. The strength of this model was the inbuilt peer coaching aspect of the Action Learning Groups and the Coaching Team. There was no reliance on an expert/novice model as has been a developmental strategy in the past with the NSW state school system. The focus was on experiential learning at the workplace and collegial groupings that fostered informal social interactions and strong relationships for supporting collective learning. Coupled with this was the reflective element fostered through the coaching. The researcher was hopeful that this model was worthwhile in the state school context since other peer-related activities such as action learning and teaming have proved successful. Another consideration was the limited pool of veteran teachers to draw upon for expert/novice coaching which gave impetus to exploring alternative approaches.

LEARNING COACH TEAM

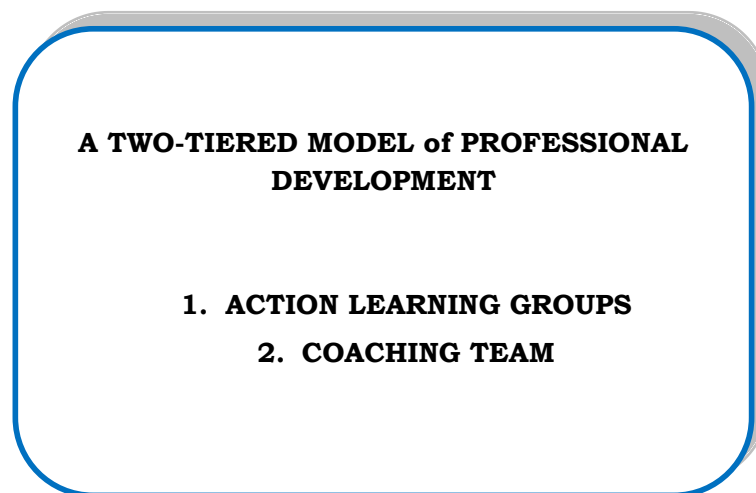


Figure 5.1 O'Neill and Lamm (2000) two-tiered model of professional development

The researcher adapted the O'Neill and Lamm (2000) two-tiered model of professional development to suit this study. The collegial groupings consisted of a whole group Learning Team of fourteen teachers for three of the four phases and three smaller Learning Groups (A, B, C) of four or five teachers for the iterative cycles in phase three. The researcher's negotiations with one principal resulted in Group A (five participants from the same school) forming a discrete Learning Group during phase three of the intervention.

When comparing the O'Neill and Lamm model (2000) with the LLI an initial difference was that the LLI intervention used DBR methodology, particularly the four phases of the Reeves' (2000, 2006) Design Research model.

5.2.2 Multiple Methods approach

The Design Based Research (DBR) methodology led to the researcher using a multiple methods approach in the LLI to test the solutions proposed. For the purposes of this study the term multiple methods refers to a sequential use of a suite of methods (Caracelli & Greene, 1997).

The multiple methods proposed for this study by the researcher have been adapted from the various leadership strategies outlined in the literature review to suit the context and participant sample. In addition to these leadership strategies, the researcher wanted to explore further the notion proposed by McDougall (1923) of the influence of the three domains of the mind on the learning. This led to her decision to include learning journals as an additional method in the LLI. The journals were also another way to test the significance of diverse reflective learning processes for leadership development.

The use of a multiple methods approach in the LLI fostered a variety of opportunities for participants to practise experiential and reflective learning. Participants were also encouraged to explore the problem regarding a reduction in aspirants for the role of principal, frame a research question and test the solutions they collaboratively developed. These methods were designed to stimulate higher-order learning, build capacity and improve participants' research skills. Additionally, the multiple methods were used to promote the triangulation of data and increase the reliability of the evidence. The methods incorporated iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection, Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC), work-based leadership projects, informal conversation and the learning journal, as outlined below.

Iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection

These iterative cycles are a characteristic of DBR methodology and were proposed by the researcher for this study because the literature indicates these processes foster higher-order learning and refine practitioners' research skills (Fink & Resnick, 2001; Reid & O'Donoghue, 2004). The two iterative cycles for the study focussed on FRPC around the leadership projects and informal conversation where participants had the opportunity to practise professional dialogue and reflection around leadership issues. A key limitation of the study with regard to the iterative cycles was the lack of resources to enable the series of iterations normally conducted with DBR methodology. The researcher acknowledged that it was not feasible to disrupt the school organisation in order to conduct further iterations. She was also concerned that she may lose the engagement of participants because further iterations meant the duration of the LLI was likely to impact on the school calendar and teacher responsibilities, such as exam preparation and assignment marking. Evidence from participants' journals shows they benefited from two iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection.

Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC)

Chapter One identified an apparent trend affecting leadership development and succession planning regarding a limited pool of veteran leaders in the future for conducting leadership development methods such as mentoring and coaching. Stemming from Ladyshevsky's work on peer coaching (2006) outlined in Chapter Three (see section 3.4.2), the researcher had a theory that she wanted to test regarding the significance of peer coaching as a sustainable method for leadership learning and development. The literature (Eaker, DuFour & Burnette, 2002; Ladyshevsky & Varey, 2003; Robertson, 2004) advocates the strength of the peer coaching method for fostering collaboration, higher-order critical thinking and reflection to improve practice via feedback from participants. Based on the peer coaching literature the researcher went through a number of iterations to arrive at the model of FRPC she advocated for trialling in the LLI.

For this study, the researcher designed a FRPC model as a method whereby participants were encouraged to practise iterative cycles of individual and group professional dialogue and reflection around their work-based leadership projects. FRPC encourages each participant to adopt a role as the facilitator, coach or coachee, with the roles being rotated within the group.

The researcher preferred this method because the structure not only encouraged social interactions and relationship-building within a small group (maximum six) but also promoted inquiry and reflection facilitated by the GROW model of focused questioning (see Figure 5.2). The GROW model, described below, had the potential to be adapted to the school setting because it was time-effective for busy teachers and did not rely on the resources of veterans, as did the expert/novice models currently used in schools. The GROW model of questioning focused the group members on the individual’s project and used constructive feedback and supportive relationships to solve leadership issues and bring about changed practices in the school setting.

The researcher adopted the GROW model from the work of Sir John Whitmore (1992). The GROW acronym stands for Goals, Reality, Options and Way forward (also known as Wrap-up). The GROW model has four stages that provided a framework both for individual and peer coaching practices when applied to the participants’ leadership projects.

G	Goal – This is where the participant wants to be. The goal is defined in such a way that it is very clear to the participant when they have achieved it.
R	Reality – This is how far the participant is away from their goal. The participant explains the Reality of the situation at the present time. This process helps the participant to objectively look at the situation and identify the obstacles and enablers. Next, the participant maps out all the steps needed to achieve their goal.
O	Options – Once obstacles have been identified the participant needs to find Options for dealing with them if they are to make progress.
W	Way Forward – The options then need to be converted into action steps, with timeframes that will take the participant to their goal. These steps become the Way Forward.

Figure 5.2 Stages of the GROW model

The group members are encouraged to contribute in the role of a coach both in inquiry and reflection, particularly in providing constructive feedback on the coachee’s leadership actions. The facilitator’s role is to ensure each group member works through the four stages of the GROW model. The roles of coach and coachee are rotated to promote team interaction, until all members have been interviewed and received constructive feedback from their peers. In session four, the researcher adopted the role of facilitator to guide participants in the peer

coaching process so they would feel comfortable enough to conduct their own FRPC questioning using the GROW model in session five.

Work-based leadership projects

The researcher included work-based practices in the intervention because the literature emphasised the influence of the context and social interactions and relationships on the level of learning that occurs (see section 3.3.1.2). Furthermore, the literature proposed that work-based practices promote the knowledge expansion essential for leadership development (Fink & Resnick, 2001; Neubert & Stover, 1994; Robertson, 2004). The work-based practices method in this study is centred on whole-school leadership projects that encouraged participants to practise experiential learning in the workplace.

Another reason for the inclusion of this element was based on the researcher's belief, from her prior experience as an educator, that the participants needed to choose their own work-based leadership projects so that they felt they had ownership of the change processes they conducted. Coupled with testing this belief in the LLI, the researcher wanted to explore whether projects, to be effective, need to be suited to the individual's stage of development and needed to incorporate the three domains of learning.

Prior to commencing this study each participant was asked to choose a leadership project to implement across their school over a period of five weeks during the intervention. The researcher used the "nudge principle" (McCulla et al, 2007) and relied on school principals to guide their teachers to identify an appropriate whole school project that focused on the development of their leadership skills. The researcher made the mistake of assuming that the principals knew the developmental level of their teachers and would encourage them to choose appropriate projects. The overall result was that while the majority of leadership projects were initiated by the participants, with some building on projects or roles they had commenced prior to the study, in the case of at least six participants, the principal made the decision regarding the project the participants would conduct. Of interest are the different decision-making processes used by participants to select leadership projects. (This is explored in the findings – Chapter Six.)

The leadership projects gave participants an opportunity through the FRPC sessions to focus on an aspect of individual/group problem-solving related to leadership issues. Each project

was conducted by participants who had the opportunity to discuss their leadership issues with their chosen collegial group. By using work-based leadership projects, together with informal conversation, participants had the opportunity to “learn by doing” (Weick, 1995, p. 3).

Informal conversation

The literature supports the role of informal conversation (see section 3.3.1.3) as an important strategy for achieving transformational learning. The researcher also explored this area in relation to the influence of the narrative and story-telling on learning. Hence, the researcher included this element in the intervention because, while there was limited research in this area, it was closely linked to the FRPC method that she had decided to trial.

Planning for the intervention included consideration of opportunities to encourage a comfortable environment that promoted informal conversations e.g., provision of afternoon tea, choice of participant’s school as a venue. The level of participant engagement was also considered, particularly in the FRPC sessions, through the negotiation of relief time so teachers were focused and not under stress.

The learning journal

The researcher chose to include a learning journal method in this study to encourage reflective learning with the collegial groups around the leadership projects and to explore the influence of the three domains of the mind on leadership learning.

To minimise time commitments for the participants, the researcher gave them the option to use audio-recorders to present their oral reflections, or to complete written journals. The accessibility of audio-recording technology for use as a journal was limited and this may have influenced some participant’s choice of delivery modes. At the end of the final session, of the fourteen participants, thirteen submitted a learning journal. Of the thirteen, eight teachers submitted an audio-recorded journal, while five completed a written journal. Of interest was the difference in the data sourced from the five written journals as compared to the eight audio-recorded journals. The audio-recorded journals contained richer and more in-depth accounts of the participants’ experiences, detailing their inner thoughts and actions and the tone adopted was that of an informal conversation with the researcher.

Participants were asked to complete at least one reflective journal entry per session regarding their experiences of the research processes. At the end of each intervention session (one to five), participants were given an optional Reflections sheet (see Appendix 4.) with four open-ended questions to motivate their immediate feedback on the intervention. While all teachers referred to the stimulus questions, some followed this format religiously and others used it as a starting point for their own reflections.

The participants' journals focused on their learning about leadership and their responses revealed a range of thoughts, behaviours and emotions regarding this learning. The findings are detailed in Chapter Six. The data demonstrate that participants wrote or talked about the interactive learning and coaching experiences they encountered, as a result of the FRPC activities with the Learning Group. The level of learning varied from individuals being emotionally engaged and expressing anger or confusion with their leadership projects, to participants showing a willingness to change their leadership practices and philosophy. The participants' journals provided evidence to support the premise that a learning journal has the capacity to promote higher-order learning and leadership development.

The essential design elements the researcher chose for the trial are illustrated in the LLI diagram (see Figure 5.3). This diagram is not presented as a model; rather it is an illustration to encapsulate the complex, multi-layered and dynamic character of the collegial groupings and the multiple methods approach developed by the researcher for this study.

LEADERSHIP LEARNING INTERVENTION

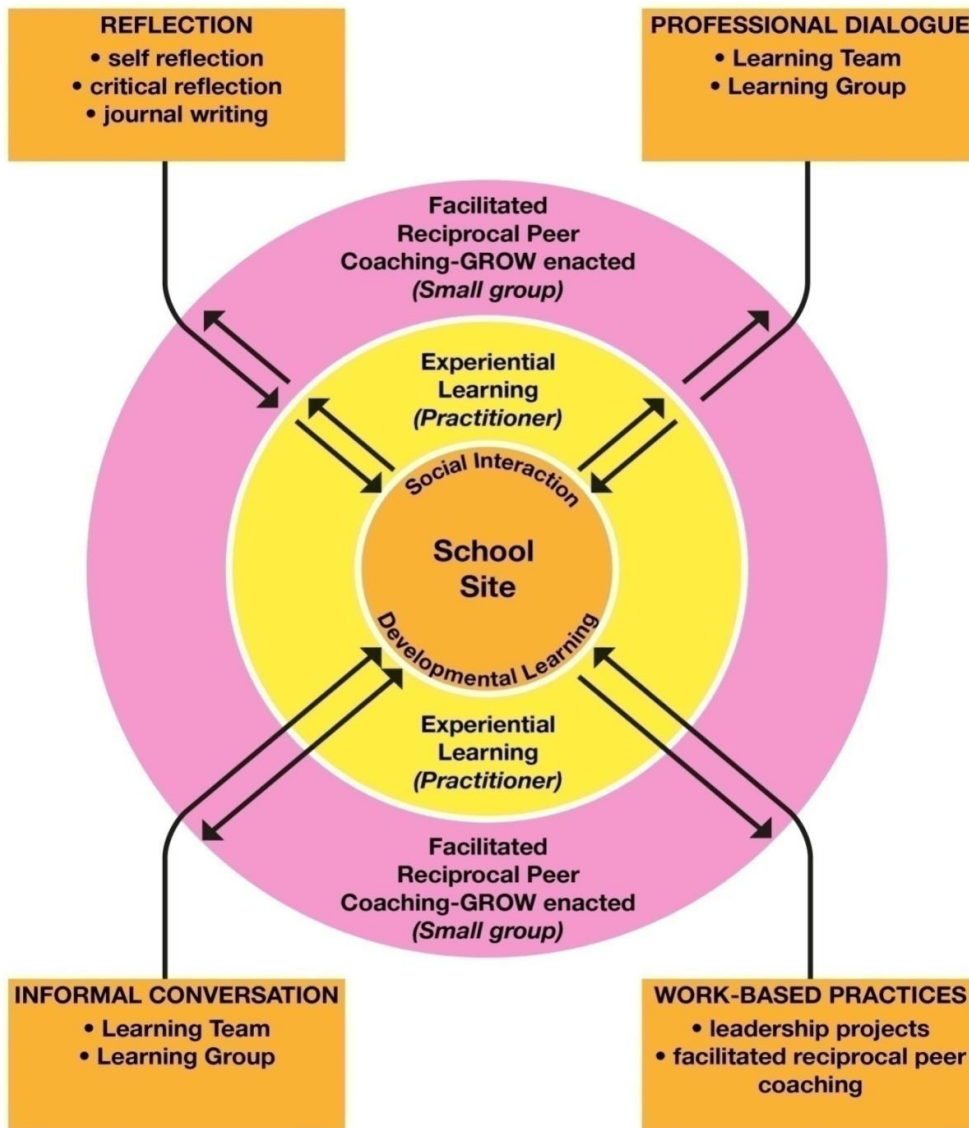


Figure 5.3 Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI) diagram

Summary

This section traced the choices made by the researcher to develop the LLI. The researcher also described the key design elements of collegial groupings and the multiple methods

approach that she proposed for use in the LLI. The rationale and motivation for the researcher's choices was given. The iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection coupled with the Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching method were chosen to foster reflective learning and encourage higher-order leadership learning experiences amongst teachers in this study. Additionally, by using methods such as work-based leadership projects and informal conversation, participants were provided with the opportunity to practise experiential learning in the workplace. The potential for the use of a learning journal to foster higher-order learning and leadership development was discussed.

5.3 The Design Based Research (DBR) approach

The format involved six sessions conducted at participants' schools between 4pm—5.30pm on weekdays over a three month period. Session dates were negotiated to cause minimal disruption to those involved. Relief time was negotiated with all principals, bar one, so that teachers could conduct phase three of the intervention during school time. Due to limited funds for trialling the intervention, the researcher took on the facilitator role during the intervention. In sessions four and five she also acted as a resource support for participants with their leadership projects. Participants were provided with reading materials at each session. Participants' attendance was excellent (two teachers missed the initial session, and the researcher conducted a one-on-one catch-up session with them at their school).

The six sessions of the LLI were organised to give participants experience in each phase of the DBR methodology. The four phases are entitled:

- Defining the problem;
- Developing a solution;
- Iterations (2);
- Producing the Design Principles.

A great deal of thought and discussion between the researcher and her doctoral supervisors went into planning the six sessions of the LLI. In particular, consideration was given to the type of activities implemented, their duration and sequence. Each session started with an afternoon tea to focus the participants' mind-set on the program and to promote informal conversation amongst the team. Ice-breakers and stimulating activities were used throughout

the program to create a positive, relaxed environment for learning, which enhanced participant engagement and team building.

Each phase gave participants the opportunity to interact with collegial groups and engage in a multiple methods approach that promoted practitioner-based research. These methods were designed to help participants identify the research problem, frame the research question, test the learning theories underpinning the research, implement the leadership learning strategies they propose and collaboratively develop a set of Design Principles. Each phase is outlined below, together with an identification of the significant activities (1-4) designed to produce data that contribute to the participant-developed Design Principles. The key data collected from these activities are discussed in Chapter Six.

5.3.1 Phase One: Defining the problem

(Sessions one and two, 6 and 18 March 2008)

The purpose of phase one was two-fold: to introduce two theory-based sessions with participants grouped in a larger Learning Team, and to establish the learning environment for practitioner-based research. This environment was created through the behaviour protocols discussed, team building activities, and an outline of the DBR methodology and phases used in this process.

Additionally, interim feedback was provided on some common threads arising from the teacher interviews, to demonstrate that the participants' views provided valuable research data. Professional dialogue and self and group reflection methods were used to explore leadership development issues, particularly those pertaining to the research problem.

In these sessions the fourteen teachers worked collaboratively on professional dialogue and reflection activities to define the research problem regarding leadership development for experienced teachers. The researcher performed the role of facilitator in conducting these activities. Each session in phase one concluded with the Learning Team acting as a focus group for collaborative feedback on the research process.

5.3.1.1 Session one

Participants were firstly involved in activities designed to stimulate their thinking on the concept of leadership, particularly their own leadership philosophies. Since this was familiar ground to the participants it served to set them at ease, prior to moving to unfamiliar ground. The theories of learning that underpinned the intervention were introduced by the facilitator.

Activity one: Mapping the current context of leadership development for experienced teachers

This activity was significant because it promoted practitioner-based research and laid the groundwork on issues for further exploration by participants regarding the Design Principles for leadership development. The method used was iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection with the researcher facilitating the activity. This process encouraged the Learning Team to explore the current context of leadership development for experienced teachers and identify the research problem.

The Team was divided into three small groups who engaged in professional dialogue and reflection using reading materials related to the projected demographics and current trends in leadership development. Participants identified the elements that limited leadership development for experienced teachers and reflected on these elements in relation to issues they encountered with leadership development in their own schools. The larger Learning Team was then brought together for further informal conversation. The points made during the Learning Team's feedback were written on butcher's paper.

The Learning Team's feedback data (see section 6.2.1) was used by participants to define the problem. This data was re-visited in session three to help participants identify strategies to trial that would address the practitioner-developed research question.

5.3.1.2 Session two

This session further trialled the strategies of iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection in the collegial Learning Team. The researcher acted as a facilitator and introduced participants to a variety of leadership theories and the current NSW DET School Leadership Capability Framework (SLCF, 2002). This session also gave participants the opportunity to develop collaborative practitioner research processes.

Initially, the facilitator discussed information about the types of leadership generally practiced. First, leadership as a top down influence (Senge 1990) on others through the leader's use of their personal traits, behaviour and relationships with their followers. Then the facilitator introduced the collective notion of leadership as working with others in a group or "professional learning community" (Fullan, 2003). Participants became familiar with the terminology of transactional, transformational and distributed leadership. Next, the facilitator outlined a chronology of the key proponents of leadership philosophies that have been a focus of training in NSW state schools, such as those proposed by Covey (1992), Senge (1990), Sergiovanni (1996) and Fullan (2001, 2003, 2004, 2006).

