

# **The Effect of Education Decentralization on School Leadership in the Vocational Schools**

**A Comparative Study between the German  
and the Egyptian Practice**

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**To my father and inspirer Prof. Dr. Karam Imam Mohamed Ashmawy and  
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## I Introduction

As the world is witnessing major international developments such as information revolution, technological breakthroughs and globalization, it became obvious that for the countries to preserve their international status they have to be able to access, exploit and control knowledge. Hence, many countries began to undergo major reforms in their educational system, as it became clear that this is the main gate for them to achieve their progressive international status and sustainable development.

Egypt began its education reform program in 1991/ 1992 by introducing major changes as follows:

- improving the training programs that are being presented to the teachers,
- achieving quantitative and qualitative developments in both human and physical conditions of schools by building laboratories and libraries and ensuring the provision of at least the minimal requirements of educational materials and equipments,
- returning back to the system of the extended school day,
- working on improving school management,
- applying a strict system of psychological and social monitoring to face any arising psychological or social educational problems.<sup>1</sup>

Although these education reform programs achieved many positive results whether in terms of quantitative measures (like a 240% increase in the total spending on education since the 1990s to improve the educational infrastructure,<sup>2</sup> an increase in the total number of schools in Egypt that reached over 40,111 schools by the year 2010,<sup>3</sup> with an increase of over 25% since the year 1999/2000 when the total number of schools reached 32150<sup>4</sup>, and the establishment of many schools for pupils with special needs (handicapped)) or in terms of qualitative measures (like improving curricula and textbooks, improving the

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<sup>1</sup> The Egyptian Ministry of Education (2001 a). *Mubarak and Education: 20 Years of Giving by an Enlightened President, 10 Years of Education Development*. Cairo: Ministry of Education; the Book Sector.

<sup>2</sup> The Egyptian Ministry of Education (2001 b). *Indicators of Progress in Mubarak's National Project of Education through the Years-1991/1992-2001/2001*. Cairo: Ministry of Education.

<sup>3</sup> The Egyptian Ministry of Education (2011). *The Annual Statistics Book*. Cairo: Ministry of Education, [http://services.moe.gov.eg/books/10011/develop/sch\\_clas\\_stud/school/1.pdf](http://services.moe.gov.eg/books/10011/develop/sch_clas_stud/school/1.pdf), (Original in Arabic), 10.09.12

<sup>4</sup> The Egyptian Ministry of Education (2009 a). *The National Strategic Plan for Pre-University Education Reform in Egypt*. <http://knowledge.moe.gov.eg/NR/rdonlyres/0D9BE04E-B185-4D1A-9DC4-BC8985CEFDB3/7749/Chapter2Part1.pdf>, (Original in Arabic), 27/09/2009

educational process and making it be pupil-oriented, renovating the physical layouts and school buildings, paying greater attention to the teachers and their needs, encouraging research in the various pedagogical fields, and encouraging democracy in schools), yet, it was not able to address the various shortcomings from which the education system was suffering (the unequal distribution of resources and education services between the rural and urban areas favouring the governorates of Cairo, Giza, and Alexandria at the expense of the other governorates, the existence of obsolete administrative and supervisory tools concentrating power in the hand of the school director/principal, the problem of private lessons, and the introduction of many new changes and initiatives simultaneously without sufficient planning and resources).<sup>1</sup> Hence, many voices began to announce their willingness to think about new ways for improving the education system.

Education decentralization was one of the suggestions that was advocated by many researchers and politicians. Winkler (2005) defines it as the complex process that transfers power and responsibility to either the regions or the localities or the school.<sup>2</sup>

However, education decentralization will imply according to the previously mentioned definition that schools will acquire new financial and administrative responsibilities, the role of the school members especially of the principal will become more complex and critical, and that many changes will arise in the relationship between schools and local governments.

Thus, before introducing new concepts and implementing radical changes in any system it is preferable to study these concepts first, investigate how they are applied in other countries and in which context, understand the consequences they produced whether positive or negative, and then draw the lessons from these experiences and apply them on the country of consideration but after accommodating them to its national context.

Germany has been taking initiatives towards education decentralization and school autonomy since the mid 1990s especially in the states (Länder) Bremen, Lower Saxony, and Hesse. Daschner et al. (1995) maintain new school laws have been introduced to grant the schools, especially the vocational

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<sup>1</sup> Sahar Al Taweela (2004). "The Future of the Educational Policies in Egypt". In: *Public Policy Forum*. Cairo: Cairo University, Faculty of Economics and Political Science, Public Administration Research and Consultation Center, pp. 1-28 (Original in Arabic), pp. 15-23.

<sup>2</sup> Donald R. Winkler (April 2005). *Understanding Decentralization*. USAID. [www.equip123.net/docs/e2Understanding%20Decentralization.pdf](http://www.equip123.net/docs/e2Understanding%20Decentralization.pdf), 15/7/2006, pp.1-2.

schools, greater autonomy and allow them to have their own school profile that shows their status and intended goals and to determine their own program how they will achieve their objectives.<sup>1</sup>

Hence, Germany can be considered as a benchmark for Egypt in terms of how education decentralization affects school leadership, since the latter is still in the early phases while the former has achieved progressive results comparatively, especially in the vocational schools.

This is why this study aims at exploring how education decentralization affects the school leadership in the vocational schools in both Germany and Egypt in order to identify the challenges and prerequisites that shall be introduced in the Egyptian educational system if Egypt is willing to achieve progress as is the case in Egypt.

## **II Theoretical Framework**

Literature reveals that there is a major debate around whether or not education decentralization leads to more efficiency in school performance. Different researches stress the advantages and disadvantages of education decentralization. Yet, most of the voices emphasize the need to have the teachers and principals convinced with the importance of education decentralization and to have clear roles and responsibilities along with reduced uncertainty.

Since education decentralization involves the transfer of responsibilities and authorities to lower levels of government and schools, this study aims at answering a major question: how does educational decentralization- with its types as shall be discussed later - affect the role of the school leadership in vocational schools.

### **Literature review**

While reviewing literature, three major categories are found (see table 1); the first category includes studies on decentralization, the second includes studies on the actors involved in education, and the third includes studies on leadership. The first category that discusses decentralization is divided further into two sub-categories: the first sub-category includes studies on decentralization of public services, and the second sub-category includes the effect of decentralization on education. On the other hand, the second category is also divided into two sub-categories. The first sub-category includes studies on the actors in-

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<sup>1</sup> Peter Daschner, Hans Günter Rolff & Tom Stryck (1995). *Schulautonomie- Chancen und Grenzen: Impulse für die Schulentwicklung*. Weinheim und München: Juventa Verlag, p. 228.

volved in education in Germany, and the second sub-category involves studies on the actors involved in education in Egypt. Finally, the third category is divided into two sub-categories. The first sub-category includes studies on the approaches of leadership, while the second sub-category includes studies on the different models of leadership.

Category	Decentralization	Actors involved in education	Leadership
First sub-category	Decentralization of public services in general	Actors involved in education in Germany	Approaches of leadership
Second sub-category	The effect of decentralization on education	Actors involved in education In Egypt	Models of leadership

Table 1: Classification of literature

As for the first sub-category in the first category that is on decentralization of public services in general, it presents the main advantages and disadvantages of decentralization and the reasons why many countries decentralize their public services. It demonstrates that countries may resort to decentralization to achieve advantages, such as reducing ethnic conflicts by meeting the local interests, making decisions closer to service-delivery units, reducing government expenditure, and reducing administrative costs and time (Rondinelli (1980)<sup>1</sup>, McLean& Lauglo (1985)<sup>2</sup>, Amin (2006)<sup>3</sup>, and Ghanem (2008)<sup>4</sup>).

Nevertheless, it can also have some of the disadvantages, such as downsizing on the central level, decreased quality as a result of the reduced governmental spending on public services, decreased state supervision on the programs at the local levels, the local units' attempt to exploit the chance to impose new fees and taxes to raise more funds, the absence of coordination among policies, and the unequal volumes of information between the central government and the local units (Burchardt (2001),<sup>5</sup> Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusam-

<sup>1</sup> Dennis A. Rondinelli (1980). "Government Decentralization in Comparative Perspective: Theory and Practice in Developing Countries". In: *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, No. 47, pp. 133-146.

<sup>2</sup> Jon Lauglo& Martin McLean (Eds.) (1985). *The Control of Education: International Perspectives on the Centralization- Decentralization Debate*. London: University of London, Heinemann Educational Books for the Institute of Education.

<sup>3</sup> Khaled Zakareya Amin (January 2006). "Financial Decentralization as a Way for Development in Egypt". In: *Al Nahdah*. Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 31-65.

<sup>4</sup> El Sayed Abd El Mottelib Ghanem (2008). "The Policy of decentralization in Egypt". In: *Conference on Decentralization in Egypt: Opportunities and Challenges*. Cairo: June 25<sup>th</sup> - 26<sup>th</sup> (Original in Arabic).

<sup>5</sup> Hans-Jürgen Burchardt (2001). *Dezentralisierung und local governance. Empirische Befunde und neue theoretische Anforderungen*. [www.gps.uni-hannover.de/ish/Dateien/staff/HB/texte/dezentra.pdf](http://www.gps.uni-hannover.de/ish/Dateien/staff/HB/texte/dezentra.pdf). 31/12/2008.



menarbeit und Entwicklung (2002),<sup>1</sup> and Khaleghian (2003)<sup>2</sup>). Therefore, the existence of a strong supervising central government is considered very essential to coordinate policies on the local level and achieve equality among the rich and poor local units. Moreover, an effective popular supervision is also important to hold the local administrative units accountable, especially in the conditions when enough information is not available for the central government (Cremer et al., 1995).<sup>3</sup>

The second sub-category includes studies on the effect of decentralization on education. Accordingly, education decentralization is classified into three main types, these are:

**1 Decentralization of decision-making:** or sometimes known as “political decentralization” of education. Here decision making over education is transferred from the center (the ministry) to persons who have been elected to hold authority (Chikoko, 2009).<sup>4</sup> This is why it is usual that elected councils are created such as school conferences, Parents-Teachers Associations (PTAs) or boards of trustees. Its elected members need not to be professionals or experts of education. They can be parents or community members. The degree of authorities and autonomy granted to these councils differs from one country to another, depending upon the willingness of the political system and the ministry of education to give up authority (Parry, 1997).<sup>5</sup>

However, the success of decentralization of decision-making in education will depend also upon the capacities of the persons with authority over education to involve community members in the decision-making process (Edquist, 2005).<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und Entwicklung (2002). *Dezentralisierung und lokale Selbstverwaltung: Dezentralisierung in der deutschen Entwicklungszusammenarbeit*. Deutschland: Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und Entwicklung.

<sup>2</sup> Peyvand Khaleghian (2003). “Decentralization and Public Services: The Case of Immunization”, In: *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, No. 2989. pp. 1-37.

<sup>3</sup> Jacques Cremer, Antonio Estache and Paul Seabright (1994). “Decentralization of Public Services: Lessons from the Theory of the Firm”. In: *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, No. 1345. pp. 1- 42.

<sup>4</sup> Vitallis Chikoko (2009). “Educational Decentralization in Zimbabwe and Malawi: A Study of Decisional Location and Process”. In: *International Journal of Educational Development*. No. 29, pp. 201-211

<sup>5</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997). “Achieving Balance in Decentralization: A Case Study of Education Decentralization in Chile”. In: *World Development*. Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 211-225.

<sup>6</sup> Love Edquist (June 2005). *Decentralization of Educational Management in Vietnam*. Master Thesis in Political Science. Jönköping International Business School.

**2 Administrative decentralization:** or sometimes called “decentralization of human resources”, which is the transfer of some of the administrative authorities and responsibilities such as selection and recruitment, performance evaluation, teacher development to the local levels (El Baradei, 2005)<sup>1</sup>. And it may take one of three main forms:

- *De-concentration:* where the ministry of education transfers some of the authorities to the local levels of the ministry (educational directorates or administrates), yet, the latter resort to the ministry in every decision. This case is the most famous and widely applied form of administrative decentralization of education.
- *Delegation:* here some of the authorities are transferred to semi-independent organizations, public enterprises or NGOs. However, these organizations still receive public funding from the ministry and are responsible for it.
- *Devolution:* here the local governments are given the legal power to provide education. Hence, they get a high degree of discretion and autonomy. However, three conditions are essential for the success of devolution. These are: 1- the local governments have a separate legal status from the central government, 2- have the needed financial resources, 3- and have the necessary capacities to perform the new tasks (Abd El Wahab, 2006).

In any case, a system of accountability to the central government; i.e. the ministry of education, is essential for the success of administrative decentralization. The experts need to have the capacities for carrying out the new tasks. Therefore, training is very important (Huber, 2007)<sup>2</sup>.

**3 Financial decentralization:** or called sometimes “decentralization of financial resources management in education”, often means that aside from having the schools being able to freely manage their own (public) budget, they are able to use other means such as loans and donations for fundraising. Moreover, the community may contribute to education with other things, such as building schools, supplying food and nutrition in schools, organizing rallies and ceremonies to raise funds...etc. On the other hand, vouchers can be considered as one kind of decentralization of financial resources management, when they are

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<sup>1</sup> Laila El Baradei (February 2005). “Decentralization of Pre-University Education in Egypt”. In: *Program of Decentralization and Local Government Issues*. Samir Abd El Wahab (Ed). Public Administration Research and Consultation Center. pp. 13-44 (Original in Arabic).

<sup>2</sup> Stephan Gerhard Huber (2007). *Führung und Management einer Selbstständigen Schule*. [www.bildung-mv.de/export/sites/lisa/de/schule/selbst\\_schule/s\\_fobi/161107\\_b1\\_huber\\_kurz.pdf](http://www.bildung-mv.de/export/sites/lisa/de/schule/selbst_schule/s_fobi/161107_b1_huber_kurz.pdf). 19/12/2008.

granted to pay school fees, food, textbooks, and health care (Dubs, 1994<sup>1</sup> & Bellenberg et al., 2001<sup>2</sup>).

Usually governments resort to financial decentralization in education in order to reduce governmental spending on education, especially since education in most of the countries – if not all - is the main item or priority in the national budget that receives the biggest share of national spending (Galiani et al., 2008).<sup>3</sup>

Nevertheless, education decentralization may entail dangers, such as dominance of the central government on education and the local educational authorities, especially when capacities of school leadership and teachers prove to be weak, Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) are inefficient, and civil society organizations and public supervision are weak. Hence, training the local officials, school leadership, and teachers on the new responsibilities is important. Moreover, if decentralization was implemented to achieve political aims merely, without convincing the stakeholders of its importance and empowering the local educational units, then attempts to implement decentralization would fail and could show disadvantages (Mc Ginn & Street, 1986,<sup>4</sup> Caldwell, 2005,<sup>5</sup> & Wössmann, 2007<sup>6</sup>).

Therefore, the success of education decentralization does not depend merely on the amount of authorities that is being transferred to the local educational authorities, but also, on the capacities of local administrative units and their ability to use the transferred responsibilities and resources efficiently (Weiler, 1990).<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Rolf Dubs (2002). „Finanzautonomie, Globalhaushalt und Globalbudget an Schulen: Ziele, Probleme und Erfolgsvoraussetzungen“. In: *Effektive Schulführung: Chancen und Risiken des Public Managements im Bildungswesen*. Norbert Thom, Adrian Ritz & Reto Steiner (Hrsg.). Bern: Verlag Paul Haupt, pp. 37- 64.

<sup>2</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001). *Stärkung der Einzelschule: Neue Ansätze der Ressourcen Geld, Zeit und Personal*. Neuwied; Kriftel: Luchterhand.

<sup>3</sup> Sebastian Galiani, Paul Gertler & Ernesto Schargrdsky (2008). “School Decentralization: Helping the good get better, but leaving the poor behind”. In: *Journal of Public Economics*. No. 92, pp. 2106-2120.

<sup>4</sup> Noel Mc Ginn & Susan Street (1986). Educational Decentralization: Weak State or Strong State?, In: *Comparative Education Review*, Vol. 30, No. 4, pp. 471- 490.

<sup>5</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2005). *School-Based Management*. UNESCO. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001410/141025e.pdf>, 28/08/2009.

<sup>6</sup> Ludger Wössmann (2007). *Letzte Chance für gute Schulen*. Germany: Zabert Sandmann.

<sup>7</sup> Hans N. Weiler (1990). “Comparative Perspectives on Educational Decentralization: An Exercise in Contradiction?”. In: *Education Evaluation and Policy Analysis*. Vol. 12, No. 4, winter. pp. 433 - 448.

This study benefits from the aforementioned researches of the first category in identifying the main advantages and disadvantages of education decentralization, highlighting the mutual relationship between the central government (i.e. ministry of education), the local educational authorities, and the schools, demonstrating the various consequences of education decentralization on the role of school leadership and the prerequisites for the efficient implementation of education decentralization.

The second category illustrates the different actors involved in education whether in Germany or in Egypt. The first sub-category discusses the different actors involved in education in Germany. There are different layers and actors (the federal level, the Länder level, the local educational units, the parents, local community...etc) influencing the educational system in Germany, especially the schools. The educational reforms in 2006 have reorganized the authorities of the states (Länder) and made the federal government give up control over education finance and formation as it had been doing since 1969. Therefore, the Kultusministerkonferenz (KMK), which gathers all the state ministries, became merely an advisory body aiming at achieving harmony among the different states (Länder).

The Länder through their ministries (KMs) and local educational authorities (Landesschulbehörden) control the salaries and the recruitment policies, the educational process and working -days and -hours, teaching plans, the training programs, the recognition of textbooks, and the of legal professional inspection. The school patrons (Schulträger) control school buildings and equipments, wages of the non-teaching staff, and long-term investments (Bellenberg et al., 2001).<sup>1</sup>

The schools implement the various educational plans. And in the attempt of increasing the school autonomy, the reforms of 2006 have empowered the schools to: select their textbooks and teaching materials, organize the teaching process and the day-to-day activities, participate in personnel selection, accept donations and sponsoring, save for the future investments, involve the parents, pupils and school conferences in the decision-making process, and conduct self-evaluation. Whereas, the role of the Länder has changed to provide advice and

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<sup>1</sup> Bellenberg et al. (2001), op. cit.

support, set standards, and write reports about school performance (Rürup, 2007).<sup>1</sup>

The relationships among these layers and actors are dynamic and range from antagonism to cooperation. Thus, the schools suffer from various problems emanating from the different levels, such as: the bureaucratic control coming from the Länder that focus on the inputs more than the outputs, the absence of official obligation imposed on schools to follow education quality or organizational development mechanisms, and the teaching staff that work with the single warrior mentality. Therefore, a decentralized school system and governance with strong school leadership, teachers cooperating together and the school cooperating with external actors, an increased role for the parents and civil society actors, Länder focusing merely on education standards, school autonomy, cooperation and coordination between the schools and the Länder, changed organizational structure that emphasizes accountability, clear objectives, and schools gaining feedback from school inspections is advocated (Kussau & Brüsemeister, 2007).<sup>2</sup>

As for the school leadership, the principals in Germany are responsible for administering and supervising the school, preparing school statistics, observing and evaluating the teachers, as well as implementing the rules and policies coming from the KM (Ashwill, 1999).<sup>3</sup> Thus, they are often considered the sole responsible persons for the actions and activities within the schools. Yet, many lack the necessary competencies especially the financial competencies to run the school effectively (Wirris, 2002).<sup>4</sup> Therefore, it is strongly recommended that principals receive training on planning, budgeting, human resources development, and project management, while the teachers receive training on communication, teamwork, accepting new responsibilities, resources management, basic

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<sup>1</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007). *Innovationswege im deutschen Bildungssystem: Die Verbreitung der Idee "Schulautonomie" im Ländervergleich*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.

<sup>2</sup> Jürgen Kussau & Thomas Brüsemeister (2007). *Governance, Schule und Politik: Zwischen Antagonismus und Kooperation*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.

<sup>3</sup> Mark A. Ashwill (1999). "The Development and Implementation of Education Standards in Germany". In: *The Educational System in Germany: Case Study Findings*. USA: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, pp. 19-79. [www.ed.gov/pubs/GermanCaseStudy/chapter2.html](http://www.ed.gov/pubs/GermanCaseStudy/chapter2.html). 14/11/2008.

<sup>4</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002). *Die gute Staatschule: Problemanalyse und odernisierungskonzeption aus schulpädagogischer und organisationstheoretischer Sicht*. Herbolzheim: Centaurus-Verlag.

business skills, transformation management, problem solving, cultural transformation and initiating external relations (Daschner et al., 1995<sup>1</sup> & OECD, 2001)<sup>2</sup>.

The teachers in Germany implement the various plans and the decision taken in the school, and coordinate their efforts within the school to improve teaching and pupil achievement. They are subject to school inspection but the reports have no influence on their compensation. Most of them work with the single warrior mentality and refuse to be overloaded with new responsibilities. Hence, they are encouraged to work in teams and jointly represent the school. The school leadership is supposed also to support a collaborative work culture that encourages teamwork and cooperation, create an environment in which student learning becomes the focal point, promote organizational learning, and stress upon norms of collegiality, trust, collective responsibility, common purpose, and shared goals (Fend, 2008).<sup>3</sup>

The second sub-category regards the different actors involved in Education in Egypt. Even though the Egyptian educational system has witnessed major reforms since 1991/1992 and that these have had their main advantages and disadvantages (Al Taweela, 2004)<sup>4</sup>, the EMOE is the authority that controls the educational system and sets policies, rules and regulations, as well as controls human and financial resources, making the Egyptian education system thereby centralized (Emira, 2010).<sup>5</sup> This centralistic feature is not dominant only on the macro level, but it is also existent at the meso-level (school-level), where in many cases the organizational culture of the school is marked by a strong tendency towards vesting power in the hands of the principal. Hence, the more the organizational culture encourages cooperation, exchange of experiences, participation and involvement of teachers in decision-making process, collective responsibility, and decentralized authority, the more trust is built between school leadership and teachers and the more it positively affects school performance, and vice-versa (Ashmawy, 2006). Furthermore, recommendations to transfer the authority of teacher selection, training, fundraising, textbook selection to the

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<sup>1</sup> Peter Daschner, Hans Günter Rolff & Tom Stryck (1995). *Schulautonomie- Chancen und Grenzen: Impulse für die Schulentwicklung*. Weinheim und München: Juventa Verlag.

<sup>2</sup> OECD (2001). *New School Management Approaches*. OECD: Centre for Educational Research and Innovation.

<sup>3</sup> Helmut Fend (2008). *Schule Gestalten: Systemsteuerung, Schulentwicklung und Unterrichtsqualität*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.

<sup>4</sup> Sahar Al Taweela (2004), op. cit.

<sup>5</sup> Mahmoud Emira (2010). "Leading to Decide or Deciding to Lead? Understanding the Relationship between Teacher Leadership and Decision Making". In: *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*. Vol. 38, No. 5, pp. 591-612.

schools as well as incremental implementation of education decentralization have flourished (El Baradei, 2005).<sup>1</sup>

As for school leadership, there are three different types of school leadership adopted in Egypt, which are the autocratic, democratic, and the lenient types. Each has its own advantages and disadvantages, and various norms and values that drive it and affect the decision-making process and the relationship between the school leadership and the teachers. Although the democratic type may be the most favorite type, since it disseminates authority and involves the teachers in the decision-making process, yet no type can be favored over the other; rather, the suitable type is left to the situation itself (Ettewey, 2001).

Nevertheless, the schools have little interaction with the external actors. An example thereof is the obstacles hindering the relationship between the school and the parents. Some of these obstacles may arise from the parents themselves, who do not have the sufficient time to attend the PTAs and discuss the various issues, or believe that they do not have an influential role in school and that the latter is responsible for school management, or have a low social and cultural standard that makes them refrain from participating. Other obstacles may stem from the school itself that may not choose the best time to convene the PTAs, or does not convene them at all in order not to be subjected to criticisms coming from the parents. (Abd El Samad, 1983).

Hence, the study benefits from the researches of the second category when demonstrating the role of the school leadership under education decentralization and the nature of the relationship between the school leadership and the other actors. These studies will benefit the researcher also when addressing the required changes in the role of the principals in Egypt in order to apply education decentralization effectively.

Finally, the third category discusses leadership. The first sub-category demonstrates the various approaches of leadership. Accordingly leadership can be defined as the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how. In short, it is the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2006).<sup>2</sup>

Leadership research went through four main phases reflecting the approaches of leadership. The first approach is the trait approach that used to focus on the personal characteristics of the leader. Traits like openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism were considered distinct

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<sup>1</sup> Laila El Baradei (2005), op. cit.

<sup>2</sup> G. Yukl (2006). *Leadership in Organizations*. 6<sup>th</sup> edition, Upper Saddle River.

leadership traits (Judge& Long, 2012).<sup>1</sup> However, more and more traits were stressed on, making all of them lose their credibility. Therefore, the focus shifted to what the leader actually does, moving thereby to the behavioral approach. However, since the behavior could change based on the context, the situational/contingent approach emerged. Nevertheless, this approach fails to answer questions regarding how to master various leadership models while remaining consistent, how to respond to multiple, complex and poorly defined tasks, how to determine the needs of the followers, and how to react when a leadership model is not suitable to the needs of the followers or the situation as well as if changing the leader is not an option (Bolden et al., 2011).<sup>2</sup> Finally, the reciprocal approach emphasizes the mutual relationship between the leader and the followers on one side and the emotions involved in this relationship on the other (Brown, 2012).<sup>3</sup>

Because of this approach, the focus on the leader began to shift towards developing leadership capacities, i.e. from the leader to the leadership; that became a shared social process to which many people contribute (Harris, 2004).<sup>4</sup>

The second sub-category demonstrates the various models of leadership. One of these models is known as instructional leadership. It is the principal's role in providing direction, resources, and support to teachers and students for improving teaching and learning in school (Wright, 1991).<sup>5</sup> Based on that, the principal would supervise classroom instruction, coordinate school curricula, and monitor pupil progress. In this way, a hierarchical orientation can be witnessed within the schools (Marks& Printy, 2003).<sup>6</sup> A recent development in the literature concerning instructional leadership emerged. It is "shared instructional

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<sup>1</sup> Timothy A. Judge& David M. Long (2012). "Individual Differences in Leadership". In: *The Nature of Leadership*. David V. Day& John Antonakis (Eds.). 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc., pp. 179-217.

<sup>2</sup> Richard Bolden, Beverly Hawkins, Jonathan Gosling& Scott Taylor (2011). *Exploring Leadership: Individual, Organizational and Social Perspectives*. New York: Oxford University Press.

<sup>3</sup> Douglas J. Brown (2012). "In the Minds of Followers: Follower-Centric Approaches to Leadership". In: *The Nature of Leadership*. David V. Day& John Antonakis (Eds.). 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc., pp. 331-362.

<sup>4</sup> Alma Harris (2004). "Distributed Leadership and School Improvement: Leading or Misleading?". In: *Educational Management Administration& Leadership*, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp. 11-24.

<sup>5</sup> Lance. V. Wright (Spring 1991). "Instructional Leadership: Looking through Schoolhouse Windows". In: *Theory into Practice*. Vol. XXX, No. 2, pp. 113-119.

<sup>6</sup> Helen M. Marks& Susan M. Printy (August 2003). "Principal Leadership and School Performance: An Integration of Transformational and Instructional Leadership". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 39, No. 3, pp. 370-397.



leadership”. Here the leadership involves the teachers evaluation and development, and seeks out the ideas, expertise, and insights of the teachers in these areas.<sup>1</sup>

The second model of leadership is the charismatic leadership. A charismatic leader is the one who can bring about social change. He is a risk-taker, sets high goals, makes sacrifices for the greater good, and knows how to communicate. He uses positive and negative emotions, non-verbal strategies such as voice and body gestures. He masters rhetoric and story-telling (Friedman, 2004).<sup>2</sup>

Another leadership model that brings about social change is transformational leadership. It uses exceptional forms of influence with or through the teachers rather than exercises control over them. It depends on emotions, values, ethics, and includes assessing the followers’ motives, satisfying their needs and treating them as full human beings (Bass, 2000).<sup>3</sup> Transformational leadership is distinct from instructional leadership in that it builds organizational capacity, whereas instructional leadership builds individual and collective competencies.<sup>4</sup>

Transactional leadership is a leadership model that is related to the leader-followers interaction. Here the relationship between the leader and the followers is based on the exchange of valued items, whether economic, political or emotional. Therefore, it does not individualize the needs of the followers nor focuses on their personal development as transformational leadership does. It focuses on the promotion of self-interests and the exchange dimension (Krüger, 2006).<sup>5</sup>

Collaborative models of leadership include distributed and participatory leadership. Distributed leadership concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the school without resorting to formal position or role, i.e. through teams. In contrast to the traditional notion of leadership that depends on

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<sup>1</sup> Ulrich C. Reitzug, Deborah L. West& Roma Angel (September 2008). “Conceptualizing Instructional Leadership: The Voice of the Principals”. In: *Education and Urban Society*, Vol. 40, No. 6, pp. 694-714.

<sup>2</sup> Audrey A. Friedman (July-September 2004). “Beyond mediocrity: transformational leadership within a transformational framework”. In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 203-224.

<sup>3</sup> Bernard M. Bass (2000). “The Future of Leadership in Learning Organizations”. In: *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 18- 40.

<sup>4</sup> Helen M. Marks& Susan M. Printy (August 2003). “Principal Leadership and School Performance: An Integration of Transformational and Instructional Leadership”. In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 39, No. 3, pp. 370-397.

<sup>5</sup> Wilfried Krüger (2006). “Führungsstile für erfolgreichen Wandel”. In: *Leadership – Best Practices und Trends*. Heike Bruch, Stefan Krummacker& Bernd Vogel (Eds.), pp. 107-122, p. 109.

the hierarchical structures, distributive leadership is characterized by a form of collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working together (Woods, 2004).<sup>1</sup>

Participatory leadership is joint decision-making or at least shared influence in decision-making process exerted by the superior and his or her subordinates. It encourages the followers to participate in decision-making or make their own leader-free decisions (Somech, 2005).<sup>2</sup> Thus, the distinction between the leader and the followers becomes blurred (Bass, 2000),<sup>3</sup> and the principal perceives the teachers as equal partners and acknowledges their professionalism, knowledge and skills (Marks& Printy, 2003).<sup>4</sup>

Entrepreneurial leadership focuses on certain personality characteristics, such as leading initiatives, taking risks, behaving autonomously, exploiting business opportunities, and combating fierce challenge and competition. An entrepreneurial leader is independent, tolerant vis-à-vis uncertainty, convincing, creative, and has self-control (Pechlaner& Hammann, 2008).<sup>5</sup> Therefore, he is able to discover new relations and combinations between distinct items, encourage an atmosphere that accepts new ideas (Bremer, 2009),<sup>6</sup> and develop links to community resources, both private and public (Sperandio, 2005).<sup>7</sup>

Seitz& Capaul (2005) highlight that in the 1980s the emphasis of school leadership was on instructional leadership with its focus on the schedule, curricula, and the educational process. Starting with 1990s, the emphasis shifted towards more collaborative models of leadership with their focus on involvement of school members in the decision-making process, team-oriented direction, and innovation.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Philip A. Woods (January-March 2004). "Democratic Leadership: Drawing Distinctions with Distributed Leadership". In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 3-26, p. 6.

<sup>2</sup> Anit Somech (December 2005), op. cit.

<sup>3</sup> Bernard M. Bass (2000), op. cit.

<sup>4</sup> Helen M. Marks& Susan M. Printy (August 2003), op. cit.

<sup>5</sup> Harald Pechlaner& Eva-Maria Hammann (2008). *Management, Entrepreneurship& Leadership- Versuch einer Abgrenzung bei Beherbergungsbetrieben*. [www.springerlink.com/content/g3n7431881381037.pdf](http://www.springerlink.com/content/g3n7431881381037.pdf), 25/2/2010, pp. 99-100.

<sup>6</sup> Ingmar Bremer (2009). "Common Factors between Swedish and Chinese Entrepreneurial Leadership Styles". In: *Business Intelligence Journal*. Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 9-41.

<sup>7</sup> Jill Sperandio (2005). "Social Entrepreneurs and Educational Leadership in Bangladesh". In: *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, Teachers College, Columbia University, December 1, pp. 18-29.

<sup>8</sup> Hans Seitz& Roman Capaul (2005). *Schulführung und Schulentwicklung. Theoretische Grundlagen und Empfehlungen für die Praxis*. 2 edition. Bern: Hapt Verlag.

This study benefits from the researches of the third category when presenting the various leadership approaches and models and when investigating which leadership model is adopted when different types of education decentralization are implemented in the vocational schools.

### **The scientific and practical importance of this study**

This study has scientific and practical importance, as follows:

#### ***Scientific importance***

- This study explores the German and Egyptian initiatives towards implementing education decentralization in their vocational schools.
- It presents the roles of the different actors involved, with special emphasis on the role of the principals.
- It studies the effect of education decentralization on school leadership by focusing on how the role of the principals has changed, given the new authorities that they have acquired.
- Finally, it seeks to develop a model for education decentralization that benefits from the advantages that occurred in the German vocational schools and that can be applicable in the Egyptian context.

#### ***Practical importance***

- This study demonstrates the different procedures that have been taken when implementing education decentralization in the German and Egyptian vocational schools.
- It indicates the changes that have occurred in the relationship between the different actors and how the principals may maintain or enhance them.
- It seeks to determine the necessary procedures that should be taken in order to effectively apply education decentralization such as improving the training programs given to teachers and principals, simplifying the rules and accountability procedures, gaining support from the local educational levels...etc.

### **The research goals of this study**

- This study explores education decentralization, its advantages and disadvantages, various forms, and aspects, such as involving the stakeholders in the decision-making process, teacher selection, evaluation, training, fundraising ...etc., and how it can be applied.
- It attempts to highlight how decentralization of decision-making affects the role of the school leadership in vocational schools. Therefore, it also explains how the different stakeholders, like parents, pupils, enterprises, NGOs...etc are involved in the decision-making process and planning.

- It investigates how administrative decentralization affects the role of the school leadership in vocational schools. Hence, it studies the role of the principal, teachers and teams in teacher selection, performance evaluation, training...etc.
- It targets to study how financial decentralization affects the role of the school leadership in vocational schools. Thus, it investigates the new financial authorities that are given to school leadership in terms of expenditure and fundraising.
- This study aims also at identifying the different prerequisites that the Egyptian vocational education system needs to implement to successfully achieve education decentralization with regard to the German experience.
- Finally, this study seeks to conclude a model based on the German experience in education decentralization in its vocational schools that can be applicable to the Egyptian context.

