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Haijun Kang
Kansas State University, hjkang@ksu.edu

Donna Augustine-Shaw
Kansas State University

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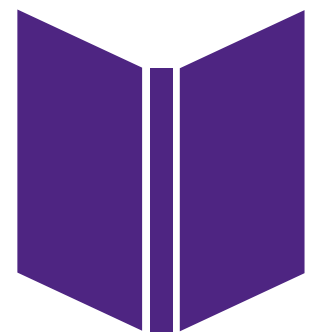
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**Preparing and Developing Educational Leaders
in International Contexts:
From Policy and Theory to Preparation and Practice**

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Special Issue:

Preparing and Developing Educational Leaders in International Contexts: From Policy and Theory to Preparation and Practice

Guest Editors: Haijun Kang and Donna Augustine-Shaw

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Foreword

Haijun Kang and Donna Augustine-Shaw

In the context of globalization and education internationalization, preparing educational leaders for today's schools and other educational settings has never been more important. School principals and other educational leaders work in complex and dynamic systems, embracing community expectations and accountability for student learning and effective teaching to develop 21st century skills. The papers in this special issue highlight innovative projects, research, policies, and programs that capture the essence of preparing quality leaders to face these challenges in various environments, levels, and contexts with creative and exciting approaches. The development of educational leadership capacity in different and/or cross socio-cultural contexts, highlighted in these papers, exemplifies the spirit and synergy that moves theory to practice for each school and educational leader in diverse and international settings.

The first four papers have a main focus on school leadership development but in four quite different socio-cultural contexts including Egypt, U.S.A, China, and Japan. In the first paper, Ted Purinton and Dalia Khalil, co-authors of "Adaptations of International Standards on Educational Leadership Preparation in Egypt," present a case study of one leadership preparation program in Egypt. This program utilizes US school leadership standards and practices and highlights cultural and policy distinctions and a comparison to international standards and best practices.

In the second paper "Embracing New Realities: Professional Growth for New Principals and Mentors," Donna Augustine-Shaw and Jia Liang highlight one state model providing mentoring and induction for new school leaders in the U.S.A. In this paper, the importance of mentoring and induction as a continuation of leadership preparation is highlighted in program components and participant perceptions in The Kansas Educational Leadership Institute's mentoring and induction program and professional learning seminars.

The third paper, "Examining the Impact of a DSP through a Comparative Adult Education Lens: A Snapshot of Principal Professional Development for Education Internationalization in Beijing, China" by Haijun Kang, Lei Lyu, and Qi Sun, presents the impact of the Domestic Study Program (DSP), a professional development program, on local principals in Beijing, China by examining the learning experiences of four local school principals through the lenses of adult education and international education leadership development. In this study, professional development defines activities to improve the knowledge and skills of adult learners as a part of leadership preparation for school principals in China.

In the fourth paper, "Policies and Practices of School Leaderships in Japan: A Case Study of Leadership Development Strategies in Akita" authored by Yukiko

Yamamoto, Naoko Enomoto, and Shinobu Yamaguchi, the structure and practice of leadership development using the case of local governments and schools in Akita is explored. In this study, strategies of leadership development in a unique international context highlight the interpretation, training, and development of practices in Japan.

The remaining three articles are purposefully included in this special issue to showcase educational leadership preparation and development in other educational settings in three different countries including Singapore, U.S.A., and China. The fifth paper, "New Models of Hybrid Leadership in Global Higher Education" by Donna C. Tonini, Nicholas Burbules, and C. K. Gunsalus, talks about the challenges that Nanyang Technological University (NTU) in Singapore is faced with and how NTU builds the leadership capacity of its faculty by partnering with the National Center for Research and Professional Ethics at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (Illinois) to launch the NTU Leadership Academy (NTULA) program. The authors share the findings of a needs assessment survey to inform future planning and content development for the NTULA program.

In the sixth paper "Preparing and Developing Community College International Leaders," Rosalind Latiner Raby and Edward J. Valeau interviewed 91 community college international leaders to find out what influences shape the professional paths of these individuals and depicted criteria that help support future preparation for community college international education leadership.

The last paper, "Students as a Teaching Resource in Preparing Educational Leaders: An International Masters Programme" by Qiang Liu and David A. Turner highlights an international leadership development curriculum developed by The International and Comparative Education, Beijing Normal University in China to produce adaptable international education leaders. The authors reflect on the unique features of the curriculum and discuss the challenges of building an inclusive learning environment that helps future education leaders develop transferrable leadership skills that are applicable in all areas of institutional leadership.

Through the unique approaches to leadership preparation offered in this special issue, promise and hope for new levels of expertise in developing school and educational leaders for the 21st century is shared. Understanding the importance and relevancy of innovative approaches in international contexts and across varying educational settings provides meaningful application to all researchers and professionals in the field, striving to positively impact a new generation of leaders for tomorrow's international education.



Adaptations of International Standards on Educational Leadership Preparation in Egypt

Ted Purinton and Dalia Khalil

Ted Purinton is Dean of the Graduate School of Education at the American University in Cairo and Associate Professor in the Department of International and Comparative Education.

Dalia Khalil is an instructor at the Graduate School of Education at the American University in Cairo.

Abstract

This paper is a case study of one leadership preparation program, utilizing US school leadership standards and practices, offered in Egypt. This case study illuminates how cultural and policy distinctions impact differing necessities of educational leadership, and how those necessities conflict or concur with the international standards and assumed best practices. In particular, it serves as an exploration of policy borrowing, considering that leadership preparation in developed countries has been, on some levels, an issue of occupational field professionalization.

Introduction

The preparation of educational leaders has become, in some regard, a standardized practice throughout the world, based on professional knowledge of best practice, empirical evidence, and organizational leadership theory. In large part, PISA and national exams have encouraged a consistent set of views about what constitutes instructional leadership. Standards, particularly from English-speaking countries, such as the US and the UK, have provided relatively common understandings on school leadership throughout the world. And naturally, preparation programs have followed suit, often instituting courses that look remarkably similar. This is a noteworthy feat for the professionalization of the occupation of school leadership, as it has instituted common boundaries of practice that span national borders. In some sense—furthering the professionalization of the field—it makes a case for the de-contextualization of school leadership practice.

Yet leadership practices and needs within schools vary tremendously, not just between countries, but within countries, as well. What follows is a case study of one leadership preparation program, utilizing US school leadership standards and practices, offered in Egypt. This case study helps us to better understand how cultural and policy distinctions impact differing necessities of educational leadership, and how those necessities conflict or concur with the international standards and assumed best practices.

In particular, it serves as an exploration of policy borrowing, considering that leadership preparation in developed countries has been, on some levels, an issue of occupational field professionalization.

Professionalization of School Leadership

The field of school leadership has achieved many markers of professional status in the past few decades, particularly in developed countries. In Europe and North America, a post-graduate degree or certification is typically required to work as a school administrator. And increasingly a professional doctorate is either expected or encouraged. Various standards for practice have been developed, disseminated, and governmentally adopted. Though countries utilize differing standards, and in the US even, some states have adopted their own distinctive standards, in developed countries, the general tenor of the standards is exceptionally similar. For instance, the National Policy Board for Educational Administration in the US lists this item in its 2015 *Professional Standards for Educational Leaders*:

Standard 1 – Mission, Vision, & Core Values point “G”:
Model and pursue the school’s mission, vision, and core values in all aspects of leadership.

The General Teaching Council for Scotland lists this item in its 2012 *Standards for leadership and management*:

Standard 2 – Strategic Vision, Professional Knowledge and Understanding and Interpersonal Skills and Abilities, point 2.1, second paragraph: Leaders steer the creation and the sharing of the strategic vision, ethos and aims for the establishment, which inspire and motivate learners, staff and all members of the learning community and its partners and sets high expectations for every learner.

Worded differently, yes, but it is the same concept. And if we were to provide further examples within these two sets of standards, or on this particular item with standards from additional countries and states, we would see that the field of educational leadership has largely consolidated on the tasks, responsibilities, core values, and behavioral codes that it sees as its professional identity.

These two features—governmentally mandated certification for practice and common codes of practice orientation—are attributes of professional status. They indicate that in exchange for consistent practice adhering to the common codes—delineating practice that yields desired outcomes for the public—regulatory controls are instituted, allowing those who have certification to practice, and preventing those who do not have certification from practicing (Purinton 2011).

Yet there is more to professionalization. Most essentially, a profession shares a common approach to examining and solving a particular problem, and it does so by utilizing a common body of knowledge gained from intensive study and guided practice (Abbott 1988). In studies of professionalization, the subject—the application of this body of knowledge on a problem—is usually discussed more than the object, the problem itself. In most professions, the problem seems self-evident: in medicine, it is human health; in law,

it is a case; in engineering, it is a commission. In teaching, which has been labeled a semi-profession (Krejsler 2005), it is student learning. In educational leadership, what is the problem to be solved?

The answer to this question depends on many factors. On the one hand, how a school relates to its community, students, their families, and the government varies not just between countries and states, but also between individual schools. Indeed, the various standards have attempted to bring closure to this issue. On the other hand, given the variation alone between the role of parents of American and many European schools, it is clear that there is no single way to lead a school across cultures. Largely, there is for medicine and engineering, and to some extent for law (within common or civil law variants) and academia. Indeed, there is no common set of expectations across countries for the work of teaching (Givvin et al. 2005), though that, too, could change rapidly in the years ahead with increasingly standardized expectations and exams (Meyer and Benavot 2013). Furthermore, when contrasting teaching to school leadership, teaching seems to welcome the hallmarks of professionalism more so than school leadership (Purinton 2012), particularly because school leadership is often portrayed in political or bureaucratic terms.

Regardless, as has been noted, school leadership practice has been increasingly defined by the various standards, and as such, these remarkably similar standards are shaping a global emergence of professional expectations for school leadership. Perhaps what makes teaching more of a candidate for professionalization than school leadership is that one significant marker of professionalism is autonomy, and the accompanying professional control over the terms of practice (Krauss 1996). By virtue of the inherent isolation of teaching (Lortie 1975), its work is done more frequently without the interference of management. In school leadership, similar to other managerial positions that have had great debate over the extent to which they could be professionalized, autonomy over terms of the work is not present.

In other words, school leadership is very much susceptible to context. And nowhere is that more clear than in the location of this case: Cairo, Egypt. Though based at an “American” university, offering a liberal arts education, with a high percentage of American faculty, and an even higher percentage of faculty having earned doctoral degrees in the US, its Graduate School of Education is a case in point of the difficulties of adapting one country’s system of education in another. With a variety of degree programs, the Graduate School of Education has attempted to replicate the progress and the structures of American colleges of education, particularly as they have increased their focus on professionalization over the past couple decades. As such, standards of practice, and their corresponding bases of knowledge, are very important. With the adoption of Professional Standards for Educational Leaders to guide the content of the school’s Professional Educator Diploma program in Educational Leadership, the school made a very deliberate choice on the professional qualities it would expect to see in its graduates. However, context matters a great deal,

and when examining the distinctions between educational systems in the US and Egypt, one finds very quickly that these standards may, in fact, complicate the learning and practice of educational leadership in Egypt.

Overview of Education in Egypt

Egypt's public educational system is the largest in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region—estimated at more than 20 million students (Oxford Business Group 2016). The education system in Egypt is a K-12 structure that starts at the primary level at the age of 6 years. Both the primary and preparatory (grades 7, 8, & 9) stages form the basic education stage, which is compulsory for all children in Egypt. Upon the completion of grade 9, students receive the Basic Education Certificate, which specifies where students will be placed in the secondary stage. High scoring students qualify for general secondary education and later can qualify for higher education. If scores received at the Basic Education Certificate are low, students are obliged to join technical secondary schools (e.g. commercial, agricultural, and industrial) for three to five years.

Parallel to the national public educational system, Al Azhar schools, which are religious and associated with El Azhar, the well-regarded Sunni university, offers the same levels and types of education offered at the public system with a comprehensive addition of religious studies and subjects. Al Azhar pre-university education represents 10% of the total population of pre-university education.

While Egypt's new constitution mandates that public spending on education be no less than 4% of GDP (Oxford Business Group 2016), the system as structured does not adequately prepare students to meet the job market needs. Although enrollment in secondary and higher education has increased for both genders, it does not reflect higher levels of employment or pay. The educational system is still geared toward producing public servants to be hired at the public sector and has, for the most part, continued to teach obsolete knowledge (Fahimi, et al. 2011).

The public educational system in Egypt faces numerous challenges, including highly populated classrooms, multiple-shift schools, limited facilities, and outdated technological aids (Salah 2015). These obstacles have weakened not only the system but the students' ability to understand, retain knowledge, ask questions, discuss and research, and critically think about academic and life issues. Teaching has remained focused on rote memorization. Therefore, a need to broaden the pool of resources and shift education from being the mere responsibility of the state to expanding partnership with other stakeholders, especially the private sector, has evolved. To reduce the financial burden from the public budget and address new educational needs, the private sector was welcomed in 1995 to invest and participate in educational services.

Private education is considered the third component of Egypt's education system. Private education now represents 8% of the students' population in the primary and secondary stages. The Ministry of Education has an authoritative and

regulatory oversight over all types of public and private schools in Egypt. Private school types include private Arabic schools applying national curriculum, private language schools applying national curriculum, and international schools. The last category provides American, British, French, Canadian, and German curricula. International schools typically seek international accreditation to ensure best practices and societal credibility. Although this type of quality education is preferred by many parents, it is characterized as highly expensive and competitive for average Egyptian students.

Private schools are formally categorized as profit-making organizations. There is no tax category that accommodates not-for-profit schools in the general educational marketplace. The implication for this can be seen in the competition between private schools, especially in Cairo and Alexandria. The prices go higher and higher, and parents—afraid that their children will be left behind without an education as elite as possible—expend more of their increasingly scarce resources to pay the tuition. Meanwhile, it is now commonly understood that owning schools is a sure pathway to wealth in Egypt.

Case Description

In 2007, the American University in Cairo, which previously had no unit related to teacher education, embarked on a plan to provide teacher professional development for public and private school teachers, and eventually to create a school of education to sit alongside its schools in Humanities & Social Sciences, Global Affairs & Public Policy, Sciences & Engineering, Business, and Continuing Education. As a liberal arts institution with less than 6,000 total students at the time (with around 1,100 of them being full-time or part-time graduate students), a school of education was a significant commitment on the part of the university to address issues of quality education across the country.

To provide the greatest level of outreach possible in its foundational stage, the university began with a Post-Graduate Professional Educator Diploma (PED) program, which does not provide university degree credit but is priced much lower than AUC's regular tuition, which is very high for Egyptian standards. The PED program, which is now accredited by Egypt's Supreme Council of Universities as an equivalent program to that offered at many of the public university Faculties of Education across the country, has been offered in English. The equivalent programs at the public universities are all offered in Arabic; thus, the Supreme Council of Universities did not see the PED program as being directly in competition with the equivalent programs at the public universities. Offering the PED program in English was not problematic for most private school teachers; though an English exam is required for admissions, most private school teachers in Egypt use English for their work, and thus, AUC was offering a program that teachers and schools perceived to be a distinct value added: affordable tuition, instruction in English, and a curriculum created by AUC to reflect a Western view of teaching and learning. In fact, most private school teachers would not consider attending any such programs at the public

universities (or in Arabic), so AUC's program represented a radical shift in teacher professional development within the country.

Despite the low tuition, Egypt's public school teachers, who are paid very little by comparison to private school teachers, cannot afford the tuition. A variety of donors have contributed to scholarships for public school teachers, and thus, the Graduate School of Education has utilized contacts within the Ministry of Education to recruit teachers to take the programs. The trouble has been the lack of English proficiency among public school teachers. Thus, the Graduate School of Education has generally promoted its programs among teachers in "experimental" schools, which are generally not experimental, but rather are taught in English. Even then, in 2016, the school is having a difficult time finding enough public school teachers, even at the experimental schools, who can pass the English entrance exam. Thus it is now offering its programs in Arabic, but without the equivalency status guaranteed by the Supreme Council of Universities (as an Arabic-medium program would be considered competition to the national university programs).

In 2007, the PED program offered two concentrations: early childhood education and educational leadership. In 2008, a new concentration in teaching adolescent learners was offered. The curricula and development process for these programs varied. The curriculum for early childhood education was developed by experts who were mindful of US standards for teacher education and for early childhood education, in particular the standards for the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC).

The program in educational leadership began under the direction of a business specialist at the university and was shaped according to business standards. This early development in some sense should be seen not as a usurpation of educational issues by the business community but rather a very elementary view of the academic conventions of educator preparation in the West. Very quickly the curriculum was modified according to US standards for educational leader preparation by a new faculty member who had been working in educational leadership in the US for many decades. The 2008 Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards provided the foundation for the revision of the curriculum.

Also in 2008 the PED program added a concentration on teaching adolescent learners. This indeed was a distinct demarcation from Western approaches to teacher education given that most teacher preparation for the secondary level is subject-specific. And especially at a time when increasing research and application on pedagogical content knowledge has influenced teacher education (e.g., Hill, Ball, and Schilling 2008), it may have seemed slightly strange for the Graduate School of Education to move in this direction. Yet the justification for it is important: for a program that is not required in Egypt (no certification is required for private school teachers, and only an undergraduate degree

in education from a public university is required for public school teachers): with few opportunities to reach teachers, particularly given that the program required only six courses, the faculty felt that the fundamentals of human development and learning theory, as well as the basics of pedagogical and assessment practice, were far more critical for Egyptian teachers than singling out subject areas for which the university did not have capacity for in terms of content-specific pedagogical research.

In later years, three additional concentrations were added: technology in education, STEAM (STEM + the arts) education, and inclusive instruction for diverse learners. All three also were developed with relevant US standards, as well.

In 2010, the Graduate School of Education was formally founded, and the PED programs were placed under it. At the same time, the school began delivering a master's degree in comparative and international education, and then later, a master's degree in educational leadership with concentrations in school leadership and higher education leadership. The PED programs are still operating and have high enrollments for both private and public school teachers. The public school teachers are still dependent upon donors for scholarship funds, but since the 2011 Arab Spring, donors have increasingly seen education as a critical area for philanthropy.

Given that the PED program is not a certification program (though it is officially recognized for salary credit by the Ministry of Education for public school teachers and by private schools as a differentiator of teacher qualifications), the program approximates as best as possible a principal certification program in the US. Though principal certification requirements vary tremendously between states in the US, most states require a series of courses built into either a stand-alone post-graduate university-based certification program or a master's degree that incorporates requirements for certification.

In the case of curricula for principal preparation programs in the US, analogous to the similarities for standards across countries, many of the courses and requirements between states in the US and universities within states look remarkably similar. As a brief illustration, the University of Virginia's preliminary principal preparation program—the M.Ed. in Administration and Supervision, which offers the state certification for the principalship—requires courses such as School Finance, School Law, Introduction to Supervision & Instruction, and Leadership for Low Performing Schools. On the other side of the country, UCLA's Principal Leadership Institute, which offers a masters degree along with state principal certification, has courses that may sound slightly different but fit within roughly the same categories: Law & Educational Practice; Democracy, Democratic Leadership, & Public Accountability; Learning & Leadership Amidst Inequality; and Leadership of Core Practices: Supervision & Instruction. On the other side of the Atlantic, the Institute of Education in London offers a masters degree in Applied Educational Leadership & Management. In it, students take modules on subjects such as Finance & Resource Management; Learning & Managing Educational Change & Improvement; and Leadership for the Learning Community.

These similarities are further indication of the professionalization of the field as discussed in the first section of this paper. Thus, naturally, one would expect to see similar content in the PED Educational Leadership program. Six courses are required: Foundations of Educational Leadership (which focuses on school vision, organizational culture, and leadership theory); Educational Leadership & School Management, Instructional Leadership & Assessment; Technology for Educational Leaders; and two courses for an internship, which is usually done at the student's own place of employment.

Next we turn to an analysis of the application of US standards for educational leadership preparation on Egyptian educators. As a developing country, there are few policy-level structural supports to ensure the highest degree of principal preparation, and thus there are considerable differences in practice between the program in Egypt and programs throughout the US.

Application of US Standards for School Leadership Training in Egypt

In applying US standards for school leadership preparation in Egypt, the issue of "fit" has become paramount. However, these standards are utilized for a variety of reasons: first, there is no comparable set of principal preparation standards to address many of the issues that exist in schools and school systems in developing countries. Second, as an American university, our peers are often perceived internally and externally to be universities in the US. With general university accreditation in the US (Middle States Commission on Higher Education), and with many programs at the university obtaining and maintaining specialized accreditations from US agencies (e.g., ABET for engineering and the Commission on English Language Program Accreditation for the university's English Language Institute), it would seem natural to adopt a system that is familiar to our colleagues in the US. Third, many of the faculty members are either American or received their PhD degrees in the US, so these standards are familiar to the faculty.

Reflection of the implementation of the program in Egypt yields a clear signal of lack of fit between the leadership contexts in Egypt and the NPBEA standards. The most common explanation for the lack of congruity between policy and practice or implementation in educational institutions comes from early organizational theory: educational institutions are decoupled from the political systems that govern them, particularly as the instruments to influence change are blunt ones for the technologies most often utilized in schools and universities (Weick 1976). While bureaucracy shelters operations from political whims, bureaucrats adapt political directives to meet "street level" incentives (Lipsky 1980). As a result, the work within educational institutions is often isolated from the politics and economics of education taking place outside the institutions. The emergence of the concept of instructional leadership, to some degree, sought to address the problem of a bottleneck that kept educators unable to adapt, and conversely, that kept policymakers and

critics unaware of the realities within the institutions and the professions (Hallinger and Heck 1996).

The loosely coupled nature of schools posed a classic case of mismatch between bureaucratic policy implementation (in the traditional Weberian sense, whereby a governmental bureaucracy carries out the day-to-day operations and insulates them from quickly changing political views) with increasingly knowledge-intensive work that usually requires less bureaucratic reporting and oversight (Perrow 1967). As the teaching occupation became increasingly endorsed as "knowledge" work, researchers and reformers recognized that the role of the principal could not easily be conceptualized in terms of management. With large spans of control, the professional nature of teaching demanded that the principal's role be re-conceptualized as a leader who could influence behavior and practice. Thus, the principal must build rapport, develop trust, induce collective vision, and so forth. These are all characteristics that do not fit well on the traditional scales of market and bureaucracy (Adler, Kwon, and Heckscher 2008; Coase 1937; Williamson 1973). On the bureaucratic side, policies and procedures guide action, supported by reporting lines, timelines, and deliverables. On the market side, it is sales that provide feedback to sellers about price, quality, and demand. Professional work, however, is judged on an entirely different plane: due to the nature of the knowledge required of professionals, the work cannot be judged by mere sales or benchmarks. Not submitting a report on time can be easily assessed in a bureaucratic organization; not meeting sales targets can be easily assessed in a market-oriented organization. Not using a commonly believed "best practice" in the classroom? The effects of this are not likely to be as immediately clear.

School leaders are conceptualized in the US and other developed countries as instructional leaders, working to influence the practice of people for whom tight control and immediate feedback will not work. The narrative of the school principal as instructional leader is an increasingly powerful one, particularly given that it is a profoundly realistic portrayal of how change in organizations (especially those with fairly undefined goals) occurs. Furthermore, it provides strong credibility to the idea that the professional knowledge of individual teachers is paramount: this knowledge is possessed by each teacher and is structured in a way that depends perhaps more on how learning challenges are interpreted than on how lessons are delivered (Purinton 2011). As such, direct oversight or price signaling cannot be applied as work-related feedback mechanisms.

In Egypt, however, this view cannot work. Private schools are legally structured as profit generating, and indeed, their behavior reflects this. Competition for students, especially in the main cities of Cairo and Alexandria, is fierce, particularly as investors have realized that private school profits can potentially exceed 20% of revenue. In a professionally oriented organization, though immediate feedback from price signals or managerial oversight is not tenable, a market function still exists: professionals have an interest in maintaining the market brand of their professional body.

When the public sees that the professional body fails to provide overall the outcomes it claims, the public turns to other professions or solutions (Abbott 1988). In some sense, this is why the principal as instructional leader can permit slight degrees of unhappiness among parents, for instance, about school actions or teacher behaviors: the leader is incentivized to ensure that the organization as a whole is regarded highly. In a market-oriented system, individual satisfaction is more important, and adaptations to meet market demand are expected. A discount or a customization for one customer will not necessarily degrade the supply for another. In a market-oriented school, despite the necessity of maintaining enough public recognition of the honesty of the organization, small actions to maintain the faithfulness of one student have the ability to degrade the quality measures and the fairness for other students. For those private schools that work hard to ensure honesty, the principal is still likely going to be put in a position at times to make complicated judgments that diminish the power of the professional jurisdiction of the teacher. In the American sense of the instructional leader, defense of the purposes of education and the role that educators play is central: the leader is the individual that transforms the bottleneck of the loosely coupled systems into the communicator. The instructional leader communicates to the educators what is expected from politicians, employers, reformers, and so forth; conversely, the leader communicates to politicians, employers, and reformers the realities of educational practice.