The facilitator then explained the significance of the NSW DET School Leadership Capability Framework (2002) which describes the capabilities displayed by effective school leaders. The facilitator informed participants that the framework detailed the set of leadership descriptors for each of the five interrelated areas. These areas are based on joint research by Geoff Scott, [then] Professor at the University of Technology, Sydney (2003) and the NSW Department of Education and Training in collaboration with the NSW Secondary Principals' Council (SPC) and the NSW Primary Principals' Association (PPA).

This framework was introduced to participants so that they could understand the complexity of the leadership skills needed to perform the principal's role. Due to the time constraints of this session, participants were given the option between sessions to complete the 360 degree survey, a support tool for the School Leadership Capability Framework (NSW DET Developing your leadership capabilities, Part 1, 2003a). This survey was designed to be used in conjunction with the School Leadership Capability Framework (see 1.5.1.), that mapped leadership descriptors based on earlier research of effective principals in NSW state schools (Scott, 2003). The survey provides a 360 degree perspective of an individual's leadership capacity. This was achieved by the individual, together with their nominated colleagues and the school principal, each completing the same survey about the individual's leadership skills. The facilitator recommended the 360 degree survey as a non-threatening way of encouraging participants to reflect on their own strengths and areas for leadership development as well as being able to accept criticisms from other personnel, whom they respected, about their leadership abilities.

The researcher then facilitated the participants' presentations, in small groups, on their selected leadership readings. With each activity the teachers practised professional dialogue

in small groups, listening to others and reporting to the larger Learning Team for further dialogue and reflection. This resulted in participants becoming confident in the use of the research processes and articulating their views. These strategies helped the participants to become familiar with each other, work together as a collaborative Learning Team and refine the problem to be researched in this study.

Next, the facilitator demonstrated the FRPC strategy to the Learning Team. She used a leadership issue nominated by a team member as an example to help her walk the team through the stages of the GROW model. This was a non-threatening way for the team to become familiar with the strategy. The GROW model used four stages and focused questioning to structure group inquiry and reflection processes regarding the participants' leadership projects. The team then discussed the strengths and challenges of the GROW model and were given a question guide to use in phase three when they practised the model.

5.3.2 Phase Two: Developing a solution

(Session three, 27 March 2008)

The purpose of this phase was to provide the collegial Learning Team with an opportunity to conduct practitioner-based research. The researcher facilitated collaborative activities to focus each participant on the challenges of the research problem. These activities supported participants to frame a practitioner-developed research question, of which they had ownership, and to propose strategies to investigate as possible solutions to the problem.

The facilitator guided the team to revisit the group feedback sheets of information developed in session one, – the elements identified as limiting leadership development. These sheets indicated the group's views on the theories of learning and leadership styles as well as the research problem they identified. This activity focused the team discussion on refining the research problem and proposing suitable research strategies to address the problem.

The Learning Team divided into smaller Learning Groups to plan for phase three. The session concluded with each participant completing an interim evaluation of the three sessions.

5.3.2.1 Session three

This session contained another significant activity facilitated by the researcher that progressed the practitioner-based research, and led to the collection of evidence that they would later use to deduce the Design Principles for leadership development. The method used was iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection. Participants were given the opportunity to reflect on familiar learning experiences that helped them to develop their own leadership skills. To assist with this task they also revisited the Learning Team's feedback data from session one. This use of familiar knowledge stimulated professional dialogue amongst the Learning Team on the research problem.

Activity two: Suggesting leadership strategies to trial

The researcher facilitated this activity. The participants were asked to suggest strategies, other than those already proposed for trialling in the intervention that they identified as having the potential to address the research problem. The result was a list of the strategies the Learning Team agreed to trial (see section 6.2.2, Figure 6.1) in order to discover whether these approaches address the practitioner-developed research question and promote leadership development for experienced teachers. Next, participants were asked to write their name beside a strategy they were willing to trial during phase three. This was a non-threatening way of enhancing participant ownership of the practitioner research. Of note is the "shadowing strategy" that presented a resource challenge to the researcher (see section 7.3).

Of the fourteen teachers, thirteen volunteered to trial and give feedback on one or more of the leadership strategies proposed. Of note is that Jocelyn did not volunteer to trial a strategy (this behaviour is discussed in the findings). At this stage of the project, asking for volunteers was not a contentious issue because participants were aware of their commitments and sufficiently engaged with the research.

The facilitator used the list of strategies as a stimulus for the Learning Team to discuss the purpose of the research and to collaboratively draft their own practitioner-developed research question, as a subset of the overarching research question.

This practitioner-developed research question was refined and used by the facilitator and participants in phase three to discuss whether their research addressed the overall purpose of

the study. The practitioner-developed research question was: *Which learning principles/strategies (do you believe) are effective or beneficial for successful leadership in schools to achieve predetermined outcomes?*

This approach was somewhat long in execution (based on interim evaluative comments and the researcher's observations). The reason for this lengthy discussion was that participants were new to the collaborative process and to each other. Time was taken up with the facilitation of participants' thought processes. The facilitator encouraged participants' suggestions, ensuring they felt they had ownership of the research, and stimulated discussion and reflection on the participants' own set of Design Principles for promoting leadership learning, development and succession.

The next activity involved the participants choosing a smaller Learning Group to join for phase three and using the group time to discuss their leadership projects.

The school principal and researcher negotiated that Group A would be a discrete group of five participants from the same school. Based on her experience as a trainer, the researcher wanted the remaining nine participants to have the opportunity to divide into two groups (Group B and Group C) and self-select the group they would join. The researcher felt that this would result in more cohesive collegial groups, because the participants would be confident that they could work with each other. The group size was restricted to a maximum of six members, as the literature shows that larger numbers are less effective (Metz & Goose, 2007).

The three Learning Groups were asked to organise their meeting times and venues for the next phase and to complete an action plan for their leadership project. This activity focused the small groups on team building and leadership issues such as strategic planning.

Activity three: Interim evaluation of phases one and two

The final activity in this phase, the participants' interim evaluations of phases one and two, is a third piece of significant evidence that demonstrates participants' evolving views on leadership development. The method used was self-reflection. Participants were asked several questions that required them to reflect on the research process to date. Their views are discussed in Chapter Six (see section 6.2.3).

5.3.3 Phase Three: Iterations (2)

(Sessions four and five, held at negotiated times from 7 April 2008 – 13 May 2008)

Phase three was designed to explore the iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection.

Each participant trialled their voluntary strategies and leadership project in the school context during the seven weeks of the two iterative cycles (N.B. Two weeks of school holidays occurred during this time period.). They reported their progress to the smaller Learning Group over two FRPC sessions, in the third and seventh weeks. Participants practised the FRPC strategy (see section 3.4.3) using the GROW model of questioning (see section 5.2.2) which focused on the key elements of project development. These collaborative processes fostered informal conversations and peer coaching amongst the group on their work-based leadership projects. A key element of the FRPC strategy was the opportunity for group members to act as critical friends, giving constructive feedback to help each other develop and/or refine their projects.

Throughout this iterative phase, the experiential learning and reflection activities encouraged higher-order individual and group reflection on practice. The practitioner's thoughts, actions and emotions regarding their leadership project were recorded in the participants' learning journal and through discussions at the FRPC sessions. The researcher's observations were also recorded in a journal. The informal conversation initially centred on the use of the GROW model but often revisited the three learning theories of Kolb (1984), Argyris and Schön (1974, 1978), and Isaacs (1993), introduced in phase one.

Session four, was facilitated by the researcher until participants became familiar with the GROW model. Participants were encouraged to speak about the leadership issues that were arising from the implementation of their project. The initial questioning progressed slowly as participants were unfamiliar with the FRPC process and had to be guided through the GROW model.

In session five, held after the school holidays, participants led the FRPC and were more articulate as they grew in confidence with the model. At this point, the researcher took on the role of a support person, suggesting ideas and providing information/resources. Participants thoughtfully questioned each other about their projects, offered constructive feedback and

further support such as resources and sharing of expertise. The FRPC assisted participants to refine the strategies they were implementing for their leadership projects.

Activity four: The Learning Group's findings

This session contains a significant activity that helped participants to refine their views on leadership development. The researcher acted as a support person and participants used the methods of FRPC and critical reflection in their Learning Groups on the practitioner-developed research question. The participants discussed the learning principles and the voluntary strategies being trialled in relation to leadership development. Participants collated their thoughts on a proforma supplied by the researcher. The researcher asked a volunteer to present each Learning Group's findings to the larger Learning Team during session six. This data is discussed in Chapter Six (see section 6.2.4).

5.3.4 Phase Four: Producing the Design Principles

(Session six, 19 May 2008)

During Phase four the Learning Groups were asked to provide feedback on their practitioner research. The researcher facilitated this session and the Learning Team collaborated to reach consensus on the findings that addressed the practitioner-developed research question. The Learning Team produced the new Design Principles based on their views and the strategies they tested during the iterative phase.

5.3.4.1 Session six: Design Principles

The researcher used three activities designed to help the Learning Team reach consensus on the Design Principles that addressed the practitioner-developed research question. The methods used were: formal presentations, iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection and informal conversation. Volunteers presented their Learning Group's research findings to the Learning Team. The Learning Team was then divided into three smaller groups to discuss the findings. Each small group was asked to identify three priorities they felt addressed the practitioner-developed research question, and to report back to the Learning Team. The Learning Team was then given the opportunity to brainstorm these findings on butcher's paper and reach consensus on the most important findings. The

researcher asked the team to reflect on the prioritised findings and identify the key Design Principles for leadership development.

The eight Design Principles collaboratively identified by the Learning Team were:

- (i) “Critical reflection (self/group). To encourage self-reflection and give the individual a scaffold for reflection;
- (ii) Professional dialogue with external/like-minded individuals;
- (iii) Opportunities to regularly meet with professional learning groups outside the school environment. This gives a different perspective;
- (iv) A mentor who is a good role model for specific feedback/advice/guidance. A person whom the mentee approaches e.g., use retired principals experienced in leadership who have skills to impart;
- (v) *Internship – an opportunity to relieve in a leadership role (either on a rotating basis in other schools, or in a different environment, or create an Assistant Principal volunteer position in schools) to gain leadership training. Teachers will learn to lead by mini-opportunities in a leader’s role;
- (vi) Shadowing (watching to see how it is done)/modelling (taking an active role). Opportunities for observation in a range of settings including different schools;
- (vii) Practical experience/on the job training. Using the principle of learning by doing. This experience leads to in-school networking and training opportunities for aspiring leaders to develop their skills; and
- (viii) Debrief with a friend (having tried something new).”

*NB. Internship is defined as an unpaid professional placement for an extended period of time.

Chapter six discusses the data from the key activities (1-4) that demonstrate the process whereby participants deduced the Design Principles.

Summary

An outline was provided of the strategies that were trialled in each phase of the LLI. The key activities (1-4), used to promote participant engagement and to practise experiential and reflective learning, were presented. The different methods used to help participants deduce the Design Principles for leadership learning and development were discussed. Of interest was the list of strategies developed by participants to address the practitioner-developed research question and the teachers' engagement in the FRPC sessions.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter provided a detailed account of the motives and rationale for the researcher's choices that shaped the design of the LLI trialled with fourteen participants from NSW state schools. The specific design elements that constituted the LLI were described. The purpose of each session and the activities conducted by the researcher, as facilitator and support person, and by the participants, were outlined. A discussion of the multiple methods used demonstrated the opportunities participants were given to develop their own set of Design Principles for leadership learning and development.

The next chapter explores the evidence from the LLI that led to the emergence of the practitioner-developed Design Principles and examines key evidence from the other data sources. The findings are presented and the major factors for leadership development are discussed.

Chapter Six: Findings

The previous chapter provided a detailed account of the design, development and implementation of the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI). The rationale for using collegial groupings and a multiple methods approach was discussed. An outline was given of the two-tiered model of professional development used by O'Neill and Lamm (2000). This model was significant for this study because it provided a basis for the composition of the collegial groupings used in the intervention. Of note were the multiple methods used in the study to trial experiential learning and reflection.

Overview

This chapter examines the data collected and analysed from specific activities conducted during the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI). This evidence demonstrates the evolution of the practitioner-developed Design Principles. A second set of evidence was collected and analysed based on common themes apparent across the data sources outlined in Chapter 4 (see section 4.5). The analysis of these data sets indicated that there are four major factors that have the potential to contribute to leadership learning and development, and to the growth of a leadership philosophy for experienced teachers. These factors are: the significance of the principal's role; the engagement of experienced teachers in appropriate strategies that will enhance their leadership learning and development; the role peers play in leadership learning and development; and the need to cater for an experienced teacher's leadership growth. This chapter discusses the evidence for these factors. Of note is that the Design Principles are incorporated in two of the above factors: those concerning appropriate strategies and the role of peers in leadership learning and development. The rationale for this decision is that six of the eight Design Principles provide data supporting the effectiveness of these factors for leadership development.

6.1 Analysis of the data sources

The recorded interviews, with fourteen participants, were the initial source of data. During the LLI, data were collected by hard copy and/or audio-recordings of selected activities. The data collected from the Learning Team were amassed through focus group discussions, information from group brainstorming and individual evaluations. With the Learning Groups, data were gathered from audio-recordings of the two FRPC sessions, group discussions and

individual evaluations. Finally, the participants' learning journals and the researcher's observations recorded in field notes and journal entries also became sources of data.

Emerging themes were noted as the primary basis for organising and reporting results. Because of the large amount of data for analysis, various ways were explored to classify the themes. The resultant key themes and subsets were expanded when the Design Principles were considered in relation to the other data sources. Both sets of evidence were considered in a holistic manner. Finally, the evidence was organised under key themes, and subsets emerged from within each theme. Further exploration of the major themes and subsets led to the researcher proposing four major factors for leadership learning, development and succession that address the overarching research question and are reported in the findings (see section 6.3).

6.2 Evolution of the Design Principles.

As noted in Chapter Five the Leadership Learning Intervention (LLI) comprised four phases. These phases were entitled:

- Phase One: Defining the problem;
- Phase Two: Developing a solution;
- Phase Three: Iterations (2);
- Phase Four: Producing the Design Principles.

The following data, collected during the four phases of the intervention, are provided in order to trace the evidence leading to the emergence of the participant-developed Design Principles. A detailed description of these activities was provided in Chapter Five (see section 5.3).

6.2.1 Learning Team's Feedback Data

During phase one: defining the problem, the Learning Team discussed the projected demographics and trends in leadership development. This feedback data provided important evidence as to the participants' views on factors that currently hinder leadership development for experienced teachers and may contribute to the problem of a potential reduction in the

number of leadership candidates. The Learning Team's feedback also recommended some enabling factors for leadership development.

The Learning Team confirmed the limited leadership development opportunities for experienced teachers due to a neglect of formal leadership training for experienced teachers. Freda stated "the trend [change in teacher profile] gives young people opportunities to learn, but neglects experienced staff learning". Karen supported this and predicted that, "in the future there would be schools where the whole staff may be young, inexperienced teachers". Melinda commented that this would, "put pressure on the resources available for teacher training at this [experienced teacher] level" and result in "a shortage of funding for leadership training". Joe commented on the need for "formalised training in both technical skills of the leadership role, such as finance and management skills and dealing with people".

The participants spoke of the importance of "on-the-job" training to enable them to gain experience in the leadership role. Ruth commented that, "along the way [in a relieving role], you're dealing with leadership issues". Joe stated that "leadership training should be more grass roots looking at individual school needs". Sally suggested "it's easier to relate to problems and how to learn from them if they are in your realm of experience".

A third major element discussed was a lack of support and guidance from veteran leaders who in the past had been mentors. Freda advanced the argument that experienced teachers need "experience to be passed on by experienced staff [who can] mentor learners, look over their shoulder and provide a level of support". Leslie stated that as "these people are retiring; there won't be any mentors in the future".

Finally, one participant made a case for the benefits of professional dialogue with colleagues as a leadership learning strategy. Melinda compared the strengths of this method with the disadvantages of the current DET leadership development method of online learning by tutorials. She stated:

We need to make sure we are not focussing on organisational development [mandatory training], e.g., child protection training that consists of ineffective computer-based tutorials. Networking, being together, in a supportive role is a more effective type of leadership training than mandatory courses [Melinda].

These data provided a benchmark for the participants’ initial thoughts regarding leadership development. Participants suggested that: formal leadership training, “on-the-job” training, support from veteran leaders through strategies such as mentoring and professional dialogue with colleagues are ways to promote the leadership development of experienced teachers.

6.2.2 List of Strategies for Trialling

In phase two: developing a solution, the Learning Team used the feedback data to stimulate discussion on strategies, other than those already proposed for trialling in the intervention that they identified as having the potential to address the research problem. This process resulted in the following list of strategies (see Figure 6.1). In the diagram below the participants whose names have an asterisk volunteered to trial these strategies in phase three.

Strategy	Trialled by
<i>NB. Asterisk (*) denotes strategies already proposed for trialling</i>	
Shadowing/modelling leaders we admire	Karen
* “On-the-job” training/practical experience in mini-leadership role	Karen, Alice, Melinda
Formal training, e.g., technical skills, dealing with people, needs analysis	Joe
Mentoring others to support their leadership development	Kerrie
Support person. A person who helps others emotionally, and through the provision of resources/expertise, to develop their skills.	Leslie, Sally
* Professional dialogue with like-minded teachers/networks	Ruth, Katie, Kerrie, Freda
Debriefing with a critical friend	Jill, Janice, Sam
* Collegial groups/structured teams, e.g., aspiring leaders	All participants

Figure 6.1 Strategies for trialling

This list provides further evidence as to the participants’ views regarding possible strategies that have the potential to address the practitioner-developed research question. Of note is that

“on-the-job” training, formal leadership training, mentoring and professional dialogue with “like-minded” colleagues are consistent thoughts that had been mentioned previously in the Learning Team feedback data. Some new strategies suggested by participants for trialling were: shadowing/modelling leaders, support person and debriefing with a critical friend.

The results of the trials, as outlined in the participant journals and FRPC sessions indicated that these strategies did indeed promote leadership development. For example, Karen volunteered to trial the shadowing strategy. She later reported in her audio-recorded journal that shadowing helped provide a basic foundation for her own leadership style. She remarked, “I found it very useful. I sat down with the deputy and watched him solve a problem with particular kids ... we talked afterwards about ways to do it in the role ... that was a big one [learning curve] for me ... Shadowing definitely helped me”.

Sally and Leslie volunteered to trial the support person strategy. In her journal, Sally explained that the principal was her main support person, “[she is] supportive of my ideas.” Leslie reinforced the benefits of a support person during the FRPC sessions. She indicated a support person “may just be a person who acts as a sounding board for [your] ideas or, someone with whom the individual can vent their personal feelings”. Leslie later added, “they [support person] help you to see the silver lining [in school issues]”.

Jill, Janice and Sam volunteered to trial debriefing with a critical friend and their journals outlined the strengths of this strategy for promoting discussion, and receiving constructive feedback that helped them improve their leadership skills. Jill explained, “I have had three critical friends; I’m getting plenty of feedback; it helps me because it provides another perspective.” A common thread was that participants felt more comfortable with receiving constructive criticism from a peer. Janice stated that “people need to feel safe and secure, with an individual you trust. It doesn’t always have to be a leader ... dialogue and bouncing feedback off one another generally help.” Sam pointed out that peers can provide constructive feedback “[they] have a way you can say things without giving constructive criticism” and Janice saw the strategy as “supportive ... behaviour or collegiality”.

During the FRPC sessions participants commented on the value of debriefing with a peer rather than a person occupying a formal leadership role within the school hierarchy. Leslie observed “you may not want a problem solved; you may just want to vent it.” Ruth suggested it could be an informal structure, “someone who can just offer you advice ... you feel

comfortable with ... we can debrief together.” Jocelyn added “it may not be the same person each time.” Joe pragmatically observed that “a leader isn’t always available when you need them, whereas you can usually find another teacher to debrief with.”

Thus it can be seen that participants’ journals corroborate the benefits of shadowing, having a support person and debriefing with a critical friend. The mentoring strategy was not trialled by Kerrie (her profile is discussed in the findings).