### **The research's minor questions, approach, and outline**

In addressing the major question of how education decentralization affects the role of school leadership in the German and Egyptian vocational schools, the study attempts to answer three minor questions. These are:

- 1- To which extent does decentralization of decision-making encourage the adoption of participatory leadership with its emphasis on involving the stakeholders in the school-life and decision-making process?
- 2- To which extent does administrative decentralization encourage the adoption of instructional leadership with its emphasis on conducting the educational process in a way to improve educational quality and student achievement?
- 3- To which extent does financial decentralization encourage the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership with its focus on looking for new opportunities and risk-taking?

### ***Research approach***

Aiming at understanding how education decentralization affects the role of the school leadership and not just describing whether education decentralization is implemented, is the reason why qualitative analysis is seen as the most appropriate one to this study in order to consider the opinions and interpretations of the principals as encouraged by Lamnek (1993)<sup>1</sup> and Patton (2002)<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> Bruce L. Berg (2009). *Qualitative Research Methods: For the Social Sciences*. Boston: Allyn& Bacon, p. 8.

The time span of the study is from 1990 until 2011, which is the time interval that includes the most recent attempts to implement education reforms and decentralization in both Germany and Egypt.

Literature review will be used, especially in defining decentralization in general and education decentralization in particular, in clarifying its different forms and aspects that it might involve, and in studying both the German and the Egyptian education systems.

Moreover, the study adopts the case study approach as explained by Vanderstoep & Johnston (2009)<sup>2</sup> when highlighting on how education decentralization is experienced in Germany and Egypt.

The unit of analysis is the principals in the German and Egyptian vocational schools. Structured interviews are conducted with 30 principals (15 principals in Bremen and Lower Saxony and 15 principals in Cairo and Giza) as the primary source of information to achieve triangulation of data sources as encouraged by Flick et al. (2004)<sup>3</sup> or the “within-method” triangulation as mentioned by Lamnek (1993).<sup>4</sup> This multiplicity of interviews allows also examining the differences in the results and opinions that emerge from different circumstances/situations.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, to achieve a kind of feedback, interviews are also held with five experts in the field of education decentralization (three in Germany and two in Egypt).

The interviews cover open-ended questions related to the initiatives of school autonomy and education decentralization, the divergent financial roles performed by the school leadership (to represent financial decentralization), the administrative roles performed by the school leadership (to represent administrative decentralization), the involvement of the stakeholders in the decision-making process and the extent to which these stakeholders are active (to represent decentralization of decision-making), and whether or not they demand further empowerment and changes towards more autonomy. The responses are then

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<sup>1</sup> Michael Quinn Patton (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. 3rd edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, p. 33.

<sup>2</sup> Scott W. Vanderstoep & Deidre D. Johnston (2009). *Research Methods for Everyday Life: Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons, Inc, pp. 209-210.

<sup>3</sup> Uwe Flick, Ernst von Kardorff & Ines Steinke (2004). *A Companion to Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications, pp. 178- 183.

<sup>4</sup> Siegfried Lamnek (1993). *Qualitative Sozialforschung: Band 1 Methodologie*. 2nd edition. Weinheim: Psychologie-Verl.-Union, p. 249.

<sup>5</sup> Alan Bryan (2006). “Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Research: How is it Done?”. In: *Qualitative Research*, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 97-113, p. 106.

transcribed using standard orthography, since the study does not require the emphasis on spoken language and sounds. Thereafter, the relative responses are subject to the (formal) structuring content analysis as discussed by Mayring (Mayring, 1993)<sup>1</sup>, where they are coded into main categories relatively to the research questions that represent the types of education decentralization and into sub-categories that fall under the relevant main categories, using the thematic criterion in this coding. Thereafter, the data, put in the various categories, is investigated to check whether they comply or divert from the categories. If certain data could not fall under one sub-category, then (a) new sub-category(ies) shall be made for them to represent an addition to the theoretical part. Yet, the study does not stop at that point. A matrix as demonstrated by Tesch (1990)<sup>2</sup> presenting the connections between the categories of education decentralization and those of school leadership is developed in order to investigate which leadership model is associated with which type of education decentralization. Hence, the approach of analytical induction is used in determining the aspects of education decentralization and school leadership model existent in the studied vocational schools as well as in testing the hypotheses.<sup>3</sup>

Finally, the comparison of cases as illuminated by Flick (2007) is used.<sup>4</sup> The obtained data from the interviews in the German vocational schools are compared with the gathered in the Egyptian vocational schools to anticipate the necessary changes that shall be imposed on the schools along with the roles of the Egyptian school leadership, presenting thereby, the model that the study is working on to conclude and that shall be applicable in the Egyptian context while benefiting from the German experience.

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<sup>1</sup> Philipp Mayring (2010). *Qualitative Inhaltsanalyse: Grundlagen und Techniken*. Weinheim: Beltz Verlag, p. 66.

<sup>2</sup> Renate Tesch (1990). *Qualitative Research: Analysis Types and Software Tools*. New York: The Falmer Press, p. 124.

<sup>3</sup> Liz Spencer, Jane Ritchie & William O' Connor (2003). "Analysis: Practices, Principals and Processes". In: *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. Jane Ritchie & Jane Lewis (Eds.) London: Sage Publications Ltd, pp. 199-218, p. 200.

<sup>4</sup> Uwe Flick (2007), op. cit, p. 41.

## ***Research outline***

The study outline is as follows:

### **Introduction.**

### **Chapter One: Education Decentralization and School Leadership**

1.1 Part One: Education decentralization: Definition, Types and Aspects

1.2 Part Two: School Leadership

### **Chapter Two: Local Government and the History of Educational Administration in Germany and Egypt**

2.1 Local government and educational administration in Germany

2.2 Local government and educational administration in Egypt

### **Chapter Three: Methodology**

### **Chapter Four: The Effect of Decentralization of Decision-Making on School Leadership in Germany and Egypt**

4.1 The Effect of Decentralization of Decision-Making on School Leadership

4.2 The Effects of Decentralization of Decision-Making in Germany on School Leadership

4.3 The Effects of Decentralization of Decision-Making in Egypt on School Leadership

4.4 Discussion

### **Chapter Five: The Effect of Administrative Decentralization on School Leadership**

5.1 The Effect of Administrative Decentralization on School Leadership

5.2 The Effects of Administrative Decentralization in Germany on School Leadership

5.3 The Effects of Administrative Decentralization in Egypt on School Leadership

5.4 Discussion

### **Chapter Six: The Effect of Financial Decentralization on School Leadership**

6.1 The Effect of Financial Decentralization on School Leadership

6.2 The Effects of Financial Decentralization in Germany on School leadership

6.3 The Effects of Financial Decentralization in Egypt on School Leadership

6.4 Discussion

### **Chapter Seven: Conclusion, Study Limitations and Recommendations**





## **Chapter One**

### **Education Decentralization and School Leadership**

Education has the highest priority in most - if not all the - countries all over the world. Countries consider education as the main gate to achieve economic development, wealth, and a high international status. They devote a lot of effort and resources to improve their educational system continuously and may introduce many reforms in order to adapt to the recent developments.

New Public Management (NPM) is one of the reforms that is being advocated with the aim of reducing government spending, introducing new managerial methods, focusing on outputs rather than input, becoming market- and client- oriented, encouraging entrepreneurship, and transferring decision-making to service-delivery units. Decentralization, as one facet of NPM, is perceived in turn as a promising solution for the various political, administrative, and financial problems that a country, system or sector may face.<sup>1</sup>

When decentralization is applied in education, changes are introduced on the role of the local units and the schools, leading thereby to a further change on the role of the school leadership.

This chapter is divided into two parts. Part one provides a theoretical framework about decentralization. In which the definition, the different types, advantages as well as the possible disadvantages of (education) decentralization, and the prerequisites for its successful implementation of decentralization are discussed. Part two discusses the definition of leadership in general and the school leadership in particular as well as highlights the different leadership types that may be adopted in the school.

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<sup>1</sup> Franziska Vogt (2004). „Politisches System und New Public Management in Primarschulen im internationalen Vergleich“. In: *Schweizerische Zeitschrift für Bildungswissenschaften*. Vol. 26, No. 1, pp. 69-83, p. 70.

## **Part One**

### **Education Decentralization: Definitions, Types and Reasons**

Decentralization as a concept is not a new one. Burchardt (2001) claims that it can be traced back to the 1950s, when it was conceived as a solution to the problem of oligarchic power structures that emerged in many newly independent states. However, at that time decentralization could not achieve its promised goals and even perpetuated the problem in some instances further.

In the 1970s, the term was revived again with the decline of the authoritarian states and the escalation of the financial debt crisis in many countries. It was believed that through decentralization decisions would be faster and closer to the citizens, responding thereby better to the demands and needs of the public.<sup>1</sup>

In the 1980s and later the end of the cold war with the fall of the centralistic policies, many international financial organizations began to believe that only the liberal or social liberal societies can create wealth. Therefore, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and the United Nation Development Program recommended the developing countries to follow decentralization as a way to achieve governance and overcome their financial crises.<sup>2</sup>

#### **1 Definitions and types of decentralization**

Decentralization has various definitions and types based upon the classifications that consider it.

##### **1.1 Definitions of decentralization**

There is no single agreed upon definition for decentralization. Rondinelli (1980) defines decentralization as the transfer or delegation of legal, political, and financial authority to plan, make decisions and manage public functions from the central government to subordinate units of government, semi-independent public corporations, autonomous local governments, and non-governmental organizations.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Hans-Jürgen Burchardt (2001). *Dezentralisierung und local governance. Empirische Befunde und neue theoretische Anforderungen*. [www.gps.uni-hannover.de/ish/Dateien/staff/HB/texte/dezentra.pdf](http://www.gps.uni-hannover.de/ish/Dateien/staff/HB/texte/dezentra.pdf). 31/12/2008, p. 2.

<sup>2</sup> Love Edquist (June 2005). *Decentralization of Educational Management in Vietnam*. Master Thesis in Political Science. Jönköping International Business School, p. 6.

<sup>3</sup> Dennis A. Rondinelli (1980). "Government Decentralization in Comparative Perspective: Theory and Practice in Developing Countries". In: *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, No. 47, pp. 133-146, p. 137.

The World Bank defines decentralization in the public sector as the transfer of authority and responsibility for public functions from the central government to subordinated, quasi-independent government organizations or the private sector.<sup>1</sup>

The German federal ministry for economic cooperation and development defines decentralization as the transfer of duties, competencies, resources and political decision-making authorities to the middle (provinces, districts, regions) as well as the lower levels (cities, communities, villages).<sup>2</sup>

In addition, Abd El Wahab (2006) presents a more general definition for decentralization. He defines it as the transfer of a large proportion of authorities and responsibilities from the national level or the central government to the subordinate, semi-public organizations or the private sector.<sup>3</sup>

Thus, from the above-mentioned definitions, one can conclude two main classifications for decentralization based either on the kind of authorities that are being transferred or on whether this transfer of authorities is mainly spatial or functional.

## **1.2 Classifications defining types of decentralization**

Two main classifications for decentralization are widely used. The first is based on the kind of authorities that are transferred classifying thereby decentralization into three main types; political decentralization, administrative decentralization, and financial decentralization. The second classification is based on whether the transfer of authority was mainly functional or spatial.<sup>4</sup>

### **Classification based on the types of authorities that are transferred**

Rondinelli (1980), Edquist (2005), Abd El Wahab (2006) and Amin (2006) classify decentralization into three main types:

***Political decentralization***: is the transfer of decision-making authority to the local units. It usually necessitates a change in laws and creation of elected local bodies.<sup>5</sup> Furthermore, moving decision making closer to the service-delivery

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<sup>1</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, p.8.

<sup>2</sup> Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und Entwicklung (2002). *Dezentralisierung und lokale Selbstverwaltung: Dezentralisierung in der deutschen Entwicklungszusammenarbeit*. Deutschland: Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und Entwicklung. p. 4.

<sup>3</sup> Samir Abd El Wahab (2006). *Local Government and the Modern Trends with Egypt as a Case Study*. Cairo: Public Administration Research and Consultation Center (Original in Arabic), p. 15.

<sup>4</sup> This study however, will depend on the first classification.

<sup>5</sup> Khaled Zakareya Amin (January 2006). "Financial Decentralization as a Way for Development in Egypt". In: *Al Nahdah*. Vol. 7, No. 1. pp. 31-65, p. 32. (Original in Arabic).

units paves the way to promote civil society, local participation and pluralistic democracy.<sup>1</sup>

**Administrative decentralization:** is the transfer of administrative authorities and responsibilities to the lower local levels of government. The driving idea behind it is that lower local levels of government are more likely to have the needed information about the demands of the community, and by moving administrative authorities closer to the citizens, transparency and responsiveness can be achieved.<sup>2</sup>

Administrative decentralization is further classified into three main forms:

- *De-concentration:* when administrative authorities are transferred from the central government to the local levels of government in geographical areas that are closer to the citizens. This is considered as the lowest or weakest but the widely adopted form of decentralization since it is still the central government that is responsible for everything.
- *Delegation:* when some of the administrative authorities are transferred to semi- autonomous organizations that are most likely to have business-like structures. However, sovereign authority remains with the central government.
- *Devolution:* this is the most developed form of administrative decentralization. Here authority and responsibility are transferred from central government to lower levels of government that are independent or separate from the central government. Usually, these local bodies hold their status by law, which allows them to raise their own funds to be able to perform their authorities and responsibilities effectively. For devolution to be effective, Rondinelli (1980) emphasizes that the local governments should have the following characteristics: be given autonomy and be perceived as separate entities from the central government, have clear and legally recognized geographical boundaries, have the ability to raise sufficient funds to perform their functions, are perceived by the citizens as providing services and as governmental units over which the citizens can exert some influence, and finally, have reciprocal relationships with the central government. In fact, devolution does not mean the disappearance of the cen-

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<sup>1</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit. p. 9.

<sup>2</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997). "Achieving Balance in Decentralization: A Case Study of Education Decentralization in Chile". In: *World Development*. Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 211-225, p. 212.

tral government; rather the latter will keep supervisory powers.<sup>1</sup> However, devolution was conceived by many developing countries as a main threat to the central government since it increases the powers of the local bodies.<sup>2</sup> This is why it is not widely adopted.

**Financial decentralization:** involves the devolution of financial power and authority from the center to the local units.<sup>3</sup> It entails both expenditure decentralization and revenue decentralization. Expenditure decentralization is when local governments have expenditure discretion. Revenue decentralization is when local governments have the right to collect revenues through taxes or other revenue instruments.<sup>4</sup> Many believe that there can be no real transfer of authority and responsibility (of power) without financial decentralization. This is why local administrative bodies need to control revenues in order to be able to perform their responsibilities and functions effectively and independently. Otherwise, the central government will keep providing financial transfers, and the local government will be dependent on them. In fact, this is a problem that is facing many developing countries.<sup>5</sup>

#### **Classification based on functional or spatial transfer of authority**

Rondinelli (1980) introduces also a second classification, which classifies decentralization into functional and area or spatial decentralization.

**Functional decentralization:** is the transfer of certain tasks or activities to specialized organizations that work either nationally or across local jurisdictions.

**Area or spatial decentralization:** is the transfer of some of the tasks or activities to organizations within well-defined sub-national spatial or political boundaries.<sup>6</sup>

Generally, no country in the world adopts a single type of decentralization; rather, adopts a mixture or a combination of different types of decentralization that can be perceived on a continuum,<sup>7</sup> depending on the advantages that it seeks to achieve.

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<sup>1</sup> Dennis A. Rondinelli (1980), op. cit, p. 138.

<sup>2</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, p. 10.

<sup>3</sup> Sun Xiaoli (2007). "The Effects of Fiscal Decentralization on Compulsory Education in China: For Better or Worse". In: *JOAAG*, Vol. 2. No. 1, pp. 40-53, p. 41.

<sup>4</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997), op. cit, p. 212.

<sup>5</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, pp. 11-12.

<sup>6</sup> Dennis A. Rondinelli (1980), op. cit, p. 137.

<sup>7</sup> Robert K. Yin (1979). "Decentralization of Government Agencies: What Does it Accomplish?". In: *American Behavioral Scientist*, Vol. 22, No. 5, pp. 525-536, p. 527.

## 2 Reasons for adopting decentralization and prerequisites for its success

Decentralization may achieve various advantages if it is successfully applied.

### 2.1 Advantages and disadvantages of decentralization

There are many as reasons for why countries resort to decentralization. Some of these advantages are:

- Efficiency and effectiveness: as countries may face problems of inadequate funds and inferior quality of services, it is believed that by moving decision-making closer to the implementation areas the needs of the citizens will be known and met effectively,<sup>1</sup> and the scarce resources will be used efficiently.<sup>2</sup> Furthermore, it is believed that decentralization reduces red-tap and routines and maintains a structure that fosters cooperation among the different ministries, local leaders, and nongovernmental organizations, which in turn reduces time and costs of the administrative procedures while spreading the benefits of growths.<sup>3</sup> Decentralization relieves the top-management from routine tasks and allows it to concentrate more on the strategic tasks and penetrate in areas that have been traditionally remote from its control. Hence, flexibility, innovative and creative administration, and experimentation are encouraged, since even if experiments fail, the results will be limited to the local jurisdiction in which they are implemented.<sup>4</sup>
- Responsiveness and democracy: decentralization implies involving the citizens in decision-making processes. This in turn brings out the following better representation of local political, religious, ethnic and tribal units or groups,<sup>5</sup> institutionalization of citizens' participation in the decision-making processes and of exchange of information, integration of diverse regions and groups in heterogeneous countries, reduced hostility towards

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<sup>1</sup> Martin McLean & Jon Lauglo (1985). "Introduction: Rationales for Decentralization and a Perspective from Organization Theory". In: *The Control of Education: International Perspectives on the Centralization- Decentralization Debate*. Jon Lauglo & Martin McLean (Eds.). London: University of London, Heinemann Educational Books for the Institute of Education, pp.1-30, p.1.

<sup>2</sup> Rosetta F. Sandidge et. al (1996). "School- Based Decision Making, American Style: Perspectives and Practices throughout the United States". In: *Interchange*. Vol. 27, No. 3&4, pp. 313-329, p. 315.

<sup>3</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997), op. cit, p. 211.

<sup>4</sup> Dennis A. Rondinelli (1980), op. cit, pp. 135-136.

<sup>5</sup> El Sayed Abd El Mottelib Ghanem (2008). "The Policy of decentralization in Egypt". In: *Conference on Decentralization in Egypt: Opportunities and Challenges*. Cairo: June 25<sup>th</sup> - 26<sup>th</sup> (Original in Arabic), p. 11.

the central government, responsiveness to the ideological views about citizen rights and how they should be promoted,<sup>1</sup> and the ability of the divergent segments of population to obtain a larger share in the government services.<sup>2</sup>

However, decentralization may also cause some disadvantages. These may be 1- the unequal distribution of resources among the different regions based on their wealth and strength, financial inequalities, especially if the government does not take any actions to ensure the equality of local units to raise funds,<sup>3</sup> 2- the dependency of the local communities on the central financial transfers, especially if local revenues are limited, making them lose their autonomy, 3- the chance of certain groups, who are dominant and powerful, to control decision making, 4- the possibility that some groups may still be unrepresented, especially if certain local groups dominate the decision-making process,<sup>4</sup> 5- intensified differences among different ethnic or interest groups, especially if they are concentrated in separate regions,<sup>5</sup> and 6- the inability of local units to perform their tasks, especially if the transfer of authorities is mainly a rhetoric process, which may lead to “duplication of bureaucratization”.<sup>6</sup>

Yet, despite these disadvantages, many countries and international organizations perceive decentralization as a solution to many problems, provided that the countries guarantee certain prerequisites for the effective implementation of decentralization.

## **2.2 Prerequisites for successful decentralization**

Rondinelli (1980) and Edquist (2005) claim that for decentralization to be successful, some aspects may be required. Some of these are:

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<sup>1</sup> Martin McLean & Jon Lauglo (1985), op. cit, pp. 10-12.

<sup>2</sup> Dennis A. Rondinelli (1980), op. cit, p. 133.

<sup>3</sup> Mark Bray (1985). “Decentralization and Equality of Educational Opportunity in Papua New Guinea”. In: *The Control of Education: International Perspectives on the Centralization- Decentralization Debate*. Jon Lauglo & Martin McLean (Eds.). London: University of London, Heinemann Educational Books for the Institute of Education, pp. 142-158, pp. 157-158.

<sup>4</sup> Hans-Jürgen Burchardt (2001), op. cit, p. 8.

<sup>5</sup> Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und Entwicklung (2002). op.cit, p. 2.

<sup>6</sup> Wolfgang Böttcher (2007). „Zur Funktion staatlicher „Inputs“ in der dezentralisierten und outputorientierten Steuerung“. In: *Educational Governance: Handlungskoordination und Steuerung im Bildungssystem*. Herbert Altrichter, Thomas Brüsemeister & Jochen Wissinger (Hrsgs). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 185-206, p. 202.

- adequate revenues or funds raised by or transferred to the local governments and adequate infrastructure,
- dissemination of information especially about the needs and costs of service delivery so that resources can be allocated effectively,
- transparency in the governmental bodies and a system of accountability between politicians and the community,<sup>1</sup>
- active communication channels between national planners and local communities, in addition to citizen participation in development activities,
- a minimal level of trust and respect between the citizens and government,
- concise and clear laws and regulations as well as clear performance standards,
- supporting changes in the attitudes and behaviour of central and local government,
- strong administrative and technical capacities,
- appropriate allocation of planning and administrative functions with the suitable decision-making capabilities.<sup>2</sup>

Beside these aspects, two essential prerequisites are essential and have been widely stressed on. These are *political will* and *capacity building*.

***Political will*** is a crucial prerequisite. The central government must be willing to transfer some of its authorities, especially the authority of decision-making, to the local levels or other partners. This does not mean that the central government would give up its authorities; rather it presents a shift in its roles; i.e. from execution and provision (rowing) to regulation and coordination among the different actors (steering).<sup>3</sup>

On the other hand, ***capacities*** need to be built to allow the local governments to take on their responsibilities and allow the central government to perform its new controlling and regulating tasks. Therefore, capacities need to be built not only on the local levels but also on the central level. This can be done through training programs or hiring skilled workers. In training programs, there is a new approach for capacity building, which is called “learning through doing”, or what some may call “hands-on-training”. Here governments no longer have to wait until their employees acquire the new capacities through training programs and then apply decentralization; rather, the employees can acquire the new capacities while implementing decentralization simultaneously. Hiring

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<sup>1</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, p. 14.

<sup>2</sup> Dennis A. Rondinelli (1980), op. cit, pp. 142-143.

<sup>3</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997), op. cit, p.212.



skilled workers on the other hand, requires the local governments to control wages and salaries to attract the skilled workers. Otherwise, the central government will have to adopt hiring policies that would ensure the recruitment of skilled workers in the local governments.<sup>1</sup>

In that sense, it is important to know that decentralization has the following features:

- it is a long-term process that needs patience and entails opportunities as well as threats to society,
- it is a complex process that necessitates the cooperation of all government levels and organizations,
- it is not always initiated from the top; rather, it may follow a bottom-up approach. In that case the people are more likely to be committed to implement it and feel its legitimacy, and the government can easily handle the problems and risks of decentralization,
- it has no one best way for its implementation. The kind of the decisions that may be taken on the national level in one country may be taken on the local level in another country. Therefore, it is very difficult to assess which kind of decisions should be taken on the national levels or the local level.<sup>2</sup> Furthermore, the local units might not necessarily abide by a single policy. They may choose their own policies that best suit their needs and conditions.<sup>3</sup>

Nevertheless, it is worthy to realize that not all local officials are willing to acquire administrative responsibilities and prefer to perform merely their tasks, while leaving administrative matters to the higher levels.<sup>4</sup>

Moreover, one should not believe that in a centralized system everything is defined and decided by the center. On the contrary, interested actors may persuade and try to influence decision makers to take certain actions or decisions.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, pp. 15-17.

<sup>2</sup> Paul Hurst (1985). "Decentralization: Panacea or Red Herring?". In: *The Control of Education: International Perspectives on the Centralization- Decentralization Debate*. Jon Lauglo & Martin McLean (Eds.). London: University of London, Heinemann Educational Books for the Institute of Education, pp. 79-85, p. 81.

<sup>3</sup> Amal Kamel Andraus (2000). *The Educational Policies in Egypt between the Theory and the Improvement*. Master Thesis in Education. Cairo: Cairo University, Institute of Educational Studies and Research. (Original in Arabic), pp. 34-35.

<sup>4</sup> Paul Hurst (1985), op. cit, p. 82.

<sup>5</sup> Brian Holmes (1985). "Policy Formulation, Adoption and Implementation in Democratic Societies". In: *The Control of Education: International Perspectives on the Centralization- Decentralization Debate*. Jon Lauglo & Martin McLean (Eds.). London: Uni-

Finally, as much as there is a tendency towards decentralization, there is also a tendency towards centralization in accountability and quality assurance.<sup>1</sup>

### **3 Definitions and types of education decentralization**

As it is the case with decentralization in general, education decentralization has various definitions and types.

#### **3.1 Definitions of education decentralization**

Gershberg (1999) defines education decentralization as the transfer of some of the political, administrative, and/or financial authorities and responsibilities from the central government to the local governments, local units or the schools themselves.<sup>2</sup> Accordingly, the schools become the main vehicle for development and the school leadership plays a bigger role.<sup>3</sup>

Where in a centralized educational system, only one institution or ministry supervises education. That being the case, the state becomes the individual actor in: the preparation and accreditation of textbooks and curricula for all educational levels, fundraising, usage of suitable evaluation techniques, determination and control of examination deadlines, recruitment and training of teachers, and the preparation of the needed educational, managerial, technical and supervisory leadership. However, education centralization is generally preferred in newly established organizations or states in order to unify the managerial systems of the educational process and achieve equality of opportunity. Centralization helps adopting a unified policy in planning and implementation<sup>4</sup>

On the other hand, as in decentralization in general, education decentralization has various classifications.

#### **3.2 Types of education decentralization**

After reviewing literature on education decentralization, it was possible to discover again the two previously mentioned classifications of decentralization;

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versity of London, Heinemann Educational Books for the Institute of Education, pp. 65-78, p. 69.

<sup>1</sup> Stephan Gerhard Huber (2007). *Führung und Management einer Selbstständigen Schule*. [www.bildung-mv.de/export/sites/lisa/de/schule/selbst\\_schule/s\\_fobi/161107\\_b1\\_huber\\_kurz.pdf](http://www.bildung-mv.de/export/sites/lisa/de/schule/selbst_schule/s_fobi/161107_b1_huber_kurz.pdf). 19/12/2008.

<sup>2</sup> Alec Jan Gershberg (1999). "Education Decentralization Processes in Mexico and Nicaragua: Legislative versus Ministry- Led Reform Strategies". In: *Comparative Education*. Vol. 35. No. 1. pp. 63-80, p. 63.

<sup>3</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2005). *School-Based Management*. UNESCO. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001410/141025e.pdf>, 28/08/2009.

<sup>4</sup> Ahmed Mohamed El Tayeb (1994). *Educational Administration: Its Essentials, Goals and Current Applications*. 1<sup>st</sup> edition. Alexandria: Al Maktab Algamey'i Alhadeeth (Original in Arabic), pp. 83-85.

namely: area or structural classification and the functional classification. According to the functional classification education decentralization is classified into the following main types:

**Decentralization of decision-making:** or sometimes called “political decentralization of education”. Here decision making is transferred from the center (the ministry) to persons who have been elected to hold authority.<sup>1</sup> This is why it is usual that elected councils are created, like school conferences, Parents-Teachers Associations (PTAs) or boards of trustees.<sup>2</sup> Its elected members need not to be professionals or experts of education. They can be parents or community members.<sup>3</sup> The degree of authorities and autonomy granted to these councils differs from one country to the other, depending upon the willingness of the political system and the ministry of education to give up authority. However, the success of decentralization of decision-making in education depends also upon the ability to involve community members in the decision-making process.<sup>4</sup>

Furthermore, it is advocated to implement decentralization of decision-making in education incrementally. The first step can involve the transfer of decisions over buildings, the second step may include the transfer of decisions concerning the exercise of the budget, the third step may then involve decisions over budget formulation, and finally, the last step can include the transfer of decisions related to curricula. However, this last step is marked by a lot of debates, since many countries insist on controlling curricula as a way of achieving national unity and identity and believe that curricula has to be controlled by experts and professionals and cannot be left to ordinary citizens.<sup>5</sup>

**Administrative decentralization:** or sometimes called “decentralization of human resources management”, is the transfer of some of the administrative authorities and responsibilities such as selection and recruitment, performance

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<sup>1</sup> Vitallis Chikoko (2009). “Educational Decentralization in Zimbabwe and Malawi: A Study of Decisional Location and Process”. In: *International Journal of Educational Development*. No. 29, pp. 201-211, p. 202.

<sup>2</sup> Diosdado M. San Antonio & David T. Gamage (2007). “Building Trust among Educational Participatory School Administration, Leadership and Management”. In: *Management in Education*. Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 15-22, p. 15.

<sup>3</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002). *Die gute Staatsapparat: Problemanalyse und Modernisierungskonzeption aus schulpädagogischer und organisationstheoretischer Sicht*. Herbolzheim: Centaurus-Verlag, p. 235.

<sup>4</sup> Elke Münch (1999). *Neue Führungsperspektiven in der Schulleitung: Kooperation zwischen Schulleiter und Stellvertreter*. Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, p. 54.

<sup>5</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, pp. 25-26.

evaluation and teacher training to the local levels.<sup>1</sup> Moreover, it may take one of three main forms:

- *De-concentration*: where the ministry of education transfers some of the authorities to the local levels of the ministry (educational directorates or administrates). Yet, the latter resort to the ministry in every decision. This case is the most famous and widely applied form of administrative decentralization of education.<sup>2</sup>
- *Delegation*: here some of the authorities are transferred to semi-independent organizations, public enterprises or NGOs. However, these organizations receive public funding from the ministry and are responsible to it.
- *Devolution*: here the local governments are given the legal power to provide education. Hence, they get a high degree of discretion and autonomy. However, three conditions are essential for the success of devolution, these are 1- that the local governments have a separate legal status from the central government, 2- have the needed financial resources, and 3- have the necessary capacities to perform the new tasks.<sup>3</sup>

In any case, for the success of administrative decentralization, the principals have to be trained on carrying out the new tasks, especially since they are after all teachers with special tasks. Therefore, training is very important.<sup>4</sup>

**Financial decentralization**: or called sometimes “decentralization of financial resources management”, often means that aside from having the schools being able to manage their own (public) budget freely, they are able to use other means such as loans and donations for fundraising.<sup>5</sup> The local community may contribute to education with other things, such as building schools, supplying food and nutrition in schools, organizing rallies and ceremonies to raise funds...etc. On the other hand, vouchers can be considered as one kind of de-

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<sup>1</sup> Allan C. Ornstein (1983). “Administrative Decentralization and Community Policy: Review and Outlook”. In: *The Urban Review*. Vol. 15, No. 1, 1983, pp. 3-10, p. 3.

<sup>2</sup> Laila El Baradei (2005). “Decentralization of Pre-University Education in Egypt”. In: *Program of Decentralization and Local Government Issues*. Samir Abd El Wahab (Ed). Public Administration Research and Consultation Center. pp. 13-44, (Original in Arabic), p. 22.

<sup>3</sup> Samir Abd El Wahab (2006), op.cit, p. 43 .

<sup>4</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 54.

<sup>5</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher& Klaus Klemm (2001). *Stärkung der Einzelschule: Neue Ansätze der Ressourcen Geld, Zeit und Personal*. Neuwied; Krißel: Luchterhand, p. 14.

centralization of financial resources management, when they are granted to pay school fees, food, textbooks, and health care.<sup>1</sup>

Usually governments resort to decentralization of financial resources management in education to reduce government spending on education, especially since education in most of the countries – if not all - is the main item in the national budget that receives a big share of national spending.

Dubs (2002) believes that for the schools to become autonomous, they have to have discretion over decision-making and their administrative and financial affairs.<sup>2</sup> This is why Rolff (1999) claims that the schools are facing a paradigm shift away from central control towards the schools becoming the main educational vehicle.<sup>3</sup>

No educational system is completely decentralized, rather is a mix of centralization and decentralization. Reaching at the right mix is what all systems are searching for. Although education decentralization grants the school greater autonomy, yet the educational system retains also some centralistic features like 1- educational standards to achieve education quality<sup>4</sup> and 2- accountability to the central authorities to hold the schools accountable for their actions and to achieve transparency.<sup>5</sup>

Many countries when starting decentralizing their educational systems transfer most of the authorities to the regions while leaving the ministry of education controlling: quality, national standards for school performance, and monitoring and evaluation of policy implementation. Usually, this is accompanied by establishing a national committee and launching training programs to the involved officials to provide support and technical assistance.<sup>6</sup> Yet, Wissler&

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<sup>1</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997), op. cit. p. 217.

<sup>2</sup> Rolf Dubs (2002). „Finanzautonomie, Globalhaushalt und Globalbudget an Schulen: Ziele, Probleme und Erfolgsvoraussetzungen“. In: *Effektive Schulführung: Chancen und Risiken des Public Managements im Bildungswesen*. Norbert Thom, Adrian Ritz& Reto Steiner (Hrsg.). Bern: Verlag Paul Haupt, pp. 37- 64, p. 42.

<sup>3</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (1999). „Selbstorganisation, Gesamtsystemsteuerung und Koppelungsprobleme“. In: *Beiträge zur Schulentwicklung: Von der Bildungsplanung zur Schulentwicklung*. Erika Risse, Hans-Joachim Schmidt (Eds). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp. 63-72, p. 63.

<sup>4</sup> Klaus Hebborn (2007). „Schule und Schulträger“. In: *Grundwissen Schulleitung: Handbuch für das Schulmanagement*. Raimund Pfundtner (Ed). Köln: LinkLuchterhand, Wolters Kluwer Deutschland GmbH, pp. 248-261, p. 260.

<sup>5</sup> Armin Lohmann (2007). „Wie selbstständig soll Schule sein? Wie eigenverantwortlich kann Schule sein?“. In: *Grundwissen Schulleitung: Handbuch für das Schulmanagement*. Raimund Pfundtner (Ed). Köln: LinkLuchterhand, Wolters Kluwer Deutschland GmbH, pp. 75-87, p. 81.