In Egyptian public schools, which are highly centralized, there is very little possibility for internal adaptation to meet external demands. This leads us to the next major distinction: the cultural views of learning, teaching, and knowledge. The NPBEA standards emphasize in various ways the dynamic nature of knowledge and skill development; the standards remind educators that traditional conceptions of knowledge transfer are not robust enough to accommodate what we know of how children and youth learn—and, in fact, what constitutes knowledge and how it can be assessed. With caution that this characterization does not account for all teaching and learning in Egyptian public schools, it is generally regarded across the country that students are expected to memorize curriculum devised by the Ministry of Education, relayed to them by teachers who, in many cases, teach only parts of the curriculum in order to incentivize private lessons paid for directly by the students after school. The assessments are nationally standardized and for the most part reward rote memorization. One can clearly see that the NPBEA standards reflect awareness of the imperative to move away from traditional conceptions of teaching, but in the US, many other institutional forces contribute to this effort, such as standards for teachers of various subjects, standards for students, textbooks, cultural narratives prioritizing innovation and creativity, and so forth.

Finally, much of the development of standards for teachers and leaders has been shaped around the same political intents of standards for students: equity of opportunity. The school principal as agent of social justice is reflected

throughout the 2015 *Professional Standards for Educational Leaders*. These four items illustrate just a small portion of the document that is dedicated to the role that principals play in influencing equitable educational access:

Standard 2d: Safeguard and promote the values of democracy, individual freedom and responsibility, equity, social justice, community, and diversity.

Standard 2e: Lead with interpersonal and communication skill, social-emotional insight, and understanding of all students' and staff members' backgrounds and cultures.

Standard 3b: Recognize, respect, and employ each student's strengths, diversity, and culture as assets for teaching and learning.

Standard 3c: Ensure that each student has equitable access to effective teachers, learning opportunities, academic and social support, and other resources necessary for success.

In a country marked by significant class differences and the presumption that children will have few opportunities to transcend economic classes, education is often perceived to be most fundamentally a mechanism of signaling. Even those families who can barely afford much will attempt to scrape together enough money to send their children to low-cost private schools that are marginally better than public schools. At the other end of the education market, the elite schools (staffed by teachers who are not mandated to have certification and often have very little training) are justified in continually raising their prices, as parents who have the means will pay whatever they can. Both in terms of organizational construct and cultural imperative, the school leader is not incented to encourage access and equity among students.

Policy Borrowing and Field Professionalization

The traditional view of implementation of one country's educational practices or policies in other is often called policy borrowing. Particularly in development contexts, whereby one (developed) country offers the support of another (developing) country with the implementation of successful ideas used in the developed one, the term that gets applied is policy lending. Among analysts of borrowing and lending, it is assumed that the lent policy will only work if it is in the interest of the wider social, economic, and political contexts and goals of the borrowing country. We have shown that school leadership standards from the US may not be effectively implemented in Egypt as a result of significantly different social, economic, and political contexts. And while this poses a challenge to the preparation and professional development of educational leaders in Egypt, it is a challenge that faculty members in the Graduate School of Education at AUC welcome, given that it offers opportunities to explore global dynamics of educational change, adaptations to professional standards, and social contexts of educational reform—all areas that require significant scholarly attention.

Yet on a broader scale, the disparity between plausible implementation in developing countries of what is effectively

a professional body of practice for developed countries and the standards of expected practice in developed countries is massive. Just because there may be fewer resources to support modern medicine in a poor country does not mean that the profession of medicine must adapt its body of knowledge to practice in the poor country. Professional bodies of medicine simply proclaim that without the resources they cannot do the work that they are expected to do.

As the field of education is further affected by globalization, and as the internationalization of educational attainment, practice, and research further develops, these are questions that must be addressed so as to ensure that bodies of professional knowledge utilized by educators (and certified through usually post-graduate degrees) do not become misappropriated, degraded, and exploited. The very question of educator professionalization, in fact, has persisted because of misappropriations of knowledge not based on evidence or utilized for personal gain (Purinton 2011). There is a growing need for institutions such as AUC to disseminate knowledge from developed countries in contexts which are rooted in the developing countries, themselves.



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Embracing New Realities: Professional Growth for New Principals and Mentors

Donna Augustine-Shaw and Jia Liang

Dr. Donna Augustine-Shaw is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Leadership at Kansas State University (U.S.A.). She also serves as the Associate Director for the Kansas Educational Leadership Institute. Her research interests include the superintendency and mentoring and induction for new leaders.

Dr. Jia Liang is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Leadership at Kansas State University (U.S.A.). Her research interests include school leadership, equity for women and racial minorities, and leaders' dispositions and practices in community engagement. She holds a PhD from the University of Georgia in Educational Administration and Policy.

“Leadership is about creating new realities.” – Senge

Abstract

This paper highlights one state model providing mentoring and induction for new school leaders in the U.S.A. The importance of mentoring and induction as a continuation of leadership preparation is highlighted in program components and participant perceptions in The Kansas Educational Leadership Institute's (KELI) mentoring and induction program and professional learning seminars. Experienced and trained mentors provide critical support for new principals serving schools and communities in their first year of practice. A program description, initial operational processes, program requirements, and mentor training are shared along with information about KELI's second year program, evaluation results, and next steps.

Introduction

When a new principal is appointed, school staff and community members share common feelings of anxiety, curiosity, and excitement (Villani 2006). Likewise, the new principal may be eager, yet uncertain, and in reality, often face complex demands very early in the job. New principals encounter particular challenges moving between and prioritizing the many tasks at hand. Staff resignations, unfinished construction, lack of essential classroom resources, and technology challenges can exacerbate the first few months of the position. “In the principalship there can be a ripple effect from almost any decision” (Sciarappa and Mason 2012, 65).

Regardless of prior experience and leadership preparation, new principals face situations for which they lack experience (Villani 2006). Mentoring and induction programs allow novice principals to learn new skills and increase understanding of multifaceted problems. Support from mentors grounded in knowledge of research, best practice, and current issues can make a decisive difference in the first year of practice where intense learning occurs. Having someone to share issues

and concerns in a confidential setting is paramount to the new principal. In addition, mentors encourage self-reflection and on-going professional growth through their dedication and time, moving beyond being simply a “buddy” (Villani 2006).

New leaders must gain the knowledge and skills necessary for survival during their first year on the job. The training for novice principal leaders often begins anew as a first leadership position is acquired. On-the-job training often supersedes these first year leadership experiences as new building leaders take the helm and undertake challenging circumstances. Principals need high quality mentoring and professional development in their first year of experience accompanied by contextually specific strategies in order to understand the values and serve the school community. As they encounter moving beyond their preparation program to the reality of actual practice, stress abounds from efforts to acquire new skills, stakeholder demands, long hours and fast-paced expectations, supervision of staff, and isolation (Holloway 2004).

Successful programs succinctly identify several variables important to the success of mentoring and induction programs for new school leaders. Crocker and Harris (2002) cited new principal mentees need time and ongoing opportunities to share with experienced mentors. A thoughtful selection process that matches the mentor and mentee according to school and staff characteristics is paramount to promoting trusting and confidential relationships. Other essentials include thoughtful guidelines for mentors to assist in shaping meaningful experiences during mentor/mentee interactions and training for mentors centered on building relationships and collaborative leadership behaviors. Dukess (2001) validated that quality mentor programs must include clear guidelines for both mentor and mentee and non-evaluative dialogue as key to a successful mentoring program. Mentor training aimed at enhancement of coach-like skills in listening and questioning helps mentors to facilitate clear and productive inquiries that better solicit critical thinking and reflection from their mentees (Mendels 2012).

Through incorporating continuous professional development targeted at understanding local contexts and embedded, responsive activities, mentoring programs strengthen leadership capacity and increase success during the first few years. Killion (2012, 26) stated, “Balancing multiple priorities is a typical challenge principals face, and in this era of so many significant changes, principals are feeling more overwhelmed than ever.” Furthermore, Killion shared that principals lack guidance on effective approaches to build coherence and implement multiple change initiatives simultaneously. An experienced principal mentor is a critical link for new school leaders as they bridge theory to practice and apply acquired knowledge and individual beliefs to daily performance and decision-making that positively impacts the school environment.

The Kansas Educational Leadership Institute

In an effort to address a clear need to support new principal leaders in Kansas, the Kansas Educational Leadership Institute (KELI) moved forward from a committed planning process in 2012 to implement mentoring and induction for principals new to the position in 2013. This process was led by a state-wide Building Leader Mentoring and Induction Task Force. The work of the task force resulted in a recommendation outlining research-based and best practice mentoring and induction requirements for new building leaders. This work built on and expanded from KELI’s initial mentoring and induction program to serve new superintendent leaders in Kansas in 2011.

KELI is a shared partnership between Kansas State University College of Education (KSU COE), Kansas State Department of Education (KSDE), Kansas Association of School Boards (KASB), United School Administrators of Kansas (USA-Kansas), and Kansas School Superintendent’s Association (KSSA). KELI’s mission is to collaborate and share resources to support professional growth of educational leaders needed in Kansas schools for the 21st Century. Along with a priority focus on mentoring and induction new school and district leaders, KELI provides a second strand of support for all leaders in Kansas through deep learning opportunities designed to support Kansas leaders in the 21st century. High collaboration among KELI’s partners enables meaningful contributions and a continued focus on best practice, responsive planning to meet the needs in today’s schools and districts, and research-based program requirements. KELI’s dual emphasis on quality mentoring and induction and ongoing opportunities for professional learning for all Kansas leaders exemplifies a well-structured and well-received program of support for Kansas leaders.

KELI is recognized by KSDE as an area professional learning center. This status allows new superintendents and principals and other initially licensed leaders in Kansas to move to their professional license when mentoring and induction program requirements are completed. Trained and experienced field mentors set out to embrace exciting leadership work and service by providing individualized and on-site support in each local district. National leadership standards are applied in meaningful context by KELI mentors as they contribute to insightful discussions and reflective feedback at each mentor/mentee visit (CCSSO 2008). KELI’s second strand of leadership development for all Kansas leaders provides quality professional development focused on current topics. This strand of leadership development seminars are designed to target specific needs of the leader’s role in tackling many state and federal initiatives inherent in today’s school and district settings.

Moving the Principal Mentoring and Induction Program into Action

May 2013 marked the first steps in forming a pilot mentoring and induction program for first year principals in Kansas based on the work of the Building Leader Mentoring and Induction task force. KELI partner leaders collectively announced this new state opportunity for building level

leadership support. These partner leaders included the Commissioner of Education (KSDE), KSU COE Dean, Executive Directors of KASB and USA-Kansas, and President of KSSA. The work moved quickly into action. Preparation for requesting volunteer districts with first year principals and experienced Kansas principal mentors began in May 2013. Superintendents received email communication through KSDE listservs regarding the opportunity for voluntary participation for both new principal mentees as well as nomination requests for veteran principal mentors. Basic program descriptions provided superintendents with information about each opportunity and role as well as contact information to express interest in pilot program participation. During the summer months, extensive planning by KELI staff prepared for program implementation in August. Additional contact initiated by KELI staff with district superintendents and prospective mentors and mentees guided placement decisions during the summer months. Demographic information and other important characteristics of the mentor/mentee match prompted careful deliberation at every step.

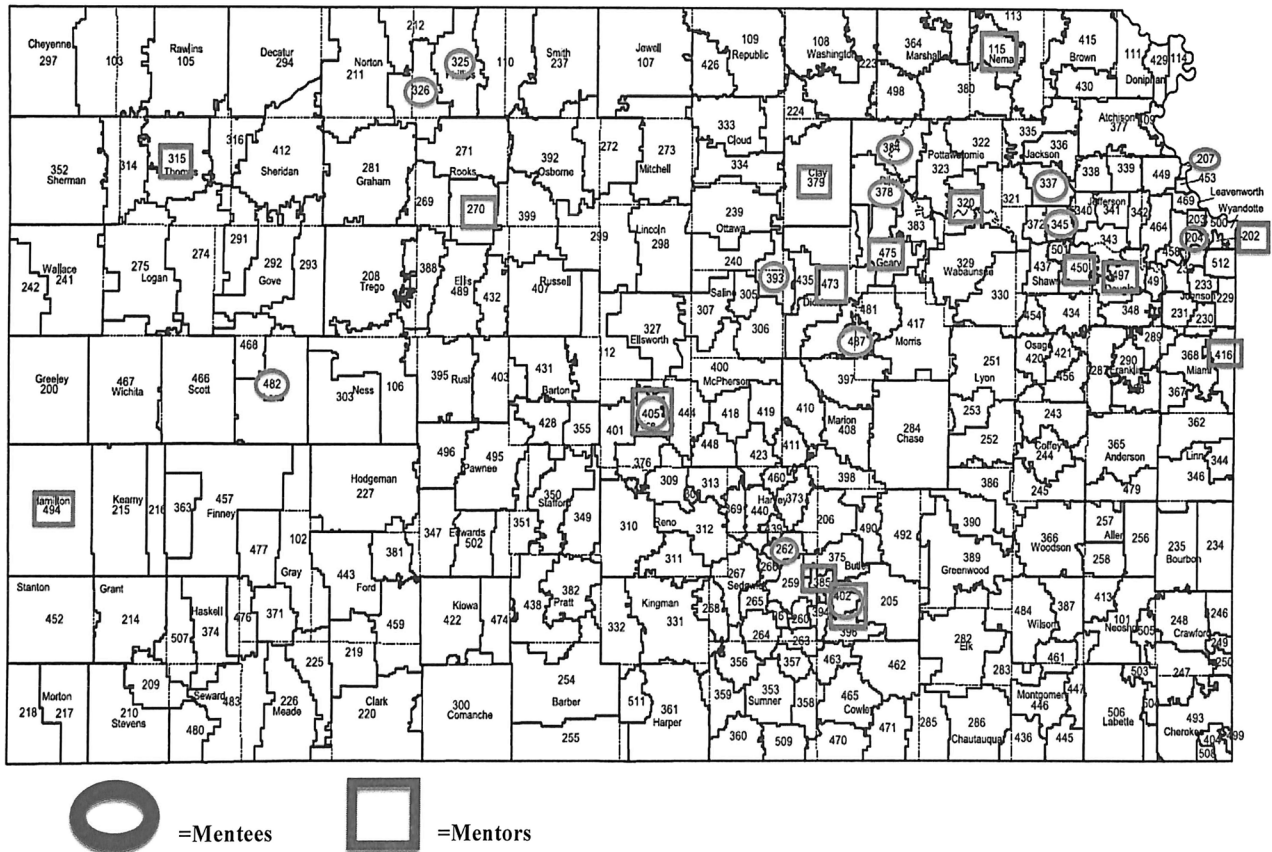
Pilot program. In July 2013, 17 principal mentors, with the support of their district superintendent, agreed to serve 19 first year principals for the 2013-2014 pilot mentoring and induction program. Figure 1 highlights the geographic location of mentees and mentors participating in the pilot

principal mentoring and induction program. Twenty-seven districts in Kansas hosted either a new principal mentee or experienced principal mentor. Following the receipt of district and mentor contracts, service to new principals began in August through orientation activities and scheduling of on-site visits.

In KELI's framework, mentors deliver individualized, on-site support to meet the needs of each school leader in their respective settings. As recommended by the planning task force, mentors selected for serving new principals are currently practicing or recently retired. Particularly critical to the success of the mentoring experience is a thoughtful process to consider variables enabling the mentor and mentee to form a trusting relationship. These variables become the foundation for matching mentors and mentees, namely, geographic location, school level and size, and unique experiences such as leading rural schools. Special attention is also given to place principal mentors from outside districts with each mentee. This allows a confidential environment for open discussion and dialogue on local issues.

All principal mentors from across the state meet in September. In 2014-2015, mentees joined mentors in this September meeting as a result of feedback from the previous year participants. Groups share goals and reflections on their upcoming experiences. The KELI coordinator reviews program completion requirements along with important procedures,

Figure 1 | Geographic locations of mentees and mentors in 2013-2014 pilot principal mentoring/induction program



logs, and documentation of activities. Clear expectations establish necessary parameters for both mentees and mentors during the year. The coordinator asks mentors to share Words of Wisdom with their mentees. Some examples are as follows.

You have moved into a new world. Your role as a principal is so much different than it was as a teacher. Sometimes you may feel like you don't know where you fit in, or if you are doing anything right. Stay strong, believe in yourself, listen to your staff, listen to parents, and when all comes back to you stick to your values and beliefs and you will make the right decisions and choices. (Mentor 1)

Don't be frustrated by all the interruptions that happen during a day, realize that the interruptions ARE the job. Enjoy every one of them. (Mentor 2)

Build strong long lasting relationships with members of the district and community. Find your building leaders and allow them to lead the ship. Always be willing to ask for help and find a buddy that you can ask anything. (Mentor 3)

Program requirements. Mentoring and induction program guidelines outline requirements for successful completion of the KELI program. These requirements denote interactions between mentors and their respective first year principals. Mentors, who have been recommended by their superintendent as being successful Kansas principals, meet on-site with their mentees at least five times face-to-face during the year from August through May. One of the visits includes a visit by the mentee to the school site of the mentor. Mentees and mentors visit as needed throughout the year utilizing communication channels of their choice. Mentors also conduct two on-site performance demonstration observations (i.e., staff/parent session, assembly, presentation) and provide confidential and timely feedback to the mentee for the purpose of professional growth. One KELI mentee shared, "As a new principal, you don't always know what questions to ask and when. My KELI mentor guided me through the year so that the information I received was pertinent and in a timely manner."

Program requirements present structured activities and professional resources to build capacity in the new building leader. A beneficial resource provided to mentees is a monthly checklist developed by principal mentors and the KELI coordinator. These checklists outline important duties, reports, and requirements for first year principals and give new leaders a heads up as they plan their time to meet necessary requirements in addition to their daily work and school site priorities. In addition, research articles accompany monthly checklists and address topics of timely concern important to school level leaders.

A defined purpose in the KELI mentoring and induction program is forming valuable professional networking to assist growth and leadership capacity building. Throughout the year, mentees must attend four sessions to move towards accomplishing this goal. The four sessions must include two professional organization meetings (i.e., principal association,

education summit, leadership conference, or other professional organization meeting), one cohort session (fall regional hosted by mentors or spring regional hosted state-wide), and one professional leadership session to increase leadership skills and knowledge. Various opportunities throughout the school year afford mentees opportunities to complete these activities. To encourage best practice in reflection, mentees are requested to share brief reports for two of these out-of-district experiences with others in their district. Mentees are also asked to provide a year-end reflection capturing major personal and professional growth experiences during their first year as principal as a culminating activity in the month of May.

A mentee's successful completion of the KELI new principal mentoring and induction program enables mentees with an initial leadership license to move to their professional school leader license with authorization from the KELI executive director. New principals holding a professional license can earn professional growth credits through KELI's recognition as a regional learning center.

Mentor training. KELI principal mentors participate in coaching training during their first two years serving as a mentor. All KELI mentors continue to take refresher training as needs dictate. Intentionally designed as asynchronously deliverables, the training modules are hosted on-line allowing busy principals to participate actively in the training distantly from their own local school offices. Master class coaching training is provided by a nationally certified trainer and utilizes various technology platforms to deliver instruction and practice. The purpose of coaching training is to learn the basic tools of being a coach-like mentor and acquire new knowledge in the tenets of developing a coaching mindset, becoming a committed listener, asking powerful questions, and giving reflective feedback (Cheolites and Reilly 2010). An equally important purpose of coaching training is to strengthen the theory-to-practice conversion through a series of practice labs conducted in a safe and risk-free environment. Practice labs involve simulations through small group discussion, role-playing, and coaching practice around real-life topics. Villani (2006, 19) affirmed that "ongoing support of mentors often yield significant results." Through this carefully guided training, principal mentors gain professional skills and satisfaction in acquisition of new knowledge and skills that, in turn, assist mentees in developing critical thinking and problem-solving skills.

Mentors receive a copy of *Coaching Conversations: Transforming Your School One Conversation at a Time* (Cheolites and Reilly 2010). Mentors provide feedback on the quality of technology used for training as well as strengths and areas for improvement related to training contents and structure. Mentors also share their experience in serving as a mentor, often related to self-assessment and professional outcomes. Additional professional development for mentors occurs from opportunities to reflect and network with other building leaders in Kansas state-wide and regionally. One KELI principal mentor commented, "You will grow as an educator too!"

Moving Forward, Year Two Program

The mentoring and induction program for new principals has experienced steady growth and success. As depicted in Figure 2, in 2014-2015, 17 first year principals participated in KELI’s mentoring and induction program served by 14 veteran principals. During that year, three principals continued to receive support as a second year principal. Ten districts participated in the program. Twenty-four districts participated in KELI’s program for principals in 2015-2016, with 21 new principals and 18 mentors involved in and providing services. During 2015-2016, 11 principals continued to receive support as a second year principal. A closer look at services available for principals moving into their second year is detailed in the next section.

Research reveals that effective mentoring programs entail continuing support past the first year of practice for leaders. The purpose of KELI’s second year support program for Kansas principals is to offer principals a continuing, but less intense connection to mentors to continue building capacity in the new principal leader. When possible, the mentor remains the same during year two. The mentee and mentor work collaboratively to consider opportunities to move beyond survival skills to deeper reflection and application of leadership behaviors that make a difference for student achievement and school progress. Activities are customized to address identified targets and include one face-to-face visit between the mentor and mentee each semester, one performance observation at the request of the principal

mentee, access to monthly checklists and professional resources, and participation in regional and state cohort discussions.

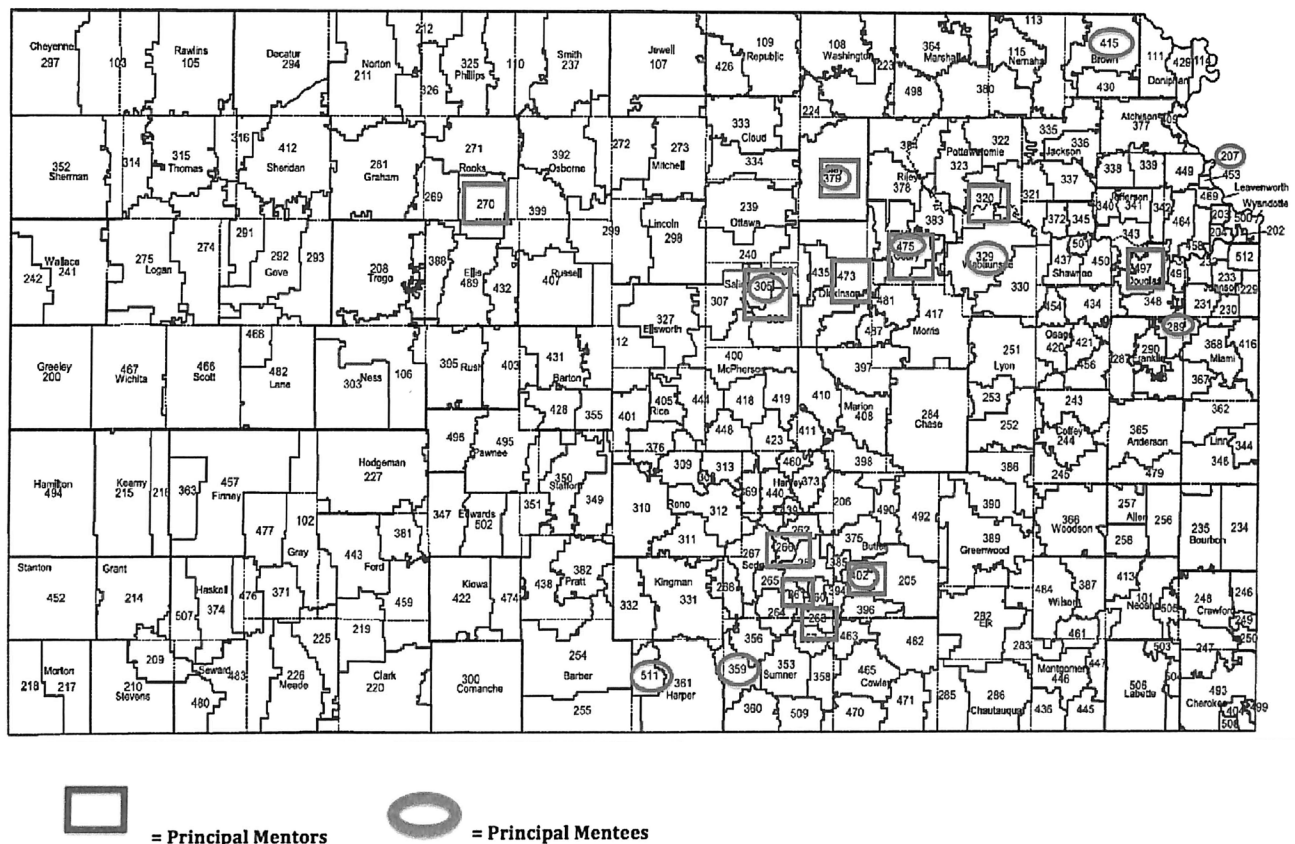
Major goals for second year support focus on individualized support to meet specific professional growth needs of the mentee, increased opportunities to build networks and contribute to leadership and service in professional organizations, and enhanced overall capacity to build knowledge and address issues in the local context.