6.2.3 Interim Evaluations

During phase two: developing a solution, the participants’ interim evaluations of session three substantiated earlier evidence on leadership development methods preferred by them. These evaluations revealed participants’ learning experiences and the difficulties they encountered with the research process. However, the data corroborated the value of professional dialogue and collegial groups for supporting participants to improve their practice as a leader. These evaluations provide evidence to indicate that participants are starting to understand the value of critical reflection for leadership development.

The professional dialogue within the Learning Team helped participants clarify their thoughts and ideas. Ruth remarked, “I find it difficult to relate to some of the leadership theories, Kolb etc. as I’m still not familiar with them. However after discussion they make more sense”. Freda also conveyed her apprehension, “for a lot of the session I felt a little confused, particularly when we were identifying the strategies involved with the research process; with discussion it became clearer”. Two participants spoke of the beneficial experiences of professional dialogue. Melinda stated that “I finally felt I had clarified what was required of me and the project”. Alice stated “...it’s useful to have these discussions about current leadership practices ... I enjoyed the discussion we generated”. Sally agreed “degrees or levels of professional dialogue are vital”.

Participants commented on the value of collegial groupings for providing a supportive environment for professional exchanges of ideas and experiences. Jill noted “many divergent ideas, very supportive colleagues”. Melinda remarked on the group interaction and “felt the group was becoming more cohesive; just about every person spoke today.” A common thread in the evaluative comments was that collegial structures enhanced the professional sharing of leadership experiences. Karen stated that “it’s very beneficial to hear other people’s points of

view on leadership ... to gain another's perspective"; Sam agreed, "It was interesting all the different strategies people were familiar with ... most useful".

The evaluations revealed participant reflections on the research process. Jocelyn started to link the strategies with her leadership project, "thinking about what strategies are useful for my project". Ruth remarked on the way the teachers approached the strategies: "most people had ideas and could relate experiences [school] with them". Sally linked the theories with the strategies: "positive to revisit theories against the strategies".

Data from the interim evaluations reinforce the benefits of two of the strategies for leadership development that have been discussed previously: professional dialogue and collegial groupings. Reflection was a new strategy identified by participants.

6.2.4 Learning Group Findings

During phase three the smaller Learning Groups (three groups entitled A, B and C) met for two FRPC sessions. In session five the Learning Groups discussed and reflected upon the learning theories and principles that they considered appropriate for leadership development for experienced teachers. These data outlined participants' responses to experiential learning and their reflections on leadership development.

Learning Groups A, B and C held in common the importance of four leadership development strategies for promoting leadership learning.

- "on-the-job" training: Jocelyn (Group A) suggested "it gives you confidence." Jill (Group B) stated "you learn by doing, active experimentation." Melinda (Group C) "from what you are doing/seeing you learn the skills you need."
- debriefing with a critical friend: Ruth (Group A) stated "you feel as if you are working on the task and can depend on each other." Janice (Group B) claimed, "it means you are working together...gives you confidence" and Karen (Group C) suggested "someone who is accessible to support/debrief with."
- professional dialogue: Kerrie (Group A) stressed the importance of discussions with "a like-minded person". Sam (Group B) said "it develops a culture of sharing." Freda (Group C) commented "[dialogue] that occurs all day every day."

- collegial groups: Katie (Group A) commented “they are good for networking, helping each other”. Joe (Group B) suggested the concept of “supportive collegiality... [you] set up an environment for dialogue, where attitudes are supportive”. Jill (Group B) agreed “very supportive colleagues.” Sally (Group C) spoke of “like-minded people” who help you to “clarify ideas and give constructive criticism.”

Group A’s comments reflected their inclination for working in the “aspiring leadership group” which had already been established at their school. Kerrie summed up this sentiment, “my group are my critical friends. They are a good sounding board.”

By comparison, Groups’ B and C advocated the value of meeting with collegial groups outside the school environment. Steve (Group B) suggested “you need to set up an environment for mutual dialogue where [members] have the right attitude.” Freda (Group C) agreed, saying “a purposeful group that everyone relates to. The [group] needs to be outside the school environment to be more effective.” Joe (Group B) reinforced her idea by saying the group needs to “be on neutral territory.”

Further, participants in Groups B and C outlined one of the strengths of the external collegial structure as providing non-threatening critical feedback.

- Group B: Sam observed “a group you can trust. These meeting have been the most useful for me so far in terms of formulating my project. I found the group’s comments useful and non-threatening” Jill remarked, “yes, gives a forum to get into nuts and bolts ... gives an opportunity to get into critical higher-order thinking and problem-solving”; Joe agreed, stating that the Learning Group “gives focus ... direction, confidence ... trust ... the collegial group has worked a whole lot more in a different environment ... not at school”; Janice stated “[small groups] gave opportunity for professional dialogue – I enjoyed the small groups a lot more...I was pleased with the ideas/feedback I gained”.
- Group C: Melinda suggested the group feedback “gives an opportunity for others to have positive input to what we are trying to achieve.”; Alice suggested “the fact you can sit around with like-minded people and toss around ideas ... if you like each other it’s easier to talk”. Sally reflected a similar sentiment; “[you can] clarify and support ideas that may set you on an active experimentation path ... [The group provides] supportive, constructive criticism”.

Groups B and C made further suggestions on strategies for leadership development such as:

- shadowing/modelling in context: Joe (Group B) suggested “you can learn by someone else’s mistake” and Karen (Group C) commented “it gives you a taste [of the role]. You need to see someone [in action] and take the positives/negatives from that.
- critical reflection with peers: Sam (Group B) stated “you learn by thinking things over with others. [Leader] may need to provide a scaffold for doing that” Sally (Group C) agreed “we can help each other by reflecting on the problem.”

Additionally, Groups A and C suggested mentors as another strategy: Leslie (Group A) “they [mentor] have to be willing to do it and you [mentee] need to be willing to be guided; Freda (Group C) “a mentor so you are supported and not left to sink.”

The Learning Group data, substantiate the value of most of the leadership development strategies mentioned earlier, with the exception of the concept of an “aspiring leadership group” structure. Of interest, is that the participants’ suggestions of leadership strategies have moved away from a focus on formal training and towards practitioner-based learning at the work site. Up to this point, data on experiential opportunities such as shadowing and relieving in a leadership role had emerged as important strategies; however there is no evidence of internship being mentioned in the data.

6.2.5 Producing the Design Principles

Session six involved individual teachers reporting to the larger Learning Team on the practitioner-based research both in the field and from the findings of the three small Learning Groups regarding learning principles and strategies trialled. The Team then drew upon the data from these activities and compiled their eight Design Principles for leadership development (see section 5.3.4.1) that addressed the practitioner-developed research question.

In summary, the LLI provided a source of rich data on the participants’ thoughts and experiences with regard to the experiential and reflective learning activities conducted. During the intervention, participants drew on the data collected and their experiences to formulate their ideas. In particular, evidence has been outlined that maps the emergence of the Design Principles.

6.3 Findings

The previous section outlined the range of data collected from the LLI, and used by participants to formulate the Design Principles. However, these Design Principles only comprised part of the data in this study. Data from other sources were: interviews, participants' learning journals and researcher's observations. These data sources were used to gain further information to address the overarching research question: What are the ways in which an intervention can promote leadership learning, development and succession in schools? The study further considered how the Design Principles arising from the intervention can guide leadership development.

The evidence suggests four major factors need to be considered in addressing the overarching research question. These factors: the significance of the principal's role; the engagement of experienced teachers in appropriate strategies that will enhance their leadership learning and development; the role peers play in leadership learning and development; and the need to cater for an experienced teacher's leadership growth, will be discussed in turn below. Six of the Design Principles discussed earlier were incorporated into the factors relating to appropriate strategies and the role peers play in leadership learning and development. There was no empirical evidence in this study for the benefits of the remaining two Design Principles, mentoring and internship, and this limitation is discussed in Chapter Seven (see section 7.3).

6.3.1 The significance of the principal's role

Two key features emerged from the interviews regarding participants' leadership development experiences. These were the significance of the principal's role in fostering a culture for learning and the importance of a "safe", "nurturing" learning context for experienced teachers to experiment with leadership practices. The evidence revealed that the fourteen experienced teachers, when asked in the interview to "comment on their prior experiences of leadership" (see Appendix 3 – Interview Questions), consistently identified the role of the principal as the most influential one in the school. Sally's remarks reflect a common sentiment, "the principals I've had can make or break the school". Jocelyn elaborated by saying, "it's up to the principal to decide what will happen in the school. She wanted it [a School Band], so she told us to do it," and Sam agreed that "if the principal wants it, it happens".

A common thread in the research on leadership development is the suggestion that for teachers to make the transition to leaders, they need an environment where they can learn, take risks and practise their leadership skills, safe from the taunts and challenges of others (Edmonson, 1999; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 1996, 2001). The interviews revealed two important elements regarding the role the principal plays in fostering this positive environment for leadership learning and development by experienced teachers. These elements are evidenced below as the principal's leadership style and the nature and extent of their relationship with the teacher.

6.3.1.1 The principal's leadership style

While there were variations in their perspectives, all participants commented in their interviews on their current principal's leadership style. This suggests the importance the principal's leadership style plays in fostering a culture for teachers' leadership development. Fink (2010) found that leaders could be "motivational" or "dysfunctional" and their mode of operation impacted the teachers' development. The comments from those who were early career teachers (under five years' service) tended to indicate a leadership style in their principal that conveyed more authoritarian aspects, such as "she expects us to step up to a leadership role"[Katie]; "She told me to do it [intervention]"[Alice]; "She gave me this project"[Ruth]. In contrast, more experienced teachers often spoke of the differences in leadership styles of various school principals with whom they had worked.

My last principal was a good bloke, he got on with everyone. He may not have been good on the paperwork, but everyone liked him. This new one stays in her office. She gets a lot done, and may be impressing the School Education Director but the parents don't like her ... the way she speaks to them ... it's not something I would put up with [Joe].

Only two participants had experience of a career outside state schools (i.e. non-government sector and private industry, respectively). A few teachers commented on their personal leadership experiences, such as leadership in sport and with clubs and service providers.

The interviewees' comments on the principal's leadership style focused on the collaborative aspects of his/her interpersonal and communication skills. Several teachers spoke of positive traits they preferred. For example, Melinda observed that "he is supportive" and Kerrie

identified her principal as “a role model”. Some teachers referred to the skills and climate fostered by a principal’s leadership style. For example, Jocelyn commented that “good communication is vital [in a principal]”; Janice pointed out that “if a leader wants results they need to create that positive atmosphere [for development]”; while Joe explained the leader’s style as one of providing experienced teachers with opportunities that are “low risk, non-threatening, where you are not blamed if you make a mistake”. Participants also reported on negative aspects of a principal’s leadership style that they would avoid. Such comments included, [she is] a “Queen Boadicea” who “divides and conquers” [Sam]; [her attitude] is “it’s positional rather than personal...the way [she] talks down to teachers and parents” [Joe].

By contrast, the researcher observed the impact on two participants when the principal used a more autocratic or “top down” leadership style as Senge (1990) termed it.

Researcher’s notes, 10 April 2008, Session four, Group B, FRPC:

Janice and Joe spoke of their negative experiences. Joe remarked, “My current principal’s “top down” style ramps up the [work] stress on experienced teachers and this leads to their unwillingness to participate in leadership development”. Janice supported his view by saying “we’re standing on those grounds right now”. By this comment, the researcher concluded that since she was in her school at the time, she was referring to her principal displaying the same authoritarian or “top down” leadership style that Joe indicated was his principal’s style.

Evidence from the interviews and researcher’s observations suggest that the style of leadership practiced by principals influences the leadership learning of experienced teachers in this study. Participant comments revealed they preferred a principal who was approachable and who created a supportive climate for their learning.

6.3.1.2. The principal’s relationship with teachers

Evidence from the participants’ interviews and their journal entries suggest that the nature and extent of a teacher’s personal relationship with the principal is also important in fostering a culture for leadership development with experienced teachers. Most teachers when interviewed regarding “a leadership experience” they had undergone chose a positive one. They then explained how this was directly linked to their relationship with the principal. A

common feature in these descriptions was the use of “caring”, “proactive” and “nurturing” terms to describe the principal’s interactions with them. This focus on personal feelings aligns with the learning theories on the affective domain (see section 3.2.3.3) and the influence emotions can have on an individual’s learning and development. Melinda, Janice, Jill and Joe all reported that they had been encouraged by their principal to take on a leadership role. Freda said “[the principal] is always interested in my plans” and Karen felt her principal was “a good sounding board”. Sam emphasised the importance of this relationship, by linking the principal’s knowledge of a teacher’s abilities to their leadership development; “a principal knows how far they can challenge you, nurture...progression”.

Furthermore, most interviewees explained that their confidence grew as a leader if their relationship with their principal was a nurturing one. Melinda stated she is “strengthened by a principal with a belief in my ability”; Leslie referred to her principal’s style as “looking for opportunity [for the teacher] with guidance [from the principal]”; and Karen summed it up by saying that “I gained confidence in my ability to communicate with the executive and conduct peer programs”. This notion of a growth in confidence aligns with the literature on the influence of the conative and affective domains on learning and development (see section 3.2.3.2 and 3.2.3.3).

Participants in this study have provided data about their belief in the importance of the principal’s role in the school. The data revealed that a negative relationship with their principal, whether perceived or real, can have an ongoing effect on these teachers’ leadership development. The participant interview responses indicated that a poor relationship with the principal hindered their confidence and development. Sally stated “it was a chore to come to school,” and Sam added, “I felt continually judged”. Freda summed up their feelings; “it effects how you think and teach”. Janice’s audio-journal gives further support for this finding. The audio-recorded journal recounts her verbal reaction to her perception that the principal “at first promised to release us [Jill and herself] from teaching” to attend the two FRPC sessions and then “renege” on this. Janice interpreted the principal’s actions as a judgment of her worth. She commented that she felt, “frustrated” and “not valued” and said “she’s [the principal] testing me”. This shows that Janice perceived these events as a measure of the importance the principal placed on her development.

As mentioned earlier, only one teacher commented on the role of the other executive as opposed to all fourteen teachers commenting on the role of the principal. It seems apparent,

in this study, that the role of the executive was less influential in fostering participants' leadership development than that of the principal.

In summary, the evidence suggests that the experienced teachers in the study felt they needed a principal whose leadership style encouraged their development. With regard to these teachers, a nurturing relationship with their principal was considered vital for building a positive atmosphere for learning that fostered their self-confidence, a willingness to take on leadership roles and ongoing development of their leadership philosophy. The following comment by Joe reflects this point; "leadership happens through a relationship and putting time in...active listening...building good will...having an aura, like Patton". [This reference is to General G. S. Patton Jr, an American army officer best known for his positive and supportive leadership of American soldiers during World War II].

6.3.2 The engagement of experienced teachers in appropriate strategies that will enhance their leadership learning and development

The data suggest that for experienced teachers to successfully engage in leadership learning, each strategy they adopt should be appropriate to their needs and incorporate the characteristics of contextual experience and opportunities for practitioner-based research. This aligns with the theories of the three dimensions for adult learning and Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle theory.

A suite of strategies found to be effective will be discussed here. The evidence shows that these strategies build self-confidence, a will to succeed, leadership capacity and contextual expertise to effectively perform the role. The appropriateness of a particular strategy depends on the teacher's leadership development needs.

The data sources provided evidence on the value for leadership development of strategies that offer opportunities for contextual experience in a leadership role such as: acting/ relieving in formal leadership positions and sharing whole school leadership roles. As noted in the discussion on Design Principles, a second group of strategies that are significant for leadership development are shadowing an experienced leader and practical experience/ "on-the-job" training. These methods provide opportunities for practitioner-based research that improves an individual's leadership expertise.

Acting/relieving in formal leadership positions

The interview data revealed that, eleven of the fourteen participants had experience acting or relieving in a formal school leadership position. When interviewed, these teachers expressed the positive aspects of their contextual experience as an “opportunity to learn” leadership skills. While some participants listed the skills learnt, others reflected on their experience and showed a deeper understanding of the influences on leadership practice. Of interest is their increased confidence in their leadership abilities. Melinda felt such experience offered an opportunity to “get [my] feet wet”. Ruth said for her it meant “getting involved...an opportunity to display my skills in a different role”. Janice felt it helped foster her expertise, “a chance to develop your own leadership style”, and Katie reported that she was able to “make a [leadership] role your own”. Karen’s comments reflect the growth in participant confidence, “it showed me I can do it”. By comparison, a few teachers’ comments revealed a different perspective on the experience. Alice, found it “challenging ... I didn’t get any help”. Sam stated that “the leadership role is difficult, you can’t please everyone”.

Participants became aware of the external pressures of the role and its impact on others, “I had a feel for what my principal goes through each day”[Ruth]; “it gave me insights into school processes”[Jocelyn]; “worry when it affects everyone”[Janice]; “adults can get upset”[Katie]; “realised you need to know how to deal with people/tricky situations”[Sam]. Their remarks suggest this learning experience also helped to develop their leadership philosophy; “it gave me knowledge about leadership styles” [Joe].

Karen’s audio-recorded journal gives further evidence of the benefits of contextual experience. She commented that the acting head teacher welfare role she had taken on during the intervention, helped develop her confidence as a leader; “I realised I had the skills, believed in myself, gained confidence in my ability to communicate with executive and conduct peer programs. I learnt how to get a team to work with me”.

Sharing whole school leadership roles

The concept of “shared leadership” and “participative” leadership was introduced in the literature review as a variation of distributive leadership (see section 2.2.2.3) with the strengths being that it promoted leadership capacity building and shared decision-making. Five participants were drawn from one of the schools (Group A) in the study. The principal at

this school had encouraged leadership development through the pairing of teachers to undertake shared whole-school leadership roles. For example, two of the participants shared the School Band Organiser role and two shared the Student Representative Council (SRC) Coordinator role. The fifth participant had served in the SRC Coordinator role the previous year and now shared a leadership role with another teacher in the school.

The triangulated data from the group's interview, FRPC sessions and researcher's journal provided evidence of ways shared leadership roles had strengthened the participants' leadership capacities and influenced their philosophy of leadership. In the group interview these teachers spoke of the supportive collegiality and strengths of the pairing strategy for skills and confidence building, as well as sharing the teachers' workload; "I enjoy the school and the shared leadership because I can talk to another person"[Katie]; "it's useful because you are not on your own, you support each other ... it's nice not to have complete responsibility"[Kerrie]; "you can work together and don't feel overwhelmed ... have a support network ... working towards a common goal ... sharing out the workload"[Ruth]; "if you became resentful of a leadership role [as a sole person] it would not hone your skills ... you'd lose motivation"[Jocelyn].

Of note, is the influence of Group A's shared leadership roles on their leadership philosophy. Informal conversations during the FRPC phase indicated that the participants' school principal had fostered a culture of role sharing and mutual exchange. Ruth stated that "at this school we have had shared roles ... we stepped up to do it"; Katie said "the school is big on it"; Ruth observed that "our stage teams have people they can rely on ... it's a good experience for you"; Kerrie noted that "it's no coincidence we [Group A] span the whole school". On further questioning it was found that Kerrie believed the principal had strategically placed members of Group A on different classes throughout the school, to spread this ethos. The development of this collaborative culture aligns with the literature on the key features of educational leadership (see section 2.2) and with the situated and social learning theories mentioned earlier.

The researcher reflected with respect to Group A:

Researcher's journal, 7 April 2008"

These teachers often spoke of "stepping up to the role". I noticed this phrase was used by the principal when she explained the leadership training she had been

conducting at the school. The fact that the participants espouse this concept means that this ethos has become an accepted part of the school culture.

The evidence indicates a limiting feature of Group A's shared leadership roles was that participants were not involved in the decision-making process. When questioned about these shared roles, participants responded that, "the principal gave it to me" [Ruth]. In the FRPC session, when asked about the decision-making for this role, Katie replied "the principal wanted it, so we did it".

Shadowing an experienced leader

Shadowing an experienced leader was defined by the Learning Team as observing leaders perform a role. This strategy was suggested for trialling during the intervention. Participants spoke of the benefits of this strategy and Freda commented "by seeing how someone reacts in a situation it gives you the skills you can draw on or avoid."

Karen volunteered to trial the shadowing strategy while gaining practical experience in the relieving role of Head Teacher Welfare. Her journal, mentioned earlier (see section 6.2.2), outlines the observations she made on the leadership style of her two school deputy principals when she shadowed them during the welfare interviews they conducted with students. This evidence reveals that shadowing gave Karen confidence to perform the leadership role. This strategy was identified by participants as a Design Principle for leadership learning.