<sup>6</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit. pp. 50-51.

Ortiz (1986) claim that there is no single model for implementing education decentralization.<sup>1</sup> The countries follow their own paths at the hope of achieving the advantages of education decentralization and avoiding its disadvantages.

#### **4 Reasons for adopting education decentralization and prerequisites for its success**

Various reasons are mentioned for the adoption of education decentralization provided that the prerequisites for its successful implementation are fulfilled.

#### **Advantages and disadvantages of educational decentralization**

There are several arguments emphasizing the advantages of education decentralization, such as:

- *financial arguments*: it is believed that education decentralization can release the financial burdens on the central government by shifting the financing of education to lower levels of government, solving thereby the problem of scarcity of financial resources through mobilizing local resources,
- *efficiency arguments*: these arguments are often based on the high unit cost of education. It is believed that decentralization can address the local differences of various communities reducing thereby the unit costs and the time-consuming processes. For example, the schools have a unique mix of student needs, interests, and aspirations. Thus, they are the best to determine the particular mix of all available resources and how to deploy them to achieve the optimal outcomes.<sup>2</sup> A matter that improves education quality,<sup>3</sup>
- *effectiveness arguments*: it is believed that when the community and the parents are involved in education, they will feel a sense of ownership and be willing to contribute to it with resources such as money and labor, hence, the effectiveness of education will increase,

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<sup>1</sup> Dorothy F. Wissler & Flora Ida Ortiz (1986). "The Decentralization Process of School Systems: A Review of the Literature". In: *Urban Education*, Vol. 21, No. 3, October, pp. 280-294, p. 291.

<sup>2</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2008). "Reconceptualising the Self-managing School". In: *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 235-252, p. 249.

<sup>3</sup> Aida Abbas Abu Ghareeb (2005). *Between Centralization and Decentralization in Secondary Education Curricula in Egypt: A Field Study*. Cairo: The National Center for Educational Research and Development (Original in Arabic), p. 29.

- *redistribution of power arguments*: education decentralization will allow marginalized groups to influence education to address their requirements, which in turn will make education responsive to the local needs and desires.<sup>1</sup>

Education decentralization is not the cure for all problems<sup>2</sup> and if it is not implemented in the right way, it may achieve negative effects, such as:

- waste of time on the long debates over controversial issues,
- polarized animosities as a result of divergent opinions,
- the absence of decisions due to the absence of a firm leadership,<sup>3</sup>
- the school's pursuit of opportunistic interests that may be at the expense of the interests of students, e.g. reduce their work-load or increase the financial revenues,<sup>4</sup>
- contradiction of policies,
- isolation of the local units and unfair distribution of educational services,<sup>5</sup>
- reduced spending on education, since it is hard to encourage voluntary spending on education in general and on recurrent expenditures in particular,
- reduced rates of enrolment in education, since the parents may feel that they are not able to finance the education of their children,
- the problem of "free rider", who are those people who do not contribute to education but benefit from others contributions,
- and the inability of poor regions to attract the skilled teachers to work in their schools as they may not be able to offer attractive salaries to them.<sup>6</sup>

Therefore, keeping equal public funding is essential to achieve equality among the local regions.<sup>7</sup>

Given the aforementioned advantages and disadvantages, certain prerequisites are required for the effective implementation of education decentralization.

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid, pp. 19- 20.

<sup>2</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2005), op. cit, p. 22.

<sup>3</sup> Paul Hurst (1985), op. cit, p.82.

<sup>4</sup> Ludger Wössmann (2007). *Letzte Chance für gute Schulen*. Germany: Zabert Sandmann, p. 111.

<sup>5</sup> Ahmed Mohamed El Tayeb (1994). op. cit, pp. 85-87.

<sup>6</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, pp. 30-32.

<sup>7</sup> Ludger Wössmann (2007), op. cit, p.129.

## Prerequisites for successful educational decentralization

Caldwell (2005) rejects the belief that when schools are given their autonomy, they will work in isolation. He emphasizes that schools will open up to the external environment and will be encouraged to form networks with external actors.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, decentralization does not imply that the central authorities will completely vanish. They will continue to exist in order to provide policies, standards, and support.<sup>2</sup>

Thus, for education decentralization to be successful it requires among other things the following:

- clear vision and objectives,
- coordination and transparency through dissemination of information among the different departments, levels, groups and members,<sup>3</sup>
- a systematic and incremental implementation of education decentralization to allow local regions, schools and other partners to cope with the changes,
- the attempt of school councils to prevent the creation of mini-bureaucracies when they start to operate,
- empowerment of stakeholders to enable them to embrace their new roles in education decentralization<sup>4</sup>.

Education decentralization was adopted in various countries differently. Yet, still there are common aspects in most of these countries. For example, local units may have control over the non-compulsory stages of education, such as early childhood and adult education, while compulsory education may be mostly controlled by the center. Also in many cases, curricula are centrally controlled (whether by the central government or the state authority in the federal countries), as they are considered a matter of professional expertise. However, teaching methods such as textbooks, teaching materials and equipment, syllabuses and timetables, and the kind of examination and evaluation may all be under local control.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2005), op. cit, p. 20.

<sup>2</sup> Wolfgang Edelstein (1999). "Bedingungen erfolgreicher Schultransformation". In: *Beiträge zur Schulentwicklung: Von der Bildungsplanung zur Schulentwicklung*. Erika Risse, Hans-Joachim Schmidt (Eds.). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp. 119-132, p. 121.

<sup>3</sup> Stephan Gerhard Huber (2007), op. cit.

<sup>4</sup> Rosetta F. Sandidge et. al. (1996), op. cit, pp. 324- 325.

<sup>5</sup> Martin McLean& Jon Lauglo (1985), op. cit, pp. 7-8.



Parry (1995) highlights that practice reveals that it is advocated to start with administrative decentralization through de-concentration. Accordingly, the local educational units (e.g. education directorates, districts...etc.) would have the right to determine issues such as the school schedule and calendar, the length of the school day...etc.<sup>1</sup>

Thereafter, devolution may take place. Accordingly, the local educational units may be able to collect revenues and take their own decisions concerning expenditure. It is also possible to allow the schools in that phase to take decisions concerning curricula and textbooks. Yet, this may take some time in the beginning, as schools may fear the new responsibilities. But financial incentives may motivate the local governments to implement decentralization.

Afterwards, the road can be paved for delegation, where the local educational units may establish departments or committees to regulate education.

Education decentralization may be either part of a complete reform of the governmental system and in that case new laws are required, or it may occur where the infrastructure for decentralization already exists, and therefore, it is easier to be implemented, as no new structures will be needed, or it may occur merely in the education sector as a pilot study to see the effects of decentralization in general.<sup>2</sup>

Ghareeb (2005) emphasizes the importance of implementing both administrative and financial decentralization simultaneously, since it is the financial status that greatly determines the kind of decisions that might be taken.<sup>3</sup>

It is important to recognize that change does not ensue from policies imposed merely on the schools by external agents; rather it requires an administrator-teacher collaboration, a culture that is friendly to experimentation and risk-taking, and sufficient resources to help the school assume its roles and tasks.<sup>4</sup> The schools should be given the flexibility to take decisions and to design the details of implementation, tailored in accordance with their individual circumstances.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997), op. cit, p. 214.

<sup>2</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, p. 22.

<sup>3</sup> Aida Abbas Abu Ghareeb (2005), op. cit, pp. 4-5.

<sup>4</sup> Priscilla Wohlstetter & Karen Mc Curdy (January 1991). "The Link between School Decentralization and School Politics". In: *Urban Education*, Vol. 25, No. 4, pp. 391-414, p. 411.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid, p. 412.

In the progressively decentralized educational systems, the schools are able to take autonomous curricular, personnel, organizational and financial decisions,<sup>1</sup> revolving around the following:

- decisions concerning the school buildings and spaces that will allow musical, sport, and cultural activities,
- decisions in cases of risks, accidents, illnesses, and delays,
- decisions to set and control their own schedule,
- decisions about how to approach the parents and how to inform them about the various circumstances,
- decisions about how to approach the external environment and the different actors.<sup>2</sup>

The most successful schools in decentralization will be those schools that have the following characteristics:

- clear direction and strong leadership,
- strong social relationships among the working staff and competencies for communication and conflict solution,
- good relationships with the parents, students, and the local community,
- work relations based on team work,
- learning processes emphasizing on learning from feedback,
- strong corporate identity stressing obvious symbols and rituals,
- work patterns that clearly determine the needed time and human resources,
- staff empowerment and capacity building.<sup>3</sup>

The mere existence of local educational units (e.g. districts or administrates) does not indicate the extent to which formal power is granted to these units, nor does it imply that the various groups with an interest in education are participating or represented in the decision-making process. These units may exist but may be mere implementers of decisions taken centrally.<sup>4</sup> Also, only one or two of these groups may dominate the decision-making process. Thus, decentralization may end up, in that case, as transferring power from one group

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<sup>1</sup> Helmut Fend (2008). *Schule Gestalten: Systemsteuerung, Schulentwicklung und Unterrichtsqualität*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaft, p. 155.

<sup>2</sup> Helmut Fend (2008), op. cit, pp. 156- 157.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, p.209 - 210.

<sup>4</sup> Martin McLean& Jon Lauglo (1985), op. cit, p.4.

to another. Therefore, it is very important to empower the schools and encourage the participation of all stakeholders.<sup>1</sup>

Based on the above, in education decentralization, the role of the central government is transformed from an operational executive role to a supporting and inspecting role, leaving the operational matters to the local units or the schools themselves.<sup>2</sup>

The role of schools will change and become more vital as school management, especially the school leadership, will acquire many authorities and face many pressures. These pressures may come from the teachers, who always look for the best working conditions such as classes, teaching courses and the timetable, or the parents who perceive the school to be the sole responsible entity for the education of their children and their achievement, or from the local community and local educational units who expect everything to run smoothly within the schools and according to the pre-determined rules and regulations.

Therefore, the role of the school leadership is critical since it has to balance all these pressures and meet their expectations although they may be conflicting. In addition, the principal has to ensure the quality standards of education within his/her school and be able to deploy the available resources efficiently towards achieving its goals.<sup>3</sup>

Education decentralization encourages many stakeholders to get involved in education. These may be policy makers, local administrators, teachers, principals, parents, students, and employers. The state steps back to merely set the rules and regulations while the implementation is left to the local units, schools and stakeholders.<sup>4</sup>

Nevertheless, no matter how education decentralization is implemented, education is affected by the school leadership. Therefore, it is important to study the school leadership and its approaches and model as shall be discussed in part two.

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<sup>1</sup> Paul Hurst (1985), op. cit. p. 83.

<sup>2</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997), op. cit, pp. 215- 218.

<sup>3</sup> Ahmed Ibrahim Ahmed & Gamal Abu El Wafa (Jan. 1994). "The Conflict and Uncertainty of Managerial and Supervisory Role of the School Director/Principal and Their relationship with Job Satisfaction: A Survey on the Preparatory Phase in Qaliubeya Governorate". In: *The Periodical of Faculty of Education in Dameita*. Vol. 20, No. 2, pp. 197-248 (Original in Arabic), p. 211.

<sup>4</sup> Helmut Fend (2008), op. cit, p.108.

## Part Two

### School Leadership

As education decentralization entails the transfer of authority and responsibility to the school level to take decisions on significant matters related to school operations, this indicates that the role of the school, especially that of the school leadership, would become crucial.

#### 1 Definitions of leadership

Leadership in general has various definitions that emanate from the complexity of the leadership phenomenon itself and the absence of a single conception or theory to define it.<sup>1</sup> Early researches used to focus on the personality characteristics and traits of effective leadership and suggested that certain individuals possess innate and inborn characteristics or qualities, which make them leaders and distinct from the followers.<sup>2</sup> While recent research considers leadership as a process. Yukl (2006) defines it as the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it. It is the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives.<sup>3</sup>

Pechlaner& Hammann (2008) also define leadership as the process of using non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of an organized group towards the accomplishment of group objectives.<sup>4</sup>

Hinterhuper (2009) also defines leadership as identifying and recognizing the outstanding co-worker, caring for them and helping them reach their maximum performance potential and sometimes aspire even more than what they think is possible. Hinterhuper (2009) considers leadership as involving the following non-delegable tasks: providing direction, searching for and introducing possibilities, positively influencing the co-workers towards achieving the organizational objectives and building trust.<sup>5</sup> Neubauer (2009) considers leadership to

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<sup>1</sup> James G.Hunt (1991). *Leadership: A New Synthesis*. California: Sage Publications, Inc., p. 15.

<sup>2</sup> Peter G. Northouse (2004). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publication, p. 4.

<sup>3</sup> G. Yukl (2006). *Leadership in Organizations*. 6<sup>th</sup> edition, Upper Saddle River, p. 8.

<sup>4</sup> Harald Pechlaner& Eva-Maria Hammann (2008). *Management, Entrepreneurship& Leadership- Versuch einer Abgrenzung bei Beherbergungsbetrieben*. [www.springerlink.com/content/g3n7431881381037.pdf](http://www.springerlink.com/content/g3n7431881381037.pdf), 25/2/2010, p.100.

<sup>5</sup> Hans H. Hinterhuper (2009). „Führung heißt die Herzen der Mitarbeiterinnen und Mitarbeiter gewinnen“. In: *Leadership in sozialen Organisationen*. Johannes Eurich &

be a dynamic process that rests on mutual behavior influencing, i.e. a reciprocal relationship, where not only the followers depend on their leaders but the leaders depend on them, too.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, Sison (2008) adds that in the recent trends of leadership the goals and objectives have also to be agreed upon by the leader and his followers, considering voluntary followership as essential for true leadership.<sup>2</sup>

Ciulla (2008) summarizes that all leadership definitions have 3 main components: 1- leadership is about a person or more 2- trying to move other people whether followers or co-workers or to do something, and 3- this interaction is done through impressing, influencing, persuading, organizing or inspiring.<sup>3</sup> Northouse (2004) also mentions that leadership involves goals or tasks that the leader is directing the followers to accomplish.<sup>4</sup>

Kouzes and Posner (2007) demonstrate five best practices for effective leadership. These are 1- modelling the way by clarifying values and aligning actions with shared values, 2- inspiring a shared vision through imagining and envisioning a future marked with possibilities and enlisting the organization members in this vision, 3- challenging the process by searching for opportunities, experimenting, and risk-taking, 4- enabling others to act through fostering collaboration, building trust, and developing competence, and 5- encouraging the heart through showing appreciation for individual excellence and celebrating the values, victories and creating a spirit of community among the members.<sup>5</sup>

Münch (1999) and Kernberg (2000) mention that research on leadership can be found in various disciplines and with different focal points. In the economic studies, the focus is on how to meet the various demands in the econ-

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Alexander Brink (Hrsg). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 21-31, pp. 21-22.

<sup>1</sup> Walter Neubauer (2009). „Leadership und Wertemanagement“. In: *Leadership in sozialen Organisationen*. Johannes Eurich & Alexander Brink (Hrsg). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 47-60, p. 48.

<sup>2</sup> Alejo Jose G. Sison (2008). “Leadership, Character and Virtues from an Aristotelian Viewpoint”. In: *Responsible Leadership*. Thomas Maak & Nicola M. Pless (Eds.). London: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group, pp. 108- 121, p. 109.

<sup>3</sup> Joanne B. Ciulla (2008). “Ethics: The heart of Leadership“. In: *Responsible Leadership*. Thomas Maak & Nicola M. Pless (Eds.). London: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group, pp. 15- 32, p.21.

<sup>4</sup> Peter G. Northouse (2004). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publication, p. 3.

<sup>5</sup> James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner (2007). *The Leadership Challenge*. 4<sup>th</sup> edition. San Francisco: Jon Wiley & Sons Inc., pp. 14-26.

omy.<sup>1</sup> In the psychoanalytical studies, the focus is on how the co-workers perceive leadership. In the social studies, the emphasis is on the role aspects of leadership and how the leader and the followers may develop mutual types of perception and behaviour. In the managerial studies, the focus is mainly on personal characteristics and leadership qualities.<sup>2</sup>

Nevertheless, the previously mentioned sample of leadership definitions reflects the development of different approaches to leadership.

## **2 Leadership approaches**

Harris (2005) demonstrates that the development of leadership research went through four main phases. These are:

- the initial interest in the personal qualities and characteristics of the successful leaders,
- the focus on what the successful leader actually does,
- the link between the leadership model and the organizational culture,
- the growing awareness that task-related and people-oriented behaviors may be interpreted differently by different groups and in different contexts.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, there is no best leadership structure; rather, it depends upon the group setting, the task, and the entire situation.<sup>4</sup>

The above mentioned phases are reflected in three main approaches dominating the leadership research. These are:

### **The trait approach**

The earliest writings on leadership started in the 1900s and focused on the characteristics and traits of the effective leaders in order to identify those individuals with a predisposition to take on leadership roles.<sup>5</sup> In an attempt to simplify the development of the traits theory, the “Big Five” model appeared. Ac-

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<sup>1</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 126.

<sup>2</sup> Otto F. Kernberg (2000). *Ideologie, Konflikt und Führung: Psychoanalyse von Gruppenprozessen und Persönlichkeitsstruktur*. Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta, p. 69

<sup>3</sup> Alma Harris (February 2005). “Leading from the Chalk-face: An Overview of School leadership”. In: *Leadership*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 73-87, p. 77.

<sup>4</sup> John Gastil (August 1994). “A Definition and Illustration of Democratic Leadership”. In: *Human Relations*, Vol. 47, No. 8, pp. 953-975, p. 964.

<sup>5</sup> Mary B. Gregoire & Susan W. Arendt (2004). “Leadership: Reflections over the Past 100 Years”. In: *Journal of American Dietetic Association*, No. 104, pp. 395-403, p. 396.

cordingly, the most important leadership traits were openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism.<sup>1</sup>

While this approach appeared promising at first, with every new study new traits were mentioned. A matter that made them lose credibility and insufficient to predict future performance.<sup>2</sup> In addition, most of research did not come with a conclusion that these positive traits might also have negative impacts.<sup>3</sup>

### **The behavior approach**

An alternative to the traits approach was considering how the leaders behave. Therefore, many models such as the work of McGregor about Theory X and theory Y, Ohio State Two-Factor model, Kurt Lewin's Leadership Styles and other models appeared. All these models identify two dimensions of behavior: one that focuses on tasks and the other focuses on people. It was argued that the concern for people and tasks would lead to the effective leader. Moreover, leadership models could vary from highly directive to highly participative. However, it was recognized later that leadership behaviour should adapt to the context.<sup>4</sup>

### **The situational/contingency approach**

Based on this approach it is concluded that no single leadership model fits all situations. Rather the model to be used depends upon the situational factor such as the nature of the followers, tasks and organization. Within this approach the works of Fiedler's contingency theory that distinguishes between task-oriented and relation-oriented leadership and of Hersey and Blanchard that argue that the leader should adapt his style based on the developmental level of the subordinates flourished. Based on them, the leader has to adapt his task-relationship style between directing, coaching, supporting, and delegating.

Despite the progress introduced through this approach, it fails to provide answers to the questions of how to master various leadership styles while remaining consistent, how to respond to multiple, complex and poorly defined tasks, how to determine the needs of the followers, and finally how to react

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<sup>1</sup> Timothy A. Judge & David M. Long (2012). "Individual Differences in Leadership". In: *The Nature of Leadership*. David V. Day & John Antonakis (Eds.). 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc., pp. 179-217, p. 190.

<sup>2</sup> Richard Bolden, Beverly Hawkins, Jonathan Gosling & Scott Taylor (2011). *Exploring Leadership: Individual, Organizational and Social Perspectives*. New York: Oxford University Press, p. 26.

<sup>3</sup> Timothy A. Judge & David M. Long (2012), op. cit, p. 205.

<sup>4</sup> Richard Bolden, Beverly Hawkins, Jonathan Gosling & Scott Taylor (2011), op. cit, p. 27.

when a leadership style cannot match the needs of the followers and the situation if changing the leader is not an option.<sup>1</sup>

### **The reciprocal approach**

This approach represents the recent thoughts in leadership studies by focusing on the relationship between the leader and the followers as well as on the emotions involved in this relationship.<sup>2</sup> Accordingly, Burns and Bass presented their work on transactional and transformational leadership. In addition, Greenleaf demonstrated his work on the servant leader who recognizes the needs of his followers and helps them grow both physically and emotionally. Goleman stresses also emotional intelligence as a main component of effective leadership.<sup>3</sup>

Harris (2004) claims that the focus on the leader is waning and shifting more towards the shared context of learning as well as developing leadership capacities, i.e. from the leader to the leadership that becomes a shared social process to which many people contribute.<sup>4</sup> Therefore, Lord & Dinh (2012) suggest that bottom-up or an inclusive view of leadership is gaining attention.<sup>5</sup>

One of the main pitfalls of leadership literature has been the main emphasis on the formal leadership while overlooking the kinds of leadership that might be distributed across many roles and functions in the organization.<sup>6</sup>

In addition, Fröse (2009) stresses the importance of distinguishing leadership from management. Accordingly, leadership seizes possibilities and opportunities as well as seeks to mobilize the followers to exploit their potentials towards achieving the organizational goals and objectives. Whereas management aims at using the available resources to achieve the objectives. In short, man-

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<sup>1</sup> Richard Bolden, Beverly Hawkins, Jonathan Gosling & Scott Taylor (2011), op. cit, pp. 27-28.

<sup>2</sup> Douglas J. Brown (2012). "In the Minds of Followers: Follower-Centric Approaches to Leadership". In: *The Nature of Leadership*. David V. Day & John Antonakis (Eds.). 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc., pp. 331-362, p. 333.

<sup>3</sup> Mary B. Gregoire & Susan W. Arendt (2004), op. cit, pp. 398-400.

<sup>4</sup> Alma Harris (2004). "Distributed Leadership and School Improvement: Leading or Misleading?". In: *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp. 11-24, p. 19.

<sup>5</sup> Robert G. Lord & Jessica E. Dinh (2012). "Aggregation Processes and Levels of Analysis as Organizing Structures for Leadership Theory". In: *The Nature of Leadership*. David V. Day & John Antonakis (Eds.). 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc., pp. 29-65, p. 30.

<sup>6</sup> Alma Harris (2004), op. cit, p. 12.



agement is about doing things right, while leadership is about doing the right thing.<sup>1</sup>

### 3 Definitions of school leadership

School leadership is defined by Münch (1999) as the process of influencing a school member or a group towards achieving a common goal while considering each situation.<sup>2</sup> Robertson (2008) defines it also as encompassing all informed actions that influence the continuous improvement of learning and teaching.<sup>3</sup>

According to Chapman (2000) and Robertson (2008) school leaders perform four functions: 1- instructional supervision that is directly linked to the quality of teaching, 2- school management which includes ordering supplies, hiring and assigning teachers, gathering information, and keeping basic records,<sup>4</sup> 3- school-ministry communication, which comprises implementing ministerial decrees and completing reports required by the ministry. The aim of this function is to gather support for the school, and 4- school-community relations, which involve working with community councils, community development associations, parent-teacher associations, and parental groups.<sup>5</sup> Hence, the school leadership performs various function on various levels whether within the school (the meso-level) or outside it (the macro level).

Robertson (2008) groups the qualities of the educational leader in three main arenas: 1- the statesperson, who lobbies for education in his institution and the community, 2- the connoisseur, who is taught about pedagogy and commit-

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<sup>1</sup> Marlies W. Fröse (2009). „Leadership Diskurse: Neue Herausforderungen für Führung und Leitung“. In: *Leadership in sozialen Organisationen*. Johannes Eurich & Alexander Brink (Hrsg). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 225-244, pp. 228-229.

<sup>2</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 124.

<sup>3</sup> Jan Robertson (2008). *Coaching Educational Leadership: Building Leadership Capacity through Partnership*. London: Sage Publications Inc., p. 20.

<sup>4</sup> Theo M.E. Liket (1999). „Innovation und Personalpolitik: Der personelle Aspekt bei der Entwicklung der Schulen zu größerer Selbstbestimmung“. In: *Beiträge zur Schulentwicklung: Von der Bildungsplanung zur Schulentwicklung*. Erika Risse, Hans-Joachim Schmidt (Eds). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp. 229-240, p. 236.

<sup>5</sup> David W. Chapman (April 2000). “Trends in Educational Administration in Developing Asia”. In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 283-308, pp. 302-303.

ted to life-long learning, and 3- the entrepreneur, who always looks for new ways of working more effectively and innovatively.<sup>1</sup>

Yet, school leaders under decentralization face three main challenges. First, decentralization means for the school leaders resuming new responsibilities on which they may have no background or do not get enough training. Second, decentralization may lead to a greater community pressure for transparency and accountability on the part of the school while the school leaders may have limited abilities to understand what this pressure means or how to comply to it. Third, decentralization shifts decision making to the community and this may prevent or hinder education reform, since the community is usually conservative and risk resistant when it comes to their children's future.<sup>2</sup>

Moreover, the school leaders may get in a paradoxical situation of dual responsibility and accountability when they become accountable to the local educational units and the school board or conference simultaneously.<sup>3</sup> This problem emerges mostly when authorities are devolved to the principals without the possession of the needed skills.<sup>4</sup>

Furthermore, school leaders are expected to become coaches or facilitators. This is why they are expected to perform functions not only related to instructional leadership, but also related to the broader school and building management, as well as entailing the acquisition of resources and the establishment or maintenance of relationships with external constituents.<sup>5</sup>

Thus, the school leadership has gained a lot of importance in recent years. And despite the belief that the school leadership has influence on school performance and improves student learning outcomes,<sup>6</sup> Seitz and Capaul (2005) claim that there is no empirical proof for this belief.<sup>7</sup> However, a strong leadership is essential for successful programmatic change and instructional improve-

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<sup>1</sup> Jan Robertson (2008), op. cit, p. 23.

<sup>2</sup> David W. Chapman (April 2000), op. cit, p. 296.

<sup>3</sup> Judith Chapman & William Lowe Boyd (Fall 1986). "Decentralization, Devolution, and the School Principal: Australian Lessons on Statewide Educational Reform". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 22, No. 4, pp. 28-58, p. 36.

<sup>4</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 61.

<sup>5</sup> Eric Camburn, Brian Rowan & James E. Taylor (Winter 2003). "Distributed Leadership in Schools: The Case of Elementary Schools Adopting Comprehensive School Reforms Models". In: *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*. Vol. 25, No. 4, pp. 347-373, pp. 348-349.

<sup>6</sup> Alma Harris (February 2005), op. cit, pp. 73-74.

<sup>7</sup> Hans Seitz & Roman Capaul (2005). *Schulführung und Schulentwicklung. Theoretische Grundlagen und Empfehlungen für die Praxis*. 2nd edition. Bern: Hapt Verlag, p. 23.

ment.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, the effect of school leadership on student achievement is small but significant.<sup>2</sup> Huber (2008) adds that school leadership affects the school culture and hence, indirectly teacher performance and evaluation.<sup>3</sup>

Since principals are held responsible for school performance, thus, literature indicates that future research would not merely focus on the characteristics of the school leaders but on the various tasks they perform and the time they devote therefore.<sup>4</sup> Leadership functions are becoming dispersed among multiple roles and actors.<sup>5</sup> However, according to Harris (2004) mentions that literature has provided little empirical support for the various leadership models and presented only artificial distinctions among these various models.<sup>6</sup>

#### **4 Leadership models**

Under these models fall also the instructional leadership, transformational and transactional leadership, collaborative and democratic leadership, and entrepreneurial leadership.

##### **Instructional leadership**

Only in rare cases has instructional leadership been defined in literature, even though instructional leadership flourished until the 1980s. Therefore, the exact types of activities that the instructional leaders perform remain unclear.<sup>7</sup>

Nevertheless, instructional leadership can be defined as the principal's role in providing direction, resources, and support to teachers and students for the improvement of teaching and learning in the school.<sup>8</sup>

Implicit in the definition of instructional leadership is the idea of superior-subordinate relationships, were the leader discovers the problems and suggests

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<sup>1</sup> Eric Camburn, Brian Rowan & James E. Taylor (Winter 2003), op. cit, p. 347.

<sup>2</sup> Alma Harris (February 2005), op. cit, p. 74.

<sup>3</sup> Leif Moos & Stephan Gerhard Huber (2007). "School Leadership, School Effectiveness and School Improvement: Democratic and Integrative Leadership". In: *International Handbook of School Effectiveness and Improvement*. T. Townsend (Ed.) Springer, pp. 579-596, p. 582.

<sup>4</sup> Ronald H. Heck (Spring 1992). "Principals' Instructional Leadership and School performance: Implications for Policy Development". In: *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*. Vol. 14, No. 1, pp. 21-34, p. 22.

<sup>5</sup> Eric Camburn, Brian Rowan & James E. Taylor (Winter 2003), op. cit, p. 348.

<sup>6</sup> Alma Harris (2004), op. cit, p. 12.

<sup>7</sup> Joseph Murphy (1988). "Methodological, Measurement, and Conceptual Problems in the Study of Instructional Leadership". In: *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, Vol. 10, No. 2, pp. 117-139, p. 119.

<sup>8</sup> Lance. V. Wright (Spring 1991). "Instructional Leadership: Looking through Schoolhouse Windows". In: *Theory into Practice*. Vol. XXX, No. 2, pp. 113-119, p. 114.

the remedies.<sup>1</sup> Wright (1991) explains that instructional leadership is composed of four domains. A) The formative domain includes the firm knowledge-base on curriculum trends and new approaches for school organization and instruction media and methodology. B) The planning domain includes setting goals and objectives in order to guide the various organizational, programmatic, and budgetary decisions. C) The implementation domain includes selecting the required teachers, deploying resources, and setting expectations. Finally, d) the evaluation domain includes evaluating teacher and school performance.<sup>2</sup>

Based on that, the principal would supervise classroom instruction, coordinate school curricula, and monitor pupil progress.<sup>3</sup> In this way, a hierarchical orientation can be witnessed within the schools.<sup>4</sup>

Moreover, there are narrow and broad views of instructional leadership, all focusing on the behaviour of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting student achievement. The narrow view emphasizes the class visits to supervise the teaching styles, whereas the broad view focuses upon observing all the activities that may influence student achievement.<sup>5</sup> Yet, many oppose the focus upon class supervision and visits, especially if the teachers take it as a show not presenting the real-life situation. Thus, instructional leadership should focus on clarifying achievement goals and standards, sharing information on achievement, and working to improve instruction based on the identified learning deficiencies.<sup>6</sup>

Mitchell and Castle (2005) advocate the emphasis on all the aspects affecting teaching and learning in the classrooms. From this perspective, instructional leadership has to promote professional dialogue through encouraging suggestions, giving feedback and praise, accepting tensions, modelling collegiality and experimentation, and taking responsibility for building organizational ca-

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<sup>1</sup> William G. Rullf & Alan R. Shoho (August 2005). "Understanding Instructional Leadership through the Mental Models of Three Elementary School principals". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 41, No. 3, pp. 554-577, p. 555.

<sup>2</sup> Lance. V. Wright (Spring 1991), op. cit, p. 114.

<sup>3</sup> Joseph Blasé & Jo Blasé (August 1999). "Principals' Instructional Leadership and Teacher Development: Teachers' Perspectives". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*. Vol. 35, No. 3, pp. 349-378, p. 351.

<sup>4</sup> Helen M. Marks & Susan M. Printy (August 2003). "Principal Leadership and School Performance: An Integration of Transformational and Instructional Leadership". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 39, No. 3, pp. 370-397, p. 372.

<sup>5</sup> Alma Harris (February 2005), op. cit, p. 82.

<sup>6</sup> Fred C. Niedermeyer (January 1977). "A Basis for Improved Instructional Leadership". In: *The Elementary School Journal*, pp. 248-256, p. 249.

capacity for school improvement.<sup>1</sup> The best way to establish this climate is to build up positive relations with and among staff members and encourage teamwork as well.<sup>2</sup>

In addition, principals perform their instructional tasks in a fragmented nature, where they are mostly interrupted to perform other tasks. Therefore, dispersing instructional leadership among the teams in the school is recommended. Accordingly, the difficulties of fragmentation associated with instructional leadership and resistance to change will be shared and lessened up. However, the teams have to be trained on these new functions and time management.<sup>3</sup>

Hence, a recent development in the literature concerning instructional leadership emerged. It is “shared instructional leadership”. Here the leadership involves the teachers’ evaluation and development, and seeks out the ideas, expertise, and insights of the teachers in these areas.<sup>4</sup>

The principal in shared instructional leadership becomes less as an inspector of teacher competence and more of a facilitator for teacher growth through collaborative inquiry, creating opportunities of reflection and professional growth.<sup>5</sup> The teachers and the principal discuss alternatives rather than directives and work together as communities of learners. Thus, shared instructional leadership is deployed through interaction among the school members with revised structures to encourage coordination.<sup>6</sup>

Lemahieu et al. (1997) warn that instructional leadership in general faces four main challenges. First, instructional leadership has to supervise teaching without resorting to a checklist that scripts it. It has to raise questions that inspire practice. Second, it has to rise up to the challenges coming from the growing complexity of current visions on teaching and learning. Third, it has to meet the national education standards that elevate both expectations and inspirations regarding student performance. Finally, it has to master the environmental and

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<sup>1</sup> Coral Mitchell & Joyce B. Castle (2005). “The Instructional Role of Elementary School Principals”. In: *Canadian Journal of Education*. Vol. 28, No. 3, pp. 409-433, pp. 411-412.

<sup>2</sup> Leif Moos & Stephan Gerhard Huber (2007), op. cit, p. 584.

<sup>3</sup> Lance. V. Wright (Spring 1991), op. cit, pp. 116-117.

<sup>4</sup> Peter Coleman & Linda LaRocque (1988). “Reaching Out: Instructional Leadership in School Districts”. In: *Peabody Journal of Education*. Vol. 65, No. 4, pp. 60-89, p. 62.

<sup>5</sup> Ulrich C. Reitzug, Deborah L. West & Roma Angel (September 2008). “Conceptualizing Instructional Leadership: The Voice of the Principals”. In: *Education and Urban Society*, Vol. 40, No. 6, pp. 694-714, p. 695.