Program Evaluation and Success

As a yearly culminating experience, KELI principal mentors and mentees attend a face-to-face meeting in the spring to provide feedback and input for program improvement and share insights to raise public awareness of the program’s benefits and its state-wide participation. Break-out discussions provide an opportunity for district superintendents, principal mentors, and mentees to network and discuss program highlights and ideas.

In addition, all program participants receive an on-line survey including key questions pertinent to their participation in the KELI mentoring and induction program in the spring. The survey is comprised of a Likert-scale and open-ended questions. Table 1 provides highlights of the survey responses for each group. Feedback is also solicited from superintendents whose districts have principal mentees in the program and superintendents whose districts have supplied principal mentors. In both years of operation, 100%

Figure 2 | **Geographic locations of mentees and mentors in 2014-2015 principal mentoring/induction program**



of mentees agreed that the KELI mentoring and induction program was helpful to their first year of practice. All mentee respondents indicated they would recommend other first year leaders to participate in the KELI mentoring and induction program.

Principal mentors expressed benefit to their own professional learning in serving as a mentor. For both years, 100% of KELI mentors agreed that serving as a mentor is a personal and professional learning experience. The mentors who are practicing principals shared that the coaching training, reflection, and experience increased their skills in "how [they] think and work at what [they] do with [their] own staff." One mentor noted, "This has been a wonderful thing for me." Mentors consistently noted that mentees had grown tremendously as a result of participation in the KELI pilot program, growing "leaps and bounds."

Professional Learning

KELI's deep learning seminars for Kansas leaders are offered in a meaningful context that allows for presentation of new knowledge, demonstration of applications in practice by school and district leaders, and time for learning and networking in collaborative leadership team settings. In July 2013, staff from KSDE and KELI began to discuss the need to provide timely information to principals in Kansas on current state and national change initiatives. A state-wide survey administered to school principals in September 2013 framed the needs and content of these sessions. KSDE directors and KELI staff reviewed 540 responses from elementary, middle, and high school principals. The survey provided opportunities for respondents to identify important demographic information, preferences on seminar format, and ranking of professional learning needs in nine main topic areas. From the review of responses, six top areas of concern emerged along with multiple key preferences on delivery.

This collaborative effort resulted in a series of seminars for 2013-2014 focused on school level leaders as they work to understand, facilitate, and communicate change to and with staff and parents. These seminars specifically targeted principals and school leadership teams. KELI partnered with KSDE in the development of these seminars to identify needs around changes that impact principal leadership. The three topics selected for the 2013-2014 school year, entitled "Professional Learning for Principals", represented the highest relevancy and impact identified by principals. Seminars were hosted in two separate locations in Kansas. Accreditation was the first topic, focusing on assessing needs, setting goals, and gathering evidence. One seminar attendee shared the following comment, "I appreciate you bringing principals together to give us information about what is going on." The second session focused on inter-rater reliability, walk-through evaluations, and feedback. Some examples of attendees' comments included: "This was a topic as a first year principal I need to learn more about – thanks," "Excellent workshops/ seminar, this will really help me become a better principal," and "Presenters are invested and willing to go the extra mile to help all administrators across the state." The third session addressed strategies and issues/opportunities related to

capacity building. Dr. Kelly Gillespie, the Kansas Service Center Director and KELI Professional Learning for Principals Seminar presenter, noted, "This opportunity allowed building level administrators across the state to meet, share, and collaborate on mutually concerning educational issues. Based on attendance and participation, these events obviously fulfilled a need in the field."

In 2014-2015, a follow-up sequence of professional learning seminars for principals continued in partnership with KSDE. These deep learning sessions focused on performance evaluation, assessment and student evaluation, and accreditation. Seminars were hosted in three locations in Kansas including a session with the Southwest Plains Regional Service Center in Sublette, Kansas. The format of the professional learning seminars included presentation of content experts on the selected topic, field practitioners (of various sizes and levels of Kansas schools recognized for leadership) serving as panelists on the selected content and/or issue, and opportunities for networking with other building leaders across the state. For all four professional learning seminars in 2014-2015, program attendees rated the topics of the sessions as important to both their own leadership and their leadership team with ratings above 4.5 on a 5.0 scale. Table 2 highlights the overall evaluation results by program participants across the two years of professional learning seminars for principals.

Next Steps and Implications for Practice

In 2015, the KSDE enacted regulatory guidance to require that each school district in Kansas provide a year-long mentoring and induction program in an approved program to all new position school leaders with an initial license. To qualify for approval, programs must include opportunities for hands-on application of national leadership preparation standards and state building and district leadership standards, structured contact with a minimum of 40 contact hours and three face-to-face meetings, networking with colleagues, options for support beyond the first year of practice, program evaluation, and stated selection and training criteria for mentors (KSDE 2015). As a result of these guidelines, KELI responded to requests by the field to serve assistant principals, assistant superintendents, and special education building and district leadership positions. In 2015-2016, five first year assistant principals received support from four veteran mentor principals.

The KELI program model on serving assistant principals and principals will continue to adapt and change to best meet the needs of building leaders in Kansas. The scope of service across a highly rural state with noticeable turnovers in the principalship (be it resulted from high in retirement or other factors) makes the provision of continued quality service for school leaders increasingly challenging and yet promisingly rewarding if done right. KELI program planners will need to continue efforts to communicate the value of its structured program, providing clear expectations for new principals and their mentors as well as increasing collaboration to best align resources and strengths among state organizations.

Table 1 | **KELI principals mentoring & induction program perception survey results: 2013-2014, 2014-2015**

Questions:	2013-2014		2014-2015	
	Agree/Somewhat Agree		Agree/Somewhat Agree	
	Mentor (n=16)	Mentee (n=16)	Mentor (n=14)	Mentee (n=17)
1. KELI mentoring/induction support is helpful to a first year building leader.	93.75%	100%	100%	100%
2. Mentoring and induction support from the mentor should continue August through June during the leader's first year.	93.33%	93.75%	93.33%	88.89%
3. Multiple face-to-face interactions with a mentor are an essential component of effective mentoring/induction support.	93.75%	100%	100%	94.44%
4. Mentor visits to the new leader's building site are an essential component of mentoring and induction support.	100%	100%	100%	94.12%
5. Four is an adequate number of mentor visits to the new principal's school.	93.75%	100%	93.33%	83.33%
6. Visiting the mentor's school at least one time is a helpful additional benefit to face-to-face interactions.	100%	93.75%	100%	88.89%
7. Small group cohort meetings with area mentors and mentees in the area are helpful to new principals.	80%	81.25%	71.43%	83.33%
8. Additional communication between mentors and new leaders via technology is important.	100%	93.75%	100%	100%
9. A mentor should provide the new leader with meaningful feedback after observing actual leadership performance. (Meaningful feedback from a mentor after observing an actual leadership performance is helpful to a new leader).	100%	93.75%	100%	94.44%
10. Receiving the monthly checklist from KELI is helpful to a mentor. (The monthly checklist from KELI is helpful to new leaders).	81.25%	100%	93.33%	94.44%
11. Attending one or more professional meetings with a mentor is helpful to a new leader.	75%	75%	100%	94.44%
12. A meeting of all KELI mentors at the beginning of the year is helpful to mentors. (You would be interested in attending a joint meeting of all mentors and new principals at the beginning of the school year).	100%	80%	100%	94.44%
13. You would be interested in attending a joint meeting of all KELI mentors and KELI new principals at the close of the school year.	93.75%	75%	86.67%	94.44%
14. KELI should consider offering a level of mentoring support for a second year for new leaders.	75%	62.50%	86.67%	77.78%
Additional Mentor Questions:	2013-2014		2014-2015	
	Agree/Somewhat Agree		Agree/Somewhat Agree	
	Mentor	Mentee	Mentor	Mentee
15. Participating in coach masters training classes adds to your professional skills.	93.75%		93.33%	
16. The coach master training sessions are useful in your role as mentor.	93.75%		93.33%	
17. Follow up group calls after coach masters classes assist you in improving your coaching skills.	87.50%		86.67%	
18. You are applying what you are learning in KELI coach training as a leader in your own district.	100%		93.33%	
19. Serving as a KELI mentor is a personal professional learning experience.	100%		100%	
Additional Mentee Questions:				
20. You find yourself using with others coaching behaviors your KELI mentor models.		87.50%		64.71%
21. The coaching you receive from your mentor strengthens your problem solving skills.		93.75%		88.89%
22. You would recommend other first year leaders participate in the KELI mentoring/induction program.		100%		100%
The effectiveness of communication between the mentee/mentor (5=highest)	Mentor	Mentee	Mentor	Mentee
In-person			5.00	4.94
Phone	2.25	2.44	4.00	4.38
Email	1.19	1.19	3.33	4.27
FaceTime/Skype	4.69	5.57	2.00	3.14
Other	4.90	5.33	2.00	3.00

Note: The surveys are administered online annually at the end-of-year to program participants. The surveys contain Likert scale questions and open-ended questions. Only the results from the Likert scale questions are presented here.

Table 2 | Participant evaluations of KELL professional learning seminars for 2013-2014 and 2014-2015

Survey Question	2013-2014 Seminar Topics				
	Accreditation		Observation/Feedback		Building Capacity
	Olathe November 13	Wichita November 20	Wichita February 12	Olathe February 19	Wichita April 23
The topic of today's session was important to me and my leadership team.	4.52	4.44	4.91	4.63	4.56
The seminar provided opportunities for me to deepen my understanding of the program topic.	3.92	4.33	4.82	4.48	4.32
The presenters appropriately addressed the seminar topics.	3.70	4.43	4.82	4.63	4.48
The format for the seminar enhanced the learning experience for me and created opportunities to share my ideas and experiences with others.	3.78	3.95	4.59	4.52	4.52
The overall quality and content of this seminar met my expectations.	3.29	4.23	4.68	4.52	4.32
Survey Question	2014-2015 Seminar Topics				
	Performance Evaluation	Assessment Student Eval.	Accreditation	Assessment and Accreditation	
	Wichita October 1	Manhattan November 19	Manhattan January 21	Sublette February 12	
The topic of today's session was important to me and my leadership team.	4.56	4.51	4.50	4.68	
The seminar provided opportunities for me to deepen my understanding of the program topic.	4.28	4.32	4.21	4.51	
The presenters appropriately addressed the seminar topics.	4.26	4.19	4.21	4.51	
The format for the seminar enhanced the learning experience for me and created opportunities to share my ideas and experiences with others.	4.19	4.11	4.08	4.35	
The overall quality and content of this seminar met my expectations.	4.19	4.16	4.00	4.49	

Note: 5=Excellent, 3=Average, and 1=Poor.

Conclusion

Novice principals can embrace new realities through the calm and experienced voice of skillful mentors. Mentors provide a life-line for new leaders to move past situational challenges, refine skills and strategies for long-term results, and understand the impact of decisions in the local context. Through experiential learning and reflection guided by trained mentors/veteran leaders, new principals learn how to prioritize time to build meaningful relationships with all stakeholder groups. Within a trusting relationship, new leaders can seek advisement on aligning goals and building confidence to meet complex needs in school settings. New and experienced leaders, working in partnership, shape a journey during the first year of practice that leads to higher levels of accomplishment for the beginning building leader and the school communities they serve.



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Examining The Impact of a DSP Project through a Comparative Adult Education Lens: A Snapshot of Principal Professional Development for Education Internationalization in Beijing, China

Haijun Kang, Lei Lyu, and Qi Sun

Dr. Haijun Kang is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Leadership at Kansas State University. He has a dual title PhD degree in adult education and comparative and international education. He is interested in using adult learning theories and current technologies to enhance cross-cultural and international educational leadership practices.

Dr. Lei Lyu, associate professor of Beijing Institute of Education (a specialized institute providing training for Beijing principals and teachers) served as a public secondary school teacher for six years. Her research fields are principal professional development and educational leadership.

Dr. Qi Sun is Associate Professor and Program Coordinator of Adult Learning Program at the University of Tennessee Knoxville. Her research focuses on transformative learning, lifelong learning, Eastern philosophy on education, and international and comparative (adult) education.

Abstract

Through the lenses of comparative adult education and international educational leadership development, this study explores the learning experiences of local school principals after they participated in a professional development program named "Domestic Study Program" (DSP) in Beijing. A qualitative narrative inquiry was applied and four school principals who self-reported as experiencing personal and professional improvement through the DSP program were interviewed. Their lived learning experiences as adult learners through the DSP project were sorted, categorized, grouped, and regrouped following the qualitative research data analysis protocols suggested by Rossman and Rallis (2003) and Creswell (2014). The research indicates that the four local principals experienced major changes in the areas of self-perception, ways of thinking, and ways of doing. The findings are interpreted through the lenses of comparative adult education and international educational leadership development.

Introduction

In the past decade, more than 30 international schools have been established in Beijing, China to address the need of delivering quality education to foreign employees' children and those children born in countries outside of China but live in Beijing area. Because of using International Baccalaureate (IB) curriculum and other countries' national curriculum and hiring principals and teachers with rich international education background, these international schools provide a unique learning opportunity for local schools to understand how to connect local education practice to the world.

To internationalize education, principal leadership development is important because "the total (direct and indirect) effects of leadership on student learning account for about a quarter of total school effects (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004, p.5). From 2011 through 2015, therefore, Beijing Education Commission organized a principal leadership development program to provide local

principals with the opportunity to systematically study the school systems and curriculum of nine international schools in Beijing. Because Beijing local principals gain international principal leadership development experience without leaving the country, this professional development program was named "Domestic Study Program" (DSP).

The purpose of this study is to explore the impact of DSP on local principals in Beijing, China by critically examining these school principals' learning experiences after they participated in the DSP project as an adult learner. In this study, professional development is defined as "educational activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills and attitudes that will improve the performance for a future role." (Retna, 2015, p.525). Professional development has long been part of adult and continuing education and shares a great deal of the nature of adult learning (Knowles, 1980, 1984).

Conceptual Frameworks

Comparative and international education has historically performed significant roles that not only facilitate effective global interactions and understandings with people who are geographically and culturally different, but also enable people to learn and discover new ideas from others that help improve one's own educational practice or avoid making similar mistakes (Bogotch and Maslin-Ostrowski, 2010). Thus a comparative education lens provides this study with a clear understanding of the need for China to learn from the West about the strengths and limitations of Chinese principalship practice. This approach helps examine what Beijing local principals have learned from international schools through the DSP project.

Further, principal leadership development is evidenced as a refinement in principalship through sustained and incremental innovation, based on understanding why and how to make changes in school practices (Barnes, 2010). Successful school development and high profile student achievements all rest upon the ability and capability building of school leaders (Heck & Hallinger, 2009). Therefore, this study also adapts Green's (2010) 4-dimensional principal leadership development model to interpret the changes occurred in principals' understandings of the role they play in school development and effectiveness. Dimension One emphasizes the importance of understanding one's own beliefs and values as well as the beliefs and values of others, enabling the emergence of a shared vision and goals. Dimension Two points out the need to understand the complexity of organizational life. The awareness of the social interactions with others allows school leaders to access conditions and develop plans for goal attainment. Dimension Three is about developing and maintaining relationship that exist within and across all stakeholders in the school community. Dimension Four emphasizes the necessity of understanding and using best practices to improve and transform their schools.

Because of the connection between professional development and adult and continuing education (Knowles, 1980, 1984), an adult education approach is taken. To understand what and how principals, as adult learners,

learn, change, and make impact through individual efforts as school leaders, it is needed to not only understand how principals learn as an adult but also understand the context in which these adult learners and their learning are situated. Thus, Caffarella and Merriam's (2000) integrated adult learning framework that links the individual and contextual perspectives together is applied. Their framework looks at "each learning situation from two major lenses or frames: An awareness of individual learners and how they learn, and an understanding of how the context shapes learners, instructor, and the learning transaction itself" (p. 62).

Literature Review

Principal Leadership Development in the Context of Education Internationalization

The world has become increasingly interconnected, multicultural and diverse. The need to connect global-local educational practices to promote and enhance understandings at local levels and learning from each other are becoming essential to today's principal leadership development. Achieving school goals is highly dependent on the ability and capability of school leaders (Heck and Hallinger, 2009). Therefore, today's principal leadership development needs to focus on leadership capacity building for new changes that would enhance school effectiveness and student achievement in the globalized world to develop global citizenship.

Bogotch and Maslin-Ostrowski (2010) report that much literature on educational leadership internationalization focuses on personal academic travel and international educational opportunity than on the on-going, comprehensive, and multifaceted integration of internationalization within local school systems. According to Hourani and Stringer (2015), Hirsh (2009), and Nicholson, Harris-John and Schimmel (2005), successful principal leadership development needs to be on-going, job-embedded, connected to school improvement and site-specific. They also indicate that there should be opportunity for principals to be engaged in real life educational problem solving with colleagues and education content should accommodate both individual principal's needs and school demands.

In China, education internationalization equals to changing traditional education mindset and practices around educational goals, educational philosophy, learning content, teaching pedagogy, and education evaluation to becoming more inclusive and flexible. The purpose of education internationalization is to improve students' international consciousness, international vision, international communication skills, and become international learner-citizens (陈如平, 2010; 顾明远, 1992; 刘文华, 2014; 谢新观, 1999; 赵峰, 2010). In this global context, principals in China are faced with the following challenges: Internationalizing education philosophy, control over school governance, localizing international education philosophy and methodology, lack of experience designing and implementing international curriculum (翁艳, 2004; 高光, 2012; 傅林, 2014; 倪闽景, 2014). In China, principal leadership

development is based on 60 principal leadership standards issued by the government that encompass the following six dimensions: Planning of school development, humanity culture development, instructional leadership, teacher professional development, school internal management, and adapting school external environment (褚宏启, 2015; 夏杨艳, 2016; 冯慧, 2016). These standards tell principals what they should do to be in compliance with the government's education policy and regulations, to fulfill their principalship as expected, and to lead future school development. "Though used as the guidelines and serve as the base for principal professional development, these standards mainly reflect the government's expectations not students' needs" (褚宏启, 2015, p. 5-7). Not much language is included about student learning and what a school should do to help improve students' learning. Accordingly, these standards focus more on school development without articulating student learning objectives and the connection to school management. These prescribed standards make principals focus on doing things in the "right" way as defined by the government at the cost of overlooking the importance of individual student growth and development.

Principal as Adult Learner

In Western adult learning literature, how adults learn is mainly discussed from three perspectives. One is the individual perspective that focuses on the learning process of the individual learner. The other is the contextual perspective that includes two dimensions – interactive and structural. In the 21st century, Caffarella and Merriam (2000) added the third perspective that is the integration of the individual and contextual perspectives because neither one alone is able to capture the full picture of adult learning knowing that adult learners are influenced by many socio-cultural factors.

Individual perspective. Understanding adults learn differently from children, Knowles (1968, 1980, 1984) popularized the concept of Andragogy from Europe (the art and science of helping adults learn) to distinguish adult learning from pre-adult schooling pedagogy (the art and science of helping children learn). The core of andragogy rests upon the following six assumptions about adult learners: (1) Adult's self-concept grows from that of dependent personality toward one of a self-directed learner; (2) An adult accumulates a growing reservoir of experience, which is a rich resource for new learning; (3) The readiness of an adult to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role; (4) There is a change in time perspective as people mature—from future application of knowledge to immediacy of application. Thus, an adult is more goal and problem centered than subject centered and future orientated in learning (Knowles 1980, p. 44-45); (5) Adults are most motivated internally than externally (Knowles & Associates, 1984); (6) Adults need to know why they need to learn something (Knowles, 1984).

This "model of assumption" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43) insightfully helps understand the nature of adult as individual learners, why they participate in adult learning, what motivate them to learn, and how they learn (Brookfield, 1984; Darkwald & Merriam, 1982; Gardner, 1983; Garrison, 1997;

Knowles, 1980, 1984; Merriam & Brockett, 1999; Merriam et al., 2007; Mezirow, 1991; Tough, 1971; Wlodkowski, 1998). SDL (Tough, 1971), for example, rests upon humanistic philosophy and focuses on learning for personal development. Merriam et al. (2007) indicate that SDL learners usually pursue one or a combination of the following three different goals: Goal one is to enhance the ability to be self-directed in their learning by accepting responsibility and being proactive in learning with personal autonomy and individual choice; Goal two is to foster transformative learning as indicated by Mezirow (1985) that we "...participate fully and freely in the dialogue through which we test our interests and perspective against those of others and accordingly modify them and our learning goals" (as cited in Merriam et al. 2007, p. 108); Goal three broadens the scope of adult learning by promoting emancipatory learning and incorporating collective social action for social change.

Contextual perspective. The contextual perspective, from sociocultural standpoint, displays two key elements – the interactive nature and structural aspect of adult learning (Caffarella and Merriam 2000). Learning does not happen in a vacuum thus it cannot be separated from the context in which learning takes place. Our daily lives and prior knowledge and experiences all play a role in learning. In other words, what we learn and how we learn are all situated in the context that we are a part. We also learn through reflective practice while interacting with various contexts, which enables our experience and prior knowledge to work together to make appropriate judgment in complex situations. The second dimension of the contextual perspective is the structural aspect of learning that emphasizes that contextual factors contributing to identifying individual learner need to be taken into consideration in all adult learning process (i.e., race, social class, gender, ethnicity, etc.).

Integrated perspective. Expanding on the individual and contextual perspectives, Caffarella and Merriam (2000) developed a third view to gain fuller understanding of learning in adulthood in the 21st century. That is, we should not only be aware of individual learners and how they learn, but also understand how social context affects learning process and how adult learners identify themselves in the learning process. In China, "shadowing training" for novice principals is one of the main approaches of principal training. This approach reflects the nature of this integrated adult learning perspective. In the process of shadowing, novice principals are observers and conduct critical reflection but not action (涂三广, 2014). Through shadowing, novice principals gain experience and have opportunities to integrate the contextual knowledge into their own existing practice knowledgebase (汪文华, 2013). They then undergo a process of reflection to improve their leadership philosophies which, in turn, help them improve their leadership identity.

This perspective is practically useful when it comes to understanding how principals learn as adult learners in different learning contexts and how they apply what they have learned to school contexts that differ from one another. This perspective makes clear that principal leadership strongly influences a variety of school outcomes and contributes to

both school development and school community growth (Oleszewski, Shoho, and Barnett, 2012). Yet, meaningful change cannot be delivered using existing structures, existing ideas or existing capabilities. As can be argued that the widening expectations of a principal's role under the globalization starts to demand even broader skills and knowledge from today's principals.

Principalship in Action in China

In China, principal's role as school leader who determines school development and success is recognized as well. "In today's globalized world, principals need to transition from a traditional gatekeeper to a change agent such that they can truly play the role of an initiator, leader and resource provider for school reforms." (孙翠香, 2014, p. 45-49). In reality, however, principal's role as school leader is restricted because of the unique socio-political context. The bureaucratic education system and principal appointment mechanism are important factors that affect school development. Therefore, principals in China fall into the dilemma of not only needing to be responsible to school development but also having the responsibility to satisfy the expectations of the government (吴康宁, 2012; 南纪稳, 2002). Research studies indicate that "Chinese principals' approach to day-to-day problem is similar to a firefighter and their problem solving is more of blinded and randomized than systemic" (胡瑞士, 2012, p. 15-17). This is largely due to the heavy workload they carry and the complexity of the problems they have to deal with by constantly shifting between different roles and mindsets (石一, 2005). Being tied up with a lot of ad hoc administrative tasks leaves principals little to no time to systematically think through the future of the school and the goal of education (夏杨艳, 程晋宽, 2016).

The literature review above indicates a lack of principal leadership research that looks at principal as adult learner and lack of studies that offer best practices to help principals enhance their internal capacities building in order to manage the complex demands of learning, teaching and leadership (Drago-Severson, Maslin-Ostrowski, Hoffman and Barbaro, 2014, p. 8). Many research studies also call for programs that should be "focusing on enhancing relational skills and collaborative leadership capacities, and increasing the understanding of how to create contexts that incorporate reflective practice" (Drago-Severson et al., 2014). In China, school principals' everyday practices are mainly guided by the notions of "national standard", "supervisor-oriented", and "efficiency first." Principals in China have developed fragmented ways of thinking by giving most attention and priority to enrollment rate and exam results and less attention to the essence of education and sustainable human development in the 21st century. In the context of education internationalization, it is suggested that today's principals should focus on developing open, inclusive, free, and democratic school culture and respecting needs from individual teachers and students.

This study, therefore, is to fill in the literature gap by taking an international and comparative adult education view point to understand what knowledge and skills principals in

Beijing China are acquiring through leadership development program in the context of education internationalization.