Practical experience/ "on-the-job" training e.g., a work-based leadership project

The literature on experiential learning advocated the strengths of work-based practices for practitioner-based learning (see section 3.3.1). Karen's leadership project is a good example of where the evidence from the researcher's observations, coupled with Karen's evaluative and journal comments showcase the strengths of practical experience for the participant to gain awareness about the leadership role.

Researcher's journal, 13 May 2008:

Karen's experiences showed a steep learning curve. She discussed her Gifted and Talented coordinator project with me at our first meeting. I referred her to a regional consultant and "best practice" schools in the area. Her journal entries reflect her

discussions of her plans with these people and her principal. Karen consulted her school colleagues via surveys and discussions. She commented in the Learning Group on how much she appreciated their constructive feedback and resources. All these processes led her on a path of discovery and resulted in her changing the focus of the project to an enrichment program. Karen made decisions on the clientele, strategies and organisation of the project and she gained a deep conviction that “this was the best direction for the school”.

Karen spoke about “on-the-job” training in her evaluation of the FRPC sessions, “using knowledge and expertise to practise, you experience what teachers do...basically learn by doing” and “on-the-job is the best type of leadership training, it gives the skills you need”. Finally, Karen commented on the impact of the leadership project in her journal “I’m a lot more confident in who I approach and what I have to do”.

Furthermore, the remarks of two participants during informal conversations encapsulate the group’s feelings when comparing formal training sessions with the work-based leadership projects they trialled. Freda said, “I’ve been involved in a few projects off site ... The most amount of training I’ve received has been on the job ... very rarely do I think back to x course ... at the end of the day it’s what you do and see”. Alice’s final evaluative comments leave no doubt as to the effectiveness of this strategy for her leadership development, “unless you actually stand in that position ... you can talk all you like ... you are not going to experience it in a real situation unless you’re taking on the role”. The strategy of practical experience/”on-the-job” training was also recognised by participants as a Design Principle for leadership learning (see section 6.2.4).

In summary, these contextual and practitioner-based leadership strategies have the potential to address the leadership learning and development needs of experienced teachers. They provide opportunities to practise the challenges of the leadership role. Additionally, they build self-confidence, contextual expertise and leadership capacity by providing the learner with practical research experience at the workplace complemented by a chance to discuss these experiences with colleagues whom they trust, through Fullan’s (2003) PLC approach.

6.3.3 The role peers play in leadership learning and development

A third factor, identified in this study is the role peers play in contributing to leadership learning and development. The literature review indicated to the researcher the importance of social learning theory, and Fullan's (2003) PLC approach in particular, for providing the opportunity for collaborative peer processes that enable experiential and reflective learning at the workplace (see sections 3.3.1 and 3.3.2). These peer processes are significant because of their potential to enhance leadership learning, capacity and development for experienced teachers. Additionally, the review provided evidence for the value of peer coaching (see section 3.4) for increasing collegiality, enhancing teachers' understanding of leadership concepts and strategies and strengthening their capacity for change.

Several methods were used during the LLI that gave experienced teachers the opportunity for leadership learning and capacity building through collaborative peer processes. These methods, described below, were: collegial leadership structures, debriefing with a friend, and Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC). Of these, the former two were identified by participants as Design Principles for leadership development.

The literature on reflective learning, in particular the loop learning theories, revealed that the iterative cycles of professional dialogue and critical reflection generated amongst peers create higher-order learning resulting in leadership development (see section 3.3.2). The evidence, outlined below, from the LLI demonstrated the value of iterative cycles of professional dialogue and critical reflection amongst peers. The advantages of these collaborative peer processes are that they enhanced participants' reflective learning regarding their workplace experiences, provided constructive feedback on the strengths of an individual's leadership practices and areas of need for further development. Critical reflection and professional dialogue were recognised earlier by participants as significant Design Principles because they broadened the experienced teachers' understanding of the nature of leadership and fostered their philosophy of leadership.

Collegial leadership structures

The data suggest that collegial leadership structures, whether internal or external to the participant's school, have the potential to successfully promote the leadership learning of experienced teachers and build capacity. The collegial structures outlined here are based on

participants' experiences within individual schools in this study and their experiences with the two structures (Learning Team and Learning Groups) trialled during the intervention.

The data indicated that the establishment of internal collegial leadership structures is dependent on the school principal's leadership style and resourcing for sustained effectiveness. Fullan's (2003) PLC approach was used as the researcher felt that the PLC structure provides a learning community where experienced teachers can collaborate and practise leadership skills within their school context. From the sample, two primary schools both with similar contexts, but in different areas, had implemented to varying degrees, a school based "aspiring leadership group" of volunteers. The principals each told the researcher it was a strategy to support leadership learning at their school.

The first school principal had conducted this "aspiring leadership group" structure (with the five participants of what is known as Group A) for a year. The principal explained the purpose of the monthly meetings was a focus on career development and curriculum vitae writing "because this was what they wanted". She said she had, "planned to do something like this [the research project] with them this year [2008] ... so your project fits in well." By contrast, the "aspiring leadership group" structure (with Joe, from Group B) at the other school appeared to be loose and embryonic. This observation was based on informal conversations with the principal and deputy in December 2007 about their plans in the following year to address training needs at the school. Joe's informal comment, during the FRPC sessions, that this structure was "an idea of the new principal, but it hadn't been trialled as yet", confirms the researcher's observations.

The evidence below demonstrates the value of the "aspiring leadership group" structure for the leadership learning and capacity building of the participants in Group A. The supportive, non-threatening collegiality amongst Group A members was evident in the researcher's observations of the informal conversations at the introductory meeting and in the subsequent group interview.

The researcher commented in her journal about this group's social cohesion.

Researcher's journal, 21 February 2008:

I was struck by the tightness of this group. Their demeanour towards each other was heartening to see. Their friendly comments showed they cared for each other's

welfare; “I bought you that book you wanted” [Kerrie]. They even, good-humouredly, recognised each other’s faults, “let’s start, Leslie’s always late”.

During the intervention the researcher observed that Group A maintained their cohesiveness and were mainly interested in sharing ideas and learning from their own group members. The data shows that this collegiality arose from the collaborative culture, encouraged by the principal, of sharing leadership roles. These roles were rotated annually so that the group were accustomed to sharing ideas with personnel across the school structures.

Researcher’s notes, 18 March 2008, Session two:

Through informal conversations Group A showed they supported each other’s efforts; “I didn’t mind helping Kerrie because she had helped me last year when I was in the same role” [Ruth]; shared ideas and resources and spoke about “learning from each other” [Leslie].

Although Group A’s reasons for participating in the intervention are not clear, their Learning Group’s findings mentioned earlier (see section 6.2.4) and final evaluation comments below show that they preferred working in their school-based “aspiring leadership group”. The participants cited the main strength of the group as being its collegiality. Ruth commented that “I found it [the intervention] helped give us focus as a group [aspiring leadership group].” Jocelyn added, “I know the group is always there to help me.” Their journals also reflected this sentiment, “discussions with each other helped give me ideas” [Leslie]; “the [aspiring leadership] group was my critical friend” [Katie].

While Group A favoured the internal school structure of an “aspiring leadership group”, the data collected during the LLI revealed that the other participants identified the notion of collegial leadership structures, external to the school, as an effective strategy for leadership development. Participants suggested “professional learning groups outside the school environment” as a Design Principle (see section 5.3.4.1). Of note are the participants’ desires to have “opportunities to regularly meet,” and that participants wanted the collaborative processes to be similar to the Learning Groups they trialled in the LLI.

Data from other sources confirmed the worth of external collegial structures for giving participants opportunities to discuss leadership issues, and gain support and feedback on

leadership initiatives from professional colleagues outside their school setting. Participants' journals suggested the strength of collegial structures, external to the school, was that they provided a different point of view on the issue or problem. Joe reported "outside your work environment you can discuss other things ... it's more effective". Sam supported this claim: "I can focus if it's outside the environment [his school]". Karen agreed, "a different environment gave me a different perspective".

Further, the researcher's observations with Group B evidence another benefit of the external structure was the group support participants gave each other regarding their leadership projects.

Researcher's journal, 10 April 2008:

Group B, chose each other and were great together. Janice and Jill were upset that their principal had "renege on the relief time" for the FRPC. Joe and Sam happily agreed to give up their relief time and meet with them after school so the sessions could go on. The group spent a lot of time talking of their projects. Janice and Jill were advanced with theirs and they helped Joe with suggestions and spurred Sam to think more about his project. I could tell he hadn't really given it much thought, so the peer encouragement helped him.

The data indicate that implementing collegial structures, whether internal or external to the individual's school, has the potential to enhance leadership learning and capacity building. Participants felt these structures provided collegial support and non-threatening opportunities for professional discussion, sharing of ideas and feedback which enhanced their leadership growth.

Debriefing with a friend

Participants' informal conversations during the FRPC process outlined the strengths of debriefing with a critical friend for providing another perspective on the issue. The evidence drawn from the data collected during the LLI activities shows the effectiveness of this collaborative peer process for leadership learning and building capacity (see sections 6.2.2 and 6.2.4). Debriefing with a friend was identified by participants as an important Design Principle for leadership development.

Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC)

The data revealed the significance of FRPC as a collaborative peer process to improve leadership learning and build capacity. The participant evaluations of the two FRPC sessions focused on the strengths of the peer approach for developing their leadership abilities through practising discussion, reflection and constructive feedback processes. Janice commented, “I got the most out of the small group discussions”. Melinda also mentioned the benefits of this collaborative peer process; “I enjoyed the mutually supportive collegiality”. Sam remarked on the collaborative planning aspect of FRPC “this meeting has been the most useful for me so far in terms of the group helping me to formulate my project”. Jocelyn observed that “focussed discussion (FRPC) is a good tool to have”. Participants commented on the strengths of the GROW model for learning how to collaborate with a group and to strategically plan their projects. Karen remarked that, “Goal-setting motivated me to achieve the goals”. Katie added that “it does definitely help with a way forward. It pushed our project along”. Freda summed up the participants’ sentiments; “the GROW model will assist in stepping us through the project, it’s extremely useful to talk with teachers outside my school whose advice has been practical and meaningful”.

Second, the FRPC evaluations showed that participants saw strengths in the peer process, of questioning and constructive feedback, for increasing their awareness of a leader’s role. Janice said “it opened my eyes as to what a leader really does”. Participants also felt comfortable in the peer environment and were honest with their Learning Group, admitting their mistakes and voicing their fears. Melinda remarked, “I have learnt to be more tactful” and Sam admitted, “in the future, I have to give them [teachers] a ‘heads up’ on this”. The evidence indicates the FRPC process effectively fostered participants’ developmental growth towards leadership.

The participant criticisms of the FRPC process focussed on the length of time and apparent repetitiveness of the GROW strategies. Of note is that these came from Group A. Kerrie reported that “discussions on FRPC were too long”. Ruth supported this concern; “at times I found some of the parts to be quite repetitive”. Leslie identified Group A’s expectations as an issue; “the FRPC was not an effective model for people coming in with different expectations”.

Iterative cycles of professional dialogue and critical reflection

The evidence drawn earlier from the LLI showed the strength of iterative cycles of self and group critical reflection and professional dialogue for leadership development. By practising these collaborative peer processes participants engaged in higher-order critical thinking about their leadership projects and reflection-in-action as well as reflection-on-action (Schön, 1983).

Whilst the LLI indicated the value of iterative cycles of professional dialogue and critical reflection for leadership development, the participants' journals corroborated this evidence. In the journals, participants commented on the strength of the iterative cycles for giving them the opportunity to make decisions about the purpose, and plan the direction, of their leadership projects. Alice observed that "having a chance to sit down with like-minded people ... It makes me feel more assured and confident that I'm on the right track. I'm now more motivated to achieve my goals". Janice agreed; "it is becoming a lot clearer on what I need to do and what directions to take. We will have to see if these new strategies work". Karen added, "I was pleased with the ideas from the group ... the iterative cycle, [led to] constructive, non-threatening feedback [being] given". Jocelyn reported "it's good to do it as a group". Others remarked on the developmental benefits of group critical reflection. Karen observed that "I've been using a lot of the critical reflection by my peers as well [as] support from my colleagues". Sally supported this by suggesting, "critical self-reflection is a critical part ... you beat yourself up ... needs to be done in a supportive manner". A minor criticism of the iterative processes came from Group A. Jocelyn stated that a "good model gives some structured questioning. Iterative cycle did seem a little tedious but it was good for reflecting". Critical reflection and professional dialogue "with external/like-minded individuals" were acknowledged by participants as significant Design Principles for leadership development.

In summary, the participants' comments outlined the vital role peers play in providing informal opportunities for collaborative developmental processes at the workplace. The collegial structures described and the peer processes of debriefing with a friend and FRPC, support experienced teachers to improve their leadership learning and capacity. The iterative cycles of professional dialogue and reflection are key non-threatening collaborative peer processes that support experienced teachers to practise higher-order thinking enabling participants' to identify their strengths and areas of need for further leadership development.

6.3.4 The need to cater for an experienced teacher's leadership growth

This section focuses on the data that indicate the vital need to consider the internal processes of the mind and the influence they have on the learning and development of experienced teachers.

Chapter One emphasised that the pressure for change in today's society is ongoing. The literature review suggested that principals, who possess the capacity for continuous change in practices, play a vital role in improving the quality of school education. Consequently, an awareness of the influence of the internal processes of the mind equips the school principal to bring about this change. These learning processes are essential points for consideration when planning leadership development programs.

The review of leadership stressed the importance of practitioner-based research for developing the capacity to bring about changes in practice (see section 2.2.2). Coupled with this is the literature of the dimensions of adult learning, which argued that activities that take into consideration the three domains of practice, namely cognitive, conative and affective, foster a high degree of learning and development (see section 3.2.3).

In particular, the review of the conative domain proposed that an individual progresses through three main stages of development that promote higher-order learning and result in changed practice. These stages are the preparedness for change, motivation and the achievement of goals. When considering these stages, the affective and conative domains are closely inter-related.

Finally, evidence from across the data sources has been used to compile profiles of several participants, which follow in the next section. These profiles enabled an in-depth examination of the influence of the participant's thoughts, actions, behaviours and emotions on their learning and give insights about their leadership growth. This evidence sheds light on the effect of the three domains on learning and the need to cater for the different stages in the leadership development of experienced teachers.

6.3.4.1 Preparedness for change

The initial stage of leadership development explored in this study is an individual's "preparedness for change" (Fullan, 2001; Lambe & Bones, 2006). The literature of the

conative domain (see section 3.2.3.2) suggests preparedness for change is seen as an antecedent of motivation and commitment to a task (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The evidence shows this stage can have a vital effect on an individual's degree of learning and their progression towards leadership capacity.

Autonomy

In the review, Deci and Ryan (1985) identified an important aspect that enhanced an individual's preparedness for change was their sense of autonomy or having the experience of choice. These authors found that increasing a participant's options and choices increases their intrinsic motivation to perform an action. They claim that owning one's actions means the individual is empowered, feels competent, and is committed to bringing about change.

When the researcher's observations and participants' interviews were examined the evidence indicated the likelihood that Group A (the five participants from the same school) did not have complete autonomy over their learning. The principal told the researcher, prior to the introductory meeting with these teachers from the aspiring leadership group (Group A) that "the teachers do not want to access school relief to conduct the FRPC sessions". From this comment the assumption was that the project had been discussed with these teachers and they had shown interest in the research. It was negotiated with the principal that the five teachers would meet as Group A for sessions four and five after school so that relief time was not required. After the initial meeting with the five teachers the researcher reflected on the principal's exercise of leadership with this group (Katie, Jocelyn, Ruth, Leslie and Kerrie).

Researcher's journal, 10 February 2008, Relationship-building meeting:

I noted the principal insisted on being present at the initial meeting, which was not the case when I met the other participants. She said to Group A, "I think this [the research project] would be good for you". These words resulted in all five participants agreeing to sign the consent form at that point, before I spoke to them about their commitments with the research. It seemed that the principal was imposing the research on these teachers, so I spent time explaining their commitment and gave them the participant information form and consent form, so they knew it was voluntary.

The possibility of the project being imposed on Group A is explored in the researcher's notes from the interview with these teachers. Further evidence of the outcome of this lack of autonomy is provided in the researcher's observations of the FRPC sessions. Kerrie's profile, presented later, corroborates this notion of an individual's lack of autonomy over their learning.

Researcher's notes, 20 February 2008, Group A Interview:

At the interview, when I questioned Group A members as to why they chose their leadership project they responded in a similar way, "the principal told me to do it"[Ruth]; "the principal gave me the role"[Jocelyn]; "we all get given jobs to share"[Katie]. I gathered that the "job" they referred to was the school role they already shared and that their leadership project would be aimed at enhancing these roles. Despite the principal having discussed the NSW DET School Leadership Capability Framework with this group last year, there was little evidence to show that participants had used it to tailor their project to cater for their personal leadership needs.

The researcher's journal and field notes during the FRPC sessions indicate that Group A showed consistent non-verbal signs of reluctance to engage in discussions of leadership and that Kerrie was the sole active respondent to the researcher's questions.

Researcher's notes, 7 April 2008, Session four, Group A, FRPC:

It's the last week of term one and I could see Group A was tired. Their body language and limited responses told me they didn't want to be there. I had to lead the questioning, which I hadn't envisaged. It didn't help matters when Leslie began packing up the room. I quickly finished the session and hoped the next one after the holidays would be better. I left racking my brain as to how to shift the focus back onto the participants.

Researcher's notes, 1 May 2008, Session five, Group A, FRPC:

Group A, while greeting me politely, remained aloof in their demeanour. Their body language showed they weren't engaged. Of interest is the group dynamics. Kerrie always behaves as the group leader, by taking the initiative in discussions. Katie and

Ruth seem to be the passive, quiet achievers, whereas Jocelyn and Leslie are the vocal members of the group.

This time I broke the group into two and encouraged each member to adopt the roles of coach, coachee and observer. I remained with one group, as an observer. Katie and Ruth seemed to be getting some positives out of the FRPC discussion. However from the chatter of the other group I gather they didn't engage in the GROW model. They were also reluctant to give feedback when the whole group got back together.

Group A's lack of engagement in the intervention, non-verbal gestures and negative emotions seem to indicate the likelihood that they did not have autonomy over their learning. Furthermore, their limited journal entries and Jocelyn's lack of participation in the journal writing and strategies for trialling, are further evidence that the behaviour of these participants revealed they had limited interest in this type of learning. Deci and Ryan (2000) refer to this aspect of extrinsic behaviour as "amotivation". This term denotes a "diminished inspiration to participate in social situations and activities, often caused by an external event, relationship, or other cause" (p. 45).

However, it is necessary to be cautious about the likelihood of Group A's lack of autonomy and thus, preparedness for change. The cohesiveness of Group A was noted earlier (see section 6.2.3) to be based on the structure of pairing teachers within the school to undertake shared whole school leadership roles. The practice of rotating these paired roles enabled Group A to engage in dialogue about their shared leadership experiences. In this regard, Group A may not have needed the intervention as they were already receiving all the leadership development support they needed from their own aspiring leadership group relationships and social interactions.

In contrast to this argument is the one occasion in session five when the group was broken into two for the FRPC activity. Katie and Ruth enacted the GROW model of questioning peers about their leadership projects. The outcome was that these two participants, when engaged in an area they were willing to explore and had autonomy over, responded by promptly organising the evaluation of the school band roles prior to session six. This change in behaviour came about because the FRPC session empowered Katie and Ruth to take control of the decision-making, and their actions were supported by the group. Consequently,

the key to an individual's preparedness for change seems to centre on the autonomy they have over the learning involved.

Kerrie

This notion of the five participants' lack of autonomy over their leadership development is corroborated in an incident with the school principal, Kerrie and the researcher regarding Kerrie's leadership project. This profile on Kerrie has been compiled in order to gain insights into the influences on her development. The events are described in the researcher's journal and field notes.

Researcher's journal 28 March 2008:

I was concerned that Kerrie's project did not challenge her leadership skills. So I decided to have a confidential discussion with her principal about this. I phoned the principal and explained my concern. We agreed that she would speak with Kerrie and encourage her to change the project to one more suited to developing her leadership skills.