<sup>6</sup> Helen M. Marks & Susan M. Printy (August 2003), op. cit, pp. 374-375.

contextual circumstances like resource allocation, physical plants, and the student diversity.<sup>1</sup>

Based on that, Reitzug et al. (2008) reveal four kinds of instructional leadership in addition to shared instructional leadership. First, the relational instructional leadership that is not a direct result of following the instructional program, rather, is the result of relationship building between the leadership on one hand and both the students and the teachers on the other. In that sense, the school is considered as an extended family. Second, the linear instructional leadership that emphasizes the causal relationships, where every action is supposed to lead to a positive or desired outcome. Therefore, guides, benchmarks, standards and lesson plans are all actions taken in order to improve education.<sup>2</sup> Third, the organic instructional leadership that considers the school as a part of a greater whole (i.e. the entire educational system) and has to interact with it. Fourth, the prophetic instructional leadership whereby moral leadership is being exercised. Hence, collaboration among the teachers, staff, and students is emphasized, and the traditional way of instruction is changed.<sup>3</sup>

However, interest in instructional leadership has waned over the years in favour of other aspects of leadership such as strategic planning, goal setting, and problem solving in addition to the changes in educational policies and structures.<sup>4</sup> Therefore, other approaches have been advocated,<sup>5</sup> such as the transformational and transactional leadership.

### **Transformational, charismatic and transactional leadership**

Most of the literature on leadership connects transformational, transactional and charismatic leadership. The early writings on charismatic and transformational leadership can be traced back to the writings of Aristotle, when he mentioned that the leader has to gain the confidence of his followers by using creative rhetorical means, raising their emotions, providing a moral perspective, and using reasonable arguments. Later Weber coined the term *charisma*, when he described the charismatic leader as the one who can bring about social

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<sup>1</sup> Paul G. Lemahieu, Patricia A. Roy & Helen F. Koss (January 1997). "Through a Lens Clearly: A Model to Guide Instructional Leadership of Principals". In: *Urban Education*, Vol. 31, No. 5, pp. 582-608, p. 585-587.

<sup>2</sup> Ulrich C. Reitzug, Deborah L. West & Roma Angel (Sep. 2008). "Conceptualizing Instructional Leadership: The Voice of the Principals". In: *Education and Urban Society*, Vol. 40, No. 6, pp. 694-714, pp. 697-702.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, p. 707.

<sup>4</sup> Coral Mitchell & Joyce B. Castle (2005), op. cit, p. 410.

<sup>5</sup> Joseph Blasé & Jo Blasé (August 1999), op. cit, p. 371.

change.<sup>1</sup> He is a risk-taker, sets high goals, makes sacrifices for the greater good, and knows how to communicate. He uses positive and negative emotions, non-verbal strategies such as voice and body gestures. He masters rhetoric and story telling.<sup>2</sup>

Another leadership model that brings about social change through raising motivation, morality and ethical aspiration between the leader and followers is transformational leadership. *Transformational leadership* focuses upon the people rather than the structures and is essentially concerned with cultural rather than structural changes. According to McGregor and Burns, transformational leadership involves one or more persons engaging with others in a way that both the leader and the followers raise each other to higher levels of motivation and morality.<sup>3</sup> Thus, it seeks to create a unified interest between the leadership and the teachers and uses exceptional form of influence with or through the teachers rather than exercises control over them.<sup>4</sup> It relies on emotions, values, ethics, and assessing the followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. Hence, it is a process that often incorporates charismatic and visionary leadership.<sup>5</sup> At school, it aims at making teachers move beyond their own self-interests to achieve the interests of the entire school or the group,<sup>6</sup> through setting directions, developing teachers, building a motivating culture, fostering shared decision-making processes and problem-solving capacities as well as building relationships with the school community. Thus, transformational leadership is conceived as helping the teachers rise up to the challenges and transcend their own interests to achieve the interests of the school.<sup>7</sup>

Based on Marks & Printy (2003) transformational leadership is distinct from instructional leadership in that it builds organizational capacity, whereas instructional leadership builds individual and collective competencies. Hence, a main weakness related to transformational leadership is its lack of focus on cur-

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<sup>1</sup> John Antonakis (2012). "Transformational and Charismatic Leadership". In: *The Nature of Leadership*. David V. Day & John Antonakis (Eds.). 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc., pp. 256-288, pp. 258-259.

<sup>2</sup> Audrey A. Friedman (July-September 2004). "Beyond mediocrity: transformational leadership within a transformational framework". In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 203-224, p. 206.

<sup>3</sup> Beverly Hawkins Bolden, Jonathan Gosling & Scott Taylor (2011), op. cit, p. 31.

<sup>4</sup> Alma Harris (February 2005), op. cit, p. 79.

<sup>5</sup> David Hopkins (2001). *School Improvement for Real*. London: Routledge Falmer, p. 169.

<sup>6</sup> Bernard M. Bass (2000). "The Future of Leadership in Learning Organizations". In: *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 18- 40, p. 21.

<sup>7</sup> Alma Harris (February 2005), op. cit, p. 80.

riculum and instruction. Therefore, no empirical studies have shown any direct effect of transformational leadership on student achievement.<sup>1</sup>

Bass (2000) and Marks & Printy (2003) identify three distinct features of transformational leadership that distinguish it from transactional leadership. These are a) charismatic or inspirational motivation, whereby the leader provides a vision for the valued future, articulates how to reach it, and sets standards,<sup>2</sup> b) intellectual stimulation through which the leadership would encourage the teachers to look at old problems in new ways to innovate and become creative, and c) individualized consideration as the leadership would look at each teacher as having different motives and interests as well as in need of different support and development.<sup>3</sup>

*Transactional leadership* is a leadership model that is related to the leader-followers interaction. Here the relationship between the leader and the followers is based on the exchange of valued items, whether economic, political or emotional.<sup>4</sup> Therefore, it does not individualize the needs of the followers nor focuses on their personal development. It focuses on the promotion of self-interests and the exchange dimension.<sup>5</sup> Therefore, it suggests the utilization of rewards contingent to positive and desired outcomes and punishment to negative transactions. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, raises the consciousness of followers for what is important and makes them transcend their self-interest for that of the greater good. Thus, transactional leadership is concerned with the means value, while transformational leadership is concerned with end-values.<sup>6</sup> This is why some of the scholars like Krüger (2006) perceive transactional and transformational leadership styles as oppositional,<sup>7</sup> while others like von Rosenstiel (2006) see them as complementing each other. According to Rosenstiel (2006) transactional leadership achieves the needed performance among the members, while transformational leadership makes them even perform more than what is expected.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Helen M. Marks & Susan M. Printy (August 2003), op. cit, pp. 372-377.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, p. 375.

<sup>3</sup> Walter Neubauer (2009), op. cit, p. 51.

<sup>4</sup> Wilfried Krüger (2006). „Führungsstile für erfolgreichen Wandel“. In: *Leadership – Best Practices und Trends*. Heike Bruch, Stefan Krummacker & Bernd Vogel (Eds.). Wiesbaden: Gabler Verlag, pp. 107-122, p. 109.

<sup>5</sup> Peter G. Northouse (2004), op. cit, pp. 170-178.

<sup>6</sup> John Antonakis (2012), op. cit, p. 263.

<sup>7</sup> Wilfried Krüger (2006), op. cit, p. 111.

<sup>8</sup> Lutz von Rosenstiel (2006). „Leadership und Change“. In: *Leadership – Best Practices und Trends*. Heike Bruch, Stefan Krummacker & Bernd Vogel (Eds.), pp. 145-156, p. 152.



As leaders are constantly confronted with new tensions and dilemmas, Harris (2005) demonstrates that research on leadership began to stress new aspects of leadership making it be more people-centered.<sup>1</sup> Hence, other people-centered models of leadership as below emerged.

### **Distributed and participatory or democratic leadership**

Lemahieu et al. (1997) believe that the early education reform movements focused on structural and curricular change. Later the focus shifted to effective schools, where the instructional leadership was asked to explicitly engage in the observation and shaping of instructional processes. Afterwards, another shift towards teacher empowerment and devolution of authority through site-based management and shared decision-making occurred. Accordingly, the role of the school leadership evolved from instructional leadership to more collaborative leadership aiming at achieving consensus, facilitating collaborative problem solving, and managing collective action. This shift was accompanied by a shift away from instructional and curricular concerns to organizational and cultural concerns,<sup>2</sup> leading thereby to a wide consensus on more collaborative approaches for effective leadership.<sup>3</sup> Hence, models such as democratic, participatory and distributed leadership appeared.

*Distributed leadership* has no clear definition, yet it concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the school without resorting to formal position or role, i.e. through teams. In contrast to the traditional notion of leadership that depends on the hierarchical structures, a form of collective leadership with which the teachers develop expertise by working together characterizes distributed leadership.<sup>4</sup> Generally, it is concerned with empowering the teachers. However, this does not imply that responsibility is diverted; rather the formal leadership is responsible for holding the various parts of the school together through creating a common culture of collaboration and cooperation.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Alma Harris (February 2005), op. cit, p. 80.

<sup>2</sup> Paul G. Lemahieu, Patricia A. Roy & Helen F. Koss ( January 1997). "Through a Lens Clearly: A Model to Guide Instructional Leadership of Principals". In: *Urban Education*, Vol. 31, No. 5, pp. 582-608, p. 583.

<sup>3</sup> Anit Somech (December 2005). "Directive versus Participative Leadership: Two Complementary Approaches to Managing School Effectiveness". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 41, No. 5, pp. 777-800, p. 777.

<sup>4</sup> Philip A. Woods (January-March 2004). "Democratic Leadership: Drawing Distinctions with Distributed Leadership". In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 3-26, p. 6.

<sup>5</sup> Alma Harris (2004), op. cit, pp. 13-16.

There may be times where distributed leadership may adopt an instructional leadership model, especially during evaluation and inspections. Yet at times of problem-solving and decision making, collaborative endeavors are preferred, such as: involving the stakeholders in decision making, assigning important tasks to the teachers, rotating leadership responsibilities within the school, and supporting teacher-led initiatives.<sup>1</sup> Thus, in distributed leadership, leadership functions are stretched over the work of a number of individuals and the leadership tasks are accomplished through the interaction of multiple leaders.<sup>2</sup>

Various obstacles may hinder, however, distributed leadership, such as top-down structures of leadership, subject and department divisions, the absence of financial incentives, and finally, how and who distributes authority and responsibility.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, distributed leadership resides in involving the teachers in guiding and shaping instructional and institutional developments.<sup>4</sup>

Mayrowetz (2008) warns that distributed leadership may be risky, leading even to distribution of incompetence, making the teachers become overstressed, and may not necessarily affect the teaching practices or student achievement, especially if the teachers' and school's interests are not well aligned.<sup>5</sup> This was also confirmed by Harris (2004), who points out that no empirical data on the effect of distributed leadership on student achievement can be found.<sup>6</sup>

Nevertheless, Keithwood and Mascall (2008) highlight the various advantages that can be achieved, like benefiting from the capacities of the members, developing appreciation of interdependence, creating greater commitment to organizational goals and strategies, and reducing workload.<sup>7</sup>

Somech (2005) defines *participatory leadership* - or what others call democratic leadership - as joint decision making or at least shared influence in de-

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<sup>1</sup> David Hopkins (2001), op. cit, p. 124.

<sup>2</sup> Alma Harris (July-September 2007). "Distributed Leadership: Conceptual Confusion and Empirical Reticence". In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 315-325, p. 317.

<sup>3</sup> Enja Riegel (2007). „Öffentlichkeitsarbeit Oder: Der Zusammenhang von innerer und äußerer Öffentlichkeit“. In: *Grundwissen Schulleitung: Handbuch für das Schulmanagement*. Raimund Pfundtner (Ed). Köln: LinkLuchterhand, Wolters Kluwer Deutschland GmbH, pp. 281-293, p. 281.

<sup>4</sup> Alma Harris (2004), op. cit, p. 20.

<sup>5</sup> David Mayrowetz (August 2008). "Making Sense of Distributed Leadership: Exploring the Multiple Usages of the Concept in the Field". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 44, No. 3, pp. 424-435, pp. 429-430.

<sup>6</sup> Alma Harris (February 2005), op. cit, p. 82.

<sup>7</sup> Kenneth Leithwood & Blair Mascall (October 2008). "Collective Leadership Effects on Student Achievement". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 44, No. 4, pp. 529-561, p. 530.

cision-making process exerted by the superior and his or her subordinates. It encourages the followers to participate in decision-making or make their own leader-free decisions.<sup>1</sup> Thus, the distinction between the leader and the followers becomes blurred,<sup>2</sup> and the principal perceives the teachers as equal partners and acknowledges their professionalism, knowledge and skills.<sup>3</sup>

Moreover, following the belief that no single leader can perform all the leadership functions alone, everyone in the organization becomes empowered, and unlike the case in distributed leadership, responsibility in the democratic leadership becomes shared among the participants as claimed by Slater (2005).<sup>4</sup>

In this context, the leader becomes a facilitator: serving as a communicative link between different groups and attracting the marginalized voices,<sup>5</sup> maintaining healthy relationships and a positive emotional setting, ensuring careful analysis of the problems, bringing out all relevant information and perspectives, and respectfully acknowledging the others' view.<sup>6</sup>

As a result, many advantages can be achieved, such as increased quality of decisions, increased teacher motivation and satisfaction, improved quality of work-life,<sup>7</sup> greater acceptance of jointly made decisions, and a sense of responsibility to accomplish goals.<sup>8</sup> Freyer (2011) also adds that democratic leadership improves also the school performance by encouraging the members to discover new opportunities and challenges.<sup>9</sup>

However, for the success of participatory leadership, the followers have to: be held accountable for their actions and decisions, be responsible for maintaining their autonomy, recognize the ways in which they can function as active participants, and be willing to cooperate with the leader and the rest of the participants. Moreover, the members have to be skilled on a wide variety of tasks,

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<sup>1</sup> Anit Somech (December 2005), op. cit, p. 778.

<sup>2</sup> Bernard M. Bass (2000), op. cit, p. 29.

<sup>3</sup> Franz-Josef Thiemermann (1998). *Schulleiter im Hauptberuf: Führung und Management in der Schule*. Kriftel: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag, pp. 91-93.

<sup>4</sup> Lorraine Slater (October-December 2005). "Leadership for Collaboration: An affective Process". In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, Vol. 8, No. 4, pp. 321-333, p. 323.

<sup>5</sup> Helen Gunter & Steve Rayner (2007). "Modernizing the School Force in England: Challenging Transformation and Leadership". In: *Leadership*. Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 47-64, p. 52.

<sup>6</sup> Lorraine Slater (October-December 2005). "Leadership for Collaboration: An affective Process". In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, Vol. 8, No. 4, pp. 321-333, p. 323.

<sup>7</sup> Anit Somech (December 2005), op. cit, pp. 778-780.

<sup>8</sup> Kenneth Leithwood & Blair Mascall (October 2008), op. cit, p. 532.

<sup>9</sup> Mick Freyer (2011). *Ethics and Organizational Leadership: Developing a Normative Model*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, p. 22.

such as speaking, thinking, and organizing, whereas the leaders should have the ability to provide suggestions and instructions and qualify the members to become future leaders.<sup>1</sup>

However, there are situations in which democratic leadership may not be recommended, such as 1- when the problem is clearly defined and has a straightforward technical solution, 2- when it comes to implementing the rules or the laws and 3- when the members are indifferent about a specific issue.<sup>2</sup>

Hence, Bolden (2011) believes that the individual leader still dominates the popular thought even though participatory leadership is gaining weight in school education.<sup>3</sup>

Another leadership model that is focusing on performance as well as the efficiently mobilization of resources is the entrepreneurial leadership.

### **Entrepreneurial leadership**

No clear definitions for entrepreneurial leadership can be found in literature, yet most of the emphasis is on the personal characteristics, roles, and the motives of the entrepreneurial leader. Accordingly, the entrepreneurial leader has certain personality characteristics, such as leading initiatives, taking risks, behaving autonomously, exploiting business opportunities, and combating fierce challenge and competition. An entrepreneurial leader is independent, tolerant vis-à-vis uncertainty, convincing, creative, and has self-control.<sup>4</sup> Therefore, he is able to: discover new relations and combinations between distinct items, encourage an atmosphere that accepts new ideas,<sup>5</sup> and develop private and public links to community resources, whether private and public resources.<sup>6</sup> Hence, Chand and Amin-Chudhury (2006) reveal two basic roles for the entrepreneurial

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<sup>1</sup> John Gastil (August 1994), op. cit, p. 959.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, pp. 963-965.

<sup>3</sup> Richard Bolden, Beverly Hawkins, Jonathan Gosling & Scott Taylor (2011), op. cit, pp. 35-36.

<sup>4</sup> Harald Pechlaner & Eva-Maria Hammann (2008). *Management, Entrepreneurship & Leadership- Versuch einer Abgrenzung bei Beherbergungsbetrieben*. [www.springerlink.com/content/g3n7431881381037.pdf](http://www.springerlink.com/content/g3n7431881381037.pdf), 25/2/2010, pp. 99-100.

<sup>5</sup> Ingmar Bremer (2009). "Common Factors between Swedish and Chinese Entrepreneurial Leadership Styles". In: *Business Intelligence Journal*. Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 9-41, p. 11.

<sup>6</sup> Jill Sperandio (2005). "Social Entrepreneurs and Educational Leadership in Bangladesh". In: *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, Teachers College, Columbia University, December 1, pp. 18-29, p. 27.

leadership. The first is to define the organisational domain clearly, and the second to obtain the social capital necessary for achieving the desired goals.<sup>1</sup>

The entrepreneurial leaders are driven by the will to succeed and introduce innovations through overcoming constraints that usually deter others.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, they respond to customer needs, motivate the employees, open up new relations with the external world, modernize old processes, secure old sources of finance and open new ones, and challenge uncertainty.<sup>3</sup>

Based on the above, Panda (2000) reveals three main views regarding entrepreneurial leader. The first is the economic view that looks at the entrepreneur as a person directed towards profit maximization and achieving materialistic objectives while having also spiritual, patriotic, social, psychological and ethnic values. Furthermore, the entrepreneur must possess the capacity of risk taking, the alertness about the new opportunities in his field, and the ability to mobilize resources. The second view is the sociologist view that emphasizes the way the entrepreneurial leader designs and manages his organization to achieve the desired goals. The third view is the psychologist view that perceives the entrepreneur as mastering qualities of leadership when solving persistent problems and seizing unusual opportunities. Accordingly, the entrepreneur will not just be risk taking but also risk maintaining, a function that shows high self-confidence.<sup>4</sup>

Historically, entrepreneurial leadership did not get much attention from the researchers.<sup>5</sup> One reason why it is flourishing currently is that it allows corporations to uncover the innovative talents of its own workers and managers.<sup>6</sup> It

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<sup>1</sup> Vijaya Sherry Chand & Geeta Amin-Chudhury (2006). "Teachers and Socio-educational Entrepreneurship: Competence as a Consequence". In: *The Journal of Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 15, No. 2, pp. 97-115, pp. 99-100.

<sup>2</sup> Vipin Gupta & Ian C. MacMillan & Gita Surie (2009). "Entrepreneurial Leadership: Developing and Measuring a Cross-Cultural Construct". In: *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 19, pp. 241-260, p. 244.

<sup>3</sup> Mike Peters (2005). "Entrepreneurial Skills in Leadership and Human Resource Management Evaluated by Apprentices in Small Tourism Businesses". In: *Education + Training*, Vol. 47, No. 8/9, pp. 575-591, p. 577.

<sup>4</sup> N.M. Panda (2000). "What Brings Entrepreneurial Success in a Developing Region". In: *The Journal of Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 199-213, pp. 200-202.

<sup>5</sup> Vishal Gupta & Cheryl Fernandez (February 2009). "Cross-Cultural Similarities and Differences in Characteristics Attributed to Entrepreneurs: A Three Nation Study". In: *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*. Vol. 15, No. 3 pp. 304-318, pp. 305-306.

<sup>6</sup> Donald F. Kuratko & Jeffrey S. Hornsby (1998). "Corporate Entrepreneurial Leadership for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century". In: *The Journal of Leadership Studies*. Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 27-39, p. 29.

takes responsibility for the failure of its teams and uses them as a step to ultimate success and strategic achievement.<sup>1</sup>

Some scholars like Gupta & Fernandez (February 2009) relate entrepreneurial leadership to certain cultures. Both scholars conclude that attributes related to entrepreneurial leadership may be existent in some countries while be absent in others, such as being competent, having a strong need for achievement, self-reliant, curious, and logical. Both also mention that different characteristics may be stressed on differently in various countries or cultures.<sup>2</sup>

Yet, earlier Kuratko & Hornsby (1998) have mentioned four important steps required to encourage entrepreneurial leadership irrelevant to any culture. These are: a) the presence of explicit goals that are agreed upon by the members of the organization, b) a system of feedback or positive reinforcement to realize that there is acceptance and reward, c) an emphasis on individual responsibility, confidence, trust, and accountability, and d) rewards based on results.

Both scholars refer also to four prerequisites for the success of entrepreneurial leadership. These are a) having a shared vision for innovation and the objectives and programs that need to be achieved, b) supporting innovation and risk taking, c) developing teams where the competencies and skills are integrated and become greater than the sum of their parts, and d) encouraging an entrepreneurial climate that allows new ideas to flourish as well as helps innovative-minded people to reach their full potential.<sup>3</sup>

Following on that all, Seitz & Capaul (2005) highlight that the emphasis in the 1980s had been on instructional leadership with its focus on the schedule, curricula, and the educational process. Starting with 1990s the emphasis shifted towards more collaborative styles of leadership with their focus on: involvement of school members in the decision-making process, team-oriented direction, and innovation.<sup>4</sup>

Finally, Kernberg (2000) claims that the effectiveness of an organization does not solely depend upon its leadership. It also depends on the organizational objectives, its administrative structure and its financial capacities. The objectives should not be trivial, overburden the financial capacities, and have to be

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<sup>1</sup> Ingmar Bremer (2009), op. cit, p. 10.

<sup>2</sup> Vishal Gupta & Cheryl Fernandez (February 2009), op. cit, pp. 312-313.

<sup>3</sup> Donald F. Kuratko & Jeffrey S. Hornsby (1998), op. cit, p. 30

<sup>4</sup> Hans Seitz & Roman Capaul (2005). *Schulführung und Schulentwicklung. Theoretische Grundlagen und Empfehlungen für die Praxis*. 2 edition. Bern: Hapt Verlag, p. 24.

clear enough for the administrative structure.<sup>1</sup> Thus, the more decentralization of decision-making is connected to administrative and financial decentralization, the more all types of education decentralization (next to the school leadership) could be supportive to school effectiveness.

Before moving on to the empirical findings, perhaps it is important to introduce a glimpse first about the local government system in both Germany and Egypt as well as their educational systems.

## Summary

In part one of this chapter the definition, types, advantages and disadvantages, and prerequisites for the successful implementation of decentralization in general and education decentralization in particular are discussed. A special attention is put on political will and capacity building for the success of decentralization in addition to the fact that there is no best way to achieve education decentralization. The incremental approach is advocated to allow the local units and the schools, especially the school leadership, to adapt to the changes in their roles and the challenges that come along when authority is gradually transferred to them. Part two of this chapter discusses the definition of leadership in general and educational leadership in particular. It demonstrates how research on leadership has evolved in the various approaches from focusing on the traits and personality characteristics, to the emphasis on the behavior, then on the situational context and finally on the reciprocal interaction between the leadership and the followers. Thereafter, various educational leadership models are demonstrated. Nevertheless, empirical research maintains that even though the effect of leadership on student achievement is significant, yet it is small.

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<sup>1</sup> Otto F. Kernberg (2000). *Ideologie, Konflikt und Führung: Psychoanalyse von Gruppenprozessen und Persönlichkeitsstruktur*. Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta, p. 67.





## **Chapter Two**

### **Local Government and the History of Educational Administration in Germany and Egypt**

Before starting with the empirical part it is import to shed light on the local government in both Germany and Egypt and their educational administration to demonstrate the context in which education decentralization is taking place.

Therefore, part one of this chapter demonstrates the local government and educational administration in Germany.

Part two discusses the local government and educational administration in Egypt.

## Part One

### Local Government and Educational Administration in Germany

To understand the context in which education decentralization is taking place in Germany, it is important to study its local government as well as its educational administration.

#### 1 History of local government in Germany

Local government in Germany can be traced back to 1808 with the reform of Karl Freiherr “Vom und zum Stein”. This reform regarded local authorities as no longer appendages of the state, rather as independent. This was decided in the hope of curbing down the tensions between the state and the subjects and reinforcing a sense of community by involving the people in public administration. In 1831 a further reform was initiated allowing the direct election of the (Magistrat) as the head of the administration. Yet, only the property-owning male citizens were allowed to vote. Only by the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the election right was expanded to include further segments of the population. In 1935, the introduction of the so-called Führer (leader) principle placed a restriction on local autonomy since it made the local authorities act as an instrument of the federal government.<sup>1</sup>

After World War II, a great emphasis was placed on the local governments to rebuild the country again. The allied forces ousted major top leaders and agreed on decentralizing the German political structures. The first local elections were held in 1946 and led to the establishment of democratic political structures. Bogumil & Holtkamp (2006) consider the time interval between the World War II and the first election as the fruitful time of local government.<sup>2</sup>

In the British zones (North Rhine-Westphalia and Lower Saxony), the mayor (Bürgermeister) was elected by the local council (Rat) and presided the local council. In the Southern Länder (Bavaria and Baden- Württemberg) the mayor was directly elected by the people and was considered as the chief executive and the president of the local council. In the Länder (Hesse and Schleswig-Holsteins) where the magistrate law was applicable, the mayor was elected by a committee and was considered merely as an ordinary member of the local community. In the Länder of Rhineland-Palatine, Saarland and some local units in

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<sup>1</sup> Dieter Haschke (1998), op. cit.

<sup>2</sup> Jörg Bogumil & Lars Holtkamp (2006). *Kommunalpolitik und Kommunalverwaltung*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 29-30.

Schleswig-Holsteins the mayor was elected by the local council and the mayor-constitution (Bürgermeisterverfassung) was applicable. Therefore, after the World War II until the 1990s four different constitutions co-existed for the local government in Germany. Wherever the influence of the mayor was strong (as in the Southern Länder) the mayor-constitution was applicable. While in the Länder were the magistrate constitution was applied, the mayor played a smaller role. Many factors affected the ability of the mayor to influence the local council, like the degree of politicization of the political parties, the size of the local units, the majority behavior, and the personal characteristics and capabilities of the different actors.<sup>1</sup>

In the early 1960s and the 1970s Germany adopted a “Neo-Keynesian” interventionist welfare policy. By 1968 the citizens demanded to participate in the decision-making process. Generally, this period was marked mainly by reforms on the Länder level, where the territorial borders were newly drawn.<sup>2</sup> Accordingly, many municipalities or counties were merged together with the aim of improving management efficiency and effectiveness.<sup>3</sup> Later in the 1980s social movements defending environment, women rights and peace began to appear and the political parties in the different local units began to exert greater influence.<sup>4</sup>

Before the 1990s, the local units were headed by a committee in the British Occupational Zones, by the mayor who was directly elected by the public in the American Occupational Zones, and by the mayor who was elected by a council in the remaining zones.

Yet, by the 1990s, the German local government adopted two major reforms; one is direct democracy with the direct election of the local chief executives (mayors), and the second is NPM with the focus on economic efficiency and output-oriented budgeting.<sup>5</sup>

Before the unification of Germany in 1990, East Germany underwent many reforms on its local government law. These reforms aimed at unifying the local government laws, allowing free local elections, and achieving decentralization. This has led to a change in the tasks performed by the local units. Some of the tasks remained such as the control over taxes on goods and services, some

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<sup>1</sup> Jörg Bogumil & Lars Holtkamp (2006), *op. cit.*, p. 31.

<sup>2</sup> Hellmut Wollmann (2001), *op. cit.*

<sup>3</sup> OECD (1997). *Managing across Levels of Government*, *op. cit.*

<sup>4</sup> Jörg Bogumil & Lars Holtkamp (2006), *op. cit.*, pp. 32-39.

<sup>5</sup> Hellmut Wollmann (2001), *op. cit.*

ran out like the management and dispersion of living space or land, and some were emphasized on such as the support of the economy.<sup>1</sup>

With the unification, the local units in the Eastern parts of Germany had to adapt themselves to the working conditions and tasks of their counterparts in the Western parts. Yet, party politicization was low in these newly integrated areas. And this led to a strong dominance of the local government, which had to stress on economization and management. Therefore, privatization and public private partnerships were widely advocated.<sup>2</sup>

Currently, the responsibility of local government lies in the Länder. Therefore, each Land has its own local government. The local units enjoy the membership of citizens, sovereign power, legal capacity, as well as local autonomy and responsibility.<sup>3</sup>

## **2 Formation and functions of the local governments in Germany**

Germany is composed of 16 states (Länder). 13 of which are territorial Länder where the Land (state) supersedes the local units. The remaining three are “city-state” Länder (Berlin, Bremen and Hamburg) that are both a state and a local unit. Each Land has its own parliament that is directly elected through proportional representation, its constitution, and its local government that is headed by a minister-president. The federal government (Bund) supervises the Länder to assure that they do not violate the federal constitution, whereas the federal parliament cannot oppose laws passed by the Land parliament as long as they do not violate the federal laws.<sup>4</sup>

No nation-wide structure for local government exists in Germany. The levels of local government range from two levels (1- districts (Bezirke) and towns not belonging to a district, and 2- municipalities (Gemeinde)) to three levels (1- districts and towns not belonging to a district, 2- towns (Kreise), and 3- municipalities) in the various Länder.<sup>5</sup>

The Länder control police, social assistance and housing allowances, and cultural and educational affairs. Whereas the local units are responsible for wa-

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<sup>1</sup> Sabine Kuhlmann (2004), op. cit, pp. 14-15.

<sup>2</sup> Jörg Bogumil & Lars Holtkamp (2006), op. cit, pp. 40- 43.

<sup>3</sup> Dieter Haschke (1998), op.cit.

<sup>4</sup> OECD (1997). *Managing across Levels of Government: Germany*. OECD.  
[www.oecd.org/dataoecd/10/0/1902398.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/10/0/1902398.pdf). 08/01/2009.

<sup>5</sup> Kai Wegrich (2006). *Steuerung im Mehrebenensystem der Länder: Governance-Formen zwischen Hierarchie, Kooperation und Management*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, p. 98.

ter, electricity, district heating, gas, wastewater services, waste removal, land use plans, public investments, construction and maintenance of hospitals, schools, local roads, parks, sport and social facilities and cemeteries, and local public transport.<sup>1</sup>

Many authorities are delegated from the Länder to the local units, like general security, nationality, registration passport affairs, commercial affairs, health care, veterinary affairs, registration and taxation of vehicles, water legislation, land cultivation, youth affairs, protection and maintenance of historical monuments, registration of birth, marriages and death, statistics, taking care of refugees, trade inspection, food inspection, roads, water supply and sewage, and forestry and fisheries.<sup>2</sup> In addition, the local units have to share certain services with the Länder, like economic structural policies, health, transportation and universities.<sup>3</sup>

The local units in Germany follow the “double function model”. According to which they pursue their own functions next to carrying out the Länder functions that are delegated to them.<sup>4</sup> The Länder and the local units perform their tasks according to statutes that do not require the consent of the Bundersrat (the German legislative authority), rather work on their own responsibility. The mayor is the head of the local council and in most of the Länder is directly elected by the people. He represents the Land against the courts and the outside world.<sup>5</sup>

Around 72% of Land revenues come from Länder taxes, turnover taxes, corporation taxes and income tax. The local units receive a share of federal tax revenues, Land tax revenues, and taxes revenues from objects such as land, trade, non-essential spending such as dogs, and beverage. Another source of revenues that counts about 15% of total revenues for the local units comes from the fees and contributions charged for diverse services. The grants from the Länder to the local units constitute almost 28% and are given to achieve equalizations among the different local units based on their size and financial capaci-

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<sup>1</sup> Dieter Haschke (1998). *Local Government Administration in Germany*. [www.iuscomp.org/gla/literature/localgov.htm](http://www.iuscomp.org/gla/literature/localgov.htm). 20/01/2009.

<sup>2</sup> Dieter Haschke (1998), op. cit.

<sup>3</sup> OECD (1997). *Managing across Levels of Government...*, op. cit.

<sup>4</sup> Sabine Kuhlmann (2004). “Lokale Verwaltungsreform in Deutschland und Frankreich: Dezentralisierung, Demokratisierung, Ökonomisierung”. In: *Tagung Stand und Perspektiven der politikwissenschaftlichen Verwaltungsforschung*. 23-25 September, p. 5.

<sup>5</sup> OECD (1997). *Managing across Levels of Government...*, op. cit.

ties. The Länder have the right – in case of inadequate financial resources- to take loans for investments or investment promotion.

Services are provided by three kinds of workers; civil servants (Beamte), employees (Angestellte) and workers (Arbeiter). Only the civil servants are governed by the public law, while the rest are under the private law contracts. Pay and working conditions provided to civil servants are unified all over the country and are usually determined through negotiations between the trade unions and the public employers of the federation, Länder and municipalities. Hence, a centralizing element is present with respect to the rules guiding the civil servants only.<sup>1</sup>

Beneath the Länder, each local level or unit has two main bodies 1- the mayor who is in most of the Länder directly elected by the public for six years. He is the head of the executive body and the civil servants in the municipality along with his position as the head of the municipality council. He represents the municipality vis-à-vis the outside world. 2- The local unit council, which is composed of members who are directly elected by the public for also six years. Civil servants are not allowed to be local unit council members or mayors, unless they resign from their post.

The local unit council has decision-making committees and has the right to inspect the public enterprises. The local units plan and manage their budgets as well as have a five-year financial plan and an investment plan. Yet, it is the local unit council, which has to agree on the proposed budget so that it becomes a law and can be implemented. Usually political parties and interest groups are represented in these committees.<sup>2</sup>

Wollmann (2001) mentions that the local government in Germany suffers from some characteristics such as:

- the dominance of rules and regulations over efficiency,
- the hierarchical bureaucratic model that ensures intra-organizational central and vertical control rather than de-central control,
- traditional civil service system with built-in-immobility and limited performance incentives,
- and the slow incremental reforms.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> OECD (1997). *Managing across Levels of Government...*, op. cit.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid.

<sup>3</sup> Hellmut Wollmann (2001). *Local Government Modernisation in Germany: Stages, Discourses, Patterns, International Perspectives*. <http://amor.cms.hu-berlin.de/h0598bce/docs/hw2000-local-government-modernisation.pdf>. 07/01/2009.