Research Methods

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of DSP on local principals in Beijing China by answering the following question: What changes have local principals in Beijing experienced after attending the DSP project?

A qualitative narrative inquiry, in-depth interview, was applied because "qualitative interview is a uniquely sensitive and powerful method for capturing the experiences and lived meanings of the subjects' everyday world. Interviews allow subjects to convey to others their situation from their own perspective and in their own words" (Kvale, 1996, p 70). Other researchers also indicate that an effective way of knowing one's reality is through hearing experience and stories (Janesick, 2011; Merriam 2009; Seidman 2006). Further, "reality in qualitative research inquiry assumes that there are multiple, changing realities and that individuals have their own unique constructions of reality" (Merriam, 2009, p. 25).

Participant inclusion criteria were: Participation in the DSP program between 2011-2015 and self-reported as experiencing personal and professional improvement after the DSP project. Four school principals were recruited (see Table 1). Semi-structured questions were developed in Chinese to guide narrative conversation. Each interview was 60 to 90 minutes long and conducted at a distance using Zoom video conferencing technology with the interviewees in China and the researchers in the US. All interviews were done by one researcher in Chinese and video recorded. The interview videos were later transcribed and translated into English by the three researchers who are bi-lingo and bi-cultural. Chinese version of the transcripts were sent to the interviewees for confirmation and approval. Information potentially linking to research participants' identities have been removed and pseudonyms are used in this paper.

Data analysis was conducted following the 4-step process that Rossman and Rallis (2003) suggested for analyzing qualitative research data. The four principals' lived learning experiences as adult learners through the DSP project were sorted, categorized, grouped, and regrouped. Creswell's 6-step data analysis strategy (2014) was also consulted, including organizing and preparing data, reading through all data, coding the data, search themes and descriptions, interrelating themes and descriptions, and interpreting the meaning of themes and descriptions. Following these steps allows the researchers to identify the perceived changes principal participants experienced through the DSP project, which helped with member check for accuracy. The meanings of different themes and thick descriptions collected from the three researchers were compared and combined to address the above research question.

Findings

After participating in the DSP project, the four principal participants experienced changes mainly in the following three areas: Self-perception, ways of thinking, and ways of doing.

Table 1 | Participant Information

Pseudonym Name	Age	Gender	Level of Education	Position
Principal LiW	49	Female	Master Degree	Principal
Principal XiaW	50	Male	Bachelor Degree	Principal
VP LiY	38	Female	Bachelor Degree	Vice Principal
VP DongCh	47	Female	Master Degree	Vice Principal

Self-Perception

Self-perception is what individuals know about “their own attitudes, emotions, and other internal states” (Bem, 1972, p.2). Green (2010) emphasizes in his educational leadership model that school leaders’ self-perception is an important dimension of school leadership skills. The importance of self-perception to adults is also well recognized in adult education theory. Knowles’ first assumption (1980), for example, indicates that “as a person matures, his or her self-concept moves from that of a dependent personality toward one of a self-directing human being” (p. 44). Being charged of bringing about school change, principals are expected to be self-directed and should know what they are doing and in what direction they are leading the schools.

After the DSP project, the four principal participants view themselves as a change agent than a school administrator. As a change agent, they see themselves as the catalysts for change to occur in their schools. Principal LiW reflected on her identity as a school leader that “the higher your position is, the greater responsibility you will have, and the more challenges you will face, all of which will force you to keep improving yourself and become a lifelong learner”. Therefore, a qualified principal needs to be a “visionary leader who pulls herself out of daily administrative tasks to focus on bigger pictures of school development,” said Principal LiW. She and Principal XiaW think a visionary leader should possess the following characteristics: Being engaged in lifelong learning because “the higher you stand, the clearer you see the direction”; mastering good resilience skills because “giving up should not be an alternate plan for a school principal”; being a people person because “as the head of a school, one has to think and act in the shoes of the students, parents, teachers, supervisors, and other stakeholders by showing respect and trust”; increasing cultural consciousness because “teachers, students and parents are different (It’s not that you treat them differently but that they are different by nature so you have to find different ways to work with them)”; and, emphasizing on shared governance and distributed leadership. Principal LiW shared that she established several committees after going back to her school and how much incredible support her school has received from those committees.

This change agent approach is well documented in Western educational leadership literature as well (Bullough, Kauchak, Crow, Hobbs, and Stokes, 1997). For example, the characteristics of leadership effectiveness summarized by Principal LiW and Principal XiaW above fit nicely into Fullan’s five essential characteristics of an effective school leader (2001, 2003). Positioning themselves as the change agent of school development, principals are able to develop respect and trust based on school culture/climate, intentionally execute distributed leadership to change and transform the school as a whole (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Spillane, 2005; Spillane, Diamond, & Jita, 2003; Stroble and Luka, 1999).

To illustrate the importance of principals being a change agent, Principal XiaW shared an analogy of managing a vegetable garden vs. managing a vegetable storage bin. The difference between a garden and a vegetable storage bin is that vegetables will grow by themselves if the gardener provides decent fertilizer and rich soil and water regularly; However, the amount of vegetables won’t change and the storage bin will become a mess if the manager does not put more fresh vegetables into the storage bin and not organize the bin. A change agent is like a gardener who produces good school culture for teachers and students to grow and develop whereas a traditional school principal is like a manager who dictates school policies and micromanages teachers’ teacher practices. Principal XiaW indicated that “the fundamental difference between being a gardener and a storage manager is that the former enjoys his everyday work, plants respect and trust, harvests [teacher and student] growth and development, and does not see managing a garden a burden whereas the latter does.”

Ways of Thinking

People’s ways of thinking are deeply rooted in their everyday life and work experiences and, therefore, greatly influenced by the socio-cultural contexts in which they are situated. This is the contextual perspective discussed in Caffarella and Merriam (2000) that is highly valued in traditional Chinese culture. Influenced by Confucianism, Chinese people have a tendency for social harmony that is reflected in their readiness to find their own place within the hierarchical social order and strictly follow the chain of

command to contribute to social harmony than creating chaos. As socio-culturally constructed adults, principal participants demonstrated this Chinese culture norm in their responses to the interview questions. VP LiY shared that she was pretty much supervisor-centered principal before the DSP project. Whenever her supervisor gave her a task, she had a tendency to try her best to get it done within the shortest time as possible so that her supervisor could see the results. She shared, "before the DSP project, if my supervisor tells me that I should plan some student activities this semester, I would want to finish planning the same day and start to conduct student activities within a week." When being asked why she was so supervisor-centered, her response was that "... because of the social context. It's impossible to do anything if you don't take into consideration the social context you are in."

After the DSP project, the four principal participants all started to look at their practices as a school leader through Caffarella and Merriam's (2000) integrated perspective and Green's (2010) 4-dimensional principal leadership model. Principal LiW shared, "[after the DSP project] I began to put myself into the shoes of different stakeholders to look for win-win solutions than strictly implementing school policies passed on from my supervisor." She continued that "I've found myself more comfortable now and am willing to stretch school policies to benefit individual students and teachers." VP LiY learned through the DSP project not to be anxious about issues and challenges in front of her. She said "Now, I can sit down and spend more time analyzing the real causes of these issues and challenges and look for optimal solution to benefit the majority." She noticed that this change in how she approaches issues and challenges has helped her move from focusing merely on the context to focusing on both individual and the context in which the individual is situated. She said,

After the DSP project, I have shifted my focus from micro-managing day-to-day administrative tasks to showing trust and respect to the individuals involved and affected... instead of focusing on how to quickly finish the tasks given by my supervisor, I'm now taking a more dialectic approach by slowing down to give me time to think and by continuously communicating with my supervisor my own thoughts and suggestions.

The key to this shift in ways of thinking, according to VP DongCh, is to recognize that there exists different value systems and people even have different understandings and different approaches to the same value system. Though the DSP project, VP DongCh was impressed by how the international school he visited responded to a student's car accident and a PE teacher's death differently than what his school would do even though everybody values lives. Principal XiaW was impressed by how the international school she visited respects each student's uniqueness. He said,

One thing I've learned through the DSP project is that commending someone because he does a good job is not what respect entails. Respect,means giving adequate attention to each individual student's

personality, respect their learning characteristics, and utilize available resources and school system to provide each individual a personalized curriculum tailored toward this student's unique learning need.

After the DSP project, Principal XiaW changed his ways of thinking by giving more respect and trust to her teachers. "Resting on respect and trust", Principal XiaW said, "my focus now is on realizing the potentials in each individual teacher and creating a culture that is supportive of collaboration and teacher advocacy." He said his teachers now see him more of a friend and are willing to exchange ideas and give suggestions to him than before. VP LiY indicated "[after the DSP project] I feel that I can see things deeper and my decision making skills greatly improved, and so does my logical reasoning skills."

Ways of Doing

Leadership differs from management in that leaders "do the right things" and managers "do things right." Leadership behavior is a specific act of leadership in the process of directing and coordinating the work of group members, such as establishing professional working relationship to address both organizational concern and personal relationship concern (Bernard, 1985; Cartright & Zander, 1968; Getzel & Guba, 1957; Katz, 1989; Bales, 1958), evaluating group member performance, and addressing welfare and emotional concerns of group members (Fiedler, 1981). As a school leader, therefore, principal participants of this study are expected to guide the direction of school change and impact and shape the teaching and learning behaviors of teachers and students by developing a shared vision and goals, developing plans for goal attainment, building relationship with all stakeholders in the school community, and introducing best practices to improve and transform their schools (Green, 2010; Caffarella & Merriam, 2000; 贾轶峰, 1994; 王芳, 2005).

The four principal participants all experienced significant changes in their ways of doing through leadership behavior change to address the concept of "organizational care." Principal LiW shared how she implemented a change at the school level to make class hours uninterrupted. In the past, her school followed calendar-based 5-weekday schedule and all classes had fixed date/time schedules (i.e., PE teacher x always teaches on Monday and Wednesday afternoons). If a national holiday falls on a Monday, all classes schedule for that day were cancelled and no arrangement was made to make up those classes. After the DSP project, she has implemented changes to school class cycle by following a 6-weekday schedule (i.e., PE teacher x teaches on Days 1, 3, 6). Doing so, national holidays or special school events no longer interfere with school class schedule. She said "My teachers think this new way of scheduling classes is more fair and humanistic!"

Through the DSP project, VP LiY noticed the ineffectiveness of the bureaucratic aspect of her school management and decided to move from managing school to "do things right" to providing leadership to "do the right things". In the past, she asked her teachers to give priority to ad hoc tasks given by her supervisor over their everyday school activities. She said "before the DSP project, if my supervisor tells me that I should

plan some student activities this semester, I would want to finish planning the same day and start to conduct student activities within a week." Therefore, she and her teachers' school days were always filled with ad hoc tasks and it was very common that routine school activities were changed and cancelled because of receiving an "urgent" ad hoc task from her supervisor, as she said, "plans cannot keep up with changes!" After the DSP project, she realized the importance of aligning school activities with the school goals, creating a detailed plan and sticking to it. She said "I asked our teachers to develop their own plans for the entire school term, which means developing a plan from now [January] to July. Their plans need to be detailed to week, day, and hours." She now asks her teachers to make their teaching plans their first priority by modeling how she gives priority to her own plan.

The four principal participants also shared how they have changed their school practices to address "personal relationship concern" an important component of leadership behavior they learned through the DSP project. Principal XiaW said he used to audit his teachers' class in an accusatory manner. If he was not happy with a teacher's teaching, he would be angry. He would criticize the teacher and sometimes even penalize the teacher for not up to his expectation. After the DSP project, he no longer "polices" teachers' classes. Instead, he begins his classroom visit by first making an appointment with the teacher. After visiting the class, he will schedule a time with the teacher and share his thoughts and observations with him or her in a more professional way by showing respect and trust. He said "I'm now visiting classrooms more through the appreciative approach than criticizing one. In the past, the teachers didn't want me to visit their classes and were very nervous when seeing me walking into their classrooms. Now, many of them invite me to visit their classes. This indicates a fundamental change in my relationship with them." Principal LiW implemented similar change in her shared governance effort. After the DSP project, she starts to invite students to school planning meetings and guides students to take responsibility for some aspects of school change. She said "We have student representatives at most of our planning meetings. If their suggestions and ideas are good, we will support and provide necessary resources to implement. Because of this change, students know that we recognize the role they play in the school development and their voices are heard by the school leadership team. Now I feel that our students are becoming more independent and are willing to be engaged in school development than before."

Conclusion

School is an organization built on cooperative relationship. Its success and effectiveness rest upon a system of interactions among individuals and also between individuals and the school community (Caffarella and Merriam, 2000; Green, 2010; 黄云龙, 1993). In the context of education internationalization and recognizing the instrumental role principals play in school development, this study looked at the impact of DSP project, a principal leadership development program, on local principals in Beijing China. A comparative

education approach, Green's 4-dimensional leadership development model (2010), and Caffarella and Merriam's (2000) integrated adult learning framework were used to make sense of the lived study experiences of the four local school principals and vice principals in Beijing. In comparison to what they had learned through the DSP project, the four local principals and vice principals interviewed critically reflected on their traditional principalship practice and all indicated experiencing major changes in the following three areas: self-perception, ways of thinking, and ways of doing.



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Policies and Practices of School Leaderships in Japan: A Case of Leadership Development Strategies in Akita

Yukiko Yamamoto, Naoko Enomoto, and Shinobu Yamaguchi

Dr. Yukiko Yamamoto is a researcher of Global Scientific Information and Computing Center, Tokyo Institute of Technology. Her current research projects include ICT integrated education in Mongolia and education for 21st century skills. She earned her Ph.D. degree from Administrative Policy Studies, School of Education at University of Pittsburgh.

Naoko Asano Enomoto is a former researcher of Global Scientific Information and Computing Center, Tokyo Institute of Technology. Her research focus is on education policy and practice in Asia-Pacific region with special interest in 21st century skills/generic skills. She holds a Master's Degree from Waseda University and University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Shinobu Yamaguchi is a professor of Global Scientific Information and Computing Center, Tokyo Institute of Technology. She previously worked for UNESCO as an education officer and was involved in education and human resources development in Asia and the Pacific. She holds a PhD from Columbia University.

Abstract

Reflecting the social and economic change, Japanese education has shifted to decentralization since the 1980s. With an increased autonomy and responsibility, the local government plays an important role to develop competent school leaders. This descriptive study employs case study approach to illustrate current status of leadership development at the local level in Japan. Through the analysis of current policies and practices, it lays out the strategies of leadership development in Akita prefecture. In addition, semi-structured interviews with 17 education leaders were conducted in 2014 and 2015 to explore their perceptions on the leadership development.

The study found that the leadership development in Akita is implemented combining formal and informal training activities. While a comprehensive professional development system is implemented strategically, informal learning of competency is commonly exercised. This dual approach enables school leaders to develop their leadership skills and knowledge.

Introduction

Since the 1980s, demands for educational reform has become evident, reflecting constantly changing social and economic conditions. Responding to these demands, a series of policy recommendations pushed Japanese education into an era of administrative liberalization and decentralization. With a greater autonomy and responsibility at the local government level, the enhancing skills and competencies of school leaders has become an urgent issue at the local level.

Schools leaders today are required to possess various competencies to make a coherent education community (Muta 2000; Osugi 2014). For example, a recent government policy report related school management lists three qualities that school leaders are expected to possess: 1) leadership to connect school personnel with diverse specialties, 2) presenting and clarifying vision, and 3) communication skills to establish partnership with community (Central Council for

Education 2015). However, it is also pointed out that most of the efforts to build school leaders' capacities are focusing on the technical aspects, instead of enhancing holistic skills to collaborate with various stakeholders to reflect their demands into educational practices (Tsumijima 2014). The authors have opportunities to work closely with education communities in Akita prefecture for a study related to transversal competencies and teacher training. Through the study, it is clear that their leadership development in educational communities is an important part of its coherent teacher training system.

This study explores structure and practice of leadership development using the case of local governments and schools in Akita. It attempts to lay out the strategies of leadership development within the Akita's unique context investigating the following questions: 1) how is school leadership training structured in Akita? and 2) what are the opportunities for developing school leadership other than a formal training program? This study intends to contribute to the knowledge on school leadership development in Japanese context.

Background

National Policies and Strategies of Professional Development for School Leaders

Since the 1990s, the concept of "school leadership" has been discussed in the context of education reforms which place emphasis on the enhancement of school autonomy and accountability (Tsumijima 2014; Owaki 2005). Decentralization of education brought changes to the system of school administration. Especially, roles of school leaders have been expanded. School leaders are expected to bare greater responsibilities in managing all aspects of school operations with accountability (Obayashi, Sako, and Egawa 2015).

Giving this background, in 1999, Educational Personnel Training Council of Ministry of Education Culture Sports Science and Technology (MEXT) (1999) claims that professional development for school leaders should contribute to improving their skills and knowledge on organizational management. Following this, National Commission on Educational Reform, established under the Prime Minister, submitted "Seventeen Proposals for Changing Education" in 2000. It claims that school leaders should be committed to improve their schools' efficiency in terms of organizational management to cope with complex and diverse problems of school education (National Commission on Educational Reform 2000). MEXT organized a working group for developing training curriculum on effective school management in 2002. The experts' group has introduced a prototype training curriculum focusing on organizational management at the school level (Edufront 2013). This curriculum has gradually been distributed since 2003 to local Boards of Education, schools and other public training institutions (MEXT n.d.).

Further, MEXT has placed emphasis on capacity building of mid-level school leaders such as senior teachers and head teachers (Kojima, Kumagai, and Suematu 2012; Owaki 2005). One of the reasons behind this movement lies in the fact that average age of the teacher population is increasing in Japan

(Fujimoto 2011; Owaki 2005). In addition, the importance of mid-level school leaders is recognized in the recent discussion to develop "school as a team." Mid-level leaders play essential role to enhance school management (Central Council for Education 2015). Particularly, mid-level leaders are required to facilitate communication to help less-experienced teachers in the school. National training programs for mid-level leaders has been expanded in terms of both number of participants and training contents (Hinata 2012).

National-Level Training Programs for School Leaders

National Center for Teachers' Development (NCTD) provides national-level training programs in cooperation with MEXT. The programs by NCTD are available to selected school leaders who are nominated by the Board of Education of local government. The participants are expected to play a central role in their region (NCTD 2014, 2015). In relation to leadership training, NCTD offers two training programs, namely, school administration training and training for future trainers on school organizational management (NCTD 2014). The school administration training programs are designed for the specific position and experiences, such as principal, vice-principal and mid-level teachers. These training programs cover various aspects of school administration. For example, in 2015, school administration training focused on four areas, including, organizational management, school compliance, risk management, and other issues on teaching (NCTD 2015).

NCTD also provides specialized training on school organizational management with two objectives: 1) to provide knowledge on theories and practices for effective organization management; and 2) to prepare school leaders as an expert trainer of school management in their region. Therefore, after completing the programs, the participants are expected to play a leading role in their region in the area of school organizational management. The training program include different activities, such as, lectures, discussions, and group works. (NCTD 2015). The trainers and lecturers of this program include experts of organizational management both in academics and private sector, such as university professors and managers of private companies (NCTD 2014).

School Leaders in Japan

In 2007, the School Education Act was revised and three new positions, "senior vice- principal," "senior teacher," and "advanced skills teacher," were established to promote effective school administration (MEXT 2006). There are three types of definitions currently used in Japan; they are narrow definition, wider definition, and widest definition (Owaki 2005). The narrow definition limits school leaders to upper level managements, namely, school principals, senior vice-principals, and vice-principals. The wider definition includes mid-level leaders such as senior teachers and head teachers. The widest definition further extends to heads of local Boards of Education and academic supervisors (Owaki 2005). As MEXT recognizes the importance of preparing mid-level teachers for school management in recent years (Fujimoto 2011; Owaki 2005), this study employs the second definition, including, principals, senior vice-principals, vice-principals, and mid-level leaders.

Research Design

This study aims to articulate current status of leadership development at prefectural level in Japan using Akita's case. Japanese local government plays a major role in providing professional development of teachers based on MEXT policies. This study illustrates how local government of Akita interprets roles of leadership in education and conduct leadership training. This study employs case study approach following the rationale that the descriptive information alone will be revelatory (Yin 2003). The nature of this case study is exploratory and descriptive.

The study discusses leadership development in public primary and junior high schools in Akita prefecture. Two municipalities, Yuzawa city and Higashi Naruse village are featured. Yuzawa city is located in south east of Akita prefecture. It is an agricultural area with rice production surrounded by mountains and rivers. There were 11 primary schools (1,887 students) and 6 junior high schools (1,153 students) in the city¹ (Akita Board of Education 2015). Higashi Naruse village is situated in southern east of Akita prefecture, where 93% of its area is forestry. There is one primary school (123 students) and one junior high school in the village (67 students) (Higashi Naruse Board of Education, in discussion with the authors, November 10, 2015).

Data for this study is collected from: 1) literature review on national and local policy documents and other related documents; and 2) interviews with school leaders in Akita prefecture. The desk study reviewed policy and administrative documents on the school leadership and professional development in national and local levels. Interviews were conducted during two visits to Akita in June 2014 and June 2015 with 17 education leaders. The background of interviewees was diverse ranging from prefectural to school level education leaders including members of Akita Bureau of Education, heads of municipal Boards of Education, school principals, vice-principals, and head teachers of teacher training units. Interviews were conducted based on semi-structured and open-ended questions, focusing on the following three points: 1) how leadership development is implemented at prefectural, municipal and school levels; 2) how roles of school leaders are perceived; and 3) what kind of efforts are made to realize the development of leadership skills.

Leadership Development in Akita Prefecture

This section presents a case of leadership development in Akita prefecture. First, it gives an overview on educational background, and second, the leadership development in formal settings is analyzed. Finally, it discusses other types of training activities and opportunities contributing to professional development of school leaders.

Characteristics of Education in Akita Prefecture

Akita prefecture is located in north eastern area of mainland of Japan. Education in Akita is led by the Board of Education, which consists of three divisions: The Bureau of Education, Educational Institutions, and Prefectural Public Schools.² The professional development programs, including leadership

training, are the responsibility of the Bureau of Education and the Akita Prefectural Education Center. There are four educational characteristics related to this case study.

First, in Akita, qualifications of school managements are defined with a combination of age and teaching experience. In Japan, the specific qualifications are stipulated at the local government level. The Akita Board of Education set relatively young age requirement for vice-principals, which is age of 37 with more than 15 years of experience as a teacher. As for the principal, the minimum age is 45 years old, but there is no requirement regarding teaching experience (MEXT 2015).

Second, Akita prefecture has been ranked at the top with the National Achievement Examination since it started in 2007 (Ishi and Ymada 2014); this achievement has not come easily; rather, it is a result of long time effort of the educators in Akita. In fact, their average score was lower than the national average in the 1950s. This struggle forced educators in Akita to change their education strategies, and introduced new ideas, including smaller class size, team-teaching, and collaboration with parents and communities (Akita Prefecture 2011).

Third, the age distribution of the teachers is unbalanced in Akita. Currently, more than 80% of the teachers are in their 40s and 50s, which implies a big proportion of the teachers will be retiring in the next 15 years. (A Chief of Akita Bureau of Education., in discussion with the authors, June 20, 2014). Therefore, Akita Board of Education expects a shortage of experienced school leaders, especially, mid-level school leaders (Akita Prefectural Education Center 2010, 2011).

Fourth, the learning opportunities among teachers has decreased, as the number of teachers within a school is decreased due to the scaling down of schools in Akita. This is an especially critical issue for rural schools. For this reason, building networks among schools is an important agenda for Akita Board of Education (Central Council for Education 2015).

With these characteristics in mind, this case study looks at Akita's leadership development from two different angles; formal leadership trainings, and other leadership development opportunities.

Formal Leadership Training

As discussed in the background section, the leadership training opportunities at the central level is limited to selected teachers. In other words, the local governments have responsibilities to bring up competent school leaders and foster their leadership skills. As an educational institution for teachers, Akita Prefectural Education Center plays a central role to plan and implement prefectural level teacher training, including leadership training programs. One of the missions of the center is to improve and implement the training programs based on the Akita Teacher Training System, which defines a standard for teachers' professional competencies as well as teacher quality. Since its establishment in 1985, the training system has been revised five times reflecting the needs of teachers in Akita. Leadership training activities are found particularly important, as two out of four priorities of the training are given to leadership training³: 1) bringing up mid-level leaders with a capacity of school management,

and 2) enhancing competency of experienced teachers, especially with their expertise in practical skills (Akita Board of Education 2011). Because Akita’s leadership development programs are embedded in this teacher training system, it is important to discuss how professional development programs are organized in Akita. This section describes a currently implemented formal training structure based on the Akita Teacher Training System.

Structure of teacher training in Akita. Akita Teacher Training System covers areas of training thoroughly from different dimensions. It is organized based on teacher’s career stages and the types of training. First, the training system is designed based on teachers’ career stages, namely, establishment stage, middle-career stage, and late-career stage. While establishment stage focuses on building a basic quality and expertise, the middle-career stage aims to develop the quality of mid-level leader and enhance expertise. Further, professional development at the Late-Career stage targets enrichment of personal quality as a leader and to deepen their expertise.