Researcher's notes, 7 April 2008, Session four, Group A, FRPC:

I was so embarrassed at the first FRPC session with Group A. Kerrie reported to the group, "Xx [principal's name omitted] told me Cheryl rang her and asked her to change my project. Xx took the Swimming Carnival organisation off Yy [teacher's name omitted] and gave it to me. Now I've had to smooth things over with Yy because Xx left it up to me to tell her." Kerrie was visibly upset with these circumstances where she had to deal with issues not of her own making.

I had expected the principal, who knew Kerrie's strengths and development needs, to guide her to consider a leadership project better suited to her needs. I was shocked that the principal had revealed my confidential discussion to Kerrie. Kerrie's behaviour changed in this and subsequent sessions. Normally she led the group; this time she was more disengaged.

This was another example of the principal's leadership style. (Previously, Kerrie had commented on other instances where the principal's style had resulted in

confrontational issues with other teachers which Kerrie had to resolve). I noted in Kerrie's retelling of this incident that there seemed limited evidence of the principal's guidance or collaboration to help Kerrie identify her needs and cater for her leadership development.

It would seem that the principal used a top-down (Senge, 1990) leadership style that imposed ideas on Kerrie with regard to her leadership project. Kerrie provided evidence of how this style had caused emotional struggles in the past between her and other staff members. Despite developing her conflict resolution skills, her autonomy over her leadership project seemed limited. This incident may also account for her lack of follow-up on the mentor strategy which she volunteered to trial.

Kerrie's final evaluation revealed the important role the group structure played in her development: "the most benefit I found [from the intervention] was discussing my project with my team at school ... we learn by supportive collegiality", and "the [aspiring leadership] group was my critical friend". Of significance, regarding Kerrie's stage of development are three pieces of evidence. At the interview Kerrie extolled the strengths of the aspiring leadership group structure: "you can work together and don't feel overwhelmed ... have a support network ... working towards a common goal ... sharing out the workload". The researcher observed earlier that Kerrie was the recognised leader of Group A, yet her response at the session three evaluation was "[leadership is] a hard job. I question if I want to do a formal leadership role".

Further evidence, includes the emotive terms Kerrie uses to describe a principal's leadership role: "overwhelming", "workload", and "hard job"; these comments demonstrate the trend identified in chapter one of a disincentive for experienced teachers to undertake the principal's role. Kerrie is already questioning her motives as to whether she wants to perform the role. By contrast are the terms Kerrie uses to describe the aspiring leadership group: "support network", "common goals", "share load". It would seem that Kerrie felt confident in her current abilities and could maintain her autonomy as the recognised leader of Group A. At this stage of her development she apparently was not prepared for change.

Alice

Contrasting with the evidence from Group A is Alice's experiences which also focus on her preparedness for change and the notion of autonomy. A brief profile has been compiled of Alice's responses, actions, behaviour and emotions in order to gain insights into the influences on her development.

At the initial meeting Alice's first statement was "bear with me... I haven't had huge experience as a leader". This indicated her lack of confidence in her abilities and was confirmed in the researcher's observations.

Researcher's journal, 6 December 2007, Relationship-building meeting:

On my first meeting with Alice I noticed she visibly lacked self-confidence. We had an informal conversation, while waiting for the other teacher, whom I was meeting, to turn up. Alice said, "I've spent a number of years as a casual... I don't know whether I can contribute anything to the project".

Researcher's notes, 7 March 2008, Session one:

Alice seemed to have a frown on her face all session. Her worried demeanour and her inability to engage in the discussions may be due to the lack of confidence I observed at our first meeting, or her unwillingness to be involved in the project. I'll keep a close eye on her. Time will tell whether she wants to participate.

In the interview, Alice talked of her experience in a relieving leadership position as "challenging...I didn't get any help". Regarding the principal's role in her recruitment for the intervention Alice commented on the principal's top down leadership style "she told me to do it [intervention]". However, her reasons for continuing with the intervention were that she "wanted to associate myself with people in those roles...get a feel for it". This indicated preparedness for learning on Alice's part. Her principal used the same top down leadership style with regard to Alice's leadership project. The principal told the researcher that Alice's project was as to be the environmental coordinator in the school. In Alice's case, her principal's leadership style motivated her to take control of her project. She decided to change her project from an organisational one, to the more complex, challenging role of

whole school change agent and opted to be “an outcomes-based assessment coordinator” [Alice].

Both with the research processes and her autonomy of the leadership project, Alice displayed growing confidence. She moved from a state of preparedness for change to a motivated participant who was able to make sense of the research. Her evaluation of session three commented: “it finally clicked for me about what we are doing and the relevance within the school setting. It was great to talk in small groups; it made me feel I am not the only one who has trouble understanding the problem”.

Alice also gained support from the FRPC sessions with Group C. Alice related an incident to her Learning Group regarding her leadership project where she claimed “there was no support. I felt frustrated” by her Assistant Principal’s behaviour that “dominated” the meeting she was leading on her work-based leadership project. The emotional struggle Alice experienced at this stage of her development could have hindered her progress in the project. However, through the support of the collegial group and the GROW process she was able to develop some strategies to move her project forward. Her final evaluation was in support of these collaborative processes; “the fact you can sit around with like-minded people and toss around ideas ... if you like each other it’s easier to talk”.

Finally the researcher’s observations note the complete change in Alice’s demeanour, as her confidence grew so did her determination to succeed and she benefitted from the group support both emotionally and through resource sharing.

Researcher’s notes, 9 April 2008, Group C, Session four, FRPC:

I could see that the support Alice received from her FRPC group visibly strengthened her resolve with her leadership project.

Researcher’s notes, 13 May 2008, Group C, Session five, FRPC:

I was really interested to see that in the course of the intervention Alice’s physical appearance and demeanour had changed markedly. She went from having a worried frown on her face and being withdrawn and quiet at sessions to coming in with a smile on her face and the confidence to share her ideas.

Alice's journal corroborates the researcher's observations; "I believe leadership is an ongoing process of hands-on experience, professional dialogue and reflection. This experience has definitely given me the confidence and know-how to develop my skills within leadership roles". Of note is the use of the term "confidence" which came up repeatedly in participant evidence and reinforces the importance of the affective domain in leadership learning and development. Alice's journal entry clearly evidences that she now possesses the self-confidence to take on leadership roles. When this last journal entry is compared to her first statement her leadership growth is apparent.

Some key insights gained from the evidence have been:

- the importance of the individual being prepared for change;
- the significance of the individual's sense of autonomy over their learning and development.

This means that when participants are empowered with the decision-making skills they have the understanding and desire to move from the preparedness for change stage to the next stage of being motivated to action. This has the effect of stimulating the progress of their learning towards the third and final stage, achievement of goals.

6.3.4.2 Personal motivation and the achievement of goals

The next two stages of development relate to personal motivation and the achievement of goals. Motivation, meaning to be moved to do something, is a significant feature of human nature that affects performance, persistence, and well-being across life's stages (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In the review on the conative domain (see section 3.2.3.2), Deci and Ryan's (1985) Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) suggests that different types of motivation support or undermine an individual's will to succeed. While Illeris's (2007) model supports the research on the importance for learning of motivation and volition, he maintains that emotion is an equally important incentive for learning.

Willingness to self-reflect and gaining positive feedback

Two important aspects of motivation and volition have been identified in the literature as necessary for higher-order learning. These are the willingness of an individual to take the first

step and reflect on their actions, behaviours and emotions (Gustafson & Bennett, 1999; Smith & Hatton, 1993; Stamper, 1996) coupled with gaining positive performance feedback that enhances “intrinsic motivation” (Deci, 1971; Harackiewicz, 1979). These aspects enable participants to gain awareness of the areas they need to improve. The interviews revealed evidence of participants who were willing to reflect on their experiences and examine their own leadership development needs. When asked in the interviews to “comment on things relevant to the research” (see Appendix 3 – Interview Questions), these participants made personal comments on their leadership abilities and their current skills base. Freda said, “I’ve been involved in other research projects” and Janice remarked, “I feel I’m ready to become a leader within the school”. Others showed recognition of their training needs. Sally commented that “this project will help me develop my skills and this in turn will help my school”. Joe stated, “I’m interested in formal training (in communication skills)”.

The final evaluative comments reveal the participants who were willing to engage in self-reflection and constructive feedback to address their development needs. Sam spoke of the effect of self-reflection on his leadership project:

Giving the individual the opportunity to critically self-reflect and examine their own needs ... [you] may have to provide scaffolding for them to be able to do that ... [The research project] it’s making me stop, think and apply to my own situation. The group have been my critical friends... their comments have helped me move my project forward [Sam].

Sally and Melinda sum up the learning benefits of self-reflection and FRPC. Sally remarked that “the group critical reflection and suggestions have been an essential part of the learning cycle. It puts into perspective the reasons for the principles and strategies being used”. Melinda referred to Argyris and Schön’s (1978) double loop learning theory to confirm the strength of reflection; “it’s going to do the second ‘loop’-reassessing, redoing the activity”. Participants were introduced to the NSW DET School Leadership Capability Framework (2002) during the intervention and encouraged to undertake the 360 degree reflective survey that used this framework to identify their leadership skills. However, the data sources did not provide evidence of participants’ willingness to self-reflect using the survey. This may be due to time constraints and the heavy school and research commitments of teachers during the intervention.

Evaluative comments on the FRPC sessions where colleagues focussed on giving constructive feedback were supportive of self-reflection. Karen remarked, “it [FRPC] opens you up to new ideas”; Leslie agreed, “it [FRPC] pushed our program along”; Steve commented that FRPC, “makes me stop and think and apply to my own situation”. Janice summed up the groups’ feelings on the provision of positive feedback, “bouncing feedback off one another generally helps”.

The evidence has indicated the importance of self-reflection and collegial feedback for promoting an individual’s motivation to learn and critically examine their developmental learning needs. The outcome of this learning is self-confidence which promotes change and ongoing learning.

Freda

In the evidence describing Freda, it is clear that she used self and group reflection and feedback from a critical friend throughout the intervention. These processes helped her to progress towards self-confidence. In the interview she commented on her professional discourse and reflective processes; “I enjoy professional dialogue with people in a similar situation ... I’m looking forward to anything new”. Freda described her principal as supportive; “he’s always interested in my plans”. Both the participant and researcher’s journals show Freda used self-reflection and professional dialogue with her principal to improve her leadership project; “I talk things over with Xx [principal’s name omitted] and he is able to help me think about the best way to approach things”.

Researcher’s journal, 20 February 2008:

Freda has previous experience in the assistant principal role. I could tell from informal conversations with her about her leadership project that she had thought about it and planned her approach prior to the commencement of the intervention. Freda told me about her plans at the interview. She consulted with the principal at each stage of her plan; “he wants to see my staff questionnaire and asked me to present it at the executive meeting”.

In her session three evaluation, Freda stated some early apprehension that was addressed through group dialogue; “for a lot of the session I felt a little confused, particularly when we

were identifying the strategies involved with the research process; with discussion it became clearer”. Once comfortable with the research process, she was motivated to implement her project and committed to achieving her goal; “I have clarified in my own mind how my project will proceed.”

Freda’s thoughts, behaviour and emotions provide insights into the importance of using learning strategies that are appropriate to an individual’s stage of development. The evidence shows Freda has confidence in her abilities because of the collegial support and positive feedback from her principal. Additionally, she displays the will to succeed, uses self-reflection to identify her needs and the peer processes of FRPC, collegial structures and debriefing with her principal to help her tailor her leadership project to achieve her goals. Freda has moved from the preparedness for change stage where she makes sense of her learning, to being willing to reflect on her project. She comments in her final evaluation that she continually reflects on her actions, asking herself, “what aren’t I doing effectively? How can I improve that?” Freda displays self-confidence and the ability to project into the leadership role when she agrees to her principal’s request that she presents her leadership project to other staff at an executive meeting. Her participation in the trial provides knowledge about the collaborative strategies, such as: FRPC, debriefing and iteration that have the potential to motivate an individual toward action and changed practice. Freda has reached the third developmental stage of achieving her goal, gained confidence in her leadership capacity, and this resulted in leadership growth.

Unwillingness/inability to recognise areas for development

Of importance for the study are the participants who displayed a lack of motivation in this second developmental stage. The behaviour of these participants is based on an apparent unwillingness to admit their leadership development needs or an inability to recognise and address these needs. The profiles of two participants, Joe and Jill, are presented as examples, albeit of differing degrees, of this lack of motivation and will to succeed. The evidence shows that Joe and Jill both reach a stage in their leadership projects where they are unable to move their project forward. Their experiences shed light on the influence of the emotions and behaviour/actions on leadership development. Coupled with this is the need to be aware of and tailor developmental programs to cater for the particular stage of an experienced teacher’s leadership growth.

Of interest is the role of the principal in these participants' leadership development. Joe's interview comments indicate his perception that he is unable to have a close working relationship with his principal, "she doesn't care about people and building one-on-one relationships, just getting the job done". However, Jill feels supported by her principal, "she has encouraged me to try other things". This changes when, from Jill's perspective, the principal does not fulfil her promise to relieve her and Janice from classes to attend the FRPC sessions in school time. Jill's comments in her journal indicate that she lacks confidence in the current relationship with her principal. "Xx [principal's name omitted] wants me to write a proposal of where the project should go next ... I gave the proposal to Xx"; "Xx has agreed I need guidance but hasn't helped me, whereas my stage supervisor was very supportive". These participants need motivation and the will to succeed to engage in tailored capacity building activities to address their areas of need.

Joe

Joe has had prior experience of a leadership role in private industry. The following evidence from his interview, the researcher's observations and his session three evaluation indicates he understands the theories of leadership. During the interview Joe used the technical terms to describe different leadership styles. He described the interpersonal style of his previous principal, "He was laissez-faire with paperwork...but he built relationships with his staff"..."dealt one-on-one with individuals," and "showed people respect". In comparison, he perceives the new principal as having a more autocratic style "[she] practises leadership that is positional rather than personal"..."she tells people what she wants, they may not like it but they deliver". He also referred to the leadership style he had experienced in his former job in private industry. "A line manager doesn't need a lot of leadership skills compared to the leadership of schools". Joe sums up his view of leadership as, "leadership is about managing people, relationships and building goodwill."

The researcher's observations confirm Joe's ability to understand the theories of leadership.

Researcher's notes, 23 February, 2008:

Joe's use of leadership terminology shows he is quite knowledgeable about the different styles of leadership. He seems quite passionate about his interest in the

research. I can see that his industry experience will help present a different viewpoint in the discussions.

Researcher's notes, 18 March, 2008:

Joe demonstrated he was engaged in the project by bringing along information he had researched on leadership styles. I showed this information to the group and asked if they wanted a copy.

Joe's evaluative comments during the first three sessions focus on the relational aspects of leadership and their effect on a person's emotions, "leadership is about personal relationships"; "gives people the confidence"; "trust needs to be built".

While Joe has displayed a keen interest in the theories of leadership, the following, evaluative comments, journal entries and informal conversation with the researcher, reveal Joe seems unwilling or unable to reflect on his own leadership development needs. His evaluative comments show limited motivation to succeed in leadership practices. "I believe someone can learn all about leadership and want to be a leader but not develop into one". The journal also reveals limited reflection on his leadership needs and a lack of internalisation of the processes being discussed. His entries talk about leadership in general and the strengths of the FRPC process with regards to establishing the "camaraderie/trust and openness" of his group. Joe only makes one general reference to his own leadership project. "I feel very positive about my own project and am hoping to be able to continue to work it through".

The leadership project Joe had chosen was a challenging one, involving his building of a professional development program for the executive at his school. Joe also volunteered to trial formal leadership training in needs analysis. The following evidence from the researcher's observations, reveal Joe's apparent inability to reflect on his areas of developmental need and a lack of motivation regarding his leadership project.

Researcher's journal, 27 March 2008:

Joe had an informal conversation with me after session three about his leadership project. He commented that, he had decided to use his previous leadership experience in private industry to conduct a "need analysis of participants". He gave little detail about his plans after the analysis. I sensed his project may be stalled at

this point. After further discussion, he asked me for help. I spoke with him at length and asked him several probing questions about the project, along similar lines as the GROW model. His replies were emotive and went off on a tangent about his deputy “competing with me at project meetings for the principal’s attention”. I didn’t know him well enough to tell whether he was willing to undertake further formal training in whole school change management processes to address his needs. Instead, I suggested several steps for change that he could trial over the next few weeks.

Researcher’s notes, 10 April, 2008, Session four, Group B, FRPC:

I had not heard back from Joe after session three so was pleased to watch his reactions in the first FRPC session. The group questioning showed, at this point Joe had not progressed his project, beyond designing questions for the needs analysis. The group lent him support through the suggestions they made about his project. This helped him to formulate his “Way forward”. It was interesting to observe his acceptance of the group’s constructive feedback. This differed from the informal views he expressed to me on the lack of help he had received from his principal and deputy.

Joe’s evaluation of the FRPC was, “good model [GROW], it helped to focus group discussion towards constructive suggestions and outcomes... [I] need to focus on getting this project done”. The peer processes provided support for Joe to identify his needs. However, there is limited evidence of Joe reflecting on his developmental needs and progressing with his project.

The data show that Joe focuses on his emotions with regard to leadership. The interview reveals that Joe felt supported by his previous principal, because he speaks of their close relationship, whereas, he uses negative terms to describe his relationship with the current principal. Joe also employed a variety of strategies that indicate an apparent unwillingness to recognise or inability to reflect upon his own leadership development needs. Joe’s informal conversations and the researcher’s observations seem to indicate a tendency for Joe to take limited responsibility for his own development. His limited journal entries about his project and his responses at the FRPC sessions provide limited reflection on his own developmental needs. He seems concerned about others behaviour and actions, such as: the deputy competing with him and the principal not caring about him. Joe’s behaviour suggests his need

for a more nurturing environment that prepares him for change and developmental progression.

The data also suggest Joe has limited knowledge of how to progress the change management project he has undertaken. Despite being assisted by the researcher and Learning Group B, Joe provides limited evidence in his journal of being able to get past the needs analysis phase of his project. Additionally, Joe gave limited feedback in his journal and during the FRPC sessions on the processes and outcomes of trialling the formal training strategy in needs analysis that he volunteered to research. Given Joe's prior skills in needs analysis from his industry leadership role, he seems to lack confidence in his leadership abilities and this could account for the apparent lack of motivation to progress to the second stage of leadership development.

In summary, Joe's informal conversation seems to display a stage of readiness for change. Whilst he articulates the leadership theories, his leadership practice is challenged by his emotions and reliance on past experiences of leadership, using needs analysis processes which are familiar to him and give him confidence in his abilities. The researcher suggests Joe needs to be supported in a nurturing environment where he feels confident. He also needs opportunities to practise leadership strategies appropriate to his stage of development that help him to reflect on his needs and motivate his leadership growth.

Jill

The following triangulated evidence from the interview, participant reflections and researcher's observations track the change in Jill's leadership philosophy. The evidence indicates that Jill willingly reflects on her abilities and is aware that she needs help with her leadership project. However, she is unable to recognise how to address her developmental needs. When Jill is given support from the researcher and collegial group, and the opportunities to practise the collaborative FRPC processes, she gains the confidence to progress her project.

In the interviews, Jill reported on her leadership experiences by referring to the scope of her leadership roles: "one of my leadership experiences was coordinating physical education programs for 200 students in New Zealand". She listed the leadership roles she had undertaken on her own. Jill's experience of leadership was from an organisational viewpoint,

where she was the leader with the expertise who told other people what to do, “it never really fazed me dealing with large groups”.

Jill had chosen a challenging leadership project, to implement an innovative whole- school writing program. Her expertise with the writing framework was acknowledged in the school. Jill approached this project by utilising her skills as an organisational leader. In informal conversations with the researcher, Jill said that she “preferred to work on my own”, and offered this as the reason why she decided to train other staff from her stage group in the writing skills. Rather than involve the other staff proactively in the writing project she chose to conduct demonstration lessons with their classes. From her journal comments in the FRPC session four, she was happy working this way. Jill remarked “the teachers were receptive” and “they could recognise the need for change.”