There has been a debate about changing the public service law to make it more performance- and merit-oriented.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, two main trends have been witnessed as follows:

- To grant local units further administrative capabilities to improve land use planning and local self-government.
- To improve citizen participation by introducing the direct election of the mayor and referenda in almost all the Länder.<sup>2</sup>

### **3 Education administration in Germany**

In Germany there are over 47000 schools, 90% of which are public.<sup>3</sup> The responsibility of education rests in the Länder and the local units according to the law number 7 paragraph 1,<sup>4</sup> while the federal role, represented in the advisory body called the conference of ministries of education (KMK), is limited to merely ensuring national comparability by coordinating the educational standards, structures, curricula, and graduation certificates of the different educational phases.

Therefore, it is common to find variations in the educational policies within the different Länder as a result of the variety of Länder legislations and their implementation.<sup>5</sup>

The educational system in Germany is administered by the following bodies:

#### **The Kultusministerkonferenz (KMK)**

This conference combines all the Länder education ministers and their deputies. Some representatives from the federal government may attend the meetings, too. The main aim of this conference is to discuss inter-state educational matters, coordinate educational policies, and represent the educational ministries vis-à-vis the federal government and Europe. Since the KMK combines all the educational ministers of the different Länder, it is not easy to take

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<sup>1</sup> OECD (1997). *Managing across Levels of Government...*, op. cit.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid.

<sup>3</sup> Armin Lohmann (2007), op. cit, p. 75.

<sup>4</sup> Klaus Hebborn (2007), op. cit, p. 248.

<sup>5</sup> Mark A. Ashwill (1999). "The Development and Implementation of Education Standards in Germany". In: *The Educational System in Germany: Case Study Findings*. USA: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, pp. 19-79. [www.ed.gov/pubs/GermanCaseStudy/chapter2.html](http://www.ed.gov/pubs/GermanCaseStudy/chapter2.html). 14/11/2008, p. 42.

decisions in this conference, as most of them are taken through consensus and may possibly take time.<sup>1</sup>

### **The Ministerpräsidentenkonferenz (MPK)**

This conference, which includes the ministers of education in the 16 Länder of Germany, determines the topics to be discussed by the KMK and ratifies the decisions taken by the KMK.<sup>2</sup>

### **The Bund-Länder Kommission (BLK)**

This commission was established in 1970 at the aim of developing ten-year overall educational plans for the entire republic. The BLK is composed of eight Federal representatives and 16 Länder representatives. Its decisions have an advisory nature. Due to the divergent interests it was not able to achieve this goal, but was also not dissolved and its main role became confined merely to financing certain model trials that are conducted within the Länder or on the national level. Therefore, the BLK plays an important role when large scale educational projects are conducted.

In the educational reforms of 2006 (Förderalismusreform 2006), there was a gradual tendency to dissolve the BLK and merge its functions within the KMK.<sup>3</sup>

### **The Länder Parliaments**

It is the Länder legislatures/ parliaments that are supposed to take the decisions, while the Länder executives (local units) are supposed to implement them. Thus, the parliaments take decisions concerning the educational goals, school structures and levels, establishment, dissolution and merger of schools, operation of the educational process in the schools, determination and organization of exams, rules and regulations within the schools, school finance, and school supervision and accountability.<sup>4</sup>

### **The Land Ministry of Education (Kultusministerium) and its executive offices**

The Land ministry of education is mainly responsible for supervising and monitoring the schools. This supervision focuses on school organization, planning, and leadership.

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<sup>1</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007). *Innovationswege im deutschen Bildungssystem: Die Verbreitung der Idee "Schulautonomie" im Ländervergleich*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 22-23.

<sup>2</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), op. cit, pp. 23-24.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, pp. 24-25.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid, pp. 25-26.



However, many Länder ministries of education (KMs) devolved a lot of authorities to the school management. Some of the authorities include school schedule, organization of breaks and vacations, and the organization of teacher-student relationship.<sup>1</sup>

In addition, the ministries of education formulate the educational policies and communicate them to the districts and schools. They indicate the topics that should be covered and regularly publish a list of textbooks from which the schools can select. In addition, they may also suggest different activities such as homework and the kind of assessment that the teachers may use.<sup>2</sup>

Generally, the Länder are responsible for the following:

- curricula reform and reorganization of school time-table,
- time organization of school and lessons,
- performance and behavior evaluation,
- monitoring and supervision of school, school management and school boards.<sup>3</sup>

### **The local units and the local legislative councils**

The local councils take the local laws solely. Therefore, they are responsible for the establishment and merger of schools, the availability of educational materials and equipment, as well as school nutrition.<sup>4</sup>

### **Other local actors**

Other actors may also have an effect on schools such as the local branches of the most dominant political parties (especially the social democratic party (SPD) and the Christian democratic union (CDU)), aid organizations and institutions, community unions, interest groups, and religious institutions (churches and religious communities). Sometimes these actors may have powerful influence that may even hinder or block certain reforms. However, most of these institutions do not exert a long lasting and permanent influence, rather they become active to defend a certain cause and thereafter their role diminishes.<sup>5</sup>

From the above mentioned, it is worth realizing that the federal state, especially through its most important actor; the KMK- has a relatively weak influence over education compared to the influence of the individual Länder. It

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<sup>1</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), op. cit, pp. 26-28.

<sup>2</sup> Mark A. Ashwill (1999), op. cit.

<sup>3</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), op. cit, pp. 51-52

<sup>4</sup> Ibid, pp. 28-29.

<sup>5</sup> Wilfried Lohre, MarK Becker, Petra Madelung, Detlev Schnoor& Katrin Weisker (2008). *Selbstständige Schulen in regionalen Bildungslandschaften: Eine Bilanz*. Troisdorf: Bildungsverlag Eins GmbH, p. 15.

merely aims at coordinating the educational policies among the various Länder and setting nation-wide educational standards for education in order to allow the comparability among the different Länder.<sup>1</sup>

Hence, Rürup (2007) considers education on a nation-wide scale as decentralized, where most of the educational changes emanate from the local levels and follow therefore a bottom-up approach. These changes may not be applied in all Länder. Different paths may be pursued in the various Länder, a matter that may even trigger competition between the Länder to improve their educational standards.<sup>2</sup>

#### 4 Recent attempts of education decentralization in Germany

Recent debates towards strengthening school autonomy and self-dependency in Germany can be traced back according to Risse (1999) and Knauss (1999) to the suggestions of the education commission of Lower Saxony in 1995<sup>3</sup> to increase the partial autonomy of the schools within the rules and guidelines of the Länder.<sup>4</sup>

With the reform of 2006 (Förderalismusreform 2006) the authorities of the federal government were reorganized to grant the Länder more authorities and support the idea of school autonomy. Since 1969, the federal government has been playing an important role in financing and shaping education. It used to finance many educational initiatives in order to oblige the Länder to follow its rules. However, with this new reform, the Länder acquired more authorities and autonomy in funding and shaping education.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, school autonomy became a major aspect of achieving education decentralization.<sup>6</sup> Accordingly, the schools have acquired more autonomy in the following fields:

**Teaching environment:** where the school leadership has the right to:

- assign the different teachers to the different classes,

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<sup>1</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), op. cit, p.37.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, pp. 40-42.

<sup>3</sup> Erika Risse (1999). „Netzwerke innovativer Schulen: selbstwirksame Schulentwicklung“. In: *Beiträge zur Schulentwicklung: Von der Bildungsplanung zur Schulentwicklung*. Erika Risse, Hans-Joachim Schmidt (Eds). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp. 196-203, p. 196.

<sup>4</sup> Georg Knauss (1999). „Auf dem Weg zu einer neuen Schulaufsicht“. In: *Beiträge zur Schulentwicklung: Von der Bildungsplanung zur Schulentwicklung*. Erika Risse, Hans-Joachim Schmidt (Eds). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp. 218-228, p. 224.

<sup>5</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), op. cit, p. 19.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid, pp. 112-113.

- decide which textbooks they are going to teach and which instruction materials they are going to use,
- organize the teaching schedules,
- set the weight and rules of grading marks, number of exams, student achievement assessment techniques,
- assess the required teaching period of a course in accordance with the students' needs, and the length of a teaching period,
- determine the size and number of classes,
- set the number of school's day-offs.<sup>1</sup>

**Personnel management:** Accordingly, the school has the right to:

- to choose and hire the teaching staff according to their profile and work experience,
- choose the principal. The school may follow one of many proceedings. They may either choose the principal directly out of minimum three candidates from the school management, rate the candidates and then leave the final selection to the Land ministry of education, or form a selection committee to choose the principal,
- hire honorable teaching staff for a certain period of time and according to a special budget,
- select teachers who will be part of the school leadership,
- determine the needed number of teaching staff,
- determine the decision-making procedures of the school-board,
- decide whether or not the parents can attend the various school conferences and meetings, or that would be allowed for only a limited period of time,
- the principal has the right to address complaints, issue experience and duty certificates, and assign special work trips or other peripheral duties<sup>2</sup>.

**Financial management:** The school has the right to:

- set its own budget and even ask for an increase in the upcoming budget to allow for further purchase of teaching materials and equipments,
- spend its budget on the items determined by the school itself,
- accept sponsorships and donations from the local community,
- save money from its budget. However, the school is forced then by the Land ministry of education to spend the money on certain items. Usually, it is spent on cleaning, water, and electricity costs,

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<sup>1</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), op. cit, pp. 148- 153.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, pp. 153-157.

- conduct fundraising projects like renting class rooms for specific events, provide adult learning opportunities, kitchen bazaar, and flea markets<sup>1</sup>.

**School buildings and furnishing:** The school has the right to take decisions regarding purchases, maintenance, and repair and to devote money from its budget to these items<sup>2</sup>.

Because of this tendency towards further decentralization, the schools began to intensify their internal communication procedures whether between the school leadership and the teachers or among the teachers themselves in order to decide upon work plans and textbooks. They conduct independently their own school-development programs and are encouraged to allow parents, students, and school-members to set certain goals against which the school performance would be evaluated and compared with other schools.<sup>3</sup>

Regarding school leadership, the management of the available resources<sup>4</sup> and school monitoring became one of its main responsibilities increasing thereby its accountability.<sup>5</sup> On the international level, many principals claim that the newly devolved authorities have forced them to spend more time in work-related activities, mostly even after the school hours.<sup>6</sup> Furthermore, education decentralization has transformed the role of the principals dramatically in the case of unclear rules and regulations role ambiguity appeared.<sup>7</sup> Moreover, difficulties in seeking authoritative answers from the local educational units were experienced.<sup>8</sup> Yet, the majority of them appreciate these endeavors and oppose going back to centralized arrangements.<sup>9</sup>

The KMs and the local educational units, on the other hand, are encouraged to cooperate with the schools in: supporting their development endeavors, providing advice, reaching at new sources for fundraising, creating networks

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<sup>1</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), op. cit, pp. 157-160.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, p.127.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, pp. 162-165.

<sup>4</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2008), op. cit, p. 235.

<sup>5</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), op. cit, pp. 170-171.

<sup>6</sup> Judith Chapman & William Lowe Boyd (Fall 1986), op. cit, p. 44.

<sup>7</sup> Ibid, p. 40.

<sup>8</sup> Dan Gibton, Naame Sabar & Ellen B. Goldring (2000). "How Principals of Autonomous Schools in Israel View Implementation of Decentralization and Restructuring Policy: Risks, Rights, and Wrongs". In: *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 193-210, p. 194.

<sup>9</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2008), op. cit, pp. 246-249.

with outside actors, gaining competencies for budget preparation, moderating communication structures, and providing teacher development options.<sup>1</sup>

However, the Länder with their executive offices have not lost their responsibilities relatively to the schools. The general responsibility for education and organization of schools lies still in the hands of the Länder.<sup>2</sup> It is the Länder through their KMs that determine the guidelines of education and curricula, while the content is left to the school and the teachers to determine. Also, the Länder are responsible for determining education policies, organizing school structure, creating teacher objectives, supervising teacher work, and textbook approval and selection.<sup>3</sup>

Even though, there are many differences among the various Länder in Germany. The different Länder laws show a degree of variations in their degree of autonomy given to the schools.<sup>4</sup> Yet, this autonomy given to the schools does not convert them into independent. Sometimes, the various attempts of extending schools autonomy were hindered by the administrative obstacles imposed by the Länder and the long decision-making processes that kill bottom-up initiatives.<sup>5</sup>

This is why Zlatkin-Troitschanskaia (2006) considers the German educational system as marked by 1- central hierarchy in which the schools are considered as a lowest part in the hierarchy of the whole educational system, and by 2- bureaucracy in which many rules guide the role of the schools and the orders follow a top-down approach.<sup>6</sup>

Nevertheless as shall be seen in the following chapters further steps towards more decentralization are taken.

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<sup>1</sup> Klaus Hebborn (2007), op. cit, pp. 253-255.

<sup>2</sup> Matthias Rürup(2007), op. cit. p. 173.

<sup>3</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999). *Educational Accountability: The State of the Art*. Gütersloh: Bertelsmann Foundation Publishers, p. 157.

<sup>4</sup> Olga Zlatkin-Troitschanskaia (2006). *Steuerbarkeit von Bildungssystemen mittels politischer Reformstrategien: Interdisziplinäre theoretische Analyse und empirische Studie zur Erweiterung der Autonomie im öffentlichen Schulwesen*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, p. 27.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid, pp. 59-66.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid, pp. 56-57.

## **Part Two**

### **Local Government and Educational Administration in Egypt**

As it is the case in Germany, it is also important to study its local government as well as its educational administration to understand the context in which education decentralization is taking place in Egypt.

#### **1 History of local government in Egypt**

Egypt has known throughout its history centralized local administration. After the French occupation in 1798, the established local councils (الدواوين) followed the principle of appointments instead of elections and had only a consultative nature. Even the directorates councils (مجالس المديریات) that were established in 1883 were not acknowledged as having a normative nature and had only a consultative nature. Despite the major reforms that occurred on their nature in 1909 and in 1923 - through which they were granted the normative nature and composed of the elected landlords as well as appointed senior government officials - they were under the control of the central government and could not take independent decisions. Only in 1960, a law called the law of public administration number 124/ 1960 was issued in Egypt to rule all the local councils on various levels. Later on, the successive constitutions had articles ruling the local units until the currently applicable law of public administration number 43/1979. This law gives the normative nature to the local units and allows the creation of new kinds of local units when necessity arises. It considers free election the way to form local popular councils, stresses upon the democratic nature of the Egyptian local administration system, grants the local popular councils their right to determine their budgets, and organizes the relationship between the local units, the parliament and the central government. In addition, it defines the functions of both the local popular councils and the local executive councils respectively.<sup>1</sup>

#### **2 Formation and functions of the local governments in Egypt**

Egypt as a unitary state has 27 governorates. Local government in Egypt ranges from two levels to four levels. In the urban governorates such as Cairo, Suez and Port Said there are two levels, 1- the governorate and 2- the sub-district. While in some rural governorates such as Algharbeyah or Aldaqahleyah

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<sup>1</sup> Samir Abd El Wahab (2008). "Decentralization in Egypt: Towards Activating the Institutional and Legal Framework". In: *Conference on Decentralization in Egypt: Opportunities and Challenges*. Cairo: June 25<sup>th</sup>-26<sup>th</sup>. (Original in Arabic), pp. 13-20.

four local levels may exist. These are 1- the governorate, 2- the district, 3- the city and villages, and 4- the sub-districts.<sup>1</sup>

Each local level or unit has its own budget that is prepared by the executive local council, which represents the executive authority in the local unit and is ratified on by the local popular council, which represents the legislative authority. Afterwards it is added to the national budget to be accredited by the People's Assembly (the Egyptian lower legislative chamber).

Concerning representation of the local unit against the courts and the outside world, the president of the local popular council represents the local popular council, who and the deputy are selected from among the council members through secret ballots with the condition that one of them is a worker or a peasant. As for the governors, the Egyptian president appoints them. The prime minister selects the head of the executive council in the levels of the district, cities and villages, and the sub-districts. The (central) law of public service number 47/1978 applies to all civil servants throughout the country.<sup>2</sup>

Each local level has two councils; the popular local council and the executive council. The public directly elects the local popular council. Its membership should be composed of at least 50% of workers and peasants (which is a condition that is supposed to represent the Egyptian population composition). Representatives of the army, police forces, judiciary as well as the heads of local executive councils or executive apparatuses are not allowed to nominate themselves in these councils. The size of these local popular councils depends on the administrative departments that are existent in the local unit.<sup>3</sup>

The local popular councils perform the following functions:

- supervise and monitor the lower local popular councils and public facilities that fall under their jurisdiction,
- determine how public facilities shall be used and managed,
- assess and approve the popular participation plans,
- suggest new plans for improving production efficiency.<sup>4</sup>

Although the constitution of 1971 clearly stated the incremental transfer of local responsibilities to the local popular councils, yet, these councils still suffer from reduced or impeded responsibilities.

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<sup>1</sup> Samir Abd El Wahab (2006), *op. cit.*, p. 185.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 187- 197.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 192.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 201-203.

The executive council on the other hand is composed of the leaders of the production and service sectors, the head of local units, and the heads of the public enterprises. It performs generally the following functions:

- supervises the activities of the executive apparatuses of the local units and evaluates their performances,
- prepares the budget and project proposals,
- assists the president of the local unit in putting the necessary financial and managerial plans for the affairs of the local unit,
- sets the rules that ensure the good operation of the local executive apparatuses,
- studies and suggests the creation of joint projects that may serve many local units simultaneously.<sup>1</sup>

### **3 Educational administration in Egypt**

The binding law that organizes the Egyptian educational system is law number 139/1981 that aims at achieving greater decentralization, empowering the local units, and allowing the governorates to perform their duties and responsibilities. According to Al Gindi (2001), this law provides a model for the intended school management, which is supposed to be school centered, since the schools that are the organizational structure for applying decentralization.<sup>2</sup>

Educational administration in Egypt is currently divided into three levels:

#### **The national level**

This level is embodied in the ministry of education (EMOE), which represents the central level for managing education. It has the following authorities:

- searching and proposing educational policies in all fields of public and vocational education,
- proposing the equivalent programs and projects to implement the educational policies,
- selecting textbooks and curricula that achieve the goals of education,
- determining the teaching staff in all levels of public and vocational education,

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<sup>1</sup> Huwaida Adly (Sep. 2004). "The Local Government System in Egypt: A Public Poll of a Sample Local Popular and Executive Council Members". In: *The National Social Magazine*. Issue 41, No. 3, pp. 51-76 (Original in Arabic), pp. 66-67.

<sup>2</sup> Amr Abd El Hameed Abd El Fattah Al Gindi (2001). *Types of School Management: A Comparative Study between the Arab Republic of Egypt and France*. Master Thesis in Comparative Education. Cairo: Cairo University, Institute of Educational Studies and Research, (Original in Arabic), p. 66.



- formulating the policies regarding school buildings,
- strengthening the bonds between the schools and the surrounding local community,
- raising the required funds for implementing educational policies,
- monitoring and evaluating the implemented projects whether on the ministerial level or on the levels of governorates.

In addition, the EMOE established a group of consultative councils and committees on the national level to assist in planning and managing the educational system. Of these are the supreme council for pre-university education, the council of the directors of the educational sectors and central directorates, the council of the heads of the educational administrates, the supreme council for examinations and pedagogical evaluation, the permanent committee for curricula improvement, and the national center for development and educational research.<sup>1</sup>

### **The regional level**

The regional level includes the governor and the educational directorates (المديرية التعليمية) in the governorates. The educational law number 139/1981 assigns certain responsibilities to the governor, such as:

- forming the local councils for education and their subcommittees based on the needs of the local committee,
- determining the beginning and the end of the school year,
- setting the vacation dates necessitated by some local events,
- creating a local fund to finance education through self-efforts.

Normally the governor performs these authorities through his executive council, which represents the central government.<sup>2</sup>

Next to the governor, the educational directorates (المديريات التعليمية) resemble the ministry on a smaller scale and perform tasks such as:

- studying the surrounding environment of the school and its needs and suggesting the proper projects therefore,
- implementing the educational policies that are determined by the ministry,

<sup>1</sup> Awad Tawfik Awad & Nagy Shnouda Nakhlah (June 2000). *The Educational Policy and its Implementation Procedures in Egypt: Studies in Repairing the Educational Policies and Systems in Egypt according to the Current International Trends*. Cairo: The National Center for Educational Research and Development. (Original in Arabic), pp.84-85.

<sup>2</sup> Mahmoud Atta Mohamed Ali Museil (Mai 2002). "Suggested Alternatives for Improving Educational Management in Egypt According to Some Current Managerial Approaches". In: *The Periodical of the Faculty of Education in Zakazik*. Vol. 41, pp. 33-169 (Original in Arabic), pp. 112-113.

- monitoring the educational process in all schools,
- building and furnishing public and vocational secondary schools,
- coordinating the enrollment policies in all educational levels,
- supervising the usage of the selected textbooks and curricula,
- determining the academic schedule,
- organizing the final exams for the primary and preparatory certificates,
- preparing the governorate's budget proposal for education,
- recruiting new teachers and distributing them on the various schools,
- organizing the teachers' transfer procedures among the educational administrates.

Usually the head of the school directorate is appointed based upon the recommendation of the minister of education and the approval of the prime minister thereafter. He then represents the minister in the governorate and interacts with the governor, the minister and the local council.<sup>1</sup>

Next to this, there are consultative committees in each governorate, which are allowed to suggest the establishment of new schools and classes and to arrange the needed funds for maintaining the educational process.<sup>2</sup>

### **The local level**

The local level represents the districts, cities and villages, and sub-districts. Here education is managed by:

Educational administrates (الإدارات التعليمية): which are another smaller example of the ministry of education. Each administrate is headed by a director who is responsible for all educational matters that occur in all districts, cities and villages, and sub-districts that fall under his jurisdiction, such as:

- furnishing and managing the schools under the jurisdiction of the administrate,
- supervising the implementation of the selected textbooks and curricula and evaluating the students and examinations,
- establishing and furnishing school libraries and clubs,
- distributing the teachers on the various schools,

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<sup>1</sup> Mahmoud Atta Mohamed Ali Museil (September 1996). "The Role of Education Administration in Planning and Developing the General Secondary Education Curricula: A Comparative Study between Egypt and Few Developed Countries". In: *The periodical of the Faculty of Education in Zakazik*. Part 2. Vol. 27, pp. 143-198 (Original in Arabic), pp. 172-173.

<sup>2</sup> Mohamed Ali Elewa Azab (April 1996). "Towards an Efficient Role for the Local Popular Councils in the Educational Process in Sharqeyah Governorate". In: *Conference on the Future of Education in the Arab Region: Between Regionalism and Internationality*. Part 2, 20<sup>th</sup>-21<sup>st</sup>. (Original in Arabic), p. 209.

- providing health care and nutrition,
- directing and evaluating the schools.<sup>1</sup>

The educational administrators are the main connection between the heads of the educational directorates on the governorate level and the schools. They implement on one hand the directives of the educational directorates, and supervise on the other the operation of the educational process in schools on the other.<sup>2</sup>

The popular local councils of districts, cities and villages, and sub-districts perform the following tasks:

- building, furnishing and managing the schools with the exception of the experimental schools,
- determining school locations and opening needed classes,
- authorizing the establishment of special schools and classes for students with special needs (disabilities),
- supervising the usage of the selected textbooks and curricula,
- monitoring the academic schedule,
- organizing the final exams in the schools in the exact dates chosen by the governorate.<sup>3</sup>

The executive order of the educational law number 707/1979 determines the types of schools that each level should supervise. The ministry mainly supervises the experimental schools and the central training centers. The governorates headed by the governors supervise the vocational schools. The districts supervise the public secondary and vocational schools that exist in their boundaries. The cities and the sub-districts supervise the public secondary, preparatory and primary schools in their boundaries, and the villages control the preparatory and primary schools in them.<sup>4</sup>

However, Suleiman (1997) has some remarks on the responsibilities of the regional and local levels that administer education. These are:

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<sup>1</sup> Mohamed Ali Elewa Azzab (1996). "Towards an Effective Role for the Local Popular Councils in the Educational Process in Sharqeya Governorate". In: *Conference: The Future of Education in the Arab World: Between Regionalism and Internationality*. 20-21 April, pp. 199-238 (Original in Arabic), p. 209.

<sup>2</sup> Mahmoud Atta Mohamed Ali Museil (Mai 2002), op. cit, pp. 115.

<sup>3</sup> Noha Hamed Abd El Karim (1996). *The Educational Policy Making Process in the United States of America and the Arabic Republic of Egypt*. PhD Thesis in Education. Cairo University: Institute of pedagogical Studies and Research. (Original in Arabic), p. 149.

<sup>4</sup> Nagdah Ibrahim Ali Suleiman (1997). *Improving Local Administration in Education: A Futuristic View*. PhD Thesis in education. Cairo: Cairo University, Institute of Educational Studies and Research. (Original in Arabic), pp. 66-69.

- the responsibilities of regional and local levels do not include the right to recruit, promote, and transfer the teaching staff or other non-teaching workers at schools,
- the responsibilities do not include the right to set the budget and autonomously spend it on education or determine a ceiling for spending,
- the responsibilities do not include the ability to mobilize resources,
- the responsibilities do not include the right to set goals, manage school buildings, improve and evaluate curricula, evaluate the performance, and determine the teaching schedule.<sup>1</sup>

Moreover, the researcher inducts the dominance of the centralized feature upon all the managerial levels and the duplication of authorities and responsibilities among the levels, especially since planning is done at the central level by the ministry of education while only the implementation procedures are left to the lower levels. This agrees along with the study of Museil (2002) that confirms the dominance of the central ministry upon all functions and responsibilities of the lower managerial levels and stresses that this duplication of authority does not benefit the schools, instead it leads to delays and waste of time and effort as well as lack of responsibility.<sup>2</sup>

Building schools is centrally controlled by the national agency for education buildings, which has branches in all governorates. The same applies to planning which is done by the supreme council of pre-university education. Thus, Suleiman (1997) claims that depriving the local and regional units from all these important responsibilities while controlling them centrally strongly hinders the abilities of the local units to effectively manage education and leads to an emphasis on bureaucratization, which then impedes any attempt for innovation and creativity.<sup>3</sup>

On the other hand, although the law of local administration number 43/1979 grants the local popular councils the right to organize, manage, and supervise public facilities, yet they are short-handed as they do not have the right of interrogation, their decisions are consultative, and most of the heads of the administrative apparatuses do not attend their meetings.<sup>4</sup>

Furthermore, the law of education number 139/1981 obliged the governors to establish local councils for education and their subcommittees after get-

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<sup>1</sup> Nagdah Ibrahim Ali Suleiman (1997), p. 71.

<sup>2</sup> Mahmoud Atta Mohamed Ali Museil (Mai 2002), op. cit, p. 122.

<sup>3</sup> Nagdah Ibrahim Ali Suleiman (1997), op. cit, p. 71.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid, pp. 55-59.

ting the approval of the minister of education. The role of these councils is supposed to be setting the educational policies in the governorate, supervising the works of the educational directorate, trying to solve the educational problems that might emerge, and trying to connect the schools with the surrounding local community. Yet none of these councils was established, although these councils could have been a major breakthrough along the way to educational decentralization and could have been effective in managing education in the different governorates.<sup>1</sup>

#### **4 Recent attempts to implement education decentralization in Egypt**

Early in the 1990s, Egypt began to realize the importance of community participation in fundraising and education management. Therefore, it implemented various initiatives that can be considered as attempts to achieve decentralization.

During the years 2003, 2004, 2006 and 2008, the tendency towards achieving decentralization in the public sector in general was explicitly declared and stressed on whether in the national speeches, meetings with the governors and the local popular councils or annual reports in the People's Assembly.<sup>2</sup>

Of the various initiatives towards achieving education decentralization are:

##### **The local community schools**

These schools were established following a treaty signed between the ministry of education and the UNICEF in 1992. Accordingly, the UNICEF establishes local schools in the most deprived areas in Upper Egypt, while the ministry ensures their persistency. More creative educational methods are being used to provide active education and intellectual skills in these schools. The goal behind this is to achieve "good education for all" by focusing on the territories that are difficult to reach and by increasing the rates of girls' enrollment in primary education.

This project has prospered and has been extended to hundreds of other schools especially with relevance to girls' education, which is also greatly supported by the Canadian agency for international development (CANIDA) and the American agency for international aid and development (USAID). In addition, these schools adopt the national standards for education that focus on measurements such as the effective school, the effective teacher and expert, cur-

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<sup>1</sup> Aida Abbas Abu Ghareeb (2005), op. cit, p. 74.

<sup>2</sup> El Sayed Ghanem (2008), op. cit, pp. 4-10.

riculum supported by school activities, community participation and school effectiveness.<sup>1</sup>

### **Mubarak-Kohl project**

This project started in 1994 with the support of the German Technical Cooperation (GTZ).<sup>2</sup> It aims at connecting vocational schools to the labour market by providing the students with the needed skills and apprenticeships that will enable them to find a proper job opportunity. This project is considered as an example of education decentralization, as committees and later school-boards, representing women, youth, and people from different social and economic statuses were established to take decisions for school organization and problem tackling.<sup>3</sup>

The project is extended in 22 of 27 governorates, and 21 regional units for the dual system are also created to harmonize the relationship between the private sector and schools. Their role is to assess the needs private sector companies with regard to training, invite students to apply, screen applicants, match them with enterprises, and monitor their progress in their apprenticeships.<sup>4</sup>

### **Decentralization experiments of education in Alexandria and Quenna**

Two decentralization experiments of education were implemented in two Egyptian governorates. And due to their success, these experiments were extended to the rest of governorates.<sup>5</sup>

#### ***Education decentralization in Alexandria***

In December 2001, a memorandum of understanding was signed by the ministry of education, Alexandria governorate, the USAID, and Alexandria center for development. This memorandum aimed at improving the quality of education in the schools of Alexandria by adopting a decentralized approach with three main features:

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<sup>1</sup> Lamiaa Ibrahim Al Desouki Ibrahim Al Musalamani (2007). *Maintaining Social Participation to Improve Education in the Arab Republic of Egypt: A Proposed Perception according to Few Current Experiments*. PhD Thesis in Education. Cairo: Cairo University, Institute of Educational Studies and Research. (Original in Arabic), p. 23.

<sup>2</sup> Edda Grunwald& Bernhard Becker ( 2009). “Successful in Reforming the TVET System and Shaping the Society: The Mubarak Kohl Initiative”. In: *INAP Conference*, Turin 17- 18, September, pp. 1-14, p. 1.

<sup>3</sup> Aida Abbas Abu Ghareeb (2005), op. cit, pp. 24-26.

<sup>4</sup> Edda Grunwald& Bernhard Becker ( 2009), op. cit, pp. 9

<sup>5</sup> Lamiaa I. A. I. Al Musalamani (2007), op. cit, p. 136-137.

- having a partnership among the teachers, the administrators and the society through three committees that provide assistance, monitoring, and evaluation,
- devolving authorities and responsibilities to the school level,
- providing advanced training to the teachers, administrators and other participants in this program.

Accordingly, a board of trustees composed of 16 members including: the principal, a representative of the educational administrative, the physician and the social specialist, two of the teaching staff, four of the local leaders, and six of the parents was developed in the schools. This board is supposed to set the overall strategy of the school and the needed budget, search for additional financial resources, supervise the payment of school fees, and mobilize the local community to serve the school.

In addition, the minister of education devolved a lot of authorities to the governor and amended the executive orders in order to allow the schools to mobilize additional funds from the local community.

This experiment started in 2006 in 30 schools in Eastern and Western Alexandria governorate. These schools were located in the poorest places in Alexandria and they were a sample of primary, preparatory and secondary schools. The school day in these schools was extended and the number of students in class was controlled.

The Parents and Teachers Assembly (the PTA) was replaced by a board of trustees including distinguished professors, businessmen, members of the civil society and parents. These boards were able to support the schools in different ways such as providing the schools with new computers and laboratory equipments, training the teachers on the newest educational methods, and finally sending the teachers to Great Britain and the United States for further training.<sup>1</sup>

### ***Education decentralization in Quenna***

As for Quenna, a similar experiment to that in Alexandria was conducted. Administrative decentralization was encouraged as well as the mobilization of local resources and the establishment of boards of trustees. It is worth saying that the boards of trustees in Quenna became empowered to perform the following functions:

- collect school fees and accept financial assistance and donations,
- temporarily appoint the needed teaching staff,

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<sup>1</sup> UNDP (2004). "Decentralization of Basic and Secondary Education". In: *Egypt Human Development Report*. UNDP, pp. 69-85, pp. 76-77.

- fix and renovate school buildings and buy the necessary teaching equipments from the private accounts of the school,
- raise funds for the schools, and spending them as specified in the internal rules,<sup>1</sup>
- set the overall strategy of the school and the needed budget,
- mobilize the local community to serve the school,<sup>2</sup>

### **The national educational standards**

Since 2003, the EMOE has implemented the national education standards. They focus on five main aspects: the effective school management, the effective teacher, curriculum and learning outputs, the effective school that is pupil-friendly, and popular participation.

By introducing these standards, it was hoped that the EMOE will be able to create effective and autonomous schools that have stronger relationships with the external environment and thus be able to effectively deploy their resources. Therefore, detailed steps were determined and assigned for the schools to follow in order to achieve the intended objectives of these standards.<sup>3</sup> There is a great emphasis on popular participation and therefore, many initiatives have already been created, such as:

- the initiative of building “100 new schools” with the assistance of the USAID,
- the initiative of adopting “active learning” in 90 schools with the collaboration with the UNICEF,
- the initiative of “improving education” in 30 schools with the support of the USAID,
- the initiative of “effective schools” in 400 schools financed by the World Bank and the European Union,
- the initiative of “improving 100 schools” with the assistance of the private sector and Heliopolis NGO.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Lamiaa I. A. I. Al Musalamani (2007), op. cit, p. 137.

<sup>2</sup> UNDP (2004), op. cit, pp. 76-77.

<sup>3</sup> Iman K. Ashmawy (2006). *The Effect of Organizational Culture on the Performance of Educational Institutions in Egypt: An Applied Study on Some Public Schools*. Master Thesis in Public Administration. Cairo University: Faculty of Economics and Political Science. (Original in Arabic), pp. 63-67.

<sup>4</sup> Egyptian Ministry of Education (2009). *The National Strategic Plan for Pre-University Education Reform in Egypt (2007/2008-2011/2012)*. <http://knowledge.moe.gov.eg/NR/rdonlyres/0D9BE04E-B185-4D1A-9DC4-BC8985CEFDB3/7749/Chapter2Part1.pdf>, 29/06/2009.