Second, Akita’s basic training⁴ is designed to provide appropriate training programs, including for school leaders. (Figure 1).

The basic training aims to enhance a wide range of practical skills for teachers. There are two types of basic trainings: 1) In-service training (IN-SET) based on teaching experience; and 2) Position-based training.

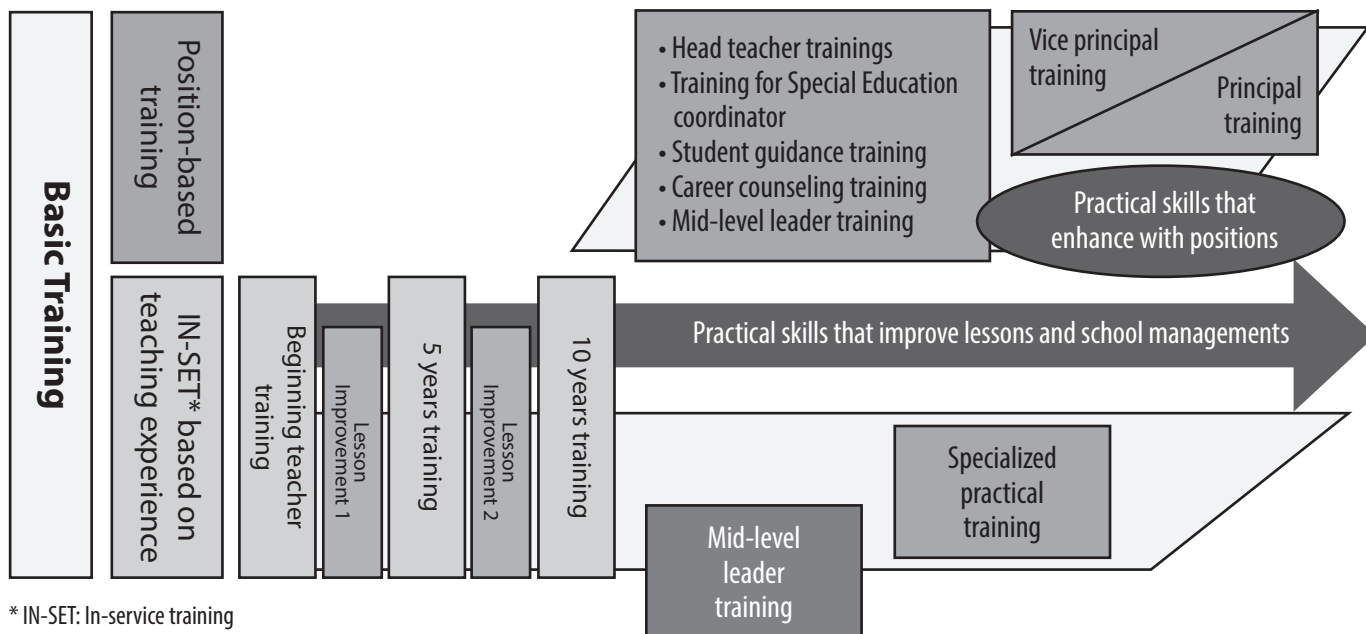
Within the In-SET, Akita prefecture provides continuous trainings in the first 10 years to build a foundation, and prepare for capacity building of mid-level leaders.⁵ (A Chief of Akita Bauru of Education, in discussion with the authors, June 20, 2014). After this stage, the mid-level leader training and the specialized practical training programs are provided to enhance their teaching and management skills.

Another type of basic training, Position-based training, aims to deepen teachers’ specialized knowledge and leadership skills. Depending on the positions and responsibilities, training programs are implemented to foster specific skills for applicable teachers in the middle and late-career stage. As shown in Figure 1, the leadership development programs are placed as a next step of the IN-SET basic training for all teachers, and selected teachers with leadership positions.

Target skills and knowledge. The training programs are provided through the Akita Prefectural Education Center and the Bureau of Education. Akita Board of Education, clearly laid out the target skills and knowledge that should be gained

Figure 1 | Akita Prefecture Teacher Training System

Training Theme	Appropriate daily Trainings that enhance practical teaching skills		
Stage	Establishment Stage	Middle-career Stage	Late-career Stage
Goal	Build a basic quality as a teacher and acquire expertise	Develop the quality of the mid-level leader and enhance their expertise	Enhance a quality as a leader and manager as well as deepen their expertise



Source adopted: Akita Board of Education 2011, p.7; Akita Prefectural Education Center 2011.

Table 1 | Position-based teacher training offered at Akita Prefecture

Session Title		Management	Planning and judgement	Training other members	Communication	Specialized skills on the job
Akita Prefectural Education Center	1 Middle leader training	◎	◎	○		
	2 Newly appointed career guidance director				○	◎
	3 Newly appointed student guidance director		○	◎		◎
	4 Newly appointed head teacher for a grade	◎	○	◎		○
	5 Newly appointed research head teacher	○	○		○	◎
	6 Newly appointed curriculum head teacher	◎			○	○
	7 Newly appointed vice principal	◎	○	○	○	
	8 Newly appointed principal	◎	○	○		
Akita Bureau of Education	9 Newly appointed special education coordinator			◎	○	◎
	10 Middle leader Training	◎	◎	○		
	11 Health director research conference	○	○			○
	12 Boardinghouse head training officer training		○		○	○
	13 Head research teacher conference		○	○		○
	14 Student guidance research conference		○		○	○
	15 Career guidance research conference		○		○	○
	16 Career education promoting conference		○		○	○
	17 Head curriculum teacher research conference	○	◎			
	18 Vice principal training	○	◎	○		
	19 Vice principal conference	○	◎	○		
	20 Principal conference	○	◎	○		
	21 Vice principal research conference	○	◎	○		
	22 Newly appointed vice principal training	◎	◎	○		
	23 Newly appointed principal training	◎	◎	○		
	24 Principal research conference	○	◎			
	25 Vice principal and head teacher training	○	◎	○		
	26 Management conference for kindergarten principal	○	◎	○		

◎ – Top priority ○ – Priority Blank – As necessary

Source adapted: Akita Board of Education, 2011, p. 11.

by school leaders. Table 1 is an extract of the list of programs currently provided within the position-based training and their target skills. It also indicates the priorities of target skills for each training program.

Moreover, Akita Board of Education specifies skills and knowledge to be gained in each program. This set of information reveals the strategy of Akita’s leadership training. That is, how Akita Board of Education designed which skills and knowledge should be learned by school leaders, and what topics are needed to be covered. More importantly, this strategy is clearly presented not only to applicable leaders, but to all teachers in Akita prefecture. This is an effective strategy as teachers and leaders are able to share what is expected to serve as a leader in the different stages of professional development. Table 2 is an example of the position based training programs offered by Akita Prefectural Education Center.

The structure of the programs implies that Akita Bureau of Education prioritizes specific and practical skills for principals and vice-principals, such as management and planning and judgement. Meanwhile mid-level leaders are expected to be equipped with the core leadership skills, such as communication and training other members. The target knowledge is depending on the position; for example, “research method in school” is a core knowledge for research head teachers and “organization management method” is offered for head teachers of a grade. These skills and knowledge are gained by understanding their roles and issues related to their positions (Akita Board of Education 2011; Akita Prefectural Education Center 2015).

This teacher training system illustrates how Akita Board of Education has analyzed their unique situation and strategically implemented their training to foster school leaders.

Table 2 | Position-based teacher training organized at Akita Prefectural Education Center

Session Title	Skills to be gained						Knowledge to be gained	Main topics of the program
	Management	Planning and Judgement	Training other members	Communication	Specialized skills on the job			
1 Middle leader training	⊙	⊙	○				- Laws related to school - Management method	• Discovering issues • Setting theme • Organization management
2 Newly appointed career guidance director				○	⊙		- Responsibility of career guidance director	• Role of career guidance director • Current situation and issues of career guidance
3 Newly appointed student guidance director		○	⊙		⊙		- Responsibility of student guidance director	• Role of student guidance director • Student guidance • The concept of educational counseling in school
4 Newly appointed head teacher for a grade	⊙	○	⊙		○		- Organization management method	• Issues on grade management • Role of a head teacher of a grade
5 Newly appointed research head teacher	○	○		○	⊙		- Research method in school	• Method of education research in school • The current situation and issues on research study in school
6 Newly appointed curriculum head teacher	⊙			○	○		- Management method - Education laws	• Roles and responsibilities • School operation and management
7 Newly appointed vice principal	⊙	○	○	○			- Management method - Personnel evaluation	• School organization management • Personnel evaluation
8 Newly appointed principal	⊙	○	○				- Management method	• School organization management • Issues on the school management • Risk management

⊙ – Top priority ○ – Priority Blank – As necessary

Source adopted: Akita Board of Education, 2011, p. 11.

Other Leadership Development Opportunities

In addition to formal training programs for leadership development, educators in Akita utilize various opportunities for enhancing capacity of school leaders. This section explores such examples that influence effective school leadership development in practice.

Personnel relocation. The personnel relocations among schools within a municipality are carried out regularly as an important strategy to achieve efficient administration and to adapt necessary changes (Akita Board of Education 2015). Moreover, it also functions as leadership development. When mid-management level leaders are relocated, a new environment provides them learning opportunities to handle new challenges, and such conditions allows them to further cultivate leadership skills. Sometimes personnel relocation is employed beyond the school district to transfer knowledge, skills, cultures and practices. In fact, the cases are found that excellent teachers are relocated to surrounding municipalities, and are expected to play mentor roles in the new school. (A head of Board of Education in discussion with the authors, June 25, 2015).

The personnel relocations are not limited among schools. Teachers in middle to late-career stages sometimes are transferred to administrative offices, including Boards of Education, and expected to contribute to the educational planning with their practical experiences. After several years of assignment, they are transferred back to schools with leadership positions. This personnel relocation system functions to build close networks between administrative offices and schools. Such opportunities enable education leaders in administrative office and schools to build shared visions in planning and implementing educational policies and practices. (A head of Board of Education, in discussion with the authors, June 20, 2014).

For these reasons, relocating teachers is critical, not only for knowledge transfer, but also for capacity building of school leaders through different experiences. In fact, the interview with a head of local Board of Education confirmed the benefits of personnel relocation through his own experience. He believes that all the experiences at different positions he served, including at the prefectural administrative offices and schools, made him what he is as an education leader (A head of Board of Education, in discussion with the authors, June 17, 2014).

Collaboration opportunities for mutual learning. School teachers enhance their leadership capacity by learning from each other. Two examples illustrate this type of leadership development: 1) Council of Education Research Institute, and 2) study groups of principals and vice-principals.

First, the leadership is cultivated through collaboration opportunities among local government officials and school leaders. The Board of Education in Yuzawa city has a Council of Education Research Institute to conduct research and make policy suggestions for the Board of Education (Yuzawa Board of Education 2014). The members are academic supervisors from the Board of Education, selected school managements and mid-level leaders. This opportunity enables members to

work together to achieve a common goal. For example, while an academic supervisor provides theoretical background of the pedagogies, mid-level leaders offer concrete educational practices occurred in the classrooms. In addition, a principal's focus on school management and philosophy to achieve educational goals is important. These dialogues can function as excellent learning opportunities from different experts and creating synergy among council members. The selection of the participating members is critical as they are expected to influence other teachers at their own schools and offices (An academic Supervisor, and a head of education board, in discussion with the authors, June 25, 2015).

Second, leadership skills are enhanced through study groups formed by school leaders. For instance, school principals and vice-principals in the municipality organize respective study groups to create proactive learning opportunities. By sharing experiences of a specific case, school leaders gain knowledge, such as a management procedure, a method and process of problem solving, and an approach to build community relationships. Akita Board of Education also encourages and supports such study groups (Akita Prefectural Education Center 2015). In fact, a head of Board of Education also considers these meetings as good leadership development opportunities; therefore, he tries to make an appearance as much as he can to provide advices and comments (A head of education board, in discussion with the authors, June 25, 2015).

Two-way channels of communication. Two-way channels of communication are vital for building good relationships and trust between board of education and school leaders, and it becomes an important opportunity for capacity building of school leaders. In order to effectively cultivate leadership competencies, the administrative leaders make efforts to build communication channels with school leaders, especially principals and vice-principals. Therefore, when these school leaders face problems and issues, they do not hesitate to share their concerns. A head of Board of Education believes that the recent improvement of the school leaders' quality in his municipality is a result of the good relationships he had built with each school management. He trusts school leaders to report everything, both achievements and challenges, so that he is well informed what is happening at the school level and provides appropriate advice to the leaders (A head of Board of Education in discussion with the authors, June 25, 2015). The necessity of the close relationships among education leaders was also expressed by multiple school leaders, and they appreciate support and availability of the Board of Education, especially a head of the office for their professional development.

It was evident that heads of Boards of Education consider themselves as advisors and mentors for school leaders in their municipalities. This type of interaction occurs in both professional settings and personal context. Educational leaders recognize the effectiveness of such relationships because it allows school leaders to express their opinions and thoughts freely. Such effective relationships are built upon continuous efforts. A head of Board of Education stated that

the current success is a result of a long-lasting collegueship with the school leaders, which dated back to the time he was a young school teacher.

Informal communication at school level. The study found that informal communication between school leaders and teachers at the school level serves as excellent opportunities for leadership development as well. In schools in Akita, informal communications are taking place on a daily basis, including in classrooms, teachers' rooms and school corridors. Such educational cultures and environments allow communication across age, gender, the subject, and grade. Information accumulated through such communication assists school leaders to better understand the situation in practice, and eventually make good decisions for effective school management. In fact, sharing issues and thoughts openly for creating consolidated educational communities is a core principle of Akita's education. It is considered that such an environment has become premise for producing competent school leaders. This was a well understood principle by school leaders interviewed, and they appreciate and proactively exercise informal communications with their teachers to enhance their skills as leaders.

Summary of Findings and Discussions

Through the analysis of leadership development in Akita, five major findings are identified. First, the case study found that Akita prefecture has established and implements a comprehensive professional development system which reflects conditions and needs of local schools. Firstly, the Akita Prefecture Teacher Training System is structured based on teacher's career stage, namely establishment stage, middle-career stage, and late-career stage. This system covers all educators, including managements. Secondly, the training is continuously provided. It allows individual leaders and teachers to develop their necessary skills and knowledge at their schools. Following the 10 years of in-service teacher training during the establishment stage, all the teachers receive general leadership training regardless of their positions. Thirdly, for school leaders who are in middle-career stage, the position-based training programs with specific contents are provided to applicable school leaders to supplement their skills and knowledge. Such strategic leadership training structure is established within the Akita Teacher Training System.

Second, the contents and goals of leadership training in each program are clearly presented to all teachers in Akita; thus, what is expected to become a leader in different stages is evident. For instance, the target skills and knowledge to be acquired through the training programs are clearly laid out for each position-based training program. It illustrates a desirable leadership figure in education. From the strategic point, the analysis found that training programs for the school leaders in middle-career stage focus on basic and core skills, such as skills in management, planning and judgement, and training other members. Whereas, the training programs for the school leaders in late-career stage, such as school principals and vice principals, emphasize skills on management, planning, and judgement. These appropriate skills and

knowledge are expected to be gained by understanding specific roles and responsibilities.

Third, in addition to formal training programs, diverse forms of educational practices are available for leadership development in Akita. The opportunities are embedded in various educational practices, such as personnel relocation and collaborative work with different levels of school leaders. These opportunities not only supplement the formal training, but also stay indispensable for quality professional development of school leaders.

Fourth, school leaders perceive informal communication with teachers as an effective way to enhance their capacities. Communication allows leaders to build a sense of trust and a solidarity within the school community. The multiple school leaders stated that as communication is a mean of mutual learning, creating an environment where all teachers can freely express their thoughts is essential. This implies there is a firm belief that vigorous dialogue among educators bring out better educational solutions.

Fifth, the policy documents state preparing teachers in middle-career stage with quality leadership is an important objective in Akita. This is partly due to the unbalanced age distribution of the teachers. This point was also confirmed from the interview with the chief of Akita Bureau of Education. In order to maintain the quality of Akita's education, a strategic leadership training is vital. While experienced teachers are still available in the practice, transferring their knowledge and lessons learned from their experience to the prospective school leaders is an urgent issue. Akita Teacher Training System carefully analyzes the important issues and reflects local needs in crafting effective leadership training programs.

As illustrated in the findings, the leadership development in Akita is implemented in combining formal and informal training activities. It is an appropriate and effective leadership development model, as previous studies claim that external training programs alone do not prepare and develop effective leaders. Instead, it should be implemented together with internal and contextual support within the institution, recognized as organizational socialization (Gunter and Ribbins 2002; Zhang and Brundrett 2010). Furthermore, it should be noted that the education leaders interviewed in this study expressed the effectiveness and importance of informal leadership training activities. Although research on the impact of informal leadership skill development is still limited, recent literature share the evidence that informal learning is an important component for leadership development. For instance, Eno, Kehrhahn and Bell (2003) found managers in the business sector mostly learned all the investigated 20 core management skills from informal learning activities. In the school context, Zhang and Brundrett (2010) found that head teachers, recognized as mid-level school leaders, preferred mentoring and experiential leadership development, rather than formal training programs. Authors expect the findings from the Akita's case will contribute to the literature supporting effectiveness of informal leadership development in education context.

Conclusion

This study featured school leadership development in Akita, identifying its unique strategies and practices. The means of preparing current and future school leaders is not limited to the formal training programs, but also exists in other opportunities available in the education communities. This dual approach enables school leaders to develop their holistic leadership skills and knowledge. This is an important contribution to the knowledge base of school leadership development with Japanese context. The case illustrated in this study is only a part of educational practices in Japan. However, the authors expect that this in-depth analysis with multiple perspectives would provide insights and contribute to enhance strategies and practices of leadership development in other areas of the world.



Endnotes

¹ As of May 1, 2015.

² The Bureau of Education is the main administrative office, Educational Institution manages various educational facilities, such as libraries and Akita Prefectural Education Center, and Prefectural School division oversees prefectural schools.

³ Four focus of the training priorities are; a) shifting the focus from quantity to quality by utilizing "On the Job Trainings" for the beginning teacher, b) implementing continuous trainings to enhance professional competency of the young teachers, c) bringing up mid-level leaders with a capacity of school management, and d) enhancing competency of experienced teachers, especially with their expertized practical skills (Akita Board of Education 2011).

⁴ In addition to basic training, Akita provides specialized training and other trainings. These trainings provide program on the special topics, and are available throughout teacher's career.

⁵ In addition to nationally required training at 1st and 11th year of service, Akita requires 5 years training and lesson improvement training for all teachers.

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New Models of Hybrid Leadership in Global Higher Education

Donna C. Tonini, Nicholas C. Burbules, and C.K. Gunsalus

Donna C. Tonini is Associate Director at the Center for Global Studies and former Lead Postdoctoral Researcher in Leadership & Cultural Studies for the National Center for Professional and Research Ethics at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. She holds an Ed.D. in International Educational Development, Teachers College, Columbia University.

*Nicholas C. Burbules is Gutgsell Professor in the Department of Educational Policy, Organization and Leadership at the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign. His primary research areas are philosophy of education; teaching through dialogue; and technology and education. He has authored/coauthored 13 books, most recently with Paul Smeyers, David Bridges, and Morwenna Griffiths, the *International Handbook of Interpretation in Educational Research* (Springer, 2015). He has a Ph.D. in philosophy of education, Stanford University.*

*C.K. Gunsalus, Principal Investigator and Director, National Center for Professional Research Ethics, Professor Emerita, Business; Research Professor, Coordinated Science Laboratory. A nationally-recognized expert on leadership and professionalism in academia, research integrity, whistleblowing, and ethics, Gunsalus is author of *The Young Professional's Survival Guide* (2012), and *The College Administrator's Survival Guide* (2006).*

Abstract

This manuscript highlights the development of a leadership preparation program known as the Nanyang Technological University Leadership Academy (NTULA), exploring the leadership challenges unique to a university undergoing rapid growth in a highly multicultural context, and the hybrid model of leadership it developed in response to globalization. It asks the research question of how the university adapted to a period of accelerated growth and transition by adopting a hybrid approach to academic leadership. The paper uses qualitative methodology to review NTULA's first cohort, including interviews and participant survey responses. The findings illuminate three key areas of the hybridized leadership model that are challenging to balance, including managing the transition from the leadership style required to drive rapid institutional change to the approach needed to preserve that growth, how leaders reconcile the need to be responsive to both administration and faculty, and how to lead in a highly diverse, multicultural space.

Introduction

Nanyang Technological University (NTU), a research-intensive public university in Singapore, has recently been ranked as the world's best young university according to the Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) "Top 50 Under 50," a ranking of the world's top 50 universities that are under 50 years old (NCPRE 2014). Media headlines highlight the rapid rise of this young university, with Channel NewsAsia announcing "NTU emerges second in *Times Higher Education's* young universities ranking" (2016, 2016) and the *Straits Times* reporting that NTU placed 13th in the World University Rankings, up from 39th last year (2016). NTU achieved this dramatic rise in the rankings in less than ten years.

In 2006, NTU's Board of Trustees laid the foundations for a new direction, tasking new Provost Bertil Andersson, former Rector of Sweden's Linköping University, with a mandate to transform NTU from a teaching university to a research-intensive global university (Andersson and Mayer 2015).

This transformation was not painless. After a change in tenure rules, NTU began the “difficult exercise” of reviewing its faculty in accordance with higher standards that “created a unique recruitment opportunity and was a major signal of intent to the whole institution” (ibid. 179).

To rebuild its faculty, NTU initiated an intensive strategy to recruit top candidates from prestigious universities around the world. This hiring initiative resulted in a highly diverse faculty who enhanced the academic environment and prestige of NTU (Andersson and Mayer 2015, 180).

The leadership challenges of a university undergoing such rapid growth in a multicultural context are myriad:

The whole university is moving to a more research-intensive university, to become a global research leader in some areas, improve the academic profile of the school, and develop more leaders... We need to better understand direction, the environment, and the culture - we need to work within it, and outside faculty need time to adjust to this... The challenge is to get everyone to adapt, especially as we are a young university. (NTU Faculty5-3, interview by Donna Tonini, February 2015).

Seeking to build the leadership capacity of its faculty, NTU partnered with the National Center for Research and Professional Ethics (NCPRE) at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (Illinois) to create a set of leadership development resources and programs “to develop leaders who are prepared to deal with complex issues, such as managing change and navigating cross-cultural interpersonal issues, by drawing on evidence-based practices” (NCPRE 2014). Known as the NTU Leadership Academy (NTULA), NTU and NCPRE developed a comprehensive program that included reusable instructional materials, a series of live workshops, a year-long virtual cohort program, and a library of additional leadership resources. The program is now in its second year-long cohort of new participants. This manuscript examines the development of the leadership preparation program, and asks the research question of how NTU adapted to a period of accelerated growth and transition by adopting a hybrid approach to academic leadership. The methodology uses a qualitative approach to review NTULA’s first cohort using interviews and survey responses from the participants, and additional reflections from the NCPRE core team. The purpose of this paper is to explore how leadership came to be defined in the NTULA context, and how these perspectives shed light on how globalization and new models of higher education intersect to create a “hybrid” model of academic leadership (Tian, 2012).

How the NTU and NCPRE Collaboration was Established

NTU was inaugurated in July 1991 as the result of a merger between the former Nanyang Technological Institute, an engineering institution, and the National Institute of Education, Singapore’s national teacher training institute (NTU 2016). NTU became autonomous in 2006, as its Board of Trustees implemented its mandate to transform from a teaching institute into a research-intensive global university

(Andersson and Mayer 2015). Currently, NTU is one of Singapore’s two largest public universities, along with the National University of Singapore.

According to President Andersson, the transformation of NTU into a research-focused institution was driven by a number of major initiatives, with internationalization as the key driver of its strategy (ibid.). The first major change was for NTU to become more comprehensive, adding disciplinary coverage in the arts and humanities, as well as business, international studies and education to its core STEM fields (Andersson and Mayer 2015). The next major step was the recruitment of international faculty and leaders, with the addition of senior-level academics from prestigious universities around the world. NTU also leveraged Singapore’s National Research Foundation Fellowship program and introduced an Assistant Professor initiative to create attractive start-up conditions for new faculty (ibid.). This intensive strategy resulted in NTU becoming “one of the most internationally diverse universities in the world” with its faculty representing 70 nationalities (ibid. 180). NTU also established two “Research Centres of Excellence,” drawing academic talent from around the world (ibid. 180). Finally, NTU also benefited from Singapore’s proposal to bring in international academic institutions to create research partnerships with their national universities, building links with top institutions from around the globe (ibid.). It was in this environment of academic globalization that the partnership with Illinois’s NCPRE was formed.