After session four, the principal asked Jill to write a proposal outlining the strategies she wanted to use to implement the writing project across the whole school. This was done in an effort to get Jill to reflect on the actions she needed to progress her project. Jill reflected in her journal, “I’ve got ideas in my head, but how it’s going to get done [plan the change process] I don’t know ... I will have to think about it”; “I know what I need to be doing, but how I’m going to be doing it needs guidance”.

While Jill was willing to reflect on her leadership development needs in her journal, the researcher’s observations confirm that she was unfamiliar with the strategic planning leadership skills to use.

Researcher’s notes, 13 April 2008, Session four, Group B, FRPC:

Jill has been asked to do a proposal that requires her to strategically plan the implementation of her project beyond her stage group. She told me she needs help. I realised the principal was setting Jill the task of writing a proposal as a strategy to force Jill to plan the change process. I’ll need to talk to her privately and offer my support with strategic planning.

Jill’s evaluative comments on the FRPC process in session five show that the peer questioning of her program and their constructive feedback helped her to reflect on her project and plan her actions. As well as the researcher’s help, the collegial group gave Jill the emotional and motivational support and constructive feedback that she needed. Jill stated “the

group has helped me to decide which way to go. I now know what I have to do [to implement the whole school literacy writing project]...I learnt that leadership is collaborative". She later adds, "the benefit of being in this group hasn't just helped with my project ... it's helped my whole way of thinking [on leadership]"

Jill's journal confirms her growing confidence based on the support from her collegial group and the FRPC process that, through focussed questioning, motivated her to strategically plan the steps in her whole school change process. "I spoke about the challenges of my project, getting the stage three people on board"; "It's a difficult thing ... getting them to change their view. Rather than trying to dictate to them they need to make that decision themselves ... a certain amount of ownership; I feel a lot better now that my proposal is complete". Further into the project she writes in her journal, "I feel it's going well" and "another group member has asked for a copy of my program so it's great to see the 'ripple effect' the change has had on staff".

Deci and Ryan (2000) refer to the motivational stage of development that Jill is experiencing as "integrated regulation". This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one's other values and needs. "The more one internalises the reasons for an action and assimilates them to the self, this results in the motivation to act" (p. 247).

In tracking the following journal entries Jill's will to succeed and her leadership growth is apparent. Her comments after session one show her views on leadership are changing; "I can see that leadership is not standing alone and giving directions; it's collaborative and [involves] sharing ideas, not coming up with all the ideas yourself". After the third session she wrote, "I'm starting to see patterns here on how to approach a leadership role. What considerations must be thought of, the value of sharing common views and brainstorming to find alternate options". By session five her journal entry reflects the influence of the FRPC sessions where she explored leadership issues with her peers, "I can see that leadership is a collective notion and that working collaboratively is just as important and most productive." Jill's comments evidence a shift in her leadership philosophy from an organisational focus to one of a collaborative perspective.

In Jill's case, it seems she suffered from an inability to identify her developmental needs, prior to commencing her project. She was supported by the researcher and a variety of peer

processes to address her needs. These strategies catered for her motivational stage of leadership development by helping her to practise strategic planning for change. A later journal entry indicates Jill's leadership growth, "I feel better equipped to handle a multitude of leadership challenges ... I gained confidence in my ability to communicate with staff across the school and to plan a whole school writing program." As mentioned earlier, Jill's reference to her growing confidence is a common emotion expressed by participants and confirms the importance of the inter-relationship between the conative and affective domains for higher-order learning.

From Jill's final journal entry it is apparent she has reached the achievement of goals developmental stage and she reflects on her feelings of self-confidence. "This course ... gave me ... the essential mindset and level of maturity to overcome any barriers in taking on leadership roles. I feel as if I can see things from the big picture rather than looking up at the prize and trying to climb the stairs to reach it".

Summary

This section proposed the four major factors that contribute to leadership development and a leadership philosophy for experienced teachers. Evidence was provided to support each factor. Of interest were the roles of the principal and peers in creating a nurturing and supportive climate for leadership learning and development. A vital consideration for leadership growth is the need to be aware of an experienced teacher's stage of leadership development and to tailor the suite of proposed leadership strategies to meet these needs. Finally, the profiles of Kerrie, Alice, Freda, Joe and Jill provided evidence that supported this consideration.

6.4 Addressing the leadership development challenge

The evidence indicates that there are four major factors that address the leadership development challenge. These major factors answer the overarching research question: what are the ways in which an intervention can promote leadership learning, development and succession in schools? Of the eight Design Principles developed by participants to answer the participant- developed research question (a subset of the overarching research question), six have been incorporated into these major factors. The other two, mentoring and internship lack evidence from the study to indicate their effectiveness for leadership learning, development

and succession in NSW state schools. The four major factors that should be considered in any intervention to promote leadership development are:

- the significance of the principal's role in providing a nurturing environment for leadership learning and development. This factor, particularly relates to the principal's leadership style and the relationship they have with experienced teachers in the school
- the engagement of experienced teachers in appropriate strategies that will enhance their leadership learning and development. These strategies include the two Design Principles of shadowing/modelling an experienced leader, and practical experience/ "on-the-job" training in areas such as whole school leadership projects. Other leadership strategies include acting/relieving in formal leadership positions and sharing whole school leadership roles
- the role peers play in leadership learning and development. The collaborative peer processes include four Design Principles: collegial leadership structures- external to the participant's school, debriefing with a friend, iterative cycles of professional dialogue and critical reflection. Other peer processes shown to be effective for leadership development include Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) and internal collegial leadership structures such as an "aspiring leadership group"
- the need to cater for an experienced teacher's leadership growth. This factor incorporates acknowledgement of the stages of leadership development, proposed by the researcher. These stages are: preparedness for change, personal motivation and the achievement of goals.

6.5 Conclusion

Chapter Six presented the data that led to the emergence of the eight Design Principles. It then took into account additional data that indicated other important factors in leadership development. When these two sets of evidence were considered holistically, the findings suggested that there are four major factors that contribute to leadership learning, development and a leadership philosophy for experienced teachers. The evidence suggested that the role of the principal is a vital factor for creating a nurturing environment that promotes leadership learning and development. A suite of capacity-building strategies was also proposed for their

potential to enhance leadership development. These strategies included two of the Design Principles for which there was evidence of their effectiveness. A third important factor for leadership growth was the support of a professional learning community that utilised collegial structures and collaborative peer processes to promote an individual's strengths and identify areas for further leadership development. These peer processes included four of the Design Principles proven to be successful. Finally, another major factor is the need to be aware of the different stages of an individual's leadership development and to tailor developmental programs to meet those needs.

The next chapter discusses key findings arising from the literature as well as from the study. The limitations of the study, which include the lack of evidence regarding the effectiveness of the other two Design Principles are described. The conclusions and the major recommendations are provided for addressing the leadership development needs of experienced teachers. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the scope and significance of the study, together with directions for further research.

Chapter Seven: Discussion and Conclusions

The previous chapter discussed the findings. The findings proposed that there were four major factors that addressed the overarching research question. The four factors are: the significance of the principal's role; the engagement of experienced teachers in appropriate strategies that will enhance their leadership learning and development; the role that peers play in leadership learning and development; and the need to cater for an experienced teacher's leadership growth. Included in the factors related to the use of appropriate strategies for leadership development and the role of peers are the six Design Principles developed by participants that were demonstrated to be successful.

Overview

This chapter begins with a brief discussion of the key findings drawn from the literature and the study. The study's limitations and conclusions are then presented. The conclusions shed light on crucial aspects of adult learning and leadership development such as: the influence of an individual's thoughts, behaviours and emotions on their leadership learning, and the need to cater for an individual's particular stage of leadership development. Of interest are the strengths of the Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) strategy and Design Based Research methodology, for addressing these aspects. The study presents recommendations designed to enhance leadership development programs in NSW state schools. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the scope and significance of this study, and suggested directions for further work.

7.1 Key Findings from the literature

Inman (2009) maintains that "the majority of what leaders do is learnt, self-taught and acquired throughout their life history" (p. 421). This quote reflects the complexity of the leadership, learning and development processes examined in this study. To gain a better understanding of these processes it is important to highlight the major points, drawn from the literature reviewed in the earlier chapters that inform the key findings and conclusions discussed in this section:

- The significance of the principal's role for developing and sustaining a culture of improvement that keeps NSW state schools abreast of global standards;

- The multi-dimensional nature of leadership and the positive influence of a collaborative culture on the function of educational leadership;
- The value of Fullan’s (2003) PLC approach for fostering collaborative practices and opportunities that enhance leadership learning in schools;
- The important role experienced teachers play in fostering ongoing school improvement;
- The range of collaborative leadership learning strategies that engage and motivate experienced teachers to participate in leadership development;
- The leadership strategies that incorporate experiential and reflective learning activities, and engender higher-order practitioner learning;
- The value of Design Based Research methodology for leadership development interventions; and
- The significance of the cognitive, conative, and affective domain on adult learning and leadership development.

7.2 Key Findings from the study

The evidence from the study produced the key findings discussed below. The first two argue the necessity for creating in leadership candidates an understanding of, and commitment to, educational leadership in NSW state schools. The other key findings suggest four major factors that can enhance leadership learning and the development of a leadership philosophy. These factors are significant because rather than focus on a “one size fits all” approach to leadership learning and development, the factors reflect the inter-relationship of the external influences on learning: the environment, social interactions and relationships, and the internal processes of the mind. These factors provide insights regarding the need to generate leadership development programs that are appropriate for each individual and tailored to strengthen their leadership growth.

7.2.1 The necessity for a deeper understanding of educational leadership in NSW state schools

The literature indicates that quality educational leadership is necessary to provide ongoing improvements in education that ensure NSW state schools align with global standards

(Marzano et al., 2005; Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1996; Tabberer, 1994). This type of leadership in schools is complex and collegial. Fullan's (2003) PLC approach involves a variation of distributed leadership that promotes a collaborative culture independent of the principal's authority and power (King & Newman, 2001; Limerick et al., 1998; Seashore et al., 2003; Stoll et al., 2006; Zand, 1997). Such an approach seems valuable for leadership development. This approach was tested and supported by this study.

An analysis of the findings shows that participants appreciated the PLC approach (Fullan, 2003) for promoting a collaborative culture in schools. The findings suggested that the major strengths of this approach were the range of support provided, and the constructive feedback given to participants by their collegial Learning Group with regard to their school leadership projects.

7.2.2 The value of practitioner-based research for engaging and motivating experienced teachers in leadership learning and development

The literature suggests that experienced teachers play an important role in working collaboratively with the principal on school improvement processes (Hollowell, 2010; Patrick, Hisley & Kempler, 2000; Sadker & Zittleman, 2007). To address the problem of a reduction in the pool of leadership aspirants, and ensure leadership succession, the study proposed expanding the target group for leadership development to include experienced teachers. The literature reviewed proposed that collaborative leadership strategies such as: work-based practices, informal conversation, self and group reflection and iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection, have the potential to engage and motivate experienced teachers in leadership development and result in higher-order learning (Gredler, 2005; Ladyshevsky, 2006; Retallick & Butt, 2004; Tinsley & Lebak, 2009).

This study investigated the provision of opportunities that engage experienced teachers in collaborative practitioner-based research at the workplace. The findings revealed that these processes motivated practitioner learning and the development of the higher-order leadership skills that are needed by school leaders to promote sustainable school improvement. Evidence from the participant interviews advocated the importance of contextual experience in the leadership role. Whether acting or relieving in a leadership position, participants maintained that this experience raised their awareness of the intricacies of the role and engaged them in experiential and reflective learning that developed their leadership expertise.

The strengths of collaborative practitioner-based research for leadership learning are particularly exemplified in the profiles of participants who volunteered to trial leadership strategies (see Figure 6.1, p.166). Karen's journal entries show the powerful impact that shadowing the two Deputy Principals at her school had on her leadership learning and development. Jill volunteered to trial debriefing with a critical friend. Her journal entries track the influence of the experiential and reflective learning processes on her leadership skills and philosophy. The evaluative comments of participants also demonstrate the iterative cycles of inquiry and reflection that engaged and motivated them to build their skills, progress their expertise and develop their philosophies of leadership.

Evidence from the data sources supports the value of designing school leadership projects and peer strategies that engage participants in collaborative experiential and reflective learning activities and motivate them to achieve their project goals.

Further, the literature in Chapter Four discussed the characteristics of Design Based Research (Design Based Research Collective, 2003; Reeves et al., 2011; van den Akker et al., 2006). The researcher felt that these characteristics made DBR an appropriate methodology for developing and evaluating a leadership intervention. The literature reviewed suggested that the rationale for implementing DBR was that the multiple methods used in this approach fostered systematic practitioner-based research, collaboration and the testing of key learning theories to produce new theory (Cobb et al., 2003; Collins, 1999; Jonassen, Cernusca & Ionas, 2007). DBR methodology was valuable for this study because it provided a structured process for the research, and the collaborative practitioner-based methods supported participants to develop the Design Principles. The participants became committed to the Design Principles they recommended because, through enacting the research processes, they tested the theory, experienced the relevance and became aware of the value of this new theory to their workplace practice.

7.2.3. The principal's role in fostering a nurturing environment for leadership learning and development

The evidence indicated that there are two main elements in the leadership practised by the principal that are vital to creating and maintaining a nurturing environment that fosters leadership development. Balanced with a caring and compassionate leadership style, is the personal relationship the individual has with their principal. The evidence showed that a

sound, encouraging relationship where the principal was guiding and challenging teachers, termed by McCulla et al. as the “nudge factor” (2007, p.2), resulted in teachers undertaking leadership development opportunities. This nurturing approach fosters the mutual trust and respect of experienced teachers and promotes their self-confidence to engage in leadership learning. By comparison, if these teachers perceive their relationship with the principal is a negative one it makes “coming to work a chore” [Sally], and consequently hinders leadership development.

7.2.4 Appropriate strategies that enhance leadership learning and development

Significantly, this factor represents a shift in the design focus of leadership development programs. In the past, the assumption was that leadership skills can be taught via the expertise gained in a range of training programs with experienced teachers as the knowledge providers supporting the training of others. However, the literature suggests the perspective needs to change to a focus on experienced teachers as learners and the provision of developmental leadership programs that address their adult learning needs. The review highlights the need for leadership development programs that focus on the three-way interaction between the environment and the social and psychological dimensions of adult learning.

The evidence confirms that by offering experienced teachers a flexible suite of appropriate strategies for practising leadership learning, they can choose to implement the strategies that are relevant and appropriate to their learning needs. Of interest is that six of the Design Principles developed by the participants affirmed the effectiveness of certain strategies for leadership learning and development as mentioned in other data. The potential for the development of leadership expertise in experienced teachers increases when these strategies are conducted in a nurturing learning environment, such as a PLC (Fullan, 2003).

7.2.5 The role peers play in leadership learning and development

The literature of adult learning theories suggested the important inter-relationship of the external dimensions of learning such as the environment, social interactions and relationships. A range of peer strategies incorporating these dimensions for adult learning were drawn from the literature and participant suggestions, and trialled in the LLI to foster higher-order learning and development. These peer strategies were: the collegial groupings,

Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC), informal conversations and debriefing with a critical friend.

The evidence from all data sources confirmed the positive influence of peers in leadership learning. These peer strategies were enhanced by the nurturing learning environment of the PLC (Fullan, 2003). The collegiality of a professional learning community provides: non-threatening feedback that enhances a teacher's ability to reflect and understand their learning needs; support for a teacher's will to succeed and emotional development; and fosters a teacher's ownership of change practices.

7.2.6 The need to cater for an experienced teacher's leadership growth

Aside from external factors, the literature suggested that another major factor influencing adult learning and development is the internal processes of the mind (Bain, 1868; Kolbe, 1990; McDougall, 1923). This factor can make a significant difference to participants achieving their goals and developing self-confidence in their abilities. The literature evaluation indicated considerable research has been conducted on cognitive psychology, particularly the benefits of using problem-solving activities for enhancing the development of leadership practices (Anderson, 1993; Shuell, 1990). However, the literature also advocated that a vital element for promoting higher-order learning and leadership development was to ensure learning activities take into consideration all three domains, namely the cognitive, conative and affective (Glaser, 1990; Pelissier, 1991; Stevenson, 1994).

The conative domain has a significant influence on learning. A review of the literature of this domain offers an explanation for the behaviours and actions that align with an individual's three psychological stages of development, namely their preparedness for change, motivation and achievement of goals (Corno & Kanfer, 1993; Huitt, 2003; Kolbe 1990, 2004; Sullo, 2007). The initial stage of development relates to a participant who is mentally prepared for change (Fullan, 2001; Lambe & Bones, 2006). This stage is fostered when the individual has autonomy over their learning experiences (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Prochaska & Velicer, 1997; Weick, 1995). This autonomy provides participants with the ability to set goals and control the planning and direction of their learning and development. In this study, participant responses were varied when the principal's apparent autocratic leadership style gave them limited control over their leadership projects. Group A responded with single loop learning and displayed behaviours seemingly akin to disengagement in the learning activities (see

section 6.2.4). Conversely, others like Alice were stimulated to adopt a more proactive approach to their own learning. Alice's profile (pp.193-195) tracks the double and triple loop learning processes she experienced resulting in her leadership growth and the achievement of her goals.

The next stage of development relates to motivation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Huitt, 2003; Kolbe, 2004; Snow & Jackson, 1992). This is exemplified in the study through a participant's willingness to engage in self and group reflection on their actions throughout the iterative learning cycles. Coupled with this action, is a willingness to accept constructive feedback on their practice from their peers. This behaviour is particularly significant when the same participants previously displayed an unwillingness to accept similar feedback from their principal. The evidence from the profiles of Freda (pp.197-198), who was willing to reflect on her needs compared to Joe (pp.199-202), who was unwilling or unable to reflect on his learning needs, reveals a divergence in their emotions and progression towards self-confidence. Jill's profile (pp.202-205) exemplifies learners who are unable to identify their needs and her emotions reflect this confusion. However with the support and constructive feedback of her Learning Group, Jill was able to progress her development. The findings confirm the importance of motivation, volition and emotions to leadership development.

A final stage of development was identified in the literature as a stage where a learner experiences feelings of self-confidence in their learning and leadership capacities (Illeris, 2009; Kolbe, 2004; Ormrod, 2006). The profiles of Freda (pp.197-198) and Alice (pp.193-195) exemplify this stage and show their commitment to leadership learning processes.

The literature reviewed further argued that the inter-relationship of the conative and affective domains is crucial for higher-order learning (Boud et al., 1985; Brockbank & McGill, 2006; Hammond & Feinstein, 2006; Korthagen, 2005; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). This inter-relationship is particularly significant when considering the individual's emotions and the way these feelings can influence their progression through the three stages of development. Participants such as Kerrie (pp.191-192), Alice (pp.193-195), Freda (pp.197-198), Joe (pp.199-202), and Jill (pp.202-205) expressed their feelings about leadership and their leadership projects in their interviews, learning journals and at the FRPC sessions. These emotions were seen to influence, to varying degrees, their volition to achieve their goals regarding leadership development.

Consequently, developmental programs need to be appropriate for each individual, cater for their learning needs and stage of development, and take into consideration their emotions. The success of these developmental programs depends on whether they are tailored to enhance an individual's leadership growth.

7.3 Limitations

The intervention revealed two major design issues that arose with regard to the facilitation of the collaborative practitioner-based research. The first issue concerned the “shadowing” strategy proposed by participants, and, in particular, access to the resources to enable the trialling of a shadowing strategy for leadership development. The other issue involved the disengagement of Group A in the FRPC during sessions four and five.

The researcher did not foresee that “shadowing/modelling leaders we admire” would be a strategy that the participants would propose for trialling. This strategy raised a resourcing issue. To effectively trial this strategy in a school, funding was needed to release the teacher from their classes so the teacher could align their schedule with that of the leader whom they wished to shadow. Karen was the participant who volunteered to trial the shadowing strategy. The intervention already relied on the goodwill of the participants attending four sessions in their own time. Additionally, all but one principal initially agreed to fund teacher relief from classes to attend sessions four and five. In this instance, the funding issues were discussed with Karen. Karen was encouraged to approach the issue of funding shadowing as a problem-solving activity. Karen's way forward was to utilise her time, in the relieving Head Teacher Welfare role, for shadowing the two deputy principals at her school when they conducted welfare/disciplinary interviews with students. [NB. Having another teacher present at welfare/disciplinary interviews, particularly the head teacher welfare, is a common practice to support the welfare needs of students in schools (NSW Department of School Education, Student Welfare, Good Discipline and Effective Learning, Student Welfare Policy, 1996)]. Future intervention sessions were adapted to reflect this type of problem-solving activity so the DBR process was practitioner-led, not researcher-led.