## **Devolution of authorities to executive units**

Following the classification of functional decentralization the EMOE devolved authorities to executive units such as:

***The committee for decentralization and popular participation:*** This committee includes businessmen, professors, lawyers, members and representatives of the NGOs. It sets the main principles that control education decentralization, such as: providing programs for leadership training and development, and coordinating the responsibilities disseminated between the central and local levels.<sup>1</sup>

***The institution of quality assurance and accreditation:*** This institution was established in 2006 and has branches in every governorate.<sup>2</sup> This institution aims at ensuring the quality of education and conducting comprehensive evaluation on the educational institutions before their accreditation in order to maintain trust in the educational outputs. Hence, following the presidential decree, the executive orders allowed the civil society organizations or interested members of the community (e.g. parents) to take part in the evaluation and inspection visits to these educational institutions.<sup>3</sup>

Hence, from the above mentioned attempts to achieve education decentralization, the researchers finds out that Egypt is starting to take real steps – although still minor- to implement education decentralization. However, these steps- despite of their importance- cannot be considered education decentralization *per se*. Therefore, it is important to study the experience of Germany in education decentralization in order to judge where Egypt stands comparably and explore the further steps that should be implemented in Egypt to continue the Egyptian endeavors towards achieving education decentralization.

This is why the coming chapters will discuss in more detail the different types of education decentralization and will try also to show how far the German experience is developed as compared to the Egyptian experience in education decentralization in order to determine what needs to be changed in the Egyptian context to achieve education decentralization successfully.

Nevertheless, before introducing the empirical part, part three of this chapter demonstrates the applied methodology.

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<sup>1</sup> Laila El Baradei (February 2005), *op. cit*, pp. 13-44, p. 29.

<sup>2</sup> Egyptian Ministry of Education (2009), *op. cit*.

<sup>3</sup> Mohamed Ahmed Fouad Mirghani Gaweesh (2002). *A futuristic Image about the Role of School Administration in Planning the Relationship between the School and the Pedagogical Means in the Egyptian Society*. PhD Thesis in Educational Management. (Original in Arabic), p. 83.

## **Summary**

This chapter presents the local government and educational systems in both Germany and Egypt. It leads to the conclusion that even though the different local educational levels have a wide range of authorities, however, both countries have their own centralistic features. Nevertheless, starting from the 1990s, both countries have taken various initiatives towards education decentralization.

## **Chapter Three**

### **Methodology**

This study is aiming at exploring how education decentralization - with its three types: decentralization of decision-making, administrative and financial decentralization - affects the role of the school leadership. Therefore, it intends to answer the main question of how education decentralization affects the role of the school leadership.

Decentralization of decision-making requires the school leadership to interact with the various stakeholders and involve them in the decision-making process. Administrative decentralization demands the school leadership to play a core role in teacher selection, evaluation and training. Finally, financial decentralization forces the school leadership to look for new ways of fundraising as well as efficiently deploy the available resources.

Following the situational approach of leadership, this study adopts the point of view that the leadership model largely depends upon the situation in which the leadership gets involved. It implies that when the principal is in a situation where he has to communicate with other stakeholders, he would adopt a different leadership model than when he has to look for new ways for fundraising as illustrated by Münch (1999).<sup>1</sup> The reciprocal approach of leadership is also adopted especially when studying the relationship among the school leadership, the teachers and stakeholders.

Therefore, this study aims at answering three minor questions:

- 4- To which extent does decentralization of decision-making encourage the adoption of participatory leadership, with its emphasis on involving the stakeholders in the school-life and decision-making process?
- 5- To which extent does administrative decentralization encourage the adoption of instructional leadership, with its emphasis on conducting the educational process in a way to improve educational quality and student achievement?
- 6- To which extent does financial decentralization encourage the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership with its focus on looking for new opportunities and risk-taking?

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<sup>1</sup> Elke Münch (1999), *op. cit.*, p.124.

## 1 Type of the study and its time span

Aiming at understanding how education decentralization affects the role of the school leadership, and not just describing whether education decentralization is implemented, qualitative analysis is seen as most appropriate to this study in order to explore the opinions and interpretations of the principals as encouraged by Lamnek (1993) and Patton (2002). Qualitative analysis allows the investigation of the complex interactions among individuals and social settings that may not be easily captured through quantitative analysis.<sup>1</sup> It seeks to understand how the individuals arrange themselves and their social settings and how they sense their surroundings.<sup>2</sup>

The time span of the study is from 1990 until 2011, which is the time interval that includes the most recent attempts to implement education reforms and decentralization in both Germany and Egypt. The recent debates regarding strengthening school autonomy and self-dependency in Germany can be traced back according to Risse (1999) and Knauss (1999) to the suggestions of the education commission of Lower Saxony in 1995<sup>3</sup> to increase the partial autonomy of the schools within the rules and guidelines of the Länder.<sup>4</sup> While in Egypt, the early initiatives can be also traced back to 1994 with the establishment of the local community schools<sup>5</sup> as was demonstrated in the previous parts of this chapter. Literature review was used in defining decentralization in general and education decentralization in particular and in clarifying its various types and aspects.

The study adopts the case study approach as explained by Vanderstoep & Johnston (2009)<sup>6</sup> when highlighting how education decentralization is experienced in Germany and Egypt. The phenomenological approach is seen in this study as inappropriate, since this study is aware of the different paths that the various countries are adopting to interpret and implement decentralization in general and education decentralization in particular and hence, aware that it would be difficult to reach at generalizations.

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<sup>1</sup> Michael Quinn Patton (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. 3rd edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, p. 33.

<sup>2</sup> Bruce L. Berg (2009). *Qualitative Research Methods: For the Social Sciences*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, p. 8.

<sup>3</sup> Erika Risse (1999), op. cit, p. 196.

<sup>4</sup> Georg Knauss (1999), op. cit, p. 224.

<sup>5</sup> Lamiaa Ibrahim Al Desouki Ibrahim Al Musalamani (2007), op. cit, p. 23.

<sup>6</sup> Scott W. Vanderstoep & Deidre D. Johnston (2009). *Research Methods for Everyday Life: Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons, Inc, pp. 209-210.

## 2 Methods of sampling and data collection

The unit of analysis is the principals in the German and Egyptian vocational schools to investigate clearly the changes that occurred in the role of the school leadership, assuming that the principals are the major actors in the school leadership and hence are the best to judge by themselves on their roles. Structured interviews were conducted with 30 principals (15 principals in Bremen and Lower Saxony and 15 vocational principals in Cairo and Giza) as the primary source of information to achieve triangulation of data sources as encouraged by Flick et al. (2004)<sup>1</sup> or the “within-method” triangulation as mentioned by Lamnek (1993).<sup>2</sup> This multiplicity of interviews allows also examining the differences in the results and opinions that emerge from different circumstances/situations.<sup>3</sup> Moreover, to achieve a kind of feedback, interviews were also held with five experts in the field of education decentralization (three in Germany and two in Egypt).

Bremen was chosen based on the literature review that revealed it as going through progressive phases towards achieving school autonomy. And through the interviews with the principals there, the principals notified that Lower Saxony is also following the path towards school autonomy. Therefore, the interest arose to demonstrate the experience of two different Länder. This interest was further maintained by the fact that Bremen presents only a single layer of local government, while Lower Saxony presents a multi-layer local government. Hence, when moving to Egypt, Cairo was chosen as counterpart to Bremen with its merely two layers of local government, and Giza as the counterpart to Lower Saxony with its multi layers of local government in order to achieve a kind of balance and symmetry in the data collected (even though the effect of the various layers of local government on education decentralization is not subject of this research, but may be recommended for future research). Thus, stratified random sampling was used,<sup>4</sup> since Bremen and Lower Saxony in Germany as well as Cairo and Giza were deliberately selected as mentioned above. Thereafter, the vocational principals were randomly chosen, based upon on

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<sup>1</sup> Uwe Flick, Ernst von Kardorff & Ines Steinke (2004). *A Companion to Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications, pp. 178- 183.

<sup>2</sup> Siegfried Lamnek (1993). *Qualitative Sozialforschung: Band 1 Methodologie*. 2. Auflage. Weinheim: Psychologie-Verl.-Union, p. 249.

<sup>3</sup> Alan Bryan (2006). "Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Research: How is it Done?". In: *Qualitative Research*, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 97-113, p. 106.

<sup>4</sup> Bruce L. Berg (2009), op. cit, p. 49.

internet search while taking the locations of schools into consideration to reduce the travel costs and the time needed.

The schools were randomly chosen, given that in a unitary country like in Egypt the educational policies are applied all over in the various governorates. The same applies within the German Länder, where all the schools within a specific Land follow the same policies. In addition, the schools in both countries cover vocational schools in urban and rural areas.

The interviews covered open-ended questions related to: the initiatives of school autonomy and education decentralization, the divergent financial roles performed by the school leadership (to represent financial decentralization), the administrative roles performed by the school leadership (to represent administrative decentralization), the involvement of the stakeholders in the decision-making process and the extent to which these stakeholders are active (to represent decentralization of decision-making), and whether they demand further empowerment and changes towards more autonomy (see Appendix 1). Using open-ended questions was seen optimal as they allow the respondents to express their views in-depth regarding the questions raised.<sup>1</sup>

When constructing the interview, education decentralization was divided into its three types based on its operational definition that was obtained at from the literature review. Then each type was divided into its various indicators, based also upon the operational definitions of decentralization of decision-making, administrative and financial decentralization. Thereafter, the research questions were created around these indicators (for details see appendix 1).

To ensure research validity, the interview questions were discussed with field experts and professor to ensure that they study what they are supposed to explore.<sup>2</sup>

To ensure research reliability, the interview responses were given to a researcher to check the understanding of the responses and the objectivity while interpreting the responses<sup>3</sup> in order to maintain at least that the responses if interpreted by any other researcher would lead to the same results.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Jane Ritchie (2003). "The Applications of Qualitative Methods to Social Research". In: *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. Jane Ritchie & Jane Lewis (Eds.) London: Sage Publications Ltd, pp. 24- 46, p. 36.

<sup>2</sup> Andy Field & Graham Hole (2003). *How to Design and Report Experiments*. London: Sage Publications, Inc, p. 58.

<sup>3</sup> W. Lawrence Newman (2004). *Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc, p. 205.

<sup>4</sup> Siegfried Lamnek (1993), op. cit, p. 158.

### **3 Administrative and ethical considerations**

As Flick (2007) explains that finding access to fields, institutions, and people may be difficult,<sup>1</sup> accessing the principals was not without hurdles. Before conducting the interviews, a German principal in Bremen mentioned that an approval of the senate for education and science is needed, yet this turned out to be only needed when personal information regarding the pupils were studied. However, in Egypt an approval was first needed from the central apparatus of national mobilization and statistics, and based on it, further approvals from the EMOE and later from each educational directorate were required.

The principals whether in Germany or in Egypt were called in advance to receive their informant consent and arrange appointments with them. A copy of the interview questions was also sent in advance to those who demanded it. Later when meeting the principals the anonymity of the responses was promised to protect the principals from any possible harm or risk as well as to encourage them to freely share their experiences and express their opinions.

The interviews were conducted in German language in Germany and in Arabic in Egypt. They lasted about 45-60 minutes and were recorded. The principals were all keen to share their experiences and to provide their critical opinions. Few even presented a tour in their schools to present the progress that their schools are making.

At the beginning of the interviews the aim and purpose of the research was explained as well as the relevant definitions to ensure that the principals could understand the used terms to avoid having the problem of “fallacy of abstraction”.<sup>2</sup>

### **4 Data processing and analysis**

After data collection, the responses were transcribed using standard orthography, since the study does not require the emphasis on spoken language and sounds. Therefore, emotions such as laughs and irrelevant talks were not transcribed. Thereafter, the transcripts were read thoroughly so that those responses that were considered as answers to the research questions were marked and copied in a new file to reduce the material subject to the analysis. To preserve the anonymity of the interviewees and their schools, numbers were given to each of them, e.g. principal 1, principal 2 ...etc. The copied responses were read over again and subjected to the (formal) structuring content analysis as dis-

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<sup>1</sup> Uwe Flick (2007). *Designing Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications, Inc, p. 34.

<sup>2</sup> Siegfried Lamnek (1993), op. cit, p. 138.

cussed by Mayring (2010), based on which they were divided into main categories with regard to the research questions that represent the types of education decentralization. Hence, responses related to political decentralization were marked with the green color, the responses related to administrative decentralization with the yellow color, and the responses related to financial decentralization with the red color. Table 2 provides an example of this categorization using a sample of the responses.

<b>Principals</b>	<b>Political decentralization</b>	<b>Administration decentralization</b>	<b>Financial decentralization</b>
<b>Principal 1 in Germany</b>	We define annually our objectives and level of performance. We determine our long- and short-term goals. This gives us more autonomy. Throughout the year, we are responsible for our performance and at the end of the year we are held responsible for it.	We have acquired new “administrative” authorities but the working hours did not change. This means that we do the old tasks besides the new ones that we acquired.	We are a budgeted school. After having an agreement with the higher authority and depending on the annually set goals and objectives as well as the number of pupils we receive a financial sum, which I can spend on appointment of teaching staff and over-time. And this is not done by the authorities. It is a package of work that the principal has acquired.
<b>Principal 2 in Germany</b>	The goals are discussed first by the general conference and later approved by the school conference, before they are sent to the higher authorities. Usually they approve them. ...I never witnessed that the authorities have rejected our goals and objectives.	The principal has acquired new tasks.... And this helps maintain class organization. For example I can grant a teacher a special vacation and I am responsible for the evaluation of the colleagues and their promotion.	We are a budgeted school. We can autonomously determine how we can use our money and on which item. We can appoint through the personnel budget the needed teaching staff, and if we did not find the qualified staff, we may not even appoint anyone and use the money for other projects. We have the choice.
<b>Principal 3 in Germany</b>	We are still in the preparatory period. .... But we have good relations with the higher authorities and I can say on the same eye-level. ... But the last decisions lie with me.	We have acquired relatively wide-range authorities. These are far more than what we had before. They are related to decisions concerning personnel recruitment and promotion.	We have mutual recoverability and transferability. We have good experiences with it.



<b>Principal 1 in Egypt</b>	No, we have to implement the orders coming from above.	Again the principal has many responsibilities, but he should also be given authorities. QM and accreditation should be the factor responsible for holding the principal accountable.	Earlier the schools had to express their demands for renovation to the higher authorities, which had in turn to send a committee to discuss these demands with the schools. And depending on the priorities of the higher authorities, these demands were either met or not. Now the schools receive the money and perform the renovations that they need.
<b>Principal 2 in Egypt</b>	I do not feel any changes and the principal is still hindered by the rules and regulations that he gets from above.	We can't change anything and I don't want to change it because this might be done in biased way. ... And even if for example a sudden drop happened we don't make a replacement officially, only unofficially.... And we can't change anything in the time map.	In case of shortages, we resort to the students' fees. these should be divided on the various activities (arts, sports, library etc) and materials.
<b>Principal 3 in Egypt</b>	No we don't feel any change. The orders and rules are very complex and we resort to the authorities.	The minister says that the principal is responsible in his school and that we have decentralization and he is empowered. But this is not true. He is limited by the rules and regulations.	We have simple renovation. But it also has difficult and complex managerial aspects. We need other things that far exceed the range of this simple renovation.

Table 2: Example of the categorization

Afterwards, the responses in every category were further divided into sub-categories to represent the various aspects of the relevant main categories, depending on the thematic criterion in this categorization.<sup>1</sup> Table 3 provides an example of how the various sub-categories of the aspects of financial decentralization were created according to the thematic criterion.

<sup>1</sup> Philipp Mayring (2010). *Qualitative Inhaltsanalyse: Grundlagen und Techniken*. Weinheim: Beltz Verlag, p. 66.

<b>Principals</b>	<b>Statements related to financial decentralization</b>	<b>Sub-category: Aspects of financial decentralization</b>
<b>Principal 1 in Germany</b>	We receive two budgets for personnel and learn and teaching material. And there are mutually coverable, i.e. we can use the money of one pot to the other. ...The money is never enough. But within our budgets we can handle freely, as we can set priorities.	Expenditure discretion.
	We may transfer money to the next year, we can save.	Saving as a source of fundraising
	We may resort to advertisement. But this happens only rarely.	Advertisement as a source of fundraising.
	We cooperate with enterprises and they may equip us.	Donations as a source of fundraising.
<b>Principal 2 in Germany</b>	We took a lot of steps towards autonomy. For example we receive two budgets for personnel and learn and teaching materials which we can autonomously manage in addition to the ability to transfer the money to the following year.	Expenditure discretion & saving as a source of finance.
	When the new system was implemented, we were afraid that if we saved money we will get budget cuts in the following year. But this fear no longer exists and I save money for the following years	Saving as a source of fundraising.
	We decide whether we need equipments or chairs and furniture	Expenditure discretion.
	We receive no financial support from the enterprises. This is the hope that has not been realized yet. But we have good cooperation with big enterprises. And they support us. But with the smaller enterprises, the hope is not realized.	Donations as a source of fundraising. - hoped but not widely applied.
	I always try to convince the enterprises that it is in their interest if the students were trained on their machines. And according to this strategy I managed to get either reductions on the prices of these machines and the materials or the enterprises donated to the schools machines that they were no longer needing.	Donations as a source of fundraising. - dependent on the effort of the principal.
	We can use advertisement and sponsoring. But here the hope is far greater than the reality.	Advertisement and sponsoring as sources of fundraising. - not widely applied.
<b>Principal 3 in Germany</b>	We save. The schools are allowed to transfer money to the following years. But this should not be more than 5.-10% of the total budget that we get. And we will get this (saved) money in the following year back.	Saving as a source of fundraising
	The fear (of getting budget cuts) exists. Yes, there is an agreement with the higher authorities, but one does not know how long this will last, especially when there is little money available.	Cautious about the consequences of saving.
	We resort also to sponsoring. Dancing, singing, drawing: all this costs us money. So we go to the	Sponsoring as a source of fundraising.

	enterprises and chambers of commerce and beg for the money. And they find sponsors for us.	- dependent on the effort of the school.
<b>Principal 4 in Germany</b>	We have the budget for personnel, from which we can spend on hiring staff. And we have the budget for learn and teaching materials and we discuss in the departments how we divide this money.	Expenditure discretion.
	We receive support from the enterprises, but not institutional. Donations are very rare. But what we get is donations of outdated machines. But the majority is financed from the budget for learn and teaching materials.	Donations as sources of fundraising.
	We organize annually a meeting (Abendtreffen) with the hairdressers to exchange information and establish contacts with them.... However, these meetings in other departments are not the norm because we mostly have contacts with small enterprises that have their own problems, too.	Sponsoring as a source of fundraising. - dependent on the effort of the school.
	Saving is not politically encouraged. But recently we have met many of our needs through our savings.	Saving as a source of fundraising.
	Advertisement is difficult, because the school is not here to serve only one advertiser. But we wish if there were foundations to raise money for us. Many wish to raise funds through this mean.	Advertisement as a source of fundraising is difficult. - difficult.
<b>Principal 5 in Germany</b>	We receive money for personnel and learn and teaching materials. We can decide autonomously how we are going to spend this money.	Expenditure discretion.
	We encourage the departments not to spend all the money they get. The remaining money is put again in one pot and then we can make the investments that we need.	Expenditure discretion.
	We receive money from Brussels when we participate in new educational projects.	Additional sources of fundraising. - international assistance
	Enterprises support us financially. They invest in manpower and equipment.	Donations as a source of fundraising.
	Now we can save money....No, we are not afraid (from future cuts), since we discuss our objective& performance goals with the authorities and based on them we get the money.	Saving as a source of fundraising.
<b>Principal 1 in Egypt</b>	Even to receive machines, this is complicated. The machines have to be related to the curricula and the unit of equipments in the directorate and the administration have to approve them.... Therefore, we think it is better for the NGOs to focus on things like furniture and renovation. This is easier and as important, too.	Donations as a source of fundraising. - complicated
	We receive money for simple renovation..... then we spend it independently. But the principal is confined to the (general) budget that he receives from the higher authorities.	(In)Dependency in expenditure

	But we have more freedom with the pupil fees. I can resort to them, but not use them completely.	Additional sources of fundraising. - pupil fees.
	Donations are allowed through the board of trustees. But I personally hate them because they are always debated and the teachers may claim that the principal is corrupt. But I accept non-financial donations.	Donations as a source of fundraising. - financial donations are refused.
	Saving is not allowed and we have to spend our budgets before the end of the year. Besides the money we get is little.	Saving as a source of fundraising. - not allowed.
<b>Principal 2 in Egypt</b>	We are bound by the items and cannot change money from one item to the other.	Dependency in expenditure.
	But in case of shortage, emergency or a sudden drop we resort to the pupil fees.	Additional sources of fundraising. - pupil fees.
	We refuse any kind of donations whether financial or non-financial in order to avoid any suspicions of corruption unless we receive a bill for the things we get.	Donations as a source of fundraising. - refused.
	The firms do not support us.	Donations as a source of fundraising. -rare.
	Sometimes we are suspicious about being financed by the NGOs. They want to force certain ideas or sell themselves. When the ministry gives us the money, it is our right, but advertising for the NGO, we refuse... A NGO came to us and then they announced that they gave us more than they actually spent. Our experience with the NGOs was not in the interest of the school.	Additional sources of fundraising. - NGOs (negative experience)
	The option of saving does not take place because we usually get our budget for the materials for 2 years and 10% more to be able to finance any emergencies and any developments. In case of emergencies we resort to the pupil fees. In addition, our balance sheet has to be zero. So we are not allowed to save.	Saving as a source of fundraising. - not applied Additional sources of fundraising. - pupil fees.
<b>Principal 3 in Egypt</b>	Simple renovation is complex and demands many procedures. First we should get 3 offers and bills, then write the checks on the name of the seller. All this is difficult and most of the schools suffer from this problem and the authorities insist that we should get this money.	Dependency in expenditure.
	We resort to the pupil fees when the school does not need major renovations.	Additional sources of fundraising. - pupil fees.
	I refuse donations. Some schools accept them but we do not accept this.	Donations as a source of fundraising. - refused.
	The EU for improving VE and the USAID helped us improve our buildings and equipments.	Additional sources of fundraising. - International assis-

		tance.
	We have our productive projects, such as chicken, bakery, food manufacturing. 50% of the revenues goes to the EMOE and the rest stays in the school to finance our projects. And even from the money that goes to the EMOE we purchase our new machines.	Additional sources of fundraising. - productive projects.
<b>Principal 4 in Egypt</b>	In the financial field, the procedures are now less. It used to take us a lot of time and effort. Now the procedures are simplified and we can take many decisions without resorting to the higher level.	Expenditure discretion.
	A NGO came to us last year and renovated three of our labs. The initiative started when we announced our demand for renovation to the administrate and the directorate, which in turn had contact with this NGO. Thereafter, the NGO came to us and helped us. I was happy that it supported us.	Additional sources of fundraising. - NGOs
<b>Principal 5 in Egypt</b>	The factories do not support us financially.... We do not accept donations from parents and the local community does not contribute.	Donations as a source of fundraising. - not applied.
	We depend only on the pupil fees.... We are responsible for printing all the educational books for all types of schools and the educational phases. Thus, we get our needed equipments and additional funds.	Additional sources of fundraising. - pupil fees. - productive projects.

Table 3: Sub-categories of the aspects of financial decentralization

Later, the responses in each sub-category were further investigated to check whether they converge or divert and how.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, explanations and justifications (answering the how questions) were also developed. If certain data were repeated or stressed on by the principals, these were then integrated together and analyzed to answer the research questions. In addition, exceptional and diverting answers were also highlighted in order to present the variety of opinions that were mentioned. Thus the main aim in this study is not looking for the “best practices”, rather, highlighting various possibilities for application. Table 4 shows an example of how the subcategories were being integrated and whether or not they converge based on the results of table 3.

<b>Principals</b>	<b>Sub-categories of aspects of financial decentralization</b>	<b>Convergence</b>	<b>Comments and explanations</b>
<b>Principal 1 in Germany</b>	- Expenditure discretion	✓	- The German vocational schools have discretion in their expenditure.
	- Saving	✓	
	- Advertisement	rare	
	- Donations	✓	
<b>Principal 2 in Germany</b>	- Expenditure discretion	✓	- In addition, they may also resort to: saving,
	- Saving	✓	
	- Donations	✓ From big enter-	

<sup>1</sup> John W. Creswell (1998). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among Five Traditions*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Inc, p. 142.

	- Advertisement - Sponsoring	prises & dependent on the effort of the principal X but not against it X but not against it	donations, advertisement, sponsoring, and international assistance through school experiments as means for fundraising.
<b>Principal 3 in Germany</b>	- Saving - Sponsoring	✓ with caution ✓ dependent on the effort of the principal	- The principals are cautious about advertisement in order not to lose their neutrality.
<b>Principal 4 in Germany</b>	- Expenditure discretion - Donations - Sponsoring  - Saving - Advertisement	✓ ✓ but rare ✓ dependent on the effort of the principal ✓ X in order not to lose their neutrality	- The ability to raise funds depends to some extent on the efforts of the principal
<b>Principal 5 in Germany</b>	- Expenditure discretion - International assistance - Donations - Saving	✓ ✓ through school experiments ✓ ✓	
<b>Principal 1 in Egypt</b>	- Donations  - NGOs - Expenditure discretion  - Pupil fees - Saving	✓ complicated, but financial refused by the principal ✓ accepted ✓ in simple renovation ✓ X not allowed	- The principals have expenditure discretion only in terms of simple renovation. Nevertheless, few complain that some of the procedures are complex.
<b>Principal 2 in Egypt</b>	- Expenditure discretion - Pupil fees - Donations  - NGOs - Saving	X ✓ X refused by the principal ✓ but with negative experience X	- Donations, especially financial donations, even though are allowed, they are generally refused by the principals to avoid getting the reputation of being corrupt or donation-dependent.
<b>Principal 3 in Egypt</b>	- Expenditure discretion - Pupil fees - Donations  - International assistance - Productive projects	X simple renovation is complex ✓ X refused by the principal  ✓ ✓	- The vocational schools may resort to pupil fees, NGOs, productive projects and international assistance as sources of fundraising.
<b>Principal 4 in Egypt</b>	- Expenditure discretion - NGOs	✓ ✓	- Saving is not allowed.
<b>Principal 5 in Egypt</b>	- Donations - Pupil fees	X refused by the principal ✓	

	- Productive projects	✓	
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Table 4: Sub-categories and their convergence

Afterwards, the responses were analyzed again to induct the leadership characteristics that are applied or adopted in order to investigate which kind of leadership model is being adopted with which type of education decentralization. Table 5 provides an example of how the leadership characteristics, which are adopted in financial decentralization, were inducted based on the responses of table 3.

<b>Principals</b>	<b>Responses related to leadership efforts</b>	<b>Main leadership characteristics</b>
<b>Principal 1 in Germany</b>	We participated in a school experiment studying our independence	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - opening up new relationships
	We receive two budgets for personnel and learn and teaching material. And there is mutually coverable, i.e. we can use the money of one pot to the other. ...The money is never enough, but within our budgets we can handle freely, because we can set priorities.	- Setting priorities for resource allocation - acting flexibly.
	We may transfer money to the next year, we can save.	- Setting priorities for resource allocation.
	We may resort to advertisement. But this happens only rarely.	- Acting creatively and innovatively
	We cooperate with enterprises and they may equip us.	- Opening up new relationships - looking for new ways of fundraising.
<b>Principal 2 in Germany</b>	We took many steps towards autonomy. For example we receive two budgets for personnel and learn and teaching materials which we can autonomously manage in addition to the ability to transfer the money to the following year.	- Setting priorities for resource allocation.
	We decide whether we need equipments or chairs and furniture.	- Setting priorities for resource allocation - discussing and bargaining with stakeholders.
	We have good cooperation with big enterprises. And they support us. But with the smaller enterprises, the hope is not realized.	- Opening up relationships - looking for new ways of fundraising.
	I always try to convince the enterprises that it would be in their interest if the students were trained on their machines. And according to this strategy I managed to get either reductions on the prices of these ma-	- Opening up relationships - looking for new ways of fundraising - acting creatively and innovatively - leading initiatives.

	chines and the materials or the enterprises donated to the schools machines that they were no longer needed.	
	We can use advertisement and sponsoring. But here the hope is far greater than the reality.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising (but not used).
<b>Principal 3 in Germany</b>	We save. The schools are allowed to transfer money to the following years. ... The fear (of getting budget cuts) exists. Yes, there is an agreement with the higher authorities, but one does not know for how long this will last, especially when there is little money available.	- Setting priorities for resource allocation - taking risks.
	We resort also to sponsoring. Dancing, singing, drawing: all this costs us money. So we go to the enterprises and chambers of commerce and beg for money. And they find sponsors for us.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - opening up relationships - developing links to local community - leading initiatives
<b>Principal 4 in Germany</b>	We have the budget for personnel, from which we can spend on hiring staff. And we have the budget for learn and teaching materials and we discuss in the departments how we divide this money.	- Discussing and bargaining with stakeholders - setting priorities for resource allocation
	We receive support from the enterprises, but not institutional. Donations are very rare. But what we get is donations of outdated machines. But the majority is financed from the budget for learn and teaching materials.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - opening up relationships - setting priorities for resource allocation
	We organize annually a meeting (Abendtreffen) with the hairdressers to exchange information and establish contacts with them.... However, these meetings in other departments are not the norm because we mostly have contacts with small enterprises that have their own problems, too.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - opening up relationships - leading initiatives - acting creatively and innovatively
	Saving is not politically encouraged. But recently we have met many of our needs through our savings.	- Taking risks - setting priorities for resource allocation
<b>Principal 5 in Germany</b>	We receive money for personnel and learn and teaching materials. We can decide autonomously how we are going to spend this money.	- Setting priorities for resource allocation
	We encourage the departments not to spend all the money they get. The	- Discussing and bargaining with stakeholders



	remaining money is put again in one pot and we can make then the investments that we need.	
	We receive money from Brussels when we participate in new educational projects.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - opening up relationships
	Enterprises support us financially. They invest in manpower and equipment.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - opening up relationships
	Now we can save money....No, we are not afraid (from future cuts), since we discuss our objective& performance goals with the authorities and based on them we get the money.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - taking risks
<b>Principal 1 in Egypt</b>	We receive money for simple renovation. Then we spend it independently.	- Setting priorities for resource allocation
	But we have more freedom with the pupil fees. I can resort to them, but not use them completely.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising
	Donations are allowed through the board of trustees. But I personally hate them because they are always debated and the teachers may claim that the principal is corrupt.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising *but the principal does not apply them and hence deprives the school from additional funds.
	But I accept non-financial donations.	- Acting creatively and innovatively
<b>Principal 2 in Egypt</b>	But in case of shortage, emergency or a sudden drop we resort to the pupil fees.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising
	We refuse any kind of donations whether financial or non-financial in order to avoid any suspicions of corruption unless we receive a bill for the things we get.	- Acting creatively and innovatively
	A NGO came to us and then they announced that they gave us more than they actually spent. Our experience with the NGOs was not in the interest of the school.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising. - opening up relationships - acting creatively and innovatively *but had negative experience.
<b>Principal 3 in Egypt</b>	We resort to the pupil fees when the school does not need major renovations.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising.
	The EU for improving VE and the USAID helped us improve our buildings and equipments.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - opening up relationships
	We have our productive projects, such as chicken, bakery, food manufacturing. 50% of the revenues goes	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - acting creatively and

	to the EMOE and the rest stays in the school to finance our projects. And even from the money that goes to the EMOE we purchase our new machines.	innovatively
<b>Principal 4 in Egypt</b>	In the financial field, the procedures are now less. It used to take us a lot of time and effort. Now the procedures are simplified and we can take many decisions without resorting to the higher level.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - acting creatively and innovatively
	A NGO came to us last year and renovated three of our labs. The initiative started when we announced our demand for renovation to the administrate and the directorate, which in turn had contact with this NGO. Thereafter, the NGO came to us and helped us. I was happy that it supported us.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - opening up relationships - acting creatively and innovatively
<b>Principal 5 in Egypt</b>	We depend only on the pupil fees.... We are responsible for printing all the educational books for the all types of schools and the educational phases. Thus, we can get our needed equipments and additional funds.	- Looking for new ways of fundraising - acting creatively and innovatively

Table 5: The induction of leadership characteristics

Thereafter, a matrix, as demonstrated by Tesch (1990)<sup>1</sup> presenting the connections between the categories of education decentralization and those of school leadership, was developed in order to investigate which leadership model is associated with which type of education decentralization. Hence, the approach of analytical induction was used in identifying the aspects of education decentralization and leadership model existent in the studied vocational schools, as well as in answering the minor research questions.<sup>2</sup> Table 6 presents as an example, the matrix that connects aspects of financial decentralization with the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership based on the results of table 5.

<sup>1</sup> Renate Tesch (1990). *Qualitative Research: Analysis Types and Software Tools*. New York: The Falmer Press, p. 124.

<sup>2</sup> Liz Spencer, Jane Ritchie & William O' Connor (2003). "Analysis: Practices, Principals and Processes". In: *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. Jane Ritchie & Jane Lewis (Eds.) London: Sage Publications Ltd, pp. 199-218, p. 200.

Features of entrepreneurial leadership as mentioned in literature	Principal 1 in G.	Principal 2 in G.	Principal 3 in G.	Principal 4 in G.	Principal 5 in G.	Principal 1 in Egypt	Principal 2 in Egypt	Principal 3 in Egypt	Principal 4 in Egypt	Principal 5 in Egypt
Setting priorities for resource allocation	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				
Discussing & bargaining with the stakeholders		✓		✓	✓					
Opening-up relationship	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Looking for new ways of fundraising	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Leading initiatives		✓	✓	✓						
Taking risks			✓	✓	✓					
Acting creatively and innovatively	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Developing links to l. community			✓							

Table 6: Aspects of financial decentralization and entrepreneurial leadership

During the entire analysis, the comparison of cases, as illuminated by Flick (2007), was used.<sup>1</sup> The obtained data from the interviews in the German vocational schools were compared with those gathered from the Egyptian vocational schools to anticipate the necessary changes that shall be imposed on the schools and the roles of the Egyptian school leadership; presenting thereby, the model that the study is trying to conclude and that may be applicable in the Egyptian context while benefiting from the German experience. On the other hand, if the Egyptian experience presented an aspect or idea that was not implemented in Germany but presents a progress in education decentralization, this was also revealed.