The National Center for Professional & Research Ethics (NCPRE) studies, creates and shares resources to support the development of best ethics and leadership practices in academia, research, and business (NCPRE 2016, Home). NCPRE is led by C. K. Gunsalus, Professor Emerita of Business and Research Professor at the Coordinated Science Laboratory within the College of Engineering of the University of Illinois. The author of two books for college administrators and young professionals, Gunsalus consults broadly in higher education, including presentations and problem-solving advice on a range of issues. (C. K. Gunsalus & Associates 2016). Upon reading Gunsalus’ books and learning about her seminars, NTU invited her to give a workshop on leadership development and ethics in Singapore in 2013. NTU Deputy President and Provost Freddy Boey proposed a collaboration to establish a leadership academy within NTU for university leaders throughout Asia. In 2014, Illinois and NTU launched a partnership to develop a signature Leadership Academy (NTULA) as “the premiere program in Asia for global research universities of the future” (NTU and Illinois 2014, 2). According to Gunsalus, the goal is to work with NTU “to develop higher education’s next crop of leaders into more ethical and evidence-based decision-makers” (NCPRE 2014).

In November 2014 NCPRE hosted the NCPRE Illinois/NTU Leadership Retreat on “Leading the Research University of the Future,” a thought leader conference designed to build relationships and explore topics relevant to the NTULA. The conference themes were strategic leadership, anticipating and managing change, and data-informed decision-making (NCPRE 2014). Attended by academic leaders from Illinois,

NTU, and other universities, this event featured plenaries and discussions with former presidents of preeminent research universities on developing global leadership, institutional integrity, and the future of research universities. The overarching goal was to lay the groundwork for an ongoing collaborative relationship, to identify themes relevant to the NTULA's leadership development needs, and to exemplify NCPRE's approach to leadership and collaboration.

Amidst robust discussion, collaborative group sessions and conversations led by NCPRE and the thought leaders, some key takeaways emerged:

Acknowledge global forces - cross-cultural and intercultural fertilization provide opportunities to increase the competitiveness and quality of the academic product... An institution must embody institutional integrity as seen from the outside. It must be true to its mission. Integrity is rooted in values, custom, habit and leadership (Larry Faulkner, President Emeritus of the University of Texas at Austin).

Universities are international but not global, as investments tend to be done on a local level... this can be achieved in universities via collaborative peer-to-peer relationships and partnerships (Jim Duderstadt, President Emeritus of the University of Michigan).

To prepare for an environment of increasing globalization, higher education leadership in research universities must critically listen to and engage with the internal and external stakeholders of the university... Look at data to make decisions... and train leaders to ask the right questions (Mary Sue Coleman, President Emerita of the University of Michigan).

In lively discussions during the plenary presentations and in small groups examining case studies presenting leadership challenges, NTU participants added their perspectives, often observing, "It doesn't work that way in Singapore..." This response highlighted some of the institutional and cultural differences and similarities between research universities in the United States and NTU in Singapore, including the degree of faculty and unit autonomy, and forms of directive leadership across different institutions. It drew attention to the ways in which the Singaporean context had its distinctive concerns, as do all institutions at the local level.

One difference is that NTU has a more centralized budgeting and top-down management structure than most U.S. research universities, which tend to have more decentralized budgeting systems and more participatory decision-making that involves consultations with faculty through informal and formal mechanisms of shared governance. Additionally, while U.S. research universities have internationalized faculty, typically the majority of faculty are American (National Center for Education Statistics 2004, 18). At NTU the preponderance of its faculty are from outside Singapore, though many have become permanent residents.

Tenure expires when a faculty member reaches the age of 65, whereas in the U.S., there is no time limit on tenure. A last major difference lies in the financing of education. In Singapore, there are substantial resources for funding higher education, while in the U.S., many institutions are facing deep budget cuts and students often require loans to attend university. These differences in national and institutional culture emphasized the importance for both NCPRE and NTU to explore how leadership and globalization are interrelated within NTU, recognizing that leadership models and strategies differ across settings, conditions and constraints, and using that information to shape the development of the NTULA.

To deepen the understanding of NTU needs, in February of 2015, NCPRE Post-doctoral researcher Tonini conducted an interview-based needs assessment with NTU faculty and staff at NTU. The goal was to gather more specific insights to inform planning and content development for the NTULA.

Literature and Data - NTU Needs Assessment Survey and Interviews

The needs assessment was designed as a research study, and was reviewed and approved by the Illinois Institutional Review Board. The participants were 31 current faculty at NTU recruited by NTU's Associate Provost for Faculty Affairs. The interviews were largely conducted in a one-on-one format, although four were conducted in a group format. The interview protocol included how the participants defined globalization and how it affected their roles at NTU. The interviews were followed six months later by an electronic survey administered by NCPRE, to assess NTULA content interests. The interviews and surveys were thematically coded and analyzed to provide NCPRE with a more comprehensive view of NTU, its faculty, and its hybrid culture and leadership models.

Literature Review on Globalization and Views on Globalization in the NTU Context

The terms globalization and internationalization are often conflated. Although related, there are clear differences between them, as pointed out by Altbach and Knight (2007): "We define globalization as the economic, political, and societal forces pushing 21st century higher education toward greater international involvement... Internationalization includes the policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions—and even individuals—to cope with the global academic environment" (290). This definition differentiates between globalization as a phenomenon and internationalization as actions institutions take as a result of economic and academic trends. While NTU interviewees were not consistent in making this distinction, their responses made clear that their work and aspirations were affected by the confluence of global forces.

When asked 'how do you define globalization, and how does it affect your role,' many interviewees focused on the human aspect of the phenomenon with one participant positing, "Globalization drives diversification of faculty and their role. We have diverse faculty and bodies, diverse viewpoints, and no dominant viewpoint" (NTU Faculty3-F,

interview by Donna Tonini, February 2015). Another respondent echoed those remarks, stating, "Regarding globalization, first, we have an international faculty, who bring with them complex relationships from different cultures to their teaching" (NTU Faculty3-5, interview by Donna Tonini, February 2015). Still another interviewee highlighted the actions necessary to take as a result of globalization, asserting that "even more than before, [we] need to engage with professors overseas internationally and to engage with strategic partnerships...make alliances with peers, particularly with universities in the West" (NTU Faculty3-1, interview by Donna Tonini, February 2015).

Despite acknowledging some of the opportunities presented by globalization, participants also saw potential barriers to internationalization, expressing on several occasions; it was not possible to simply import policies and leadership strategies across institutional contexts. These responses echoed those at the Leadership Retreat, citing the different leadership dynamics in a Singaporean institution with a European at the helm in an Asian context. Khondker (2004) refers to this phenomenon as hybridization, pointing out that postsecondary education in Singapore combines the British model of higher education with aspects of the U.S. model. Lee and Gopinathan (2008) explain that this hybrid model was driven by the Ministry of Education, which in 2000 granted universities more autonomy for personnel and financial matters, while continuing to monitor the university sector and hold overall responsibility for policy parameters.

Inherent in western-based institutional models are participatory management models supported by high levels of individualism that many scholars claim are culturally specific to the West (Hofstede 1980, Dorfman, et al. 1995). Singapore's hybrid model of higher education exists in an environment where the local leadership style is, as described by their Permanent Secretary at the Ministry of Manpower, "a small apex of leaders directing a base of disciplined followers" (Yong 2005). This interweaving of the global and the local is often referred to as "glocalization", or adapting global policies, practices and products to local culture and preferences (Khondker 2004).

Another layer of complexity stems from NTU's growth imperative that fueled its rise to the top echelon of research universities. Now that it has achieved that, the policies that spurred its development may not be the same needed to maintain its standing. Specifically, are the policies employed to identify and retain established faculty and recruit new faculty who share an aspiration to global excellence, the same policies needed to reward and retain those faculty – especially when they come from institutional cultures that assume a high degree of faculty autonomy and self-determination? As NCPRE Principal Investigator Burbules questioned, "How long can you keep your foot on the accelerator? Is what you need to do to get to this status the same policy you should follow once you get there?" (Nicholas Burbules [Principal Investigator, NCPRE] in discussion with Tonini, May 2016). Thus, if NTU uses a hybrid of higher education models combining some participatory management with a non-participatory

leadership style, cultural intersections combined with a glocalized model and fast-paced growth could explain some of the perspectives expressed by the NTU respondents.

Managing Change in an Institution with Accelerated Growth

The interview responses contributed valuable qualitative data that illuminated the challenges that respondents face, their perceptions of gaps in their knowledge, and the skills they sought to lead more effectively. This research revealed the following programmatic priorities:

1. Managing people, both up the chain to university administration and within respondents' units, encompassing faculty colleagues, staff, and students;
2. Building cross-cultural communications skills and establishing trust;
3. Managing change, including strategic decision-making and balancing administrative duties and research;
4. Negotiation, in reference to dealing with difficult people and meeting stakeholder needs.

The data reinforced the importance of not only preparing content that met identified needs, but also making the content culturally and contextually relevant. Specifically, interpersonal and communicative dimensions of leadership require a flexible range of strategies for dealing with people from diverse national and cultural backgrounds, and who have very different styles of direct and indirect personal expression, tolerance for conflict, and attitudes toward authority. Guided by these responses, the NCPRE team shaped the NTULA workshops to focus on issues that resonate globally, while applying solutions tailored to the local environment. Major research universities around the world have become similarly internationalized; many of NTU's experiences of coping with cultural intersection are familiar elsewhere.

Literature Review on Academic Leadership and Leadership in the NTU Context

The electronic needs assessment that followed the interviews was administered as a questionnaire, focusing on leadership at NTU, and what leadership traits respondents perceived to be the most critical to becoming successful leaders. Many of the respondents were not only new to NTU and Singapore, but also were taking on their very first leadership positions. Common to front-line academic leaders in other settings, many found that excelling in their roles as researchers, instructors and mentors did not prepare them to lead an academic unit. The rewards of leadership, such as they are, are quite different from the incentives that drive educators and researchers. One particularly poignant remark on the March 2015 NTULA evaluations reflected these concerns: "New leaders often lose their enthusiasm and aspiration after confronting the reality of being a leader; time is fragmented; bothered by nonsense issues...and so on. Therefore, it would be great if NTULA can provide ways... to overcome that problem" (NTU Faculty, Workshop Evaluation, March 2015).

The conflicting demands of being a leader highlighted by this participant called for a more nuanced definition of leadership. Authority needs to be linked to persuasion and influence; overseeing a multi-cultural faculty and staff requires multiple strategies and communicative skills, including a heightened sensitivity to different cultural norms and styles. In the first NTULA workshop, Illinois President Emeritus Robert Easter discussed the oft-made distinction between leadership and management, emphasizing the difference between what he called positional authority with the actual legitimacy and influence needed to get things done: "Leadership is influencing people—by providing purpose, direction, and motivation (*U.S. Army Field Manual* 22-100) and Management is the organization and coordination of activities of a unit in order to achieve defined objectives (www.businessdictionary.com)" (2015). Easter pointed out that not only is a good leader required to be able to distinguish between these two ideas, but also that "an effective administrator knows when each function is necessary" (*ibid.*). While the online questionnaire protocol was open-ended and did not distinguish between leadership and management, the survey respondents described elements that fit within the categories Easter discussed. The corresponding protocol and responses follow, with analysis informed by a study on Dean Effectiveness conducted by Rosser, Johnsrud and Heck.

The literature on academic leadership contains several studies categorizing leadership traits. Neumann and Neumann (2015) cite three strategic leadership skills (visioning, focusing and implementing), Wolverton, Ackerman and Holt (2005) list six major areas (budget, evaluation and supervision of faculty, time management, building community within the department, balancing demands (scholarship vs. chairship) and legal), and Wolverton and Gmelch (2002) identify three dimensions (community building, setting direction and empowering others). The traits discussed in the literature include characteristics within the scope of leadership Easter discussed (i.e., visioning, building community, empowering others) as well as management (i.e., implementing policies, setting budgets, managing programs). For the survey analysis, the study with the most comprehensive set of characteristics fitting the NTULA is by Rosser, Johnsrud and Heck, who developed "a systematic approach for evaluating the leadership effectiveness of deans and directors from individual and institutional perspectives" (2003, 1).

Based on a review of the literature, Rosser, Johnsrud and Heck (2003) established seven domains of criteria to evaluate the institution within their study. These domains included:

- Vision and Goal Setting
- Management of the Unit
- Interpersonal Relationships
- Communications Skills
- Research/Professional/Community/Campus Endeavors
- Quality of Education
- Support for Institutional Diversity

From 865 responses from the faculty and administrative staff reporting to deans at their research site, the authors found that "...all seven domains contribute significantly to the measurement of the deans' leadership effectiveness, both within and between groups. The parameter estimates describing the relationship between each domain and the leadership effectiveness factor were all sizable and significant both within groups...and between groups..." (*ibid.* 13).

Reviewing the data from the February 2015 interviews, there were strong themes relating to the need to gain administrative, communications and relationship-building skills – all of which fit into the categories framed by the Rosser, Johnsrud and Heck study. As stated by one interviewee, "Philosophically, you need to be a visionary with great ambition and passion, [and you] need tremendous interpersonal skills... to create a very happy team" (NTU Faculty5-2, interview by Donna Tonini, February 2015). Thus, the findings of the Rosser, Johnsrud and Heck empirical study were helpful in conducting a more comprehensive review of our own research on the survey-based needs assessment of NTULA participants, and categorizing the leadership skills respondents sought. Yet, at the same time, the specific strategies by which these broader functions could be achieved were diverse and eclectic, tailored to the hybridized context of NTU as an institution.

Contrasting Views of Leadership – Participant Evaluations of the Workshops

NCPRE ran a pilot version of the NTULA in March 2015, delivered to an audience comprising NTU faculty and leaders, with a few attendees from universities around Asia. Over a three-day event, participants were exposed to the foundations of leadership, exploring the special challenges of the academic environment, practicing hands-on data-informed leadership exercises, negotiation skills, and approaches to mentoring and managing conflict. Throughout the seminar, NCPRE used a case study approach called "2-Minute Challenges" developed by Gunsalus, longer scenario cases, and role plays customized to reflect the NTU context (2016). Our efforts to understand and respond to the participants' expressed needs resulted in a high level of satisfaction, with one attendee remarking in the workshop evaluation: "The information has been very helpful in providing a methodical framework to address daily leadership and professional challenges. The materials have been very well delivered and contextualized to local setting" (NTU Faculty, Workshop Evaluation, March 2015).

The evaluations also revealed that participants wanted more content on managing upwards as well as within their units (i.e. coping with the pivotal position between top-down mandates and sensitivity and responsiveness to an independent faculty), and even more NTU contextualization. For example, many participants indicated the need for additional skills to help them to collaborate better with those to whom they reported in order to better manage their workloads, while at the same time expanding the skills required to manage within their own units. These needs were supported by data in the interviews, with one interviewee

relaying the following list: “planning skills, managing difficult people, resolving disputes, negotiation, how to deal with management, [and] managing up and down” (NTU Faculty4-F, interview by Donna Tonini, February 2015). Notably, “managing up” is not a unique concern within Singapore; virtually all administrators work in structures where they are accountable upward as well as downward, and reconciling or balancing top-down mandates with maintaining credibility and goodwill (in both directions) is an existential condition of academic leadership everywhere.

Armed with this information, NCPRE spent the next six months reformatting and redesigning the workshop for the NTULA’s first official internal year-long cohort. The initial workshop was broken into a multi-part series, comprising two 2-day sessions in October and February led by NCPRE, interspersed with bi-monthly half-day meetings led by NTU administration. For the incoming cohort, NCPRE ran a supplemental needs assessment, this time in electronic

format, to ensure that the updated content met the new participants’ needs.

We received responses from 17 of 25 participants in NTULA’s first year-long leadership development cohort. That cohort included sitting Chairs, Associate Chairs and others identified with leadership potential. Of 19 questions on the survey, four addressed leadership. Three of those four questions are analyzed in the tables below, while the fourth question is summarized at the end of the section. The responses were aggregated and categorized with 58 Likert-type items from the seven leadership domains in the Rosser, Johnsrud and Heck study (ibid. 21). The responses were then matched to the domain corresponding to the relevant Likert items. Although the study grounded the 58 items in the literature and prior research, the authors found that the domains did not account for all possible leadership factors or potential overlaps and intersections with other domains. The results are found in the below tables.

A	Question 10: What changes are required to manage a professional role more easily?		
	<p><u>NTULA Participant Survey Results</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve communication skills • Build strong relationships • Create and maintain robust collegial networks, collaborations • Motivate and inspire teams • Maintain focus and establish vision • Increase problem-solving and decision-making skills • Enhance organization and time management skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → → → → → → → 	<p><u>Domains</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communications skills Interpersonal relationships Interpersonal relationships Not a Domain Goal setting Managing unit Managing unit
B	Question 13: What tools/skills are needed to implement change?		
	<p><u>NTULA Participant Survey Results</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to communicate effectively • Improved skills to build and motivate teams • Strengthen ability to delegate, negotiate, and maximize human resource potential • Increase collaborations and networking and better manage relationships with stakeholders • Enhance ability to manage time and prioritize 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → → → → → 	<p><u>Domains</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communications skills Not a Domain Managing unit Interpersonal relationships Managing unit
C	Question 14: What leadership strategies have been most effective facilitating change?		
	<p><u>NTULA Participant Survey Results</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clearly communicate vision and goals • Motivate teams to share responsibility for goal success • Openness, inclusion, collaboration and academic respect • Engage with stakeholders and secure support • Listen and help staff • Instill passion in teams 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → → → → → → 	<p><u>Domains</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Goal setting Not a Domain Not a Domain Interpersonal relationships Communications skills Not a Domain

When no domain expressly listed the characteristics represented by the survey answer, it was marked as "Not a Domain" in the tables. With five responses categorized this way, we reflected on how NTU's hybrid combination of higher education components from both Britain and the U.S., globalized for the Singaporean setting, affected its leadership model. From the February interviews, we gleaned that the faculty experienced globalization in the "interchange of people and ideas" influencing faculty, students, partnerships, research, funding and leadership (NTU Faculty4-4, interview by Donna Tonini, February 2015). Yet, interviewees also noted how "globalization is making it even more challenging...you need to have efficient leaders and effective associates", in an environment where "real tensions" are created between a "faculty who have high expectations for faculty governance and leadership that wants authority to move quickly." In some cases participants were told that "faculty really don't have decision making authority" (NTU Faculty4-8, interviews by Donna Tonini, February 2015). Thus, the interviewees saw their roles as drivers of change and opportunity, yet also faced challenges caused by perceptions of governance and leadership that sometimes conflicted with NTU's centralized decision-making. Here, globalization and leadership intersect to create a need for a model of leadership that requires the communications, relationship-building, management and goal-setting skills as outlined above in the domains, as well as competencies in the motivational and inspirational realm to better "manage from the middle" and cultivate the "adaptability, flexibility and restlessness that is inherent in society" (NTU Faculty4-8, interview by Donna Tonini, February 2015)".

The literature also provided another viewpoint. The survey results labeled as "Not a Domain" were similar in that they reflected the participants' need to motivate and inspire teams, instill passion, and promote openness and inclusion – characteristics that were not clearly addressed in the Rosser, Johnsrud and Heck study. Bass' narrative on transformational leaders is a better fit, describing such leaders as individuals who "...broaden and elevate the interests of their employees when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group" (1990, 21). According to Bass, transformational leaders contrast with transactional leaders who expect followers to do "...what is expected of them and what compensation they will receive if they fulfill these requirements" (ibid. 19-20). Transformational leadership includes idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration, whereas transactional leaders secure their followership with contingent rewards (ibid.). Bass (1990) asserts that transformational leaders energize, inspire, and intellectually stimulate their colleagues and staff, and argues that through training, leaders can learn transformational behaviors.

Of the above seven domains, survey respondents prioritized four areas: goal-setting, managing the unit, managing interpersonal relationships, and engaging in effective communications. This is not to say that the other domains

were not important to the cohort; rather, they were not represented as strongly in collective responses. The survey responses suggested that the cohort sought to become more transformational leaders. Categorization and grouping methods are subjective and imperfect, making it critical to examine responses in context to understand their import. To demonstrate reliability of the categories, Tonini triangulated the qualitative data from the February 2015 interviews and the electronic survey. The results were consistent with what the faculty leaders from NTU perceived as the necessary skills to have to lead effectively. These skills are reasonably captured by the 4th survey question referencing leadership, asking respondents to list the key skills and knowledge needed to do their jobs. The top ten skills listed (appearing more than once) by the respondents included listening, patience, empathy, socialization, communication, diplomacy, tenacity, knowledge, negotiation and motivational prowess – many of which fall into the transformational realm.

In October 2015, the first NTULA session with the year-long cohort was held at NTU in Singapore. Based on the February 2015 interview data and bolstered with the survey responses, NCPRE organized the October cohort program around six themes:

- becoming an academic leader
- managing change
- improving communications, problem-solving, conflict management skills
- meeting diverse expectations of leadership, staff
- using data for decision-making
- developing relationships

The session was not only augmented by participant input on topics, but also leveraged participant agency by having each initiate a personal Individual Development Plan and contribute a personally-encountered professional dilemma for discussion. NTU also invested more in participant growth by assigning mentors to each of the faculty leaders for continued guidance and support beyond the scope of the individual events and the year-long program. This enrichment was in addition to the series of bi-monthly half-day meetings NTU planned across the academic year for members of the cohort.

Reflecting on the surveys to inform further workshop development, the respondents highlighted that leaders must clearly communicate their visions and goals and motivate teams to share the responsibility for the success of the goals. In a similar vein, cohort members listed openness, inclusion, collaboration and academic respect as ingredients for effective leadership. Cohort members also noted as effective leaders those who engage with stakeholders and secure their support, and those who listen and help their staff, and instill passion in their teams. These responses indicated the leadership models and strategies the cohort believed most effective in facilitating change - most of which are considered by Bass (1990) to be transformational leadership characteristics. Knowing the participants' requests for transformational leadership competencies but also acknowledging what we learned from them about their hybrid model that combined globalized and globalized

aspects of leadership with centralized administration, we understood that our typical approach would need to be finessed to accommodate the challenges they would face.

The first two-day seminar included a mix of goal-setting, unit management, managing interpersonal relationships, and engaging in effective communication as defined by the above seven domains. The first session also explored aspects of transformational leadership, especially in the realm of managing change, communicating expectations and handling problems.

Observing the participants in the sessions, some of the most informative moments resulted from how the members of the cohort, representing different cultures and backgrounds, interacted in the various group activities. During one particular role play demonstration of a promotion and tenure case between Gunsalus and Associate Provost for Faculty Affairs Angela Goh, participants were transfixed by how Goh's character would continually attempt to escalate the conflict, while Gunsalus demonstrated how to actively manage the interaction with calm demeanor and response tools known as "personal scripts," or words prepared for anticipated situations, to help defuse difficult situations. Another activity with group discussion featured Burbules, an American, assertively acting out the part of a disgruntled professor, to the surprise of his fellow discussants who responded, "an Asian would not have reacted like that" (Nicholas Burbules [Principal Investigator, NCPRE], in discussion with Tonini, May 2016). These reactions highlighted some of the challenges of the globalized and glocalized elements of a leadership model informed by an awareness of culture and context.

The evaluations reflected that the NTULA largely met participant needs, with the top request for the next session to cover managing both upwards and within units, emphasizing how "leading from the middle" comes with its own set of challenges. We used these recommendations to inform the content of the second NTULA session in February 2016.

That session, also in Singapore, was held at an offsite location to provide participants distance from the NTU campus and time for focus and collaboration. The first day concentrated on why organizational culture matters, how to handle complaints, and leadership versatility across styles. The second day focused on negotiation skills and building healthy departments, along with bully-proofing academic units. After reflection on evaluations from the first cohort meeting, NCPRE added sessions on cross-cultural communication and organizational agility working within hierarchies, led by former United Nations Chief Ethics Officer Joan Dubinsky. NCPRE also added more nuanced tools to the sessions to help these faculty managers "lead from the middle," managing relationships more effectively with those above them in their reporting chains, as well leading colleagues and staff in their home units. NCPRE thus built on the building blocks of the NTULA and reached beyond the four original domains, branching out into supporting diversity and transformational elements of leadership. These efforts paid off as the evaluations indicated satisfaction with the content that addressed "leading from the middle." The lessons we learned enforced how both global and local forces create

leadership opportunities and challenges, and that culture permeates leadership interactions on all levels, aligning with Altbach and Knight's (2007) framing of globalization.

Discussion and Conclusion

The evolutionary story of NTU is notable in its globalization-driven growth imperative to become a top research-intensive university in the short span of less than a decade. The risks of this transformational path were enormous and included refocusing NTU's core mission, changing the metrics by which faculty are evaluated, and a resulting massive reshaping of its faculty. For the retained faculty, adjusting to the university's new goals and the absence of their former colleagues was a challenge. For new recruits brought to NTU from abroad, there were varying forms and levels of culture shock requiring quick adaptation to the principles, values, and beliefs of a new nation and a quickly-evolving university, as well as the more standard adaptation to any new academic research and teaching home. New faculty leaders needed to navigate a diverse environment, while overcoming cross-cultural communication challenges and maintaining departmental harmony and collegiality.