A second challenge centred on the disengagement of Group A in the FRPC sessions four and five. While Group A proactively participated in the Learning Team sessions of the intervention, when it came to sessions four and five they displayed behaviours that indicated the likelihood of disengagement with the FRPC process. However, the behaviours displayed

may have resulted from their belief that their aspiring leadership group addressed their leadership development needs and they did not see the FRPC sessions as relevant to these needs. The researcher realised, from her teaching experience, that this group had scheduled session four in the last week of term when teachers are normally tired. However, their lack of engagement seemed to go beyond this physical factor. The researcher's observations noted limited participation in the GROW model of questioning, dismissive comments when specifically asked to respond to a question and non-verbal behaviours such as yawning and a lack of volunteering of information. One participant exemplified this disengagement by starting to pack up the room while one of her colleagues was presenting her leadership project.

After session four, the researcher reflected on this behaviour and considered strategies for overcoming this challenge. In Session five, when similar behaviour was displayed, the group of five was divided into two smaller groups and each member was assigned a role: coach, coachee and observer. This strategy entailed the researcher joining one group, as an observer. This group engaged in the FRPC process and planned an evaluation strategy to improve their project, whereas the other group chatted and appeared to be off task. When the five members came together at the end of the session the latter group offered limited feedback on their FRPC.

Coupled with the design limitations, are the researcher's concerns regarding mentoring and internship, the fourth and fifth Design Principles developed by participants. The line of evidence was very clear in support of the effectiveness of the other six Design Principles for leadership development. However, the data analysis revealed a lack of evidence from the LLI on the success of mentoring and internship as leadership development strategies.

Mentoring was mentioned as an issue during Activity One of the intervention. Participants, when presented with the age trend data, showed concern that the reduction in the number of veteran leaders would result in a lack of personnel to support and guide future leadership development activities for experienced teachers. Leslie stated that as "these people are retiring; there won't be any mentors in the future".

Leslie's comments support the issue, raised by the researcher in Chapter One, regarding a limited pool of veteran leaders in the future for conducting leadership development strategies such as mentoring. This trend was one of the reasons for the researcher trialling FRPC as an

alternative form of development when compared to the expert/novice model that relied on experienced leaders for professional development. Although Kerrie volunteered to trial mentoring during the intervention, neither she nor other participants provided data to support the effectiveness of this strategy.

This Design Principle proposed “use[ing] retired principals experienced in leadership who have skills to impart [for mentoring roles].” However, this suggestion relies on resource funding to implement a mentoring strategy. The literature revealed the increase in government interventionist policies posed a potential barrier to implementing this strategy because these policies focus government funding on compliance training of principals in NSW state schools (see section 2.3.1.2). The evidence showed this type of training hindered experimentation, risk-taking and leadership growth (Von Frank, 2009). Another challenge is the government move to budgetary constraints.

Internship was suggested as the fifth Design Principle during session six of the intervention. The concept of internship is defined as an unpaid professional placement for an extended period of time. This Design Principle proposed “mini-opportunities” for leadership such as “either on a rotating basis in other schools, or in a different environment, or create an Assistant Principal volunteer position in schools.” However, neither internship nor the other “mini-opportunities” suggested were mentioned in the data gathered from any of the sources. Since internship is a training model used in some undergraduate teacher courses and in other industries, the researcher can only assume that the notion has come from a participant’s real life experiences or interactions. Furthermore, internship relies on resource funding and its implementation as a strategy for leadership development faces similar government challenges as outlined for mentoring.

7.4 Conclusions

This section outlines the major conclusions arising from the study. The literature review indicated that the principal is not just a leader based on their position in the school hierarchy, but is responsible for fostering educational leadership in schools resulting in quality education. The findings support this view and indicate the need for experienced teachers to develop the capacity to strategically plan and lead whole school change and deliver ongoing school improvements. The literature suggests principals with these leadership skills are

successful at ensuring NSW state schools are at the cutting edge of global standards (Scott & Brennan, 2003).

Leadership development programs need to engage experienced teachers in activities that foster collaborative practitioner-based research in the workplace. These activities result in experienced teachers gaining the change management skills to perform the role of a school principal and ensure sustainable leadership succession. A current NSW DEC system requirement is that principals and teachers conduct research on the school organisation to inform planning processes and future school directions. In this regard the principal is responsible for working with the school community to identify school targets and develop school management plans (NSW DEC School Management Plan Guidelines, 2011). The literature has shown that there are limited opportunities for experienced teachers to develop these practitioner-based leadership skills (Busher & Harris, 1999). Supporting the strengths of practitioner-based skills, is recent evidence from the Smarter Schools National Partnerships project (SSNP), targeting a small number of schools in each state. The project suggests that when teachers are provided with practitioner-based opportunities, they develop the skills to research and plan change practices. “A strong base of student performance data and the growing confidence of teachers [resulted in teachers informing]... their practice in response to this evidence” (SSNP NSW Annual report, 2011, p. 3). A feature of the Design Based Research methodology is that it provides a sound foundation to foster practitioner-based research in the school setting.

A vital aspect of leadership development is the individual’s mental processing of issues that affect their learning. In the past, the focus has been on the cognitive domain for leadership development. An evaluation of the literature of the three domains advocated the need for developmental activities that take into consideration all three domains. The review also showed three inter-related features that reflect the influence of the conative and affective domains on adult learning and leadership development. These features are: the participant’s autonomy over their learning, motivation to reflect on their developmental needs, and volition to achieve their goals. Coupled with these features is the significance of the participant’s feelings of self-esteem and self-confidence. These features and emotions need to be considered when designing development programs to enhance the leadership learning of experienced teachers.

Evidence of the impact of the conative domain on practice suggests the individual needs to be prepared for changes in practice and willing to self-reflect on their own learning needs and areas for development. To succeed, individuals need to have autonomy over their learning. However, the findings revealed that this is not always the case. Adult learning and development in this domain often depends on a variety of influences such as the leadership style of the principal, the relationship that participants have with their principal, structures and processes established within and outside the school context for collaborative learning, and the stage of development of the individual.

The findings also revealed that the affective domain has a powerful influence on learning and development. The participants' emotions, particularly those related to feelings of being supported and having confidence, fostered engagement in their learning, resilience to the challenges posed by the school context and a willingness to achieve their goals. However, participants' negative feelings result in disengagement and a disincentive toward leadership development.

It is essential that leadership development programs include activities that take into consideration the three domains, namely the cognitive, conative and affective. Coupled with this approach is the necessity to design activities that particularly address the influence of the conative and affective domains on the participant's learning needs, in order to enhance ongoing development.

In the past, leadership development programs were planned as a "one size fits all" approach. Currently, NSW DEC Professional Learning and Leadership Development (PLLD) directorate programs are designed as on-line modules that teachers can tap into on demand. The evidence indicated that these modules are not entirely satisfactory.

The findings suggest the need to consider the stages of leadership development of experienced teachers from a long-term perspective. The implication is that a one-off in-service or short term developmental program is not sufficient to engender and sustain the high level of learning needed for leadership roles. Issues often emerge based on the context and an individual's stage of development. A module approach, while flexible, is limited in the capacity to cater for individual differences in learning. There is a need to coordinate and strengthen a developmental approach to leadership learning and capacity building. A pre-requisite of leadership development programs is that they are flexible enough to cater for an

individual's learning needs at each stage of their development. At the same time they must be accompanied by a nurturing environment for leadership growth and encompass a range of strategies for practising experiential learning and reflection at the workplace.

The use of Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) with experienced teachers is clearly of importance because of the recent changes in the teaching profile, as discussed earlier. An emerging need in NSW state schools is strategies for leadership development that do not solely rely on the expertise of those in formal leadership positions. In this regard, the role of peers for promoting a non-threatening and supportive learning environment for practising leadership skills cannot be overestimated. FRPC, focused on leadership projects, was proposed as an innovative leadership strategy because it incorporates experiential and reflective learning in the workplace, with collegial peer groups. The evidence revealed that experienced teachers welcomed the support of their peers in the learning process and this was reflected in the Design Principles they developed. Participants also accepted the constructive feedback from their peers and gained the motivation to achieve their goals. In contrast, participants were, at times, unwilling to accept similar advice from those in leadership positions or lacked the autonomy or the confidence to achieve their goals on their own.

One of the issues in Australia is that there are very few studies that use Design Based Research (DBR) methodology in this area (Anderson & Shattuck, 2012). This study is one of the first to use aspects of DBR with experienced teachers in NSW state schools. The literature described the characteristics of DBR methodology that made it suitable for trialling both Fullan's (2003) PLC approach and the leadership strategies in this study. The iterative phase was limited to two cycles of inquiry and reflection, because of the time and commitment constraints on the participants. The number of cycles has been a common issue when DBR is used in education (Anderson & Shattuck, 2012).

The key findings confirm the potential of DBR methodology for successful use in leadership development programs with experienced teachers in NSW state schools. DBR is a significant approach because the methodology promotes collaboration, the testing of learning theories and systematic practitioner-based research processes that engage and motivate the leadership learning and development of experienced teachers.

Summary

This section presented the key findings of the literature and the study, the limitations and the conclusions. This discussion highlighted the importance of:

- planning leadership development programs that promote a Professional Learning Community (PLC) approach, as suggested by Fullan (2003);
- an understanding of, and commitment to, the dimensions of educational leadership in NSW state schools;
- the value of practitioner-based research activities for engaging and motivating experienced teachers in leadership development;
- the four major factors that enhance leadership learning and the development of a leadership philosophy with experienced teachers. These factors relate to the key roles played by the principal and peers in leadership development, the importance of providing a suite of appropriate strategies for leadership learning and ensuring these strategies address the stage of an individual's leadership growth. These factors have the potential to equip experienced teachers with the leadership capacity and resilience to face the everyday challenges of the principal's position.
- the strengths of Design Based Research interventions to promote leadership development.

7.5 Major Recommendations for Leadership Development in NSW

A range of recommendations regarding the implications of the study for the leadership development of experienced teachers in NSW is presented. These recommendations are informed by the literature and based on the findings, limitations and conclusions discussed earlier. These recommendations deal with issues that involve: leadership development opportunities that provide long-term contextual experiences and practitioner-based research processes, tailoring leadership development programs to meet the learning needs of experienced teachers at the different stages of their development, cultivating facilitative leadership, Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC) and a co-ordinated approach to leadership development and succession planning.

7.5.1 Leadership development opportunities that provide long-term contextual experiences and practitioner-based research processes

A major recommendation of this study is the need for the principal to work collaboratively with the professional learning community in schools to establish a range of leadership development opportunities. These opportunities need to be relevant to experienced teachers, developed over a timeframe suitable to the school, and provide on-going contextual experiences and practitioner-based research processes for experienced teachers to learn about leadership. These learning experiences would demystify the leadership role and develop leadership capacity.

While acting/relieving in a leadership role was identified as a Design Principle for leadership learning, participants raised the issue of the limited opportunities currently available in schools, particularly inner-city schools, where promotion positions attracted a large number of skilled aspirants to undertake these roles. Participants suggested the creation in schools of voluntary leadership roles, the sharing of roles and the rotation of roles, where possible, to enhance the leadership experience base. The Australian federal government's Smarter Schools National Partnerships project provides evidence of the success of these opportunities in schools (SSNP/NSW Annual Report, 2011). The introduction of sustainable leadership opportunities, such as internships, was also identified by participants, as a Design Principle, to provide extended work-based leadership experiences. Another strategy identified as a Design Principle for enhancing leadership development opportunities is mentoring, using retired principals who "have the skills to impart."

Coupled with these long-term contextual experiences is the need for leadership development programs to focus on practitioner-based research. These research processes motivate the learning of experienced teachers and develop the higher-order leadership skills, such as change management and strategic planning, needed to promote sustainable school improvement. The type of research suggested is work-based strategies such as leadership projects with an in-built incentive and shadowing and/or modelling leadership roles.

7.5.2 Tailoring leadership development programs to meet the learning needs of experienced teachers at the different stages of their development

A major recommendation of this study is that leadership development programs need to be tailored to meet the experienced teacher's learning needs at the different stages of their development.

The findings indicated that teachers may be hindered in their learning and development by a lack of autonomy over their learning. Some teachers were also found to be unwilling or unable to reflect on their own leadership development needs. These learning and development needs result in the likelihood of disengagement and the loss of motivation for further leadership development. This mindset is particularly significant if negative emotions influence a teacher's progress in leadership learning, especially if they have little or no support from the principal and/or their colleagues.

Accordingly, exit points in each stage of leadership development are important areas, where a teacher's emotional mindset may impact on their learning, and these need to be addressed. This can be achieved through a principal building each teacher's confidence in their current practices, followed by the principal guiding these teachers to participate in tailored leadership development programs that will enhance their learning. In this way, experienced teachers develop the resilience to overcome their low self-esteem or lack of confidence and refocus their mindset on their leadership development needs.

A second area for consideration, with regard to tailoring leadership development programs, is to provide learning opportunities that develop the will and motivation of experienced teachers to overcome the challenges they are experiencing. This type of learning can be addressed by peer support networks both inside and outside the school. The findings show the strengths of in-school collegial structures such as a professional learning community and debriefing with a critical friend, or targeted groupings such as an aspiring leadership group, for enhancing motivation and the will to achieve a goal. Participants also identified external structures, as a Design Principle, that promotes opportunities for professional dialogue with like-minded individuals. State-wide and local networks can be established across schools and enhanced by the use of DEC group networking sites, resourcing and virtual communications for promoting the will and motivation for leadership development of experienced teachers.

7.5.3 Cultivating an ethos of facilitative leadership that supports the development of leadership skills.

A major recommendation is that leadership development programs, while providing a suite of leadership strategies, need to be designed in such a way as to be easily facilitated by participants in order to develop their leadership skills.

As mentioned in Chapter One, the identified trend of a limited pool of veteran leaders introduces the issue of the need for leadership development activities to be less reliant on using the veteran leader's expertise through expert/novice or mentoring models of leadership development. Evidence from the study showed that when practitioner-based learning activities are facilitated by participants, peers support and listen to each other and more in-depth learning occurs. Facilitated leadership helps participants to develop their leadership skills. This is also a smarter use of the limited resources in schools for leadership development. The FRPC discussed in the next section was found to be a good example of using facilitative leadership with the other methods in the LLI.

7.5.4 Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC)

A major recommendation is that practitioners use the FRPC strategy within Fullan's (2003) PLC approach for coaching and leadership development. The evidence indicated that FRPC provides regular opportunities for experienced teachers to gain support and constructive feedback on their practices. These opportunities foster an experienced teacher's commitment to changing their practice, resulting in school improvement. The development of these change management skills is a vital aspect of the principal's role. Familiarity with the FRPC processes will also help experienced teachers to critically examine other aspects of the school organisation.

Some strengths of using FRPC for leadership development are that it is a non-threatening collegial process that encourages in-depth reflection, based on constructive peer feedback. The FRPC process results in participants willingly refining their leadership skills and developing their leadership capacity. The GROW model of questioning (see Figure 5.2) used in FRPC is based on participants practising process skills which anyone can learn and does not rely on knowledge of the context, access to mentors or teachers with specific expertise. Peer feedback is more immediate and relevant to the individual's learning needs. FRPC is

readily available and easily used at all levels of the school organisation and makes smart use of school resources, such as a professional learning community as an established cost-effective structure for coaching members. Finally, FRPC has the potential to build leadership capacity over a longer period of time and simultaneously the expertise is being spread amongst all members of the professional learning community.

7.5.5 A co-ordinated approach to leadership development and succession planning

A major recommendation, of particular relevance to the NSW state school context, is the need for a formalised and coordinated approach to leadership development. This recommended approach also needs to be seen, within the school context, as an integral part of established local, system and government policies, processes and succession planning.

The international and NSW literature of leadership development programs indicated that for leadership development to be effective the practice, design and theory need to be integrated. The key findings, identifying the major factors for promoting leadership learning in schools, were the role of peers for support and constructive feedback. Together with peers is the principal's role in promoting a positive culture of leadership learning, collaboration and growth within the school. Experienced teachers also need to take responsibility for their learning and development by demonstrating a willingness to self-reflect and engage in practitioner-based research and leadership strategies in schools that are appropriate to their stage of development.

These school-based leadership development practices can be enhanced by aligning them with current NSW DEC policy and system processes. A school culture that promotes positive developmental leadership designs needs to be fostered. Rather than having a compliance focus, such as the current NSW DEC Teacher Quality-Assessment and Review policies (NSW DET Managing Employee Performance and Conduct, 2009) for teachers (TARS), executive (EARS) and principals (PARS). These policies when appropriately linked to developmental processes in schools have the potential to be productively used to plan each stage of leadership development with an experienced teacher. Consideration also needs to be given to designing programs that link the recommended leadership development opportunities (see section 7.2.1) to a career-orientation focus. In this way leadership activities are integrated, as an incentive, into an individual's development, and aligned with the requirements for state leadership competency accreditation.

The literature of international and state leadership development programs, reviewed in Chapter Two, demonstrated an increased tension between government compliance training and the leadership development programs being conducted at the school level (see section 2.3.1). This is particularly the case with the school principal, because of the complexity of the role and the growing accountabilities placed on this position. This type of government intervention has led to a focus on compliance training in management skills for NSW state school principals, rather than enhancing leadership capacity through the theory of a professional learning community and the concept of a collaborative culture. This shift is a disincentive for experienced teachers to undertake leadership roles.

There needs to be a balanced approach to leadership development in schools. This can be achieved through consistently co-ordinating the implementation of collegial group structures, such as Fullan's (2003) PLC approach, and strategies such as Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching (FRPC), and debriefing with a friend. These structures and strategies engender a collaborative culture in schools. The implementation of Fullan's (2003) PLC approach needs also to be given the time for team-building, the discussion of leadership issues and the opportunity to engage in practitioner-based research that tests theory on a regular basis. These practices enhance the strength of the professional learning community and provide a purpose for this structure as a support network for constructive feedback and strategic planning on school issues.

With the ongoing use of Fullan's (2003) PLC approach, compliance training can then be incorporated into the overall learning processes of the professional learning community, rather than the predominant form of leadership training. In NSW state schools, the principal is recognised as the one with the ultimate responsibility and system accountability. However, using Fullan's (2003) PLC approach, the entire school community is empowered to recognise the purpose for compliance training and becomes committed to supporting its enactment, along with other strategies for leadership development. In these times of budget restraints, Fullan's (2003) PLC approach is also a cost-effective way to promote leadership capacity building with experienced teachers in NSW state schools.

7.6 Scope and Significance of the Study, and Directions for Further Work

This section examines the scope of the study and discusses the significance of the research undertaken. Suggestions are also made regarding the directions for further research work.

7.6.1 Scope of the study

The sample of participants comprised fourteen teachers from four school education areas situated across southern and south western metropolitan Sydney, Australia. The study tested three key learning theories and generated Design Principles developed by the participants. However, the specificity of the sample clearly limited the possible ranges of interpretation and generalisation of the findings. Further, the study did not encompass all dimensions of the work of experienced teachers or all dimensions of their professional interactions on the leadership projects. For example, the work they did from home or the manner in which they interacted with their school staff was not recorded and analysed. Lastly, it remains unclear whether four weeks of trialling the leadership projects and three months of the researcher's observation and journal entries and participants' contributions, is sufficient to obtain a good estimate of a principal's daily work. Several week-long observations over the course of an entire school year might produce more reliable results. The results presented to date are far from being definitive, which is unsurprising given that they represent a work-in-progress.

7.6.2 Significance of the study

Quality education in NSW state schools is dependent on the appointment of committed principals equipped with the resilience and expertise to bring about ongoing school improvement and promote excellence in student learning that aligns with global standards.