Those responses that were concise and to a great extent comprehensive were translated into English and cited in the following chapters to put the reader in the picture of how the principals responded in the interview and to present the variety of responses that were given.

Finally, aiming at presenting a model for education decentralization and its effect on leadership, a model is developed based on the findings that are concluded from the study. However, it is worth noting that models are only a simplified resemblance of reality and serve merely the explanation.<sup>2</sup> They may isolate various factors that exist in reality and abstract a bunch of facts and contexts.<sup>3</sup> They remain as only an approximation to reality and merely deem to provide an

<sup>1</sup> Uwe Flick (2007), op. cit, p. 41.

<sup>2</sup> Michael Quinn Patton (2002), op. cit, p. 57.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, p. 62.

orientation.<sup>1</sup> The aim is to permit extrapolation, i.e. moving beyond the studied cases without necessarily aiming at reaching generalizations.<sup>2</sup> Thus, further studies in other contexts, such as financial crises, using the deductive approach may be recommended to verify the findings of this study.

## Summary

This chapter presents the research methodology that is adopted in this explorative study. Aiming at understanding how education decentralization affects the role of the school leadership, qualitative analysis using the case study approach is seen as appropriate.

Structured interviews were conducted with 30 vocational principals in two Länder in Germany and two governorates in Egypt. The responses were then transcribed using standard orthography and categorized (as well as sub-categorized) depending on the thematic criterion. The approach of analytical induction was used in identifying the aspects of education decentralization and leadership model existent in the studied vocational schools, and a matrix presenting the connections between the categories of education decentralization and those of school leadership, was developed in order to investigate which leadership model is associated with which type of education decentralization. Finally, a model presenting how education decentralization affects the role of the school leadership is developed based on the findings of the study. This model is not demonstrating the “Best-practices” rather, highlighting various possibilities of application.

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<sup>1</sup> Hans Seitz & Roman Capaul (2005), *op. cit.*, p. 18.

<sup>2</sup> Michael Quinn Patton (2002), *op. cit.*, p. 584.

## **Chapter Four**

### **The Effect of Decentralization of Decision-Making on School Leadership in Germany and Egypt**

Decentralization of decision-making aims at moving decision making to the service-delivery units. It entails the involvement of the various stakeholders and allows the local units to plan their goals and objectives. Participatory leadership on the other hand encourages the creation of networks and the involvement of various actors in the decision-making process.

Hence, this chapter aims at exploring the extent to which decentralization of decision-making in vocational schools leads to the adoption of participatory leadership. Part one of this chapter discusses the aspects of decentralization of decision-making and participatory leadership in general.

Part two discusses the effect of decentralization of decision-making in Germany on the school leadership.

Part three discusses the effect of decentralization of decision-making in Egypt on the school leadership.

Part four discusses the findings of the interviews conducted in Germany and Egypt and presents a model for how decentralization of decision-making can be implemented in the vocational schools.

## Part One

### The Effect of Decentralization of Decision-Making on School Leadership

In order to be able to test the hypothesis whether decentralization of decision-making leads to the adoption of participatory leadership, it is important to investigate the impact of decentralization of decision-making as well as of participatory leadership.

#### **1 Decentralization of decision-making: definition, implications and factors of success**

Decentralization of decision-making or what is sometimes called political decentralization is the transfer of decision-making authority from the center (the ministry) to the grassroots in order to achieve improved accountability and responsiveness.<sup>1</sup> The grassroots (stakeholders) may be students, teachers, principals, parents, school boards, NGOs, businesses, or community members.<sup>2</sup> Hence, decentralization of decision-making involves the creation of democratic structures and elected councils<sup>3</sup> to represent the various interests and take collective decisions.<sup>4</sup>

Yet, keeping the true power of decision-making in the center hinders decentralization of decision-making, even if the elected councils were established.<sup>5</sup> Therefore, clear rules and regulations to define the roles and responsibilities of the school-council, the principal, and the teachers are essential,<sup>6</sup> in addition to the availability of information.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Chikoko, Vitallis (2009). "Educational Decentralisation in Zimbabwe and Malawi: A Study of Decisional Location and Process". In: *International Journal of Educational Development*. No. 29, p. 202.

<sup>2</sup> Herbert J. Walberg & Susan J. Paik, Atsuko Komukai & Karen Freeman (Winter 2000). "Decentralization: An International Perspective". In: *educational Horizons*, Vol. 73, No. 8, pp. 153- 164, p. 156.

<sup>3</sup> Laila El Baradei (2005), op. cit, p. 24.

<sup>4</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), op. cit, p. 23.

<sup>5</sup> Herbert J. Walberg & Susan J. Paik, Atsuko Komukai & Karen Freeman (Winter 2000), op. cit, p. 160.

<sup>6</sup> Kathleen Kubick (1988). "School-Based Management". In: *ERIC Digest*. EA33. [www.ericdigests.org/pre-9210/based.htm](http://www.ericdigests.org/pre-9210/based.htm), 25.8.2009.

<sup>7</sup> Jürgen Kussau & Thomas Brüsemeister (2007). *Governance, Schule und Politik: Zwischen Antagonismus und Kooperation*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, p. 75.

The elected councils may take many forms, such as school councils or conferences that include all the teachers in the school and discuss professional and educational matters;<sup>1</sup> the Parents Teachers Association (PTA) that gathers the teachers with the parents to inform the latter about the school-life; the school-boards that include representatives of the students and the enterprises beside the representatives of the teachers and parents; or board of trustees (BOT) that include members of the local community in addition to the previously mentioned stakeholders.<sup>2</sup>

These elected bodies perform mainly the same functions of: creating a clear vision, setting the school objectives, discussing the budgetary goals, as well as providing technical assistance.<sup>3</sup> In advanced cases, they may even play an important role in the selection procedure of the teaching staff, where a selection committee (combining the principal and representatives from the teachers, the school-board, and the educational local authorities) may be created to select and hire the suitable candidates autonomously.<sup>4</sup>

Shatkin& Gershberg (2007) emphasize two important factors for the success of decentralized decision-making: a) the presence of civic capacity in the community, where the parents and other stakeholders are active participants, and b) the presence of a collaborative leadership that is able and willing to collaborate with all the stakeholders. Thus, building stronger schools goes hand in hand with having active and involved stakeholders and participatory leadership.<sup>5</sup>

## **2 Decentralization of decision-making and the involvement of stakeholders**

Bolden et al. (2011) mention two models for stakeholder involvement; the classic stakeholder model and the interactive, revised stakeholder model. Based on the classic model, the leader considers his organization as intrinsic to the surrounding environment and therefore accountable to the various stakeholders. In addition, the leader evaluates organizational performance according to social,

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<sup>1</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), op. cit, p. 159.

<sup>2</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), op. cit, p. 235.

<sup>3</sup> Felipe Barrera-Osorio, Tazeen Fasih, Harry Anthony Patrinos and Lucrecia Santibanez (2009). *Decentralized Decision-Making in Schools: The Theory and Evidence on School-Based Management*. Washington D.C: The World Bank, p. 3.

<sup>4</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher& Klaus Klemm (2001). *Stärkung der Einzelschule: Neue Ansätze der Ressourcen Geld, Zeit und Personal*. Neuwied; Kriftel: Luchterhand, p. 101.

<sup>5</sup> Gavin Shatkin and Alec Ian Gershberg (November 2007). "Empowering Parents and Building Communities: The Role of School-Based Councils in Educational Governance and Accountability". In: *Urban Education*. Vol. 42, No. 6, pp. 582-615, pp. 603-606.

financial, and environmental terms. Based on the interactive revised model, the leader perceives his organization as part of the surrounding environment. This entails that the organization not only has stakeholders, yet is also constituted from the interaction with the stakeholders.<sup>1</sup>

Thus, one of the main features of high performing schools is providing greater participation opportunities to stakeholders.<sup>2</sup> This requires the schools to know the parents and their socioeconomic status, and inform them and the stakeholders about the school objectives and work.<sup>3</sup>

An ideal situation of stakeholder involvement is when the elected council holds the school accountable for its actions.<sup>4</sup> Nevertheless, Dubs (1994) warns that one of the major problems that hinders this ideal situation is that many teachers focus merely on their classes and do not involve themselves in the changes that occur in the schools. Whereas, in decentralization of decision-making it is essential to involve the teachers.<sup>5</sup>

Crump & Eltis (1996) stress that the more the school members are involved in the decision-making process, the more likely they become satisfied.<sup>6</sup> White (1992) further demonstrates that when teachers are involved in decision-making, their involvement makes them: 1) have a feeling of importance and being in charge, 2) open up communication, 3) put more energy into their teaching, 4) get involved in determining staff development, and 5) have a sense of professionalism and responsibility.<sup>7</sup>

Somech (2010) further mentions two models; the motivational and cognitive models; that discuss the effects of decentralization of decision-making. Based on the motivational model, decentralization of decision-making improves teachers' satisfaction and results in higher outcomes. Whereas the cognitive

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<sup>1</sup> Richard Bolden, Beverly Hawkins, Jonathan Gosling & Scott Taylor (2011), op. cit, pp. 120-121.

<sup>2</sup> Diosdado M. San Antonio (January-March 2008). "Creating Better Schools through Democratic School Leadership". In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, Vol. 11, No. 1, pp. 43-62, p. 44.

<sup>3</sup> Mart Petri, Norbert Posse & Edith Rüdell (2007). *Schulentwicklung: Modelle, Diagnostik, Beratung*. Baltmannsweiler: Schneider Verlag Hohengehren. p. 16.

<sup>4</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), op. cit. p. 24.

<sup>5</sup> Rolf Dubs (1994). *Die Führung einer Schule: Leadership und Management*. Stuttgart: Franz Steiner Verlag, p.29.

<sup>6</sup> Stephen J. Crump & Kenneth J. Eltis (2006). "Schools, Parents and Community: Teaching and Learning Together?". In: *International Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 45-52, p. 51.

<sup>7</sup> Paula A. White (1992). "Teacher Empowerment Under "Ideal" School-Site Autonomy." In: *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*. Vol. 14, No. 1, pp. 69-82, pp. 72-75.



model considers decentralization of decision-making as enhancing the flow of information (making thereby the teachers have a complete picture) and leading to efficient decisions.<sup>1</sup>

Moving on to the role of parents, Weiss (1993) and Doppke & Gisch (2005) advocate the involvement of parents in the decision-making process in the schools, claiming that parental involvement may achieve many advantages such as transparency, legitimizing collective bargaining and benefiting from parental participation, reducing central bureaucracy and the costs associated with it, and granting minority-group parents access to the school system.<sup>2</sup> However, they also believe that if substantial authority did not accompany this parental involvement over areas such as budget and personnel, then parental power over education will not be influential.<sup>3</sup>

Yet, Sacher (2008) claims that the parents rarely play an active role in the schools. Mostly they support the principals in organizing school activities and show little interest in matters related to class and education.<sup>4</sup>

Concerning the students, Kuper (1977), Krainz-Dürr et al. (1997), and Schirp (1999) stress the importance of having the students: a) involved in the school matters, b) encouraged to participate through their union in the decision-making process,<sup>5</sup> and c) represented in the school-board,<sup>6</sup> especially when decisions concerning extra-curricular activities are discussed.<sup>7</sup>

Various scholars advocate the involvement of further stakeholders such as NGOs, businesses and local community members in the school-life. Schmidt

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<sup>1</sup> Anit Somech (2010). "Participative Decision Making in Schools: A Mediating- Moderating Analytical Framework for Understanding School and Teacher Outcomes". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 46, No. 2, pp. 174-209, pp. 185-187.

<sup>2</sup> Michael Doppke & Holger Gisch (2005). *Elternarbeit*. Oldenburg: Oldenburg Schulbuchverlag GmbH, pp. 29-31

<sup>3</sup> Manfred Weiss (1993). "New Guiding Principles in Educational Policy: The Case of Germany". In: *Journal of Education Policy*, Vol. 8, No. 4, pp. 307-320, p. 310.

<sup>4</sup> Werner Sacher (2008). *Elernarbeit: Gestaltungsmöglichkeiten und Grundlagen für alle Schularten*. Bad Heilbrunn: Verlag Julius Klinkhardt, p. 211.

<sup>5</sup> Ernst Kuper (1977). *Demokratisierung von Schule und Schulverwaltung*. München: Ehrenwirth Verlag, p.73.

<sup>6</sup> Heinz Schirp (1999). „Gestaltung und Öffnung von Schule: Ein Konzept zur Unterstützung von Lernqualität und zur Schulentwicklung „von unten“. In: *Beiträge zur Schulentwicklung: Von der Bildungsplanung zur Schulentwicklung*. Erika Risse, Hans-Joachim Schmidt (Eds). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp. 204-217, p. 209.

<sup>7</sup> Marlies Krainz-Dürr, Hannes Krall, Michael Schratz & Ulrike Steiner-Löffler (1997). *Was Schulen bewegt: Sieben Blicke ins Innere der Schulentwicklung*. Weinheim und Basel: Beltz Verlag, p. 101.

(1999) highlights how through the cooperation with the enterprises the educational content and exams can be determined and apprenticeships can be provided.<sup>1</sup> Chapman & Dunstan (1990) encourage the involvement of the stakeholders claiming that they are the best to determine their needs and then make decisions about how to allocate the resources accordingly.<sup>2</sup> Supporting this idea, the OECD through a study in 2001 claims that it is no longer acceptable to run the school as a closed organization.<sup>3</sup> Moreover, Arnold and Griese (2004) demand the opening up of the schools to the external world.<sup>4</sup> Brackhahn et al. (2004) view creating networks with stakeholders like businesses, community members, NGOs...etc as essential to encourage innovation, improved professionalism, discussion of problems, project solution, and investigation of own practices.<sup>5</sup>

Ornstein (1983) illustrates that cooperation between the schools and the stakeholders may take a four-point continuum such as:

- 1- Client-related: where the parents and community members are considered as clients with minimal knowledge. Therefore, they are included merely in the PTA activities, teacher- parent day, school ceremonies... etc.
- 2- Producer- related: where the parents are considered as volunteers or assistants of the school, but they participate on a voluntary basis.
- 3- Consumer-related: where the parents and community members are considered as active, intelligent, and informed, and the school is considered as a forum for solving the various community and parental problems.
- 4- Governor-related: where the parents and community members take active roles as well as offer advice and support to the school council and board.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Hermann Schmidt (1999). „Dualisierung des Bildungssystems: Vollzogene und anvisierte Einschränkungen des Staatmonopols“. In: *Beiträge zur Schulentwicklung: Von der Bildungsplanung zur Schulentwicklung*. Erika Risse, Hans-Joachim Schmidt (Eds). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp.266-278, pp. 269-270.

<sup>2</sup> Judith D. Chapman & Jeffrey F. Dunstan (1990). *Democracy and Bureaucracy: Tensions in Public Schooling*. London: The Falmer Press, p. 89.

<sup>3</sup> OECD (2001). *New School Management Approaches*. OECD: Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, p. 27.

<sup>4</sup> Rolf Arnold & Christiane Griese (2004). *Schulleitung und Schulentwicklung: Voraussetzungen, Bedingungen, Erfahrungen*. Kornach: Schneider Verlag Hohengehren, p. 88.

<sup>5</sup> B. Brackhahn, R. Brockmeyer, & P. Gruner (2004). *Schulaufsicht und Schulleitung: Qualitätsverbesserung in Schulen und Schulsystemen QuiSS*. München: Wolters Kluwer Deutschland GmbH, p. 75.

<sup>6</sup> Allan C. Ornstein (1983). “Administrative Decentralization and Community Policy: Review and Outlook”. In: *The Urban Review*. Vol. 15, No. 1, pp. 3-10, p. 6.

Thus, this cooperation can range from light approaches of informing and networking to institutionalized approaches of cooperation.<sup>1</sup>

Caldwell (2008) claims that despite the number of inconsistencies in the findings of research on the relationship between social capital (translated into the cooperation between the school and the stakeholders) and academic achievement, research has shown that there is a link between having good relationships with stakeholders and improvements in student outcome, behaviour, attendance and retention.<sup>2</sup>

Barrera-Osorio et al. (2009) demonstrate the various fields in which the stakeholders are encouraged to get involved. These fields are identification of goals and priorities, budget analysis, selection and evaluation of teachers and principals, development of curricula, extracurricular programs, and fundraising.<sup>3</sup> Moreover, the stakeholders through the elected councils may take decisions regarding: the evaluation measurements of curricular and extra-curricular activities, school partnership with other schools and local community,<sup>4</sup> the kind and frame of homework and school experiments, school organization and order, and behaviour regulations.<sup>5</sup>

Ornstein (1983) highlights the paradox, where the schools in most of the cases expect that the external world would merely contribute to school finances, while the stakeholders expect to participate more in the other arenas such as personnel, curricular and student affairs.<sup>6</sup> This may explain why sometimes the schools may consider the stakeholder involvement as interference in their work, while simultaneously the stakeholders may believe that their involvement is refused by the schools.

Hence, an understanding of mutual needs and interests is essential for having effective and useful cooperation with the local community.<sup>7</sup> The schools should become multi-service establishments (i.e. agents of socialization, morality, and citizenship) and foster social capital that enables the pursuit of shared

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<sup>1</sup> Beatriz Pont, Deborah Nusche & Hunter Moorman (2008). *Improving School Leadership: Volume One: Policy and Practice*. OECD, p. 58.

<sup>2</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2008), op. cit, p. 243.

<sup>3</sup> Felipe Barrera-Osorio, Tazeen Fasih, Harry Anthony Patrinos and Lucrecia Santibanez (2009). op. cit, p. 4

<sup>4</sup> Ingeborg Warris (2002), op. cit, p. 235.

<sup>5</sup> Peter Vogel (1977), op. cit, p. 147.

<sup>6</sup> Allan C. Ornstein (1983), op. cit, p. 7.

<sup>7</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p.78.

objectives,<sup>1</sup> problem solving, intensified interaction, communication, and collective learning possibilities.<sup>2</sup>

However, the crucial question should not be whether participation has increased or not, rather whether it became meaningful and effective or not. The criterion for its meaningfulness is its closeness to the decision-making process.<sup>3</sup>

Various researchers such as Lange (1993), Krainz-Dürr et al. (1997), Edelstein (1999), Keck (2001), and Barrera-Osorio et al. (2009) present the various positive effects that the elected councils may have like: providing feedback on school decisions and performance, questioning the quality of school performance, shedding light on topics that the teachers or school management do not emphasize or consider, enhancing the relationship between the parents and teachers,<sup>4</sup> and making the schools more accountable and transparent reducing thereby corruption.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, the elected councils may clearly determine the role of principals, foster commitment to the decisions that are taken, create a sense of teamwork, enhance the understanding of complex situations, and build trust among the school staff.<sup>6</sup> Finally, they may facilitate personnel and financial support to the school and facilitate communication with other partners.<sup>7</sup> Thus, it is vital to involve the stakeholders in the agenda and have their voices heard and responded to by the school leadership.<sup>8</sup>

Nevertheless, the involvement of different stakeholders in the decision-making process may have its own implications since the resulted decisions may often represent the outcome of divergent influences on the nature and operation of the school.<sup>9</sup> The involvement of stakeholders is not a guarantee for effective

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<sup>1</sup> OECD (2001). *New School Management Approaches*. OECD, p. 47.

<sup>2</sup> Beatriz Pont, Deborah Nusche & Hunter Moorman (2008), op. cit, p. 60.

<sup>3</sup> Dorothy F. Wissler & Flora Ida Ortiz (1986), op. cit, p. 290.

<sup>4</sup> Rudolf W. Keck (2001). "Eltern und Lehrer als Erziehungspartner in der Schule". In: *Erziehungspartnerschaft zwischen Elternhaus und Schule: Analysen, Erfahrungen, Perspektiven*. Rudolf W. Keck & Sabine Kirk. Hohengehren: Schneider Verlag, pp. 1-17, p. 9.

<sup>5</sup> Felipe Barrera-Osorio, Tazeen Fasih, Harry Anthony Patrinos and Lucrecia Santibanez (2009), op. cit, pp. 25-26.

<sup>6</sup> John T. Lange (January 1993). "Site-Based, Shared Decision Making: A Resource for Restructuring". In: *NASSP Bulletin*, Vol. 77, pp. 98-107, pp. 99-103.

<sup>7</sup> Marlies Krainz-Dürr, Hannes Krall, Michael Schratz & Ulrike Steiner-Löffler (1997), op. cit, p. 100.

<sup>8</sup> Wolfgang Edelstein (1999), op. cit, p. 125.

<sup>9</sup> Lyndsay G. Connors and James F. Mc Morrow (1990). "Governing Australia's Public Schools: Community Participation, Bureaucracy and Devolution". In: *Democracy and Bureaucracy: Tension in Public Schooling*. Judith D. Chapman and Jeffrey F. Dunstan (Eds.). London: The Falmer Press, pp. 75-98, p. 82.

decision-making procedures. Collective decision-making may lead to compromises and only “good-enough” decisions.<sup>1</sup>

Moreover, there are several weak points - besides the problem of the “good-enough decisions” - related to the influence of parents and other stakeholders in schools. First, no matter what the stakeholders decide, it is the teachers, who implement the decisions. Therefore, the stakeholders can only judge the quality of this implementation. Second, in collective decision-making organs, it is difficult to assess accountability for actions, as the latter will be dispersed among the decision-making members.<sup>2</sup> Third, sometimes the teachers may refuse the participation of parents and other stakeholders.<sup>3</sup> Finally, the students, parents, and other stakeholders may not be that influential if the number of their representatives is not that significant relatively to the number of teachers and the principal together.<sup>4</sup>

Wirris (2002) even perceives the relationship between the teachers and stakeholders, especially the parents, more as a non-relationship “*Nicht-Verhältnis*”, where sometimes distrust and guilt-transfers dominate the relationship. The parents may believe that the teachers consider the relationship with them as an overload or intervention in their work,<sup>5</sup> although their aim is to ensure that the school fulfills its role.<sup>6</sup> This confirms the paradox that Ornstein has highlighted. Therefore, clear expectations about the relationship between the school and the stakeholders should exist in order to overcome these weaknesses.<sup>7</sup>

However, Wirris (2002) and Caldwell (2008) claim that the role of the elected councils varies from one school to the other and confirm what Ornstein (1983) has stated, that the role of the elected councils may range from listening,

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<sup>1</sup> Kurt Biehler (1981). „Zwischen Kooperation und Konfrontation: Möglichkeiten der Elternmitwirkung in der Schule“. In: *Elternmitwirkung in der Schule*. F. Marz & F. Zubke (Hrsg.). Stuttgart: J.B. Metzlersche Verlagsbuchhandlung, pp. 17-30, p. 28.

<sup>2</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), op. cit, p. 238.

<sup>3</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 122.

<sup>4</sup> Kurt Biehler (1981), op.cit, p. 19.

<sup>5</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), op. cit, p. 247.

<sup>6</sup> Heicke Ackermann (1998). „Eltern-Ratgeber für Schulqualität?“. In: *Schulqualität managen: Von der Verwaltung der Schule zur Entwicklung von Schulqualität*. Heicke Ackermann & Jochen Wissinger (Hrsg.). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterland Verlag GmbH, pp.120-134, p. 125.

<sup>7</sup> Nadine Binkley (1995). „Reforming Teacher Evaluation Policy: A Qualitative Study of the Principal’s Role“. In: *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, Vol. 9, pp. 223-242, p. 223.

to advising, to taking decisions.<sup>1</sup> In some countries, they may lack a voting right and merely possess the right to participate in the various discussions.<sup>2</sup> In other countries, they may be even responsible for defining school priorities, planning school activities, and administering human and financial resources.<sup>3</sup>

### 3 Decentralization of decision-making and planning

As schools are considered the best to determine their needs and also their goals and objectives, decentralization of decision-making devolves decisions related to planning and setting the school profile to the school level.<sup>4</sup> The local educational authorities in turn become coordinating units responsible for policy making, monitoring and evaluating the general educational system, and assuring equity and quality of the education services.<sup>5</sup> Simultaneously, the central influence retains control over areas such as national curriculum frameworks.<sup>6</sup>

The schools set their own school profile, in which they define their goals and objectives, their status-quo, and the educational quality that they provide,<sup>7</sup> as well as determine their school program through which they assess the means towards achieving their school profile.<sup>8</sup>

Dubs (1994) advocates a participative process of decision-making where the objectives are suggested by the school leadership and transmitted to the different departments. Then the members of the various departments get the opportunity to discuss these goals and propose ways to achieve them. Later, all the suggestions are thoroughly discussed by the members in the school conference,

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<sup>1</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), op. cit, p. 234.

<sup>2</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2008), op. cit, p. 239.

<sup>3</sup> Helga Cuellar-Marchelli (2003). "Decentralization and Privatization of Education in El Salvador: Assessing the Experience". In: *International Journal of Educational Development*. Issue 23, pp. 145-166, p. 153.

<sup>4</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (1996). „Autonomie von Schule: Dezentrale Schulentwicklung und Zentrale Steuerung“. In: *Schulreform in der Mitte der 90er Jahre: Strukturwandel und Debatten um die Entwicklung des Schulsystems in Ost- und Westdeutschland*. Wolfgang Melzer & Uwe Sandfuchs (Hrsg.). Opladen: Leske+Budrich, p. 213.

<sup>5</sup> Norbert Thom & Adrian Ritz (2002). „Innovation, Organisation und Personal als Merkmale einer effektiven Schulführung“. In: *Effektive Schulführung: Chancen und Risiken des Public Managements im Bildungswesen*. Norbert Thom, Adrian Ritz & Reto Steiner (Hrsgs.). Bern: Verlag Paul Haupt, pp. 3-36, p. 18.

<sup>6</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2008), op. cit, p. 239.

<sup>7</sup> Norbert Maritzen (1998). „Schulprogramm und Rechenschaft: eine schwierige Beziehung“. In: *Schulqualität managen: Von der Verwaltung der Schule zur Entwicklung von Schulqualität*. Heicke Ackermann & Jochen Wissinger (Hrsg.). Neuwied: Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp. 135-148, p. 136.

<sup>8</sup> Erika Risse (1999), op. cit, p. 199.

and the principal takes the final decision.<sup>1</sup> Moreover, Dubs recommends that the entire school determines the priorities and sends them to the local educational authorities in order to allow the latter to set the budget accordingly. Finally, he stresses the importance of setting relevant goals that are suitable to the available resources and not managerially exhausting.<sup>2</sup>

Maritzen (1998) and Rolff (2007) mention that setting the school program and profile in some cases may be an exhausting procedure. Many teachers may have their controversial opinion,<sup>3</sup> and school planning and orientation may become against the mainstream or the persistent practices. Furthermore, uncertainty and vagueness may produce - among other things - opposition, mistrust, hesitation, distancing, and challenges. This is why Rolff (2007) advocates training the school leadership on how to put the school profile and program and on how to be empowered by the different regulations and laws,<sup>4</sup> while Kubick (1988) also stresses on the importance of training the teachers on decision-making skills, problem solving and group dynamics.<sup>5</sup>

Pont et al. (2008) suggest that the school leadership be held accountable to the local educational authorities based on the school profile and program,<sup>6</sup> as they may act as references for: responsibilities and duties, the need for professional training, evaluation of school performance and quality, and steering of internal development towards achieving the intended goals.<sup>7</sup> It is preferred if all the stakeholders were involved in setting and revising the school profile and program,<sup>8</sup> and if partnerships between the latter and the school were created.<sup>9</sup> This also emphasizes the role of the principal.

#### **4 Decentralization of decision-making and the role of the school principal**

The principal plays a key role in decentralization of decision-making. She/he encourages the school to collectively formulate and set its plans, school

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<sup>1</sup> Hartmut Holzapfel (1999). „Selbstständig und leistungsstark: zum Verhältnis von Bildungsqualität und Schulautonomie“. In: *Beiträge zur Schulentwicklung: Von der Bildungsplanung zur Schulentwicklung*. Erika Risse, Hans-Joachim Schmidt (Eds). Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag GmbH, pp. 37-50, p. 42.

<sup>2</sup> Rolf Dubs (1994), op. cit, pp. 139-140.

<sup>3</sup> Norbert Maritzen (1998), op. cit, p. 140.

<sup>4</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007). *Studien zu einer Theorie der Schulentwicklung*. Weinheim und Basel: Beltz Verlag, p. 32.

<sup>5</sup> Kathleen Kubick (1988), op. cit.

<sup>6</sup> Beatriz Pont, Deborah Nusche, & Hunter Moorman (2008). *Improving School Leadership*. OECD. Volume One: Policy and Practice, p. 51.

<sup>7</sup> Beatriz Pont, Deborah Nusche, & Hunter Moorman (2008), op. cit, p. 62.

<sup>8</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), op. cit, p. 163.

<sup>9</sup> Norbert Maritzen (1998), op. cit, p. 137.

profile and programs with the various stakeholders.<sup>1</sup> Hence, the principal plays a key role in planning and strengthening the bonds between the school and the external world.<sup>2</sup>

However, Von Lüde (2007) warns that the more actors are involved in the school-life, the more difficult it will be for the school to control its organization and the more it will feel an overload.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, a great emphasis has been put on principals' role and training.<sup>4</sup> Therefore, Hebborn (2007) and San Antonio & Gamage (2007) confirm that when building networks with stakeholders, the role of the principal becomes vital. He has to respond and abide by the rules coming from the local educational authorities, while at the same time respond to the interests of the stakeholders.<sup>5</sup> In addition, they demonstrate that he has to be: supportive and open to suggestions, encouraging inputs from others, approachable, transparent, fair, strict, respecting the others, and trusting them. He should be a good communicator and proactive, prompt, enthusiastic, innovative and dedicated.<sup>6</sup> Breit & Hupert (2008) maintain that having an organizational culture that encourages having relationships with the stakeholders and involving them in planning is a supportive element in decentralization of decision-making.<sup>7</sup>

Moreover, Beyer & Ruhl-Smith (1998), Bradshaw (May 2000) and Sahid (2004) indicate that the role of principal in decentralization of decision-making is changing from an instructional to a more participatory leadership. According to their opinion, the principal has to become sensitive to the concerns and demands of the different stakeholders, listen and express ideas clearly, motivate the teachers to work together, explore solutions for the problems that the school faces, build a shared vision, and maintain a strong focus on the goals. In addition, he has to know the resources that are available, identify innovative ways of

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<sup>1</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 71.

<sup>2</sup> Beatriz Pont, Deborah Nusche, & Hunter Moorman (2008), op. cit, p. 20.

<sup>3</sup> Rolf von Lüde (2007). "Den Wandel der Organisation Schule selbst gestalten: Grundfragen der Organisationsentwicklung". In: *Grundwissen Schulleitung: Handbuch für das Schulmanagement*. Raimund Pfundtner (Hrsg.) Köln: LinkLuchterhand, Wolters Kluwer Deutschland GmbH, pp. 60-74. p.64.

<sup>4</sup> OECD (2001), op. cit, p. 49.

<sup>5</sup> Klaus Hebborn (2007), op. cit, p. 256.

<sup>6</sup> Diosdado M. San Antonio & David T. Gamage (2007), op. cit, p. 20.

<sup>7</sup> Heiko Breit & Annette Hupert (2008), „Demokratie in der Schule, Zwei Fallstudien zu Schulkulturen und der Etablierung von Demokratie in der Schule“. In: *Gute Schulen in schlechter Gesellschaft*. Wiebke Lohfeld (Hrsg.). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 149-169, pp.153-154.



utilizing these resources to achieve school objectives, and has to develop himself continuously and reflect on his experiences.<sup>1</sup>

Through participatory leadership, the door becomes open for new ideas and support. The principal organizes and coordinates the relationship among all parties through providing a vision and a mission to act as bases for all actions,<sup>2</sup> building thereby a positive environment for the participation of the various stakeholders.<sup>3</sup>

The OECD (2001) and Solzbacher (2007) signalize that given the previous duties, it becomes difficult sometimes for the schools to maintain their autonomy, especially if divergent interests come in play, various rules and regulations limit their powers, and the external world keeps intervening in their work and organization.<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, networks and relationship with stakeholders can be time-consuming.<sup>5</sup>

This is why Bott (2007) claims that in most of the cases, devolution of authority occurred in the big schools with multiple functional positions, while the smaller schools with limited numbers of teachers witnessed only a dissemination of tasks.<sup>6</sup> Allen & Mintrom (May 2010) justify that many principals refrain from involving the teachers and the stakeholders in the decision-making process due to the responsibility that is imposed on their shoulders alone.<sup>7</sup> A principal is in many cases solely responsible for the results and thus not willing to take the responsibility of accepting what the teachers and the stakeholders through their group dynamic would decide.<sup>8</sup> Nevertheless, if collective responsibility were

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<sup>1</sup> Lynn K. Bradshaw (May 2000). "The Changing Role of Principals in School Partnerships". In: *NASSP Bulletin*, Vol. 84, pp. 86-96, pp. 91-93.

<sup>2</sup> Bonnie M. Beyer and Connie Ruhl-Smith (1998). "The Principal's Role in School Restructuring and Reform: An Examination of Self-Perceived Leadership Styles". In: *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 116-130, pp. 118-119.

<sup>3</sup> Abdul Sahid (2004). "The Changing Nature of the Role of Principals in Primary and Junior Secondary Schools in South Australia Following the Introduction Local School Management". In: *International Education Journal*, Vol. 24, No. 4, pp. 144-153, p. 151.

<sup>4</sup> Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (2001), op. cit, p. 41.

<sup>5</sup> Claudia Solzbacher (2007). „Qualitätsentwicklung durch Bildungsnetzwerke und Regionale Bildungslandschaften“. In: *Grundwissen Schulleitung: Handbuch für das Schulmanagement*. Raimund Pfundtner (Hrsg.). Köln: LinkLuchterhand, Wolters Kluwer Deutschland GmbH, pp. 224-247, p. 225.

<sup>6</sup> Wolfgang Bott (2007). „Beamte und Schulleiter“. In: *Grundwissen Schulleitung: Handbuch für das Schulmanagement*. Raimund Pfundtner (Hrsg.). Köln: LinkLuchterhand, Wolters Kluwer Deutschland GmbH, pp. 404-427, p. 426.

<sup>7</sup> Ann Allen & Michael Mintrom (May 2010). "Responsibility and School Governance". In: *Educational Policy*, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 439-464, p. 441.