The NTULA was developed in response to the known challenges first-level faculty leaders encounter, and it evolved as we learned more about their needs in an environment of extraordinarily rapid institutional transformation in Singapore's culturally-hybrid higher education system. Our study followed the creation of the NTULA, informed by the qualitative data, feedback and input provided by the participants. We applied the lens of the evolutionary force of globalization, and the need to internationalize leadership development in NTU's setting, factoring in its tremendous growth. The intersection of these factors offers key points for reflection.

First, globalization is a huge driving force behind the NTU story, and as explained by Andersson and Mayer (2015), those economic, political and social forces have their roots in the development of Singapore, itself as an industrializing and globalizing nation. In Singapore, the internationalization of higher education and the reformation of the university model into its hybrid structure was initiated and supported by the top leaders. However, many of their international faculty body come from higher education institutions in the West, and are used to more faculty autonomy than is present within NTU, given its top-down leadership tradition. As a result, NTU's emerging globalization-fueled hybrid model highlights leadership challenges for existing and emerging, Western and non-Western, universities alike. NTULA's workshop content, focused on transformational leadership development, is responsive to the needs expressed by many rising faculty leaders in the changing higher education environment, and applies in Asia as in the West. The literature supports this view, with Bass (1997) stating that some assume:

...because much of the theories and methods of the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm originated in the culturally individualistic United States, the paradigm is likely to have little

relevance in countries with collectivistic cultures. The opposite appears to be more likely. Transformational leadership emerges more readily in the collectivistic societies of East Asia (132).

This finding does not mean that interpersonal issues are not contextual. The NCPRE approach has always been to customize and contextualize the overarching issues to a more globalized resolution. As Gunsalus points out, "human nature is human nature and the issues resonate; solutions always require local adaptation" (C. K. Gunsalus [Director, NCPRE] in discussion with Tonini, May, 2016).

What we learned about NTU's hybrid model of leadership is that leaders must acknowledge and integrate both the global and the local to develop a more flexible and fluid leadership style that can work across cultures (Tian 2012). We discovered that listening to and engaging learners permitted us the insight necessary to work collaboratively to tailor strategies of effective leadership to their context, such as adapting communication approaches cross-culturally. Thus the NTULA leadership training is rooted in normative prescriptions about ethical leadership and informed by surveys of client needs, while allowing space for these concepts to be negotiated in practice.

We found, specifically, three areas of tension in this hybridized model of leadership. First, how to manage the transition from the aggressive top-down decision-making and metrics-driven evaluation that were needed to drive rapid institutional change, to a more steady-state model that can preserve the very achievements of that growth: the policies that force people to reassess their priorities (or that force them out) are not the same as the policies that reward and engage faculty who are already high achievers, and who expect recognition and involvement in the decisions that affect them. Second, and related to that point, how leaders in these pivotal positions reconcile in their activities the top-down mandates that press upon them from above, while being responsive to and maintaining legitimacy with the faculty for whom they are the main point of contact with broader institutional policies and priorities. Third, how generally established and research-supported dimensions of effective leadership translate into a context where communication, conflict, and traditions of authority differ widely, and in which no "one size fits all" set of strategies will work across diverse interpersonal relationships. On top of all the usual challenges of effective leadership, these three key aspects of the hybridized NTU context complicate the needs of leadership development.

All of this highlights the question framed by Burbules, "What is a sustainable model of excellence?" (Nicholas Burbules [Principal Investigator, NCPRE], in discussion with Tonini, May 2016). The answer seems not to lie in the construction of one unitary approach, but in adopting a fluid model of hybridized leadership that acknowledges these tensions and evolves with the needs of its stakeholders in a rapidly changing institutional and national context. It is the very success that schools like NTU achieve in remaking themselves as upwardly striving institutions that sharpen these tensions and makes them higher stakes for individuals

as well as for the institution as a whole. As in Otto Neurath's famous analogy, how do you rebuild a boat that is already afloat at sea, maintaining what is good, refashioning what needs change, all while remaining effective and responsive to the ebbs and flows of the ocean?



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Preparing and Developing Community College International Leaders

Rosalind Latiner Raby and Edward J. Valeau

Edward J. Valeau, Ed.D., is Superintendent President Emeritus of Hartnell Community College, a position he had for twelve years. He is also President Emeritus of California Colleges for International Education. He is also the founder and Senior Partner of the ELS Group, a national Chief Executive Search firm.

Rosalind Latiner Raby, Ph.D. Senior Lecturer for California State University, Northridge in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies Department of the Michael E. Eisner College of Education and is affiliate faculty for the Ed.D. Community College program. She serves as Director of California Colleges for International Education.

Abstract

Leadership training for future senior United States (US) community college leaders is an ongoing focus of US community college education. Leadership training is also a focus of US university international educators. Community college literature has assumed that full-time positions at community colleges devoted to overseeing and implementing internationalization do not exist and thus have not addressed succession opportunities. Based on a survey of 91 individuals who self-define their positions as ones in community college international leadership, this article examines what influences shaped the professional paths of these individuals and depicts criteria that can support future preparation for community college international education leadership from the viewpoint of those currently working in these positions. Pathway development patterns are seen in three forms: a) traditional preparation; b) non-traditional preparation; and c) job-embedded professional development.

Introduction

Leadership training for future senior United States (US) community college leaders is an ongoing focus of US community college education. Over the past two decades, studies have identified characteristics of current executive leaders, created an inventory of needed skill-sets, and defined strategies on how to best prepare the next generation of leaders as they transition along the leadership pipeline (ACE, 2012; Cook, 2012; Eddy, 2013; AACC, 2013). Leadership training is also a focus of US university international educators and recent association reports have defined leadership characteristics, skill-sets, and career trajectories (ACE, 2012; AIEA, 2014; Forum, 2015). Community college literature, neither addresses who is involved in international leadership nor emphasizes skill-set training for these positions. The primary reason is that past literature has assumed that full-time positions at community colleges devoted to overseeing and implementing internationalization do not exist and that

in the larger context of management, these positions are not relevant to mainstream needs.

While there is no single source that documents how many of the 1200 US community colleges offer international education programs, four sources give partial data on community college internationalization efforts. The Institute for International Education Open Doors (2015) monitors the number of students involved in mobility programs and the corresponding number of colleges that support these programs. In 2015, this profile included 336 community colleges. The American Council on Education (ACE) surveys internationalization policies and practices and in 2011, included data from 239 community colleges (ACE, 2012). The IIE and ACE reports suggest that 28% of community colleges have international education programs. Two additional studies on institutional practices include, but do not isolate data from community college respondents. Community college respondents represented 11% of the Forum on Education Abroad 2015 survey and 3% of the Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA) 2012 survey of Senior International Officers. Combined these studies suggest that positions for international education leadership do exist at community colleges.

The challenge of developing a new leadership cohort demands first identification of those currently in positions of power and then delineation of specific skills, social capital, and practices that enhance succession opportunities. This article confirms that there are individuals in international leadership positions at community colleges and examines what influences shaped their professional paths. In so doing, this article depicts criteria that can support future preparation for community college international education leadership from the viewpoint of those currently working in these positions. Pathway development patterns are seen in three forms: a) traditional preparation; b) non-traditional preparation; and c) job-embedded professional development.

Community Colleges and Internationalization Efforts

US community colleges provide the first two years of college along with options for occupational training, workforce development, developmental studies and a variety of life-long learning services to the local community. There is an increasing number of community colleges that also offer practical baccalaureate degrees. Over 13 million students attend the almost 1200 US community colleges. Students attend these institutions to improve basic skills, to raise Grade Point Average (GPA), and to gain skills to advance in careers. These institutions not only offer options for university overflow, but provide a "second chance" for non-traditional students to achieve a higher education. More than half of all adults in the US take post-secondary education classes at community colleges (AACC, 2016). For many students, but especially for non-traditional students, these programs remain their sole option for higher education.

Internationalization is an inherent part of the US community college that advances the mission of expanding student knowledge and of serving the needs of local communities (Raby and Valeau, 2016). Community college international

education includes various programs and curricula that aim to connect students, faculty, and local communities to people, cultures, and contexts beyond local borders. Internationalization is found in a variety of educational programs and student services (Raby and Tarrow, 1996) and in new credential and degree requirements that serve changing global employment needs (Treat and Hagedorn, 2013). The three most popular forms of community college internationalization are international students, education abroad, and internationalizing the curriculum. The trajectory of international education at US universities and community colleges is unique. These differences are important when examining leadership development and pipeline opportunities. At the university level, internationalization is integrated in the institution with defined staff and administrative positions whose job descriptions are detailed and include finite demands for expertise (Lambert, Nolan, Peterson and Pierce, 2008; AIEA, 2014). At community colleges, inclusion of internationalization is sporadic and varies from college to college, and from year to year (Copeland, 2016; Raby and Valeau, 2016). While discussion on the need to have a dedicated office and budget is part of community college internationalization literature (Hess, 1982), discourse on the positions themselves needed to fill these offices has largely been ignored.

Methodology

The purpose of this research was to gain insight into and information on individuals who work in community college international education and to learn about their career pipeline experiences. At a time when retirements are increasing and impacting the ranks of senior level community college administrators, information on a cohort of potential new leadership is important for development and long-term training. Given the current lack of information, our research centered around the following questions: 1) Are there full-time positions for international education leadership at community colleges?; 2) What characteristics are needed by individuals to obtain a job in community college international education?; 3) What is the career history of those currently working in community college international education? and 4) Is the career trajectory of these individuals part of the traditional leadership pipeline?. Three national surveys were used to source survey questions. We adapted questions from the Vaughn *Career and Lifestyle Survey* for CEOs that has long documented the community college leadership pipeline (Wiseman and Vaughn, 2007), from the *Pathways to the Profession Survey* that documents demographics of those who work in education abroad (Forum, 2015), and from the American Council on Education *Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses* (2012) survey which details the organizational structure of community college internationalization.

Since no defined audience of community college international education leaders is apparent, we had no basis for establishing a concrete N. In fact, we were not sure who would be answering our survey and what details they would or could provide us. As such, we purposefully included

mostly open-ended questions to allow those in the field an opportunity to define terms and to provide an avenue to share their own stories. 35 questions were grouped in sub-headings: institutional; demographic; position; educational and work history; international education training and experiences; current position mentorship; future professional plans; and opinions on skill training, institutional support, international education challenges, and strategies to overcome challenges. Space was provided for respondents to explain their answers to closed questions or expand further upon open ended questions. A consistency of themes emerged from the answers that were coded to quantify descriptive statistics and to qualify simple categorizations that can be used to ground future versions of the survey.

In summer, 2015, an online survey was administered to eight community college list-servs (Community College Education Abroad–L (CCEA-L), Community College for International Development (CCID), California Colleges for International Education (CCIE), Council for Study of Community Colleges (CSCC), Institute for International Education (IIE); NAFSA: Association of International Educators Community College Institutional Interest Group (NAFSA CC-IIG) NAFSA: Association of International Educators Teaching, Learning, Scholarship Knowledge Community (NAFSA TLS) and SECUSSA) with the intent to reach those who were working in the field. Multiple list-servs were used because each targeted distinct groups of individuals working in community college internationalization. We requested that only those who work at a community college and who have at least some of their duties involving international education respond. Based on existing literature, we did not believe that there were many individuals who worked full-time and in positions solely dedicated to internationalization and therefore wanted to be as inclusive as possible. 91 respondents representing community colleges in 25 states and one non-US country participated in the study. As indicated above, the most responses on national surveys have been 239 to 336 community colleges. Our sample of 91 respondents thus represents but an introduction to the field. Nonetheless, because these 91 respondents came from a wide spectrum of community colleges representing 25 states, there is a generalizability of their responses and context for further study.

Background on Survey Respondents

This section provides background information on colleges, demographics, and staffing positions of survey respondents.

College Profiles

Survey respondents included 91 individuals who self-defined their positions at the community college as being in a leadership role. 90 of these individuals worked at a US community college and no college had more than one respondent. Colleges came from 25 states and of these, 14 states had multiple colleges represented. There was an equal split between large community colleges with over 20,000 students, medium size colleges with between 10,000 - 20,000 students, and small size colleges with less than 10,000

students. This is important because prior assumptions were that larger community colleges could more easily support internationalization efforts (Sipe, 2016). Survey respondents also represented an equal split between colleges with large international student populations of 250 students or more, international student populations of 100-250 students, and international student populations of less than 100 students. Within each of these categories there was also an even split between large size, mid-size and small size colleges that hosted international student programs. This is important because community college international student programs have historically had higher staffing than other international programs (Valeau and Raby, 2007).

Respondent Demographics

Questions about respondent demographics were designed to assess commonalities with current community college Presidents (CEO) because demographics are used in literature about leadership training and succession planning (Cook, 2012; AACC, 2013). Details are provided in Table 1. Community college CEOs are largely male, while survey respondents were mostly female. CEOs are mostly married or in a long-term relationship, while the same percentage is not found among survey respondents. There is no national comparison for CEO sexual orientation yet, although McNair's (2015) study identifies this demographic as did 42% of our survey respondents. CEOs are mostly in their late 60's, while more than half of survey respondents were 20-40 years old. Racial and ethnic group identify findings are similar to CEO leadership, with the vast majority being White/Caucasian. Write-in responses included self-identity as Latina and as Iranian/Persian. Neither CEO or international education leadership represent their likely student populations and are dismally failing in placing African-Americans and Native Americans into leadership roles.

Staffing Positions

To answer our first research question pertaining to staffing, we asked respondents to provide their work titles and longevity in current positions. 96.4% of respondents worked full-time and 84% defined themselves as administrators. In particular, 63% of the full-time work titles were listed as coordinator, manager, or supervisor, 20.5% as interim director, assistant director, director or executive director, 9% as international student office admissions, specialist, advisor, support professional, counselor, or Primary Designated School Official, 4% as faculty, 3% as dean, assistant dean or department chair, and .5% as senior administrator (.5%). Many of the jobs served international education since 61% of work titles included the word "international" or "global" or "intercultural." Over 50% of respondents were in their positions for many years with 34% in their current position for 11-31 years and 28% for 6-10 years. One-third of respondents were in their positions for a short period of time with 31% being in their positions for 1-5.5 years and 7% being in newly created positions for under one year.

Leadership Preparation

Three national studies (ACE, 2012; AIEA, 2014; Forum, 2015) document profiles of those working in international education leadership. We used information from these studies to compare data from our findings about community college international leadership career trajectories. Three different leadership pathways emerge that include a) traditional preparation; b) non-traditional preparation; and c) job-embedded professional development.

Traditional Preparation

The traditional community college leadership pipeline begins with a faculty position and includes a trajectory of department chair, dean, vice-president, and president (Weisman and Vaughan, 2007). The entry point of being a faculty is mirrored in the experiences of survey respondents. 39% of respondents had taught full-time and 60% had taught part-time at a community college. In international education, it is common for faculty to be given release time to conduct international work. 4% of our survey respondents were faculty working in release-time positions. Pipeline movement is not always planned and often begins with what is referred to as “accidental” leaders who are individuals who do not intentionally seek leadership roles (Garza and Eddy, 2008). Most survey respondents were recruited for their position by senior administrators based on their pre-existing “interest” in internationalization and were indeed “accidental leaders.” For many in international education, the traditional pipeline includes lateral movement from faculty position with release time to full-time administrative international position, but holding faculty status. 20% of respondents said that they

moved laterally in the pipeline in a similar pattern. National studies confirm a pathway of faculty on release time to assuming administrative duties (Brewer, 2016). Nationally, most study abroad leadership are faculty in release-time positions (Reinig, 2016) and 75% of university Senior International Officers (SIOs) once held faculty positions (AIEA, 2014). Unlike the pattern of faculty moving laterally, our survey showed that administrators who were given international assignments by senior administrators tended to not transition into full-time international positions.

Movement along the traditional pipeline is a noted goal of many survey respondents. 72% said that they moved from a position in their college that was not related to international education and did so at the request of their senior administration. Of these, 23% explicitly expressed interest in moving up the traditional leadership pipeline. Write in responses detail this pathway goal: “Once I get my doctorate, I want to move up to the Academic Vice-President or Vice-President level.”; “Given the opportunity, I’d like to be the Director or Dean”; “I will move into departmental positions to support work already being done related to international students.” “I will be furthering my career advancement into a dean or executive director position”; “I aspire to a higher level position as Vice-President Instruction/Academic Affairs since positions above dean in international education are lacking in community colleges.” “For career advancement, I am hoping to move into a Dean position and hopefully at some point a Vice-President position.”

In the traditional community college leadership pipeline related to administrative aspirations, movement is hierarchical with culmination being the CEO. Literature illustrates that

Table 1 | **Survey Respondent Demographics**

Gender					
Female: 75%		Male: 25%			
Sexual Orientation (based on 42% of respondents and self-identification of terms)					
Heterosexual/Straight: 71%		LGTQ: 18%	Bi-sexual: 2%	Other: 9%	
Marital Status					
Married: 74%		Not Married: 26%			
Age					
20-30: 3.45%	31-40: 24.1%	41-50: 31.0%	51-60: 20.7%	61-70: 19.5%	70+: 1.2%
Race/Ethnicity					
White/Caucasian: 67.0%	Hispanic: 13.4%	Asian/Pacific Islander: 13.4%	African-American: 4.0%	Multi-Race: 2.4%	American Indian/Native American: 0%

Table 2 | Chain of Command of Survey Respondents and ACE 2012 Survey Respondents

To Whom They Report	Percentage of Survey Responses	Percentage of ACE (2012) Respondents
To Board	1%	
To President/CEO	3%	13%
To Chief Academic Officer	17%	33%
To Other Administrator in Academic Affairs	30%	16%
To Chief Student Affairs Officer	9%	21%
To Other Administrator in Student Affairs	25%	11%
To AVP International Education	3%	
To Other Administrator in International Education	12%	
To none	0%	18%

presidents use hierarchical leadership processes to frame how their institutions should enact educational reforms (Eddy and VanDerLinden, 2006; Eckel and Kezar, 2011). Literature about community college internationalization confirms the president as the catalyst to guide internationalization efforts (ACE, 2012; Opp and Gosetti, 2015). Similarly, 82% of survey respondents confirmed a hierarchical construct in that the most common chain of command was faculty to their department chair, entry staff to their dean, mid-level staff to their Vice-President of Academic Affairs, and senior administrators to their President. Other chains of command are shown in Table 2 which have similarity to findings from the ACE Survey (2012).

Non-Traditional Preparation

“Career track professionals” (Altbach, 2007, p. 14) are hired as staff and proceed along an administrative pipeline. As jobs in international education demand more highly specialized knowledge, there is a greater tendency to hire those with pre-existing knowledge and experiences. Graduate programs reinforce this need through specific programs that prepare individuals for international specializations (Woodman and Putney, 2016). Increasingly, new graduates are not going into teaching but instead are becoming university “career international educators” (Streitwieser and Ogden, 2016). The Senior International Officer (SIO) position is an example of a new career track international professional position that requires specialized graduate training. Literature mostly defines the SIO as residing in four year colleges. No survey respondents identified themselves as a SIO.

In community colleges, there are administrators who do not enter into their position as part of a traditional leadership pipeline. In the Garza and Eddy (2008) study, all

of the administrators came to their positions through non-traditional routes. Similarly, 28% of survey respondents moved into their position without having an initial faculty position. Survey results found three distinctive patterns that defined the community college international leadership non-traditional pipeline. First, those who worked in International Student offices often moved from an entry level position to coordinator, director and then to other senior level positions. Survey respondents shared that their entry points had titles including administrative assistant, admission clerk, staff, counselor, immigration case manager, program advisor/specialist, and resident hall coordinator. The second pattern included those who worked in international programs other than international student programs. 18% of survey respondents began with interim positions in programs other than international students and then moved to coordinator, then director, and finally to other senior level positions. The third pattern involved direct hiring of individuals external to the community college for a specialized international position. 9% of survey respondents first worked at a for-profit company within international education and 7% at a nonprofit or private sector outside the field of higher education.

Even for survey respondents with a non-traditional entry, write-in responses indicated that once in the community college environment, future goals followed a traditional leadership pipeline: “I would like to move to a full-time, salaried position”; “I would like to move into a position that is embedded in the highest levels of campus leadership so that international is integrated into the overall school identity rather than a facet or sub-culture”; “I am employed as a classified member, but have been doing director duties and I would now like to officially move into the director position.”

There is a noted distinction between university Senior International Officer (SIO) and the equivalent at a community college that can truncate pipeline movement. University SIOs have doctoral degrees and many have graduate degrees in international education. Doctoral degrees are held by 27% of Forum members (2015) and 81% of AIEA member SIOs (2014). The percentage of doctoral degrees increase with senior levels as 62.5% of Vice-Presidents and 87.5% of provosts have doctoral degrees (AIEA, 2014). Doctoral degrees are also required by those wanting to go into community college president positions (AACCC, 2016). Comparatively, only 14% of survey respondents had a Ph.D., 7% had an Ed.D., and 1.5% had a MA in an international field. Moreover, survey respondents did not see such degrees as important for their position. One respondent shared that “I am looking at going back to school for my masters in international education. I will soon see if this is the training needed to be more effective.” Among survey respondents, the educational profile necessary for leadership roles is currently not found.

Job-Embedded Professional Development

Details exist on specific knowledge and competencies required for different international education jobs. Identified management skills include knowledge of finance/budget, program management, and research. Identified international skills include knowledge of admissions, compliance, legal issues, visa and immigration services, health services, student learning, advising and risk management (Brewer, 2016; Austell, 2016). Additionally, 30% of Forum members (2015) said proficiency in a second language and 50% said living abroad are important skills. Reinig (2016) says that “there is an expectation that those in international education become expert multitaskers . . . and must be knowledgeable of all aspects of international education within the scope of their job and even beyond” (p. 134)

For those working in community college internationalization, expertise is either pre-existing or gained on the job. Survey respondents shared that the most common pre-existing knowledge was being a former international student and/or having had studied abroad. Very few respondents were international career-track professionals whose particular international skill-set was a criterion for being selected for their position. Nonetheless, the newly hired noted that their jobs required international competencies. One respondent said, “I had experience coordinating study abroad as a faculty and then I was asked to interview for my position.” Another respondent said that “the field is becoming very specialized and there is now more than ever a need to breakdown and disperse job duties. It was my expertise that got me my job.” Not enough information was given by respondents to develop a pre-existing knowledge checklist specific for community college international leadership positions.

The majority of respondents came to their jobs with no specific international knowledge and as such, they needed professional development to learn international competencies. 62% of survey respondents said that they had no prior training in the field of international education prior to

their appointment. For some, as write-in comments noted, “I learned on the job as I went” and “There was no requirement of knowledge in the job application and no directed path to gain this knowledge.” When faculty or administrators are assigned international duties, they are often unaware of the depth of knowledge needed. Scarboro (2016) defines these academics-turned-managers as “accidental tourists” who upon appointment are then given “add-on” training in internationalization (Scarboro, p. 94). Although professional development is needed, similar to community college midlevel leadership pathways, such training rarely exists (Garza and Eddy, 2008). Only 8% of survey respondents said that they received job-directed training and that training came as a result of participation in NAFSA international student workshops. As one respondent said, “I needed SEVIS and F-1 regulation training and went to a NAFSA conference for that training.” An additional 14% said that they learned new international skills by informally connecting to colleagues at other institutions and by attending conferences (although not for specific training). One respondent shared, “I think it is important to network and see best practices of international programming at other colleges.” It is interesting to note that 56% of survey respondents said that they received specific community college leadership training, which would be expected of those climbing the community college administrative pipeline.

Survey respondents, when asked to define an ideal skill-set for new entrants into the field, identified two categories. 75% of respondents said that applicants must have basic administrative procedural knowledge that includes, as one respondent said “basics of any administrative position: budgeting, team building, connection to colleagues, strategic planning and the like.” Equally important is the need to know specifics of community college leadership, management, academic affairs and student services procedures. The second skill-set category included three types of international skills: experiential, personality, and application, none of which were identified as essential for the job. In experiential, second language fluency (7%) and extensive international experience (6%) were desirable. In personality, 9% said competencies should include “something related to cultural communication styles”, that shows empathy training and “skills that allow the individual to be compassionate and understanding of all peoples.” In application, knowledge of F1 regulations (10%); risk management (9%); best practices in the field (7%); program development (5%); immigration policies (4%); study abroad processes (3%); research and evaluation skills (2%); marketing skills (2%); and entrepreneurial skills/fund-raising (2%) were noted as important. Other skills were mentioned by a single respondent and include knowledge of recruiting and retaining international students; building faculty networks; counseling; PR skills; use of technology in the field; dynamics of short-staffed office; and understanding of resources available.