Chapter One introduced the five-year projection for NSW DEC School Executive Age Distributions (NSW DET Workforce planning, 2005; see Figures 1.2a, 1.2b, 1.2c, and 1.2d.). These data indicated the potential for a crisis in leadership and succession planning in schools. The problem was based on an impending shortage in the number of quality candidates aspiring for school principal positions. Currently, this teacher profile is now a reality, with fifty percent of teachers in their first five years of teaching and experienced teachers occupying leadership positions with a limited expertise base. The problem is exacerbated by the quality of this emerging new leadership group.

This study sought to address the problem by formulating a set of principles that promote leadership development for experienced teachers in NSW state schools and foster sustained succession. The findings of the study are significant because they contribute to the body of knowledge on the multi-dimensional nature of educational leadership. Further, these findings

demonstrate the value of practitioner-based research practices for leadership learning and development. The major factors suggested as enhancing leadership learning and promoting the development of experienced teachers in NSW state schools also provide valuable insights for future leadership development programs that support the achievement of teacher self-confidence. This study indicates these factors relate to the nature of the learning environment, the provision of appropriate leadership strategies that address an individual's stage of leadership development and the roles that the principal and peers play in promoting a collaborative culture for learning.

This study highlighted the beneficial contribution of peer strategies such as Facilitated Reciprocal Peer Coaching, collegial structures and debriefing with a critical friend. The data indicated that these strategies are key methods for incorporation into future leadership development programs. The projected executive profile also indicated a future reduction in the pool of experienced leaders whose expertise is normally drawn upon to conduct leadership development programs as mentors, experts, knowledge providers and facilitators. There is a growing need to find more appropriate methods for the delivery and the provision of support for leadership development activities. The effectiveness of the peer strategies listed as alternative methods has been demonstrated in the study.

This study has uncovered evidence that points to a gap in knowledge regarding the design of leadership development programs. The literature and findings indicate the significance of the learning processes that engage and motivate experienced teachers to participate in, and more importantly to continue with, leadership development. A common concern expressed by experienced teachers acknowledged as quality aspirants, is a lack of confidence in their abilities or an inability to recognise their leadership development needs. These leaders become disengaged or overwhelmed by the contextual challenges of the leadership role. They then choose to opt out of leadership development initiatives or leave the profession altogether. Thus the positive contribution they could make as effective school principals to leadership succession and quality education is lost.

If leadership development is about fostering effective, resilient leaders who can overcome contextual challenges, then further research needs to be undertaken regarding the psychological influences on learning. This research needs to explore in more detail the impact of the conative and affective domains on the learning and leadership development of experienced teachers in NSW state schools. Important considerations are an individual's

stage of development and the influence of motivation, volition and emotions on their learning. Without these considerations, the opportunities for leadership development recommended in the previous section would lack the impetus that creates teacher engagement and ultimately produces effective principals committed to school improvement.

Hence, it is extremely important to be able to strengthen the quality of educational leadership and improve leadership succession planning practices in NSW state schools. This study has presented some recommendations that should help experienced teachers in the future to achieve their leadership development goals and improve the approaches to leadership succession.

The Design Based Research (DBR) process used in the study is distinctive because the methodology focuses on using collaborative practitioner-based research for the testing of adult learning theories and leadership strategies. The elements of DBR in this study incorporated a multiple methods approach and a phased process that built results into the research. These elements supported the participants' research and ensured they identified and delivered Design Principles for leadership development. With the current trends in NSW state schools towards increased government intervention with compliance training and budgetary constraints, it is critical that a more balanced and cost-effective approach to addressing leadership development is found for this emerging leadership group. Projects using elements of DBR have the potential to deliver a productive approach to leadership development in NSW state schools that meets current educational research needs.

7.6.3 Directions for further work

The challenge for further research is in two main areas. First, the findings have shown the significant influence of the conative and affective domains on leadership learning and the development of the teachers in this study. To build sustainable leadership development programs for experienced teachers in NSW state schools there needs to be further research focused particularly on these two domains.

Such research needs to explore the conative domain with regard to the learner's disposition and preparedness for the change stage of leadership development in the NSW state school context. In particular, the research needs to examine the effect of the individual's self-esteem and feelings of being valued on their learning and development. The second stage of

development, motivation, coupled with the ability to self-reflect, is also an area for further workplace research with regard to the effects of leadership strategies. Inter-related with volition are feelings of job satisfaction, empowerment, personal struggle and determination. With regard to the third developmental stage, where the learner seeks to achieve their goals, the research needs to analyse inhibitors to attaining this stage. Coupled with this is research on the feelings of resilience and self-confidence that need to be developed to manage the leadership role.

Another challenge for further research is to examine the strengths of using Design Based Research (DBR) methodology for the leadership development of experienced teachers in schools. The findings of this study revealed that a DBR approach was an appropriate methodology for encouraging practitioner-based research and developing leadership capacity and a leadership philosophy in the sample of experienced teachers from NSW state schools. When participants took ownership of their learning and collaboratively researched the leadership strategies they proposed, they became committed to these changed practices. The profiles of several teachers in this study exemplified this leadership growth. The DBR processes, particularly the iterative phase, resulted in a clear outcome where participants identified Design Principles for leadership development.

The use of key aspects of Design Based Research methodology by a broader sample of experienced teachers in NSW state schools has the potential to utilise the current teaching resource pool, enhance the opportunities for participants to collaboratively practise the craft of leadership and refine their leadership expertise in a nurturing environment.

Appendices

Appendix 1.a – UTS/HREC Approval Letter



10 July 2006

Professor Laurie Brady
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Faculty of Education
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Dear Laurie,

UTS HREC REF NO 2006-175 – BRADY, Professor Laurie, SCHUCK, Associate Professor Sandy (for BELL, Ms Cheryl Margaret, EdD student) - “Leadership Succession in schools – an approach to developing a leadership philosophy in teachers”

Thank you for your response to my email dated 16 June 2006. Your response satisfactorily addresses the concerns and questions raised by the Committee, and I am pleased to inform you that ethics clearance is now granted.

Your clearance number is UTS HREC REF NO. 2006-175A

Please note that the ethical conduct of research is an on-going process. The *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans* requires us to obtain a report about the progress of the research, and in particular about any changes to the research which may have ethical implications. This report form must be completed at least annually, and at the end of the project (if it takes more than a year). The Ethics Secretariat will contact you when it is time to complete your first report.

I also refer you to the AVCC guidelines relating to the storage of data, which require that data be kept for a minimum of 5 years after publication of research. However, in NSW, longer retention requirements are required for research on human subjects with potential long-term effects, research with long-term environmental effects, or research considered of national or international significance, importance, or controversy. If the data from this research project falls into one of these categories, contact University Records for advice on long-term retention.

If you have any queries about your ethics clearance, or require any amendments to your research in the future, please do not hesitate to contact the Ethics Secretariat at the Research and Innovation Office, on 02 9514 9615.

Yours sincerely,

Production Note:
Signature removed prior to publication.

Professor Jane Stein-Parbury
Chairperson
UTS Human Research Ethics Committee

Appendix 1.b – NSW DET/SERAP Approval Letter

PLANNING AND INNOVATION

NEW SOUTH WALES
DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION
AND TRAINING



Early Childhood and Primary Education
Secondary Education
Technical and Further Education
Vocational Education and Training
Higher Education
Adult and Community Education

Ms Cheryl Bell
11 Florence Street
RAMSGATE NSW 2217

Dear Cheryl

I refer to your application to conduct a research project in NSW government schools entitled "*Leadership succession in schools - an approach to developing a leadership philosophy in teachers*" which was received at this office on 02.11.06.

Your SERAP number is **06.384**

Your application will be processed as soon as possible and you will receive a letter in due course notifying you of its status. However, your application cannot be finalised until you provide the outstanding documents as listed below:

- UTS Human Research Ethics Committee approval letter with signature and on letterhead

Please note:

DET working with children screening is required for *all* researchers or research assistants who *will be interacting with or observing children* for the purposes of this research, regardless of clearances held for other purposes. This requires Forms E & F and certified copies of two forms of identity, one from each of the lists in the guidelines for each person.

Please check that the above information has been provided for *all* such researchers on your project and forward screening information for any additional researchers identified if necessary.

If you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me on telephone (02) 9561 8402 or email serap@det.nsw.edu.au.

Yours sincerely

Production Note:
Signature removed prior to publication.

Dr Robert Stevens
Manager, Schooling Research
2 November 06

Appendix 2.a – UTS/NSW DET Letter to Principals and Participant’s Information Sheet



LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

Project: “Leadership Succession in schools – an approach to developing a leadership philosophy in teachers (UTS Approval No. HREC REF NO 2006-175. Department of Education and Training, Approval SERAP 06. 384).

Dear..... (Principal’s Name)

My name is Cheryl Bell and I am a research student at the University of Technology, Sydney. I am conducting a research project solely as part of my Doctor of Education degree supervised by Associate Professor Sandy Schuck, phone: (02) 9514 5218, email: Sandy.Schuck@uts.edu.au.

The Department of Education and Training has given approval for me to conduct research in schools within your Region during semester 1, 2008.

The research project will explore teachers’ views on the design and implementation of a professional learning intervention to enhance leadership development for experienced teachers.

The project would require one volunteer teacher (teacher numbers are negotiable) endorsed by the Principal, as meeting the selection criteria, to participate in the trial.

Selection Criteria — Teachers who have:

- served three or more years in the teaching profession
- shown interest in engaging in personal and collegial professional development
- engaged in formal or informal leadership roles within the school or across schools
- shown an interest in participating in leadership development activities involving ‘design based research’, ‘reciprocal peer coaching’ and practice-based projects.

Teacher Commitment — Teachers will be asked to:

- attend a total of six sessions facilitated by the researcher, each of approximately eighty minutes over the first semester.

The sessions will involve:

- a small group (maximum of six teachers from local schools) for two sessions
- a larger group (maximum of 20 teachers from School Education Areas within a region) that would meet for four sessions.

- complete a 'reflective audio journal' once a week (10 minutes) and
- participate in some trials, negotiated by the small group and approved by you, in the teacher's workplace.

The benefits for teachers are:

- an opportunity to participate in professional learning on leadership philosophy
- learning 'peer coaching' skills and design based research techniques
- enhancing their leadership knowledge and skills base
- collaborating across schools and local areas.

While I consider the research to be valuable in terms of leadership development it does not contribute to any formal qualifications for a leadership position.

All efforts would be made to ensure the teachers receive feedback and confidentiality is maintained throughout the research process and in the publication of findings.

Some activities/sessions may include the use of audio recordings for the purpose of maintaining valid data. The participants will be made aware of the researcher's procedures for handling audio recordings and the participant's rights which will be explained to them in detail. In particular the participant's right to:

- access the audio recordings of themselves/the group at any time
- exclude recordings from the study, if the participant/group prefers and/or
- prevent these recordings from being made public.

If you are interested in discussing this professional development opportunity for your staff please contact me: Ms Cheryl Bell, phone: (02) 9266 8967, email: cheryl.bell@det.nsw.edu.au

You are under no obligation to participate in this research.

Yours Sincerely
Cheryl Bell
Doctor of Education student, UTS
cheryl.bell@det.nsw.edu.au

NOTE:

This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (ph: 02 9514 9615, Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au) and quote the UTS HREC reference number. Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

PARTICIPANT'S INFORMATION SHEET

Project: "Leadership Succession in schools – an approach to developing a leadership philosophy in teachers, (UTS Approval No. HREC REF NO 2006-175. Department of Education and Training Approval SERAP 06. 384).

Dear

My name is Cheryl Bell and I am a research student at the University of Technology, Sydney. I am conducting a research project solely as part of my Doctor of Education degree supervised by Associate Professor Sandy Schuck (phone: (02) 9514 5218, email: Sandy.Schuck@uts.edu.au).

The Department of Education and Training has given approval for me to conduct research in schools within your Region during semester 1, 2008. The research project will explore teachers' views on the design and implementation of a professional learning intervention to enhance leadership development for experienced teachers. I would welcome your assistance in the research.

Why have you been invited to participate?

You have been invited to participate as you meet the following selection criteria.

The criteria refer to teachers who have:

- three or more years service
- shown interest in engaging in personal and collegial professional development
- engaged in formal or informal leadership roles within the school or across schools
- shown an interest in participating in leadership development activities involving 'design based research', 'reciprocal peer coaching' and practice-based projects.

What will participation involve for you?

You will be asked to participate in a total of six sessions facilitated by the researcher, each of approximately eighty minutes over the first semester. The sessions involve:

- a small group (maximum of six teachers from local schools) for two sessions
- a larger group (maximum of 20 teachers from School Education Areas within your region) that would meet for four sessions.

You will be asked to:

- complete a 'reflective audio journal' once a week (10 minutes) and
- conduct some trials, negotiated by the small group and approved by the Principal, in your workplace.

What are the benefits to you?

The benefits to you are the provision of an opportunity to:

- participate in professional learning on leadership philosophy
- learn 'peer coaching' skills and design based research techniques

- enhance your leadership knowledge and skills base
- collaborate across schools and local areas.

While I consider the research to be valuable in terms of leadership development it does not contribute to any formal qualification for a leadership position.

How will data be collected?

Some activities/sessions may include the use of audio recordings for the purpose of maintaining valid data. You will be made aware of the researcher's procedures for handling audio recordings. In relation to the audio recordings, you have certain rights which will be explained in detail. These pertain to you/your group's right to:

- access the audio recordings of yourself /the group at any time
- exclude your recordings from the study, if you/the group prefer and/or
- prevent these recordings from being made public.

All efforts would be made to ensure you are given feedback and that confidentiality is maintained throughout the research process and in the publication of findings. If you are interested in participating, I would be glad if you would contact me:

Ms Cheryl Bell, phone :(02) 9266 8967, fax :(02) 9244 5624, email:
cheryl.bell@det.nsw.edu.au.

You are under no obligation to participate in this research.

Yours sincerely,
Cheryl Bell
Doctor of Education student, UTS
cheryl.bell@det.nsw.edu.au

NOTE:

This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (ph: 02 9514 9615, Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au) and quote the UTS HREC reference number. Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix 2.b – UTS/NSW DET Consent Form



CONSENT FORM

“Leadership Succession in schools – an approach to developing a leadership philosophy in teachers,” (UTS Approval No. HREC REF NO 2006-175. Department of Education and Training, Approval SERAP 06. 384).

I (participant’s name) _____ agree to participate in the research project:

I am aware that Ms Cheryl Bell is a research student at the University of Technology, Sydney and that the research project is being conducted solely as part of her Doctor of Education degree supervised by Associate Professor Sandy Schuck, phone: (02) 9514 5218, email: Sandy.Schuck@uts.edu.au.

I understand that the purpose of this study is to explore experienced teachers’ views on the design and implementation of a professional development intervention for leadership development for teachers.

I am informed that my participation in this research is voluntary and will involve:

- six group sessions, each of approximately eighty minutes
- the completion of a ‘reflective audio journal’ once a week (10 minutes) and
- conducting some trials, negotiated by the small group and approved by the Principal, in my workplace.

I am informed that some activities/sessions may include the use of audio recordings and that all efforts will be made to ensure feedback and confidentiality throughout the process.

I am aware that while the researcher considers the research to be valuable in terms of leadership development my participation does not contribute to any formal qualifications for a leadership position.

I understand that I can contact Ms Cheryl Bell {phone: (02) 9266 8967; email: cheryl.bell@det.nsw.edu.au}, or her supervisor Associate Professor Sandy Schuck, phone: (02) 9514 5218, email: Sandy.Schuck@uts.edu.au}, if I have any concerns about the research.

I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation from this research project at any time I wish, without consequences, and without giving a reason. I also realise that after the research is completed conference paper(s) will be published regarding the findings.

I am aware that the research data collected will be de-identified published in a form that does not identify me in any way and archived for five years after the research publication date then destroyed in accordance with UTS guidelines.

I agree:

- to being involved in sessions where audio recordings are being conducted and to the publication of findings
- that Ms Bell has answered all my questions fully and clearly.

Signature (participant)

____/____/____
Date

Signature (researcher)

____/____/____
Date

I endorse the participant has met the selection criteria.

Signature (School Principal/Nominee)

____/____/____
Date

NOTE:
This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (ph: 02 9514 9615, Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au) and quote the UTS HREC reference number. Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix 3 – Interview Questions

LEADERSHIP SUCCESSION RESEARCH (30 minutes)

1. Tell me about your experiences of leadership in general in the past (both in schools and the wider world).
2. Can you share a powerful example of a leadership experience either positive or negative?
 - a) What were the reasons for this being a positive/negative experience for you?
 - b) What did you learn from that experience?
3. What do you want to get from this research project?
4. Is there anything you want to tell me that is relevant to the research?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

Appendix 4 – Reflections Sheet



REFLECTIONS

Consider the learning experiences you have encountered this session:

- **What has been useful?**

.....
.....
.....

OR

- **What surprised you?**

.....
.....
.....

OR

- **What did you find irrelevant?**

.....
.....
.....

OR

- **Any other comments?**

.....
.....
.....

Appendix 5 – Ethical Considerations (excerpt from research proposal)

Risk Management

The following management procedures were planned to prevent or minimise the identified risks.

Risk	Management
Participants felt their comments might affect their career prospects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provided information on the research to the participants and sought feedback from them so that they understood the procedures and commitment involved • Ensured participants were aware via the Consent Form that “while the trial research is considered to be valuable in terms of leadership development it would not automatically guarantee a participant a formal leadership position” • Enlisted the Principal and senior executive to clarify concerns and outlined the benefits of participation • Ensured participants were aware of their rights as per the Consent form, that they were “free to withdraw (their) participation from the research project at any time, without consequences, and without giving a reason”.
Participants felt vulnerable re their comments getting back to other schools personnel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provided opportunities for social liaison of the teacher groups during the trial via afternoon tea networks • Provided a warm supportive environment through discussion at the initial session of generic protocols i.e. listening, respect, courtesy, confidentiality • Participants were made aware of departmental <i>Suggestions, Complaints, and Allegations</i> procedures.
Participants felt their opinions/views were not acceptable	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informed participants of the aim of the trial, significance of the research and the valuable role of participatory research • Outlined the generic protocols prior to the commencement of the trial • Encouraged group members to negotiate, at the first session, specific protocols that they would adopt re professional dialogue, reflection, group activities and discussion of work-based practices.
There may be conflict within and across research groupings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enlisted commitment to research from teachers in Consent form • Encouraged specific procedures re protocols to be negotiated by participants • Ensured participants were aware of departmental <i>Suggestions, Complaints, and Allegations</i> procedures prior to the trial.

1.1. Prevention of unnecessary disruption

Steps were taken in the planning of the intervention sessions to alleviate unnecessary disruption to the participant’s workplace commitments. The intervention was planned to commence at the beginning of the school year so that teacher responsibilities, e.g., marking, exams etc. would not be exacerbated by the research. Several aspects of the intervention were

to be negotiated with the school principal and participants, e.g., timeframe of the trial, teacher relief, venues on the school grounds, and operational aspects of the two Learning Group meetings. Car/bus travel was envisaged up to a maximum of ten minutes travel to a local school. Travel time is included in the teacher release time.

1.2. Collection and storage of data

The collection of data was in accordance with the methods outlined in the proposal submitted to UTS. The researcher was the only one with access to the raw data. The researcher and her UTS supervisors (2) have access to the transcriptions. Audio recordings were only accessed by the researcher, for reasons of confidentiality. Data were de-identified for analysis and publication purposes.

Data were stored electronically – on hard disc (with back-up) and on audio and tapes. The coded data were stored separately. The data were secured for a minimum of five years after publication and stored so as to ensure maximum privacy for participants, reliability and retrievability.

UTS Storage guidelines were followed and security was maintained by using a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's home. The researcher has security keys to access the data. Participants have been informed of procedures for storage should they wish, at any time within the five years, to approach the researcher for access.

1.3. Use and publication of data

Participants have been informed via the consent form that the researcher intended to use the data as part of a thesis for a Doctor of Education degree. They have also been advised that the data “may be published in journal articles and conference paper(s) in a form that does not identify them in any way.”

1.4. Disposal of Data

The consent form advised participants of the disposal of data, “I am aware that the data collected will be de-identified and archived for five years after the research publication date then destroyed in accordance with UTS guidelines.”

The data were archived for five years after publication of the research. After this period, the data are destroyed in accordance with UTS Records Management Policy. The researcher is the only one to have access to the archived data. However, the UTS supervisor has knowledge of how to access the archived data in the event of the inability of the researcher to access the data.

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