Several respondents mentioned that by having the ideal skill-set, an individual could more likely become an agent of change and use their leadership skills to “integrate

international programs into the overall college community” and “promote external and internal stakeholder buy-in to avoid obstacles to internationalization.” Many respondents mentioned that on-going training “is important because a huge part of this work is managing often sudden and unpredictable change.” Finally, many acknowledged the need for professional development, as one respondent said, “It depends on their background. Assuming that, like me, other directors may come from the faculty ranks and have no formal background in International Education, these are some areas of expertise I believe can be useful.”

Discussion

This research asks the following questions: 1) Are there full-time positions for international education leadership at community colleges? 2) What characteristics are needed by individuals to obtain a job in community college international education? 3) What is the career history of those currently working in community college international education? and 4) Is the career trajectory of these individuals’ part of the traditional leadership pipeline? In answer to our first question, survey data shows that there are full-time leadership positions at community colleges that support international education. This is an important point since past literature has suggested that if these positions exist they are ad hoc in nature. Since past discussions on community college internationalization mostly focused on whether or not there is a physical office or dedicated line-item in the budget to pay for full-time positions, the additional emphasis on defined job titles and job skills will aid in grounding policy planning. The survey also showed the full-time positions are in all areas of international education, with 48% in international student affairs; 40% in global or international offices; 7% in education abroad programs, and 5% in intercultural programs. The Senior International Officer (SIO) position, while acknowledged by ACE 2012, was not part of any of our survey self-definitions. It is interesting to note that in 2016, there were designated tracks for community college SIOs at both the NAFSA and CCID annual conferences showing a change in the field.

In answer to our second question, we found that there is a need to define skill-sets so that individuals know what academic and professional experiences can best prepare them to enter into community college international leadership positions. Respondents uniformly said that having basic administrative skills was critical, but less than 10% said that specific international knowledge was important. Most respondents noted that “learning on the job was critical,” and all noted a lack of institutional attention to professional development to gain that knowledge. The lack of institutional attention to international skills is also shown as 99% of ACE respondents said that international work or experience is NOT a consideration in faculty promotion and tenure decision and 77% said that they never or rarely gave preference to faculty candidates based on their international knowledge (ACE, 2012). The under-emphasis given to international skills is a noted distinction when compared with university international leadership for whom 91% of AIEA membership

(2012) said knowledge of international issues and specific job knowledge was very important.

Finally, in answer to our third and fourth questions on career history and career trajectory, we found that respondents who entered into internationalization by interest or by chance, irrespective of being part of the traditional or non-traditional pipeline, still needed to acquire job-specific skills after being hired. Survey respondents did show that newer hires were more likely to need to demonstrate pre-knowledge that specifically supported their jobs in an international position. Respondents did mention that professional development should be obtained by attending designed training workshops, participating in conferences, and through outreach to colleagues. In terms of career trajectories, knowing the importance of skill-sets and professional development programs can help to prepare individuals for long-term planning as they transition along the leadership pipeline. Because dedicated positions in international education require advanced and very specific knowledge in each sub-area of international education, the affirmation of the fact that pipeline progression does exist for each type of job in international education at community colleges helps to chart a foundation for future change.

Conclusion

The *Valeau Lifestyle and Career Survey for International Education Leadership* charts the demographics, professional history, and training needs of community college international education leaders. The data reveals an unacknowledged field of full-time and dedicated positions that support community college international education that includes the ranks of faculty, staff, mid-level and senior-level administration. Many have a job title that contains the word international, global or intercultural. However, there is no cohesion in defining titles and job-skill sets consistent across institutions. There are thus unanswered questions in relation to sustaining the emerging cohort of community college international education leaders. In order to do this, and using the community college President planning as a frame, there needs to be an elevated emphasis on cultivating human capital that identifies where future leadership will come from, how to effectively recruit for positions, how they will be trained, and what professional development needs to be offered to advance knowledge and skill-sets. A richly informed discussion on leadership needs will enhance succession planning and provide opportunity to ensure community college international education leadership success and sustainability.

Our study shows that two changes need to be made at local, state, and national levels to support those going into community college international education leadership positions. First, targeted professional development needs to be included as part of administrative requirements. Specifically, dual efforts are needed to define mentorship opportunities for community college leadership training as well as for international specialization skills acquisition. In terms of leadership pipeline training, the evidence of non-traditional pathways that are pursued by international leaders, suggests a discussion on creating new pipeline models that

allow alternatives to a restricted pipeline that is built on the old academic hierarchical model of Dean of Instruction to Vice-President of Instruction and then to President. This is apt to be particularly true since these leaders are not yet perceived to be within the mainstream of academic or student services leadership and who have not followed the traditional pipeline pattern.

Community colleges need to specifically define opportunities for those who want to go into international education as well as pathways to move along and up the leadership pipeline. Even more important, for this discussion, is how individuals already in the community college international education positions can become part of the leadership pipeline and still use their international knowledge and experiences as an ongoing tool for international advocacy. A hopeful sign is the number of relatively new full-time jobs that are beginning to frame the hard-skills and social capital needed for international educational leadership positions. It remains important to learn about leadership pipeline preparation from community college presidents where a concentrated discussion has long focused on where potential leadership will come from, training specifics, and how their professional journey will provide them with required and advanced leadership skills.

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Students as a Teaching Resource in Preparing Educational Leaders: An International Masters Programme

Qiang Liu and David A. Turner

Dr. Qiang Liu is Associate Professor and Assistant Dean for International Exchanges in the Faculty of Education, Beijing Normal University and Assistant Secretary General of the Comparative Education Society of Asia. His research focuses on comparative higher education, and he has published in academic journals in English and Chinese.

Dr. David Turner is Professor in the Institute for International and Comparative Education, Beijing Normal University. He is a Fellow of the Academy of Social Sciences in the UK. His research interests include higher education policy, and leadership in education. He has written many scholarly articles and books.

Abstract

The Institute of International and Comparative Education, Beijing Normal University has offered a Masters Program in Educational Leadership and Policy (Comparative Education) for the last four years and it attracts students from around the world, with substantial support in terms of scholarships, from the Chinese government. Beijing Normal University introduced a PhD programme in the same discipline in 2013.

The programme is intended to train talented individuals from all over the world, and to provide them with theoretical understanding and skills that will prepare them to take positions of leadership. The programme benefits from the high calibre of students that it attracts, and a multi-national multi-cultural student body is an important educational resource.

The authors have worked in the programme, with other colleagues, since its inception, and describe some of the unique features of the programme, as well as some of the challenges.

Introduction

In the *Outline of China's National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)* issued by Communist Party of China Central Committee and State Council of the People's Republic of China in 2010, it is clearly stated that:

More international students shall be admitted for studies in China. Chinese government scholarships shall be increased, with financial assistance offered mainly to students from other developing countries, and the composition of students coming to this country for studies shall be optimized. Foundation courses shall be given to international students before they start college education in China; more disciplines shall be taught in foreign languages in Chinese colleges; and education quality for those studying in China shall be improved. (Communist Party of China 2010, 35)

In response to the call, Beijing Normal University (BNU) actively encourages its academic institutions to establish English-taught degree programmes. This paper describes the development of the Masters Programme in Educational Leadership and Policy (Comparative Education). The location of the programme in the Institute of International and Comparative Education, and the inclusion of comparative education as a core component of the programme, is a key element in its design, but before focusing on that, some background information will help to give the setting for the programme.

BNU was founded in 1902 and is a leader not only in Chinese education but also on the world stage. BNU places great emphasis on exchange and cooperation with educational institutions nationally and internationally and is building a first-class reputation for scholarship, research and training. (QS 2016) The Institute of International and Comparative Education, founded in 1962, is the oldest and most influential institute for the study of comparative education in China, and is the only nationally recognized centre for comparative education. The Institute has a strong profile of national and international research and is staffed by senior faculty members.

The International Masters Program in Educational Leadership and Policy (Comparative Education) is a unique programme, which was developed by the Institute of International and Comparative Education at BNU with support from the Institute of International Education at Stockholm University. The programme has generous financial support from the Chinese Government and is designed to enhance educational and cultural exchange between China and other countries, as well as to train talented individuals who can contribute to leadership and policy-making worldwide.

The programme includes core courses on comparative education, leadership and management, educational policy, educational planning, and research methods, which are supplemented by elective courses on education and national development, education and rural development and Chinese language. All students must complete a course on Chinese history and culture which is designed to help them adapt to their new environment which will be their home for the two years of the programme. The programme focuses on a series of contemporary educational topics that are relevant to all countries, especially developing nations, including promoting educational equality, high quality education, education for sustainable development and information and communication technologies in education. All students prepare a masters dissertation on the basis of personal research carried out on a topic of personal interest and relevance.

Because the programme enjoys a high level of support from the Chinese Government, providing a good proportion of the students with scholarships that cover their fees and living expenses, the programme is able to attract and recruit students of a very high calibre from around the world. The programme aims to develop in these talented individuals a deep understanding of educational theories and help them acquire a wide knowledge of fundamental trends in

educational reform and development worldwide, coupled with an inquiring and open-minded approach to educational issues and the ability to cope in cross-cultural settings.

The programme recruits approximately 25 students each year, and the mixture of classmates from around the world, never more than three from a single country, provides an important context for the learning about leadership in international settings. The programme is taught in English by a mixture of Chinese scholars who have extensive experience studying and living abroad and native speakers of English who have been recruited to teach in the programme on the basis of their expertise in comparative education.

Although students have been attracted to the programme from at least five continents, including a number of industrialised countries, the majority of students have come from South-East Asia and Africa. In fact there has been a slight shift over the four years during which the programme has operated, with recruitment from South-East Asia predominating in the early years with a gradual shift toward greater recruitment from Africa, especially east Africa. Although the programme is taught in English, and there is no formal requirement for the students to learn Chinese, it has become apparent that speaking Chinese is a valuable asset for living in Beijing, particularly when conducting research in educational settings in Beijing. This may have helped to skew recruitment in recent years towards east Africa, where the Confucius Institutes have been very active, and from which students have come who have a prior experience of Chinese culture, and sometimes Chinese language.

Comparative Education in International Leadership

Torrance and Humes (2015) note that the discourse about leadership has become increasingly important in the field of education, to the extent that leadership has become one of the central themes of teaching. Indeed, the boundary has become so blurred that it has been suggested that teaching is synonymous with leadership, with teachers coaxing their students to learn, and in the process developing the transferrable skills of leadership that are applicable in all areas of institutional leadership (Torrance and Humes 2015, 799)

While there are parallels between leadership and teaching, it stretches the point too far to suggest that they are actually the same, and there are also differences between the two activities. One of the dangers of over-emphasis on the similarity is that in-service training for leadership may be neglected when teachers move from the classroom into positions of organisational leadership. It has, however, been noted that teachers who are promoted to leadership roles, such as appointment as principals of schools, which necessarily moves them away from the classroom, are often frustrated by the fact that the activities they value as professional teachers, and which their success in led to their promotion, actually get in the way of the teaching that they love.

At a basic level there is a sense that leadership is needed at all levels in educational organisations, and classroom teachers must "lead" the pupils in their classrooms, but that is not to be confused with the kind of leadership that is needed at other

levels in educational settings. Whether in the principal's office or in government offices, educational leaders need to have a more formal understanding of how organisations function, how policy is developed and how institutional culture can be shaped.

In that context, we take seriously the warning given by Harber and Davies (2003) that most of the models of leadership that are used in education have been transferred unthinkingly from business settings and / or from industrialised countries in ways that are not always appropriate. It is at that point that the comparative element of leadership programmes is most relevant. Dimmock and Walker (2003) make the case that, although leadership programmes and studies of leadership often take culture into account, in the sense that they engage with organisational culture, they usually ignore the broader culture within which the educational organisation exists. To overcome that shortcoming, Dimmock and Walker propose a framework for a comparative and international branch of leadership studies which can overcome the ethnocentric theory which, according to them, abounds.

Dimmock and Walker (2003) address four elements of school management (curriculum, leadership and management, organisational structures, and teaching and learning) in the context of the culture(s) within which the school system operates. The comparative element of Dimmock and Walker's argument is that comparative education can take such an understanding beyond the realm of understanding the culture of the institution, to embrace regional, or system-wide, culture, and national culture.

Of course, every student who wishes to be successful must engage with curriculum, institutional management structures, organisational norms and teaching and learning methods. In addition, every institution operates within a national and regional culture, although familiarity may render this invisible to local students while presenting it as an obstacle faced by overseas students, which they often grapple with without adequate support.

In the special case of the International Masters Program in Educational Leadership and Policy the challenge is to make the implicit structures of the course explicit, so that the students can learn, not in spite of their prejudices and taken-for-granted assumptions, but through them. In one exercise, one of the authors of this paper asked students in the programme to reflect on the leadership qualities that are admired in their country by thinking about the leaders who were held up as examples of good practice. A student from Mongolia said that the model of good leadership which was promoted in her country was Genghis Khan – a choice most of the other students found difficult to understand, primed as they were to think of Genghis Khan as a destroyer and pillager.

However, the story that she told of the advice that Khan's mother gave to the three brothers, that they were stronger when they worked as a team than when they worked individually, was one that leadership and management courses might present anywhere in the world.

The details of the story, that Khan's mother took three arrow shafts and showed that although they could be broken easily if taken one at a time, they were very difficult to break when the three were taken together, is not, we think, unique to Mongolia. One could easily imagine a similar lesson being illustrated with reference to tearing a London telephone directory in half, and how much easier it is to tear a single page than to tear many. And the football (soccer) team in Hiroshima is called Sanfreccce (a compound word that brings together the Japanese word for three and the Italian word for arrows) and rejoices in the motto "We Fight Together" (Sanfreccce 2016), suggesting again that the story is not unique to Mongolia.

Because we have such a wonderful resource, in the form of very capable students from a great variety of backgrounds, there are ample opportunities for examining not only what different cultures have in common, but how they frequently have diametrically opposing assumptions at the same time. At an intellectual level this is at the core of comparative education, which is why comparative education is central to the programme, but at the experiential level it is important to capture these experiences in the classroom and move them into the centre, rather than leaving them as frustrations as the students "adjust" to their host culture and the cultures of their fellow students.

Curriculum

The curriculum, as a selection from the culture, reflects the values and concerns of the country and its culture. Holmes (1965) identified at least four curriculum models that reflected different values and criteria in the selection of the curriculum, related to different national traditions. These were the essentialist model, the encyclopaedic model, the pragmatic model and the polytechnical model of England, France, the USA and Soviet Union respectively.

There is a difficult question here of how students will engage with different models of the curriculum. The programme employs teachers from China, USA, UK, and Canada, in addition to calling upon the services of visiting professors from many parts of the world. And the students come from diverse cultures and backgrounds. As postgraduate students, they have between them experienced many different educational systems and traditions (normally, but not always, one each). While some come to the masters programme directly after their undergraduate studies, the majority have experience working in educational establishments, in teaching or researching. Insofar as the curriculum addresses issues of leadership, management and policy directly, the traditions of the USA and Europe are quite distinct, so a British teacher, using an American textbook as a resource with students from around the world, already provides a hybrid model that could be confusing.

But the point of comparative education is to raise these questions that would normally be unexpressed, into the foreground of analysis so that differences can be addressed directly. That means that simultaneously drawing on several traditions can be extremely helpful in developing comparative

perspectives, at the same time as it may render the selection of content for specific courses extremely difficult.

Similar remarks might be made about the course introducing Chinese culture. On the one hand, the purpose of the course is to provide an understanding of the culture, in order to help the students manage their experience. On the other hand, the comparative goal of the programme, in the broader scheme of things, is to help the students critique, not only Chinese culture and their own culture, but to provide them with an international setting which is not exclusively tied to any specific culture.

These contradictory demands are not merely limited to the classroom, where they might be isolated and “handled”, but pervade the whole experience of being part of an international programme in Beijing Normal University.

Organisational Structure

Where does one begin when describing organisational structures? It is hard for a European to imagine describing political structures without recourse to the classification of left-wing and right-wing. Although that terminology and classification was borrowed from the seating arrangements in the various legislative bodies that followed the French Revolution, left-wing and right-wing have in time collected overtones of specific political policies, with the left wing leaning toward economic planning, centralist government and protective international tariffs, while the right wing leans toward free trade, decentralisation and globalised markets.

But those classifications lose some of their meaning when a single political party has been in power in a country for a long time, and over that period has adopted policies which have covered the whole range from left to right, as might be the case for the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) in Mexico. In these circumstances, those normal pointers of political difference might mean less than an assessment as to whether the individual politician seems trustworthy.

In China, too, where the Communist Party promotes a free market economy, people may find it necessary to tear up their normal institutional maps and rethink the connections between the personal characteristics of leaders and their institutional positions. In the film, *State of Play*, Ben Affleck (as Stephen Collins) addresses Russell Crowe (as Cal McAffrey): “Am I talking to my college friend, or to a newspaper reporter?”. That is sometimes a hard line to draw, as the film makes clear, but in China it may be still harder. The line between the institutional and the personal can be very perplexing, especially in a culture where *guanxi* (system of social networks and influential relationships) is an important way of structuring interpersonal relationships.

The sum total of these considerations is that it will frequently be difficult for a newcomer to China to understand where and how decisions are made within an organisation, and therefore where and how action can be taken to produce desirable change. And this difficulty may go well beyond the mere issue of language, although difficulties in language will certainly contribute.

Again, this is fertile ground for developing a detachment from one’s home culture, and therefore developing an

international perspective or what might be described as a comparative sensitivity. But being an international student (not to say an international teacher) involves the engagement of the affective as well as the cognitive, and students, some of whom may be far from home for the first time in their lives, have to live through the experience as well as learn about it.

This is by no means a simple challenge, whatever the potential benefits of the experience.

Leadership and Management

One of the paradoxes of the programme is that leadership and management are among the areas of instruction in which the students need least help. Just as, around the world, migrant communities are among the most dynamic sectors of their host communities, so these students have already made the most important commitment that ensures that they will be future leaders and managers in whatever sphere they choose to operate in. They have committed to study for at least two years, often with only limited opportunities to communicate or visit loved ones who have been left behind. Add to that the strict selection processes for the programme, and one can be sure that, whatever else this course may do, it will certainly develop future leaders for international contexts.

But that does not mean that they have forgotten where they come from. At every turn the students in the programme are ambassadors for their home countries. They want to tell the world, and certainly their fellow students, about their home country and their home culture. And they will be upset if they think that a teacher has in any way belittled their culture, however inadvertently.

Brian Holmes (1965) used to tell the story of a time when he was a young lecturer and had been delivering a lecture on the educational system in Belgium. After the lecture had been going for some time, one of his students interrupted him and said, “I cannot let you go on. I am from Belgium, and you have got it completely wrong.” We are not sure how often that, or something similar, happens in this programme, but with an assembled student body that embraces so many countries and continents, the risk is always present.

One of the most important shifts in recent times in universities has been a move away from seeing university teachers as the fount of all knowledge, and efforts have been made to engage students as co-workers in knowledge generation. In that old cliché, the university professor has moved from being a “sage on the stage” to being a “guide on the side.” And that is a wise move when the professor might be ambushed at any moment by an insight from a student who has a completely different perspective on things, or simply knows more.

That does not mean that the exercise of leadership by students is without problems. Finding opportunities and platforms where they can exercise leadership can be difficult. The framework for managing the activities of international students who have been attracted by the Chinese Government’s promotion of international education are relatively new. There are no sound regulations for administering the activities for those international students, although for Chinese students there are. Domestic students

have the support of, for example, the Office for Student Work, the Students' Union and other student communities. For international students there are none. To meet the needs of international students, they have to create informal mechanisms for themselves. The students in the programme have, from time to time, organised cultural events to share the cuisine and culture of one or more of their home countries, or have taken advantage of visiting scholars to arrange an informal seminar, but their organisation has always been relatively informal.

Their leadership in managing this informal network of students in the programme has nevertheless been very impressive. Having a meal with some of the students drawn from more than one cohort of students in the programme, or being taking to task by a second year student for introducing an exercise that sounded interesting with the first year students, leaves one in no doubt that the bush telegraph is working efficiently, and that the students in the programme are developing very effective networks.

Teaching and Learning

As already noted, there has generally been a shift in higher education around the world toward the more active engagement of students as learners. When the students themselves are such a positive resource, this makes even more sense. However, this is not as easy as it sounds, or may be made to appear, in the literature. Teachers, all teachers, have a tendency to hold on to traditional models of education, and we are no exceptions. If a student asks a question, we have, like other teachers, a tendency to think that we should be able to answer it.

But in addition to these universal influences of conservatism on teachers, there are specific elements in the Chinese culture that encourage the use of traditional methods. Chinese students rely very heavily on rote learning. Before classes start at eight o'clock in the morning, students gather, alone or in small groups, in the courtyards across the university, to recite their notes from the previous lesson in preparation for the lessons to come.

This reliance on memory is cultural, but understandable. Given the prodigious feats of memory that are required to read and speak Chinese, students can hardly be blamed if they seek advancement by capitalising on those skills that they have been cultivating since their early years.

But this one traditional attitude spills over into other areas of teaching and learning. Inside each of the classrooms in the teaching buildings is a laminated notice which lists the Six Dos and Six Don'ts – the rules of conduct in the classroom. These rules cover the normal courtesies observed in educational institutions, such as not being absent or arriving late, and not making a noise during class. But they include the rule that one should not use a computer, a learning support that most of the international students would find it difficult to manage without. By the end of any student centred session, most of the rules have been broken. The formal arrangement of the furniture has been disrupted, and the sense of rigid order in the classroom has been broken down.

This is important if the method of teaching and learning is to match the curriculum content and other aspects of the programme. For example, in the curriculum the students learn about McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y. The former presents people as lazy and shiftless and in need of strict supervision, while the latter presents people as strongly self-motivated and keen to work, if only supervisors would get out of their way. The students learn, as most people do, that they prefer to work in conditions that are managed in accordance with Theory Y.

It would be incongruent to manage the teaching and learning in accordance with Theory X at the same time as trying to impress the students with the benefits of using Theory Y in leading educational organisations. Actually, of course, most teachers are deeply suspicious of their students' motivation, and suspect that if students are allowed the freedom to manage their own time in the classroom they will spend their time passing messages to their friends, or the modern-day equivalent, texting them. That is to say, teachers like to be in control, and are inherently suspicious of the new social media. This attitude is reflected in the fact that one of the Six Don'ts is "Don't use a mobile phone".

This question of how mobile technology should be integrated into the classroom is a vexatious one for many teachers. Our experience has been, however, that very often students will use their mobile devices to seek out supplementary material, or to follow up on suggestions. Such input can broaden the range of material available to everyone in the class, and can further enrich the learning experience.

This example illustrates that the students can benefit from the more relaxed atmosphere in the classroom, and that consequently it makes sense to provide the students considerable latitude in pursuing their own interests. An international classroom, almost by definition, is one in which the majority of people present are working in their second or third language. Even with a very good command of English, long formal classes based on lectures can be extremely taxing for students. Coping with new material in a language which requires cognitive effort can be very challenging. The difficulties can be minimised, however, by the simple expedient of allowing time – time for reflecting on the teaching materials, time for talking over new ideas to make sure they are well understood, and time for reviewing notes and consolidating learning.

Of course, notes can only be reviewed if there are notes to review, and so the students will adopt a range of cooperative strategies to make sure they have a second opportunity to cover material. Those strategies cover a range of measures from taping lectures and taking photos of slideshows (there are those mobile phones again), to asking for presentations and videos that have been used in class and sharing them around the group. In short, the students work very hard to learn everything they can, and this is best managed in a relaxed atmosphere where students can control their own time. As noted above, this may run counter to the natural instincts of teachers, who have been taught that they need to be in control, and that students will be lazy if they are given the chance.

Working with international students requires a change of approach, and we need to recognise that, even with scholarships and financial support, these students are making a considerable sacrifice to be on the programme. They are away from home and loved ones and living in challenging surroundings, often for the whole two years without a visit home. And the comment that comes up most often in casual conversation is how they miss home cooking. These are students who are highly motivated.

Conclusion

It is no surprise the programme helps develop leaders for international and globalised contexts. Given the selection of students that we have in our programme, and the stimulating backdrop that Beijing provides for a group of very able and very diverse people, we would be hard put not to develop world-class leaders. The programme simply provides experiences that allow them to attain their potential, some of which happen in the classroom.

Because the programme is still relatively young, it is not possible to point to successful graduates at the end of their glittering careers. But graduates have already progressed to doctoral studies at a number of prestigious institutions, in China and around the world. Others have returned to their home countries where they have taken up positions in national research centres or government think-tanks, or in other levels of educational administration. We do not attribute every one of these successes to their participation in this programme; many of our students have earned national recognition for their scholarship and other activities before they come to Beijing. But we are confident that these short-term successes will be followed by other, longer-term successes, and that our graduates will be influential in international education in the future.

The central challenge for the programme is to ensure that the classroom experiences complement the other aspects of the student experience in such a way that the students are reflective, conscious and positive about their learning experiences.



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