<sup>8</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 75.

ensured to the schools (through the existence of various functional positions), the principals would be encouraged then to devolve authority and reduce the heavy load on their shoulders.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Wolfgang Bott (2007), *op. cit.*, p. 426.

## Part Two

### The Effect of Decentralization of Decision-Making in Germany on School Leadership

#### 1 Aspects of decentralization of decision-making in the German vocational schools

In theory, decentralization attempts of decision-making in Germany can be discovered in the emphasis on empowering the principal and school conferences. In practice, the schools through their school conferences take decisions concerning coordination of working plans and teaching methods, principles for student evaluation, and unification of school and teacher performance evaluation.<sup>1</sup> And even though all the interviewed principals admit that the school conference has been empowered to take major decisions related to planning, yet the majority of the interviewed principals claim that they do not feel a real change; rather acquired merely more responsibilities. A principal states:

“We acquired new authorities but the daily operation did not change. This means that we are performing the new tasks next to the old ones. .... We acquired many authorities but the higher authorities<sup>2</sup> still work with the old ways. And currently all schools have to save personnel and therefore most of the duties are put on my shoulders”

Acquiring new authorities does not necessarily mean that the schools are freed from their obligation towards following the general rules.<sup>3</sup> The majority of the interviewed principals even claim that they are still bound by the lack of time or by the supervision and the rules determined by the local authorities. A principal comments:

“Now we have more autonomy and flexibility. Therefore, we can easily find solutions for the problems that we face. Yet of course, we have to find the time for it.”

Another principal explains the paradox:

“I feel that the system is still as before, as the higher authorities still control us and have their inspection. We are freer, but the higher authorities can still show us their teeth.”

A third principal adds:

“I feel that lately most of the decisions are taken rather than negotiated. But this does not bother me. I am not against being monitored.”

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<sup>1</sup>Hartmut Holzapfel (1999), op. cit, p. 42.

<sup>2</sup> Kindly note that when the school principals talk about the local educational authorities they call them the higher authorities based on their perspectives.

<sup>3</sup> Peter Vogel (1977), op. cit, p. 145.

A fourth mentions:

“We are not completely autonomous. Even the decisions that we take should be in the frame that politics has determined.”

An expert even claims that the schools cannot be autonomous, as they have to abide by the rules. She says:

“The schools cannot be autonomous. We can only talk about self-reliance. Autonomy is against the laws that make the schools subordinate to the higher authorities and have to abide by the rules and be subject to inspection... Autonomy has no use for the schools. The teachers are pedagogues and not managers.”

Hence, it can be concluded that the majority of the interviewed principals confirm that they have acquired more authorities. Nevertheless, the local educational units (senate for education and science (Senatorin für Bildung und Wissenschaft) in Bremen, or the Land school authorities (Landesschulbehörde) and their regional departments in Lower Saxony still bind them by the various rules and work still with the old ways. This makes the majority of the principals feel no real change and that they have only acquired additional responsibilities rather than authorities.

## **2 Decentralization of decision-making and the involvement of stakeholders**

Early attempts to stress on the role of stakeholders in the school-life can be dated back to 1969 with the emphasis on the role of the parents and the PTAs.<sup>1</sup> Nevertheless, Wirris (2002) and Brackhahn et al. (2004) claim that the parents in Germany merely participate in the school-life to represent the interests of their children, while the teachers and the principals do not oppose this kind of participation.<sup>2</sup> A principal agrees:

“Sometimes involving others is an overburden and requires time. However, we welcome such a dialog to improve ourselves.”

Although the school conferences are supposed to be invested as means for exchanging information and suggestions between the school and the stakeholders,<sup>3</sup> the majority of the interviewed principals claim that the parents do not practice their role. A principal confirms:

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<sup>1</sup> Peter Daschner, Hans Günter Rolff & Tom Stryck (1995). *Schulautonomie- Chancen und Grenzen: Impulse für die Schulentwicklung*. Weinheim und München: Juventa Verlag, p. 22.

<sup>2</sup> B. Brackhahn, R. Brockmeyer, & P. Gruner (2004), op. cit, p. 72.

<sup>3</sup> Rüdiger Meyenberg (1980) . *Elternmitbestimmung in Niedersachsen*. Neuwied: Hermann Luchterhand Verlag, p. 35.

“The parents play according to the laws a role. But in the vocational school less, as our students are full-age and take the responsibility themselves. .... Parents play mainly a role when their children get bad grades.”

A second principal adds:

“The parents participate only when the issues directly affect their children.”

A third principal furthermore explores:

“The parents are not active in vocational schools because they believe that the teachers and the enterprises are responsible for their children. Besides, most of our students are full-age”

As for the teachers, usually they are given the freedom to organize their classes and are involved in pedagogic issues.<sup>1</sup> A principal confirms:

“We have a (flat) hierarchy inside the school, where the decisions are taken by the teachers and teams. The teams are autonomous in the pedagogical and educational matters.”

A second principal elaborates:

“In most of the cases it is the teachers who take most of the decisions, while the department heads rule the department meetings and the principal rules the school conference.”

Further principals stress the fact that the teachers are even involved in strategic decision-making. A principal says:

“The teachers are also involved in decision-making, especially when discussing strategic objectives such as our vision or future plans.”

On the other hand, the students through their own union are represented in the school conference. Nevertheless, in the schools with the dual system, the students do not practice their role as the students in the full-time vocational schools do. A principal comments:

“The students participate sometimes in the school council. And when they attend they try to do something, but not always. They are more bound to the enterprises.”

A second principal of a full-time vocational school indicates that the students generally prefer to discuss their problems directly with their teachers or with the principal than in the school conference. He says:

“We have a student union and representatives. But usually the students seek to talk with me or their teachers to solve their problems.”

Only one principal of a full-time vocational school considered the students as client, he says:

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<sup>1</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), op. cit, p. 157.

“The students are our clients. They have their own union and are even represented in the school conference. Through their participation many problems become obvious and are easily then solved.”

Regarding the enterprises, most of the principals state that they have direct contacts with them, and that the latter are represented in the school conference. A principal mentions:

“We have contacts with over 800 enterprises which are also represented in the school council. And they participate in a certain day (Stichtag) when all the major topics are discussed.”

Another principal stresses on the fact that the involvement of the enterprises is mainly confined to giving advices. He states:

“Our role is to work closely with the enterprises. However, the enterprises do not intervene in the school life. They may advise us but not influence us.”

However, a third principal emphasizes the importance of having good relations with the enterprises as the latter organize the practical exams. He adds:

“The enterprises are represented in the school conference. And we must have good relations with them, especially as they are responsible for the practical exams.”

All the interviewed principals mention that the enterprises generally do not intervene in the school decisions. A principal even explicitly states that the enterprises are not involved in the decision-making process. He says:

“The enterprises are not involved in the decision-making process and are not expected to be involved.”

An expert confirms this fact and demonstrates:

“There is a division of tasks, and accordingly the enterprises are responsible for the practical part. Hence, this is their influence. But generally, the enterprises have their own interests and do not interfere in the school life.”

Moving on to the NGOs, the majority of the principals claim that the former do not play an influential role in their schools. A principal even mentions that their role may only be witnessed in the schools with the dual systems. He says:

“The NGOs play a role mainly in schools with the dual system.”

Another principal justifies having minimal relations with the NGOs as a way to protect their neutrality. He explains:

“The NGOs rarely contact us. But they are welcome. However, we do not resort to them in order to keep our neutrality. But if they have an offer for us, we study it if it was in the interest of the students.”

Thus, the majority of the interviewed principals consider the role of the NGOs as mainly supportive rather than participatory in the decision-making process.

As for the local educational authorities, whether the senate of education science and health in Bremen or the Land school authorities in Lower Saxony; the opinions of the principals differ in the way they see the nature of their relationship to these local educational authorities. Various principals conceive this relation to be on equal basis while others see it as hierarchical. A principal claims to have good relationships when the situation is not controlled by certain rules. He says:

“The educational authorities intervene only in the exceptional cases. They do not put the guidelines alone but in cooperation with the principal. And the school has then the autonomy to implement the goals. But it has to abide by the guidelines. So in the autonomy lies also responsibility.”

Another principal believes that the personality of both sides that determines the nature of this relationship. He comments:

“There is a hierarchical relationship with the higher authorities and that greatly depends upon the personality of both sides.”

A further principal says:

“The relation with the authorities depends on the personalities. I do not think that it depends on me, rather, on the personalities at the higher authorities.”

However, other principals mention that the hierarchical relationship with the higher authorities is obvious only in certain circumstances. A principal states:

“When it comes to resources, our relationship with the higher educational authorities becomes hierarchical. But when it comes to the daily operation, we deal with them on equal basis.”

Another principal mentions:

“Our relationship with the higher authorities is controversial. They claim that we should be autonomous, but they can not forget their controlling function.”

A third principal adds:

“The senate does not control us. Until now!! But in case of emergency they will know that they will have to take control.”

A fourth principal explains:

“As for the relationship with the authorities, there should be a balance between control and support. It would be better if we had accountability instead of control.”

A principal summarizes this relationship as follows:

“In the situations where there are no clear rules we deal with the higher educational authorities at the same level. But when there are clear rules, then it is the higher authorities that take the decisions.”

Nevertheless, when asking about the influential actor in the decision-making process, the responses differed greatly. One view considers the local educational authorities to be the most important actor. A principal justifies this view:

“It is the senate that takes the most important decisions. We could work better if we had more freedom and flexibility. However, we (the schools) are always hindered through the decisions of the senate.”

A second principal, however, claims that this role of the local authorities wanes relatively to the increasing role of the principals. He says:

“As for the entire educational system, I think it is the senate for building and science that plays the important role. However, this role has been gradually diminishing relatively to the role of the principals.”

A third principal further adopts this view and adds:

“The senate should also have members of high quality. Politics changes but the senate remains. Therefore I think that the principals and the senate are the important actors.”

A second view stresses the role of the school conference. A principal comments:

“The school conference is the most important body for taking the most important decisions. And sometimes the school conference is being used to limit or prove the authorities of the principal.”

A second principal adds:

“Here we have weekly-meetings and we discuss together all the topics related to school and class organization..... The most important decisions are to be prepared first in our weekly-meetings but are to be taken in the school conference, like when we plan our budget.”

Nevertheless, the majority of the principals advocate the third view that perceives all the stakeholders to be important actors in the decision-making process, depending on the focal point itself. A principal illustrates:

“The teachers are important actors. Without them, no classes will be available. However, without the principal, the educational system will be chaotic, where everybody would do what he sees fit. Hence, the educational system requires efficient teachers for efficient classes and efficient leadership to organize the school and overcome conflicts. And in case of the inability of the school leadership to solve an issue then school inspection (coming from the higher educational authorities) may step in.”

Another principal adds:



“The most important actor depends on the focal point. In class, it is the teachers. When we consider the guidelines, then I see all the stakeholders as important. As for the principals, they have to motivate the teachers.”

A third principal mentions:

“In the educational system all the stakeholders and actors play an important role. Maybe the principal has the greatest possibilities between the teachers and the school conference.”

A fourth principal claims:

“The student is the most important actor, but in real structural questions it is the teacher who is the most important actors. I (as the principal) follow the decision structures but in emergencies, I have to intervene. The most decisive thing is to stay in the background and take collective decisions.”

A fifth principal adds:

“The schools are subordinated to the higher authorities. The schools decide upon the school operation and the authorities decide about the entire educational system in the state. Therefore, the school is responsible for the pedagogical part and the authorities for the political part.”

Finally, an expert comments:

“I see the teachers and the students as the most important actors in education, as they are the ones who can produce an effective class. When it comes to decisions, the principal plays the most important role. Again, we should not forget the extended leadership and the pedagogical decisions that are taken with the entire colleagues. The principal takes decisions, which are related to school development. The pedagogical ones are taken by the entire staff.”

From above, it can be concluded that most of the interviewed principals mention that although the parents are advocated to participate in the school life, yet they do not exercise their role either because 1- they only intervene when their children have certain problems, or 2- consider the schools and the enterprises as responsible for the students, or 3- the students are full-age and responsible for their own life. This further confirms what Wirris (2002) and Brackhahn et al. (2004) have mentioned before about the limited participation of the parents.

The principals also confirm that the teachers are involved in the decision-making process, especially with relevance to the pedagogic issues and sometimes in strategic matters.

The students are not active in the school life because they relate themselves more - in the schools with the dual system - to the enterprises rather than the school itself. While in the full-time schools, they prefer to discuss their problems directly with their teachers or with the principal.

Furthermore, all the interviewed principals, especially in those schools with the dual system, admit that they have contact with enterprises and that the latter are represented in the school conference and organize the practical exams, yet when it comes to decision making, the role of the enterprises is mainly confined to advising.

Also the majority of the interviewed principals perceive the role of the NGOs as mainly supportive rather than participatory in the decision-making process.

Concerning the relationship with the local educational units, the principals claim that the relationship becomes hierarchical when the schools ask for resources, or when they have to abide by the rules, or when the local educational authorities work with the old system or according to the old rules. Other than this, they perceive the relationship to be on equal basis.

What is worth noticing is that none of the interviewed principals claims the principal to be the most important actor in decision-making. The majority even demonstrate that the various actors or stakeholders play in the various instances an important role in decision-making.

Thus, it can be inducted that even though many stakeholders in practice may not be active in the decision-making process, yet the principals welcome and encourage their involvement, indicating thereby the adoption of participatory leadership.

### **3 Decentralization of decision-making and planning**

The schools are social entities that address various issues beside education, such as violence, bullying, environment, gender, ethnic, youth, and social welfare services.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, the schools in Germany have been moving towards acquiring greater autonomy in planning and setting the school objectives.<sup>2</sup> Accordingly, the schools can autonomously plan and execute their own educational activities, decide upon the reforms within the school, determine the principles for performance evaluation and internal organization, create sub-boards or committees, and delegate authorities.<sup>3</sup> A principal comments:

“We define annually our objectives and level of performance. We determine our long- and short-term goals. This gives us more autonomy. Throughout

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<sup>1</sup> OECD (2001), op. cit, p. 48.

<sup>2</sup> Hartmut Holzapfel (1999), op. cit, p. 44.

<sup>3</sup> Peter Vogel (1977), op. cit, p. 143.

the year, we are responsible for our performance and at the end of the year, we are held responsible for it.”

A second principal explains how his school sets its goals and objectives in a participatory way. He mentions:

“I ask the heads of the fields and the departments to formulate their objectives. Then these are discussed with me and sent later to the higher authorities as a school proposal. The higher authorities may ask us to make changes. Then we discuss the objectives again and later in our last round with the authorities no big changes are usually required.”

Even though, this autonomy is limited. The local educational authorities set the broad guidelines and curricula and leave the details for the schools. Hence, the local educational authorities have a guiding role besides their advisory role. They are responsible for: determining education policies, organizing school structure, creating teacher objectives, supervising teacher's work, and textbook approval and selection.<sup>1</sup> A principal illustrates:

“If the objectives do not abide by the guidelines, the higher authorities may demand us to reformulate them. But that has not happened until now.”

A second principal demonstrates that even though the schools are autonomous in determining their goals and objectives, yet they have to abide by the available resources and are hence hindered. She demonstrates:

“We have our freedom when deciding our goals and performance levels. Yet, when defining the resources, we are not left with much free space.”

A third principal, however, claims that when there are disputes with the local authorities they are solved in a democratic way. He mentions:

“The higher educational authorities do not force us to behave in a certain way. They invite us to discuss certain topics.”

A fourth principal further explains:

“We have two milestone meetings in the year with the senate. Until now, we have been able to discuss and negotiate our goals and level of performance with them and the meetings end up always peacefully. However, formally the senate is our superior authority”

A fifth principal even indicates that in major disputes, the circle of principals negotiates collectively with local authorities. Yet thereafter, they have to abide by the decisions taken. He comments:

“When we receive new guidelines that we oppose, we discuss them in the circle of the principals. In fact, we managed to change many things. And when the decisions are taken, I return to my school and tell them now we have to implement them efficiently or else anarchy will arise.”

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<sup>1</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 78.

The teachers have the right to choose the approved textbooks that they will teach,<sup>1</sup> as well as have the right to organize their classes and use the teaching materials that they see best to educate the students.<sup>2</sup> A principal claims:

“Here we have weekly meetings and we discuss together all the topics related to school and class organization.”

In Bremen and Lower Saxony the schools are further obliged to present their own vision in the school profile and demonstrate how to achieve this profile.<sup>3</sup> A principal demonstrates:

“The school profile and program are related to quality development in the school and determine the school vision. And according to the school profile we determine our objectives with the higher authorities.”

Even a bureaucratic body, the School Inspection, was founded in Bremen in order to advise the schools on the development of their school programs and evaluate the schools’ success in meeting the goals and standards that are set in the school program.<sup>4</sup> A principal further highlights the role of the steering group in coordinating planning. He comments:

“We have a steering group that studies the various criteria and monitors internally our progress. Thereafter, a feedback is reached and documented.”

Regarding curricula, Ghareeb (2005) explores that in the vocational schools the enterprises determine the needed skills to be acquired and then the curricula are designed accordingly. The delegates from three groups (chambers of industry - teachers and trainers –educational authorities) convene to determine the topics, the instructional methods, and activities to be used while teaching these topics. Thereafter, the different editors and publishing companies bid on the production of these books.

This decentralization of curricula and textbooks is thought to achieve great advantages, such as empowering the teachers, strengthening the bond between the KMs and the labor market, achieving greater connection between the federal and the Länder level through a dual direction (bottom- up and top-down directions), relating curricula decentralization to financial and administrative decentralization, and assessing students’ achievements using local and decentralized techniques.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Olga Zlatkin-Troitschanskaia (2006), op. cit, p. 63.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, pp. 76-77.

<sup>3</sup> Peter Daschner Hans Günter Rolff& Tom Stryck (1995), op. cit, p. 228.

<sup>4</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), op. cit, p. 166.

<sup>5</sup> Aida Abbas Abu Ghareeb (2005), op. cit, p. 49.

However, since it is the KMs that set curricula, curricula may differ from one Land to the other depending even sometimes on the prevailing political party in that state. However, recently there has been a major trend towards unifying the final graduating exams to guarantee almost equal educational quality to the students.<sup>1</sup> Few teachers refuse, however, the idea of having unified standards and guidelines and demand providing greater flexibility to the schools to cope with the educational capabilities of their students.<sup>2</sup>

Finally, it can be concluded that with regard to planning, the German vocational schools are free to set their goals and objectives, provided that they follow the guidelines put by the local educational authorities and abide by the available resources. Usually this is done internally in a participatory way. Nevertheless, when disputes ensue with the local educational authorities, these are solved democratically.

#### **4 Decentralization of decision-making and the role of the school principal**

Carle (2000) and Wirris (2002) demonstrate that inside the German schools the principal is the major manager and initiator of reforms and changes. It is s/he who takes the initiatives<sup>3</sup> and is the sole responsible person for the actions and activities within the schools.<sup>4</sup> An interviewed principal confirms:

“In the school, it is the principal who has the last voice, and that depends upon his newly changed role. I came from a tradition where the principal was the first among equals. Now it means a lot to me to take decisions, as I am responsible for the entire school. I regret that the collective responsibility has diminished. But that changed because the laws have changed. Nevertheless, I do not take any decisions without consulting first with the colleagues.”

A second principal comments:

“The principal plays the most important role in the school. He has to control and be aware of everything happening in the school. If I do not develop a vision and put the goals in the front, then I will be of no use for the school. That (i.e. developing a vision and putting the goals) depends on my ability to involve other stakeholders, which depends again on my personality and managerial abilities. A good school requires a good leader.”

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<sup>1</sup> Jürgen Hambrink (1979). *Schulverwaltung und Bildungspolitik: Die Festlegung von Lerninhalten im ministeriellen Genehmigungsverfahren für Schulbücher*. München: Wilhelm Fink Verlag, pp. 120.122.

<sup>2</sup> Mark A. Ashwill (1999), op. cit.

<sup>3</sup> Ursula Carle (2000). *Was bewegt die Schule: Internationale Bilanz, praktische Erfahrung, neue systemische Möglichkeiten für Schulreform, Lehrerbildung, Schulentwicklung und Qualitätssteigerung*. Germany: Schneider-Verlag Hohengehren, p. 376.

<sup>4</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2000), op. cit, p. 231.

A third principal adds:

“The principals became more powerful as they have acquired a lot of authorities that were earlier in the hands of the higher authorities. Earlier, it was the higher authorities that used to determine how we should organize our classes. Now we decide by our own, guided by the school vision that we have.”

A fourth principal summarizes:

“I am responsible to implement the objectives without having the higher authorities intervening in our work.”

Nevertheless, since the teachers are civil servants and the stakeholders participate only voluntarily in the school-life, the principals are left only with tactics to motivate the stakeholders in various ways to participate in the school-life.<sup>1</sup> One of the options is motivation through seeking the advice of the teachers, a principal states:

“I have to motivate the teachers. ....We take decisions in our weekly sessions and usually I seek the advice of the teachers. This is important. In addition, I do not determine the goals alone. They are discussed with the department heads and the various fields.”

Delegation of decision-making is another alternative.<sup>2</sup> A principal demonstrates:

“The principal leads the school. I decide whether I would involve the colleagues or take the decisions alone. But we made it that way: all the pedagogical decisions are taken by the teams.... The less the initiatives coming from the teams, teachers and students, the more I have to intervene.”

Another principal adds that he does not devolve the managerial decisions as they may cause conflicts. He says:

“I devolve many pedagogical decisions to the teams and colleagues. The managerial decisions are less devolved as they entail conflicting processes, which can only be solved through the principal.”

A third principal mentions that he encourages the parents to participate in the school, however, he indicates that he controls this participation through controlling the information that they receive. He says:

“I always try to keep the parents informed about the changes. And that depends upon the amount of information I give to them”

Since the involvement of various stakeholders, especially in decision-making, may lead to conflicts, the principal’s personality may be influential in preventing the conflicts. A principal confirms:

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<sup>1</sup> Ursula Carle (2000), op. cit, p. 380.

<sup>2</sup> Rolf Arnold & Christiane Griese (2004), op. cit, p. 86.

“When having contact with many actors the principal has to be able to solve conflicts, while being able to express his opinion even if the majority was against it.”

Another principal elaborates:

“I discuss the different objectives first with the various departments, but it is I who takes the final decision. Then these are discussed with the senate for education and science. Then we have annually 2 milestone meetings, one for setting the goals and one for monitoring, and accordingly, we can determine whether we are progressive or not.”

A third principal adds:

“With the recent changes the principal became empowered. Hence, he can decide to take the decisions alone or collectively. And that greatly depends upon his personality and how he deals with the various situations.”

A fourth principal further explains:

“The principal has to know how to handle conflicts in order to save time. Conflicts are normal or else we will have a dictatorship.”

Wirris (2002) mentions that even though the school conferences in Germany are supposed to complete or balance the role of principal by ensuring that the latter a) has no voting right in the school conference, b) is obliged to implement the decisions of the school conference<sup>1</sup> and c) gives her/his advice in the administrative issues, the principal can veto any decision that violates the legal regulations,<sup>2</sup> and can still influence the decision-making process itself or the implementation of the decisions.

A principal demonstrates how he cooperates with the school conference and the school departments. He mentions:

“The decisions that are related to the entire school are taken by the principal and the school conference together. But the operation is mainly ruled by the principal. I know this is not democratic. One can say that the functions of the principal have increased very much lately. However, the authorities of the principal have been further delegated to the heads of the departments. Currently they have acquired more autonomy than before regarding money, classes, and training.”

Another principal confirms that he achieves collaboration through determining the topics and leading the discussions. He states:

“I lead the discussions and prepare the topics that will be discussed.”

When asking the principals about whether or not they prefer decentralization of decision-making, the majority confirm that they advocate its continuation

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<sup>1</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), *op. cit.*, p. 234.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 237.

and development, if the stakeholders become involved. A principal demonstrates:

“Yes, I am for decentralization of decision-making. Yet it is essential to build the capacity of the community members, parents, teachers, and principals to create a culture of accountability.”

Few principals, however, warn against being overloaded. A principal summarizes:

“I am for decentralization of decision-making, provided that we feel real change and real autonomy. Or else, we will be only overloaded. This is why I am cautious when asking for more authorities”

Thus, it can be concluded that even though the principal is responsible for the school actions and activities, yet, the majority of the interviewees in the German vocational schools indicate that they adopt a participatory leadership through seeking the participation of the stakeholders in the decision-making process and that through motivating them in various ways, like seeking their advice and devolving decision-making authorities to them. Yet, they also deploy different tactics to avoid or manage conflicts such: controlling the flow of information, devolving merely the pedagogical and not the managerial decisions that may cause conflicts, and depending on the personality traits in expressing opinions and handling conflicts. Moreover, the principals can also influence the school conferences and its decisions either by directing the discussions in the conferences or by guiding the implementation of the decisions.

Finally, the majority favor having more autonomy in decision-making, provided that they feel a real change and are not hindered by the local authorities that may work with old methods, and provided that the stakeholders become trained and involved in the decision-making process to lighten the load on the school in general and on the principal in particular.



### Part Three

## The Effect of Decentralization of Decision-Making in Egypt on School Leadership

### 1 Aspects of decentralization of decision-making in the Egyptian vocational schools

In Egypt, the EMOE is the sole entity responsible for decision-making in the entire educational sector, while the role of the schools and the local educational authorities is confined to the mere implementation of this planning.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, the EMOE has created many central councils, such as a) the council of the directors of the educational sectors and central directorates that aims at achieving coordination among the different educational sectors and central directorates, b) the supreme council for examination and pedagogical evaluation that is responsible for setting all the exams of all the pre-university educational years as well as evaluating school and teacher performance, c) the permanent commission for curricula improvement that is responsible for determining and improving curricula of all school types and educational years, and d) the national center for pedagogical research and development that is responsible for conducting research in the various pedagogical fields.<sup>2</sup> Hence, policies and planning are done at the central level for all the regions and the different kinds of schools.<sup>3</sup>

Thus, when it comes to decentralization of decision-making - as it is the case in Germany - the majority of the interviewed principals in Egypt state that they do not feel that they are empowered or have acquired new authorities in decision-making. A principal claims:

“I do not feel any difference in decision-making. .... We need support from above to be able to take strong decisions.”

A second principal explains how the principals are hindered by the various rules and regulations coming from the local educational authorities (directorates and administrates). He says:

“I do not feel any changes and the principal is still hindered by the rules and regulations that he gets from above.”

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<sup>1</sup> Mahmoud Atta M. A. Museil (Sept 1996), op. cit, p. 184.

<sup>2</sup> Mahmoud Atta Museil (May 2002), op. cit, p. 111.

<sup>3</sup> Hassan Mustapha, Waheeb Ibrahim Samaan, Mohamed Mohamed Ashour & Riyadh Moawad (1990). *New Trends in School Management*. Cairo: Angloegyptian Library. (Original in Arabic), p. 67.

A third principal even demonstrates how the principals are hindered to the extent that they avoid or fear taking strong decisions. He says:

“There is a kind of fear. Fear of taking a decision. Therefore, the decision is no longer influential or capable of achieving change.”

Nevertheless, an expert claims that the tendency towards decentralization of decision-making is continuing with the aim of overcoming the pitfalls. He states:

“It appears that this (decentralization of decision-making) is a general tendency in the government and that they are improving it and are trying to overcome the weaknesses.”

Thus, it can be concluded that despite the tendency towards decentralization of decision-making, the majority of the interviewed principals believe that they are still hindered by the various rules and regulations, and thus are not able to take the strong decisions they are willing to take. This is why few of them are looking forward to getting the support from the local authorities. In all cases, the tendency towards decentralization of decision-making is continuing.

## **2 Decentralization of decision-making and the involvement of stakeholders**

As previously indicated, the vocational schools in Egypt feel that they are hindered by the rules and regulations coming from the local educational authorities. The latter hesitate to devolve authority to the schools and vest most of the managerial, technical, and financial authorities in their hands. Thus, the schools do not enjoy autonomy in their work,<sup>1</sup> and became dependent on the local educational authorities and resort to them in every detail.<sup>2</sup>

However, the majority of the principals claim to have good relationships with the local educational authorities, as the latter tend to support them in their actions. A principal explores:

“The educational directorate assists and supports us. For example, if we need to punish someone, usually the directorate supports us and removes the teacher. This is why decentralization will only succeed if we receive support from above.”

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<sup>1</sup> Abd El Moneim Yassin Mussa Shehata(1997). *The Administrative Problems Facing Secondary Education Directors and the Means to Overcome them*. Master Thesis in Education. Cairo: The National Center for Educational Research and Studies. (Original in Arabic), pp. 74-75.

<sup>2</sup> Botheina And El Raouf Ramadan (1999). *Interest Groups and Equality of Educational Chances in Egypt*. Master Thesis in Education. Cairo: The National Center for Educational Research and Studies. (Original in Arabic), pp. 69-70

A second principal adds:

“The higher authorities generally help us. This depends on the good relationship we have with them and to a great extent on my personality. They feel that we are trying and rallying to improve our performance and make it better. They treat us as partners and support us, and I feel this. This is why we always get good evaluations.”

Nevertheless, few principals claim that the local authorities do not value the efforts that schools make. A principal summarizes:

“The higher authorities still see us at the bottom. They order and we implement. And now the teachers are overloaded and not equivalently paid....This happens even in general education.”

Moving on to the role of the parents, the ministerial decree number 258/2005 encourages the involvement of parents in the school-life.<sup>1</sup> All the principals indicate that they welcome the involvement of the parents and that they have tried to approach them. Even though, like in Germany, the involvement and participation of the parents in the Egyptian vocational schools is minimal to non-existent. A principal justifies:

“The parents fear that if they participated, they would be asked to donate to the school.”

Another principal adds:

“We wait for them, yet most of the time they do not come. This is due to our poor socio-economic environment.”

A third principal mentions that even when the parents contact the school, they only contact it to solve the problems of their children. He claims:

“The parents only intervene to solve problems of their children. And in vocational schools most of the parents do not even live in the neighborhood.”

As for the students, the majority of the principals claim that the students do not participate in school planning and resort that to the nature of the vocational schools, especially that of the schools with the dual-system, in which the students spend only two days in the school and the rest in the factories. A principal maintains:

“The students look at vocational education as a period that they have to pass to complete their military duties and then look for a job. But they do not consider the school as beneficial to them.”

Another principal adds:

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<sup>1</sup> Abdo Ali Mohamed Hasan (1999). “A Suggested Program for Activating the Role of Parents in the Educational Process”. In: *The Periodical of Faculty of Education*. Ein Shams University. Vol. 23, Part 2, pp. 135-196 (Original in Arabic), p. 157.

“The role of the students is weak. Maybe in the mixed schools they play a more active role to show themselves to other gender.”

With regard to the involvement of the NGOs, the ministerial decree number 30/2000 encourages the role of the NGOs and even allows them to build certain types of schools, especially the local community and one-class schools.<sup>1</sup> However, the opinions of the principals regarding the contact with the NGOs differ. Various principals negate the existence of any contact with them. A principal mentions:

“There is no participation from the side of the NGOs.”

A second principal justifies this weak relation with the NGOs and explains:

“The NGOs can only help the school if they get the approval of the higher authorities. Hence, their participation is generally weak.”

A third principal even demonstrates that his school has a negative experience with the NGOs. He illustrates:

“Unfortunately, we have negative experience with the NGOs. For example last year we cooperated with one NGO, and later we found out that they advertised about this cooperation in the newspapers and claimed to have invested larger amounts of money than what they really spent”

Nevertheless, few principals claim that they have positive relations with the NGOs. A principal states:

“The NGO came to us last year and established three labs. .... I am happy that the local community supports us.”

Concerning the enterprises, the opinions therefore are also divergent. The full-time vocational schools claim that they have no relationship with the enterprises and justify this to the nature of the school as well as the low socio-economic regions in which they exist. A principal illustrates:

“Our relationship with factories is weak. It depends upon the environment of the school. We have no equivalent or relevant factories near us.”

As for the schools with the dual-system, few of the principals claim to have direct relationships with the factories. A principal says:

“Our contact to other factories is mainly to educate the students and make them up-to-date.”

A second principal adds:

“In the dual system, the factories participate in the exams, and they par-

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<sup>1</sup> Abd El Salam Mohamed Ali El Sabbagh (2001). *Activating the Role of Egyptian NGOs in Education according to the Experience of Some of the Developed Countries*. Ph.D. Thesis in Education. Cairo: Institute for Educational Studies and Research (Original in Arabic), p. 42.

ticipate also in determining curricula as well as the skills they need.”

A third principal mentions:

“We also mediate between the private sector, the EMOMP (ministry of military production) and the students, so that the majority of the students can find a job or continue their education.”

A fourth principal highlights the role of the regional units. He demonstrates:

“The factories have no role in the school and our contact is mainly with the regional unit, which gives us the attendance and the reports about what the students do in the factories. I have my limits when contacting the factories and hence, the regional unit coordinates this relationship, and it is the unit on which I depend. If a problem happens to one of the students in the factories, the unit will be responsible for solving it.”

A second principal even adds that the regional units coordinate the practical exams. He says:

“The regional unit participates in the exam organization and the new enrolment. And sometimes it even overweighs the role of the school.”

Nevertheless, it is worth noting, that few principals refuse to have direct relationships with the enterprises and prefer the reliance on the regional unit in order to avoid any pressures that may come from the factories or any bad reputation (as shall be elaborated in the chapter on financial decentralization). A principal mentions:

“If the factories supported us with machines then they would try to wrest my arm.”

A second further explains:

“The local community is not activated, because I refuse this participation to avoid the reputation of receiving donations and being corrupt. We have the regional unit that coordinates the relationship between the school and the factory.”

All the previously mentioned stakeholders are represented in the BOTs. And although the recent trends have devolved financial and administrative authorities to the BOTs,<sup>1</sup> yet the majority of the principals claim that these BOTs are not active and are merely symbolic, representing the difficulties that the schools face to even call the BOTs for convention. A principal says:

“The BOT is only a picture and is not activated.”

A second adds:

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<sup>1</sup> Abd El Rahman Abd El Rahim El Khateeb (Oct. 2003). “The Role of the PTAs in Maintaining the Educational Process in the Public Schools from the Point of View of the Teachers of Preliminary Phase”. In: *The Periodical of the Pedagogical Sciences*. Issue 4, pp. 1-25 (Original in Arabic), p. 16.

“The BOT is merely symbolic and it is difficult to attract members of the local community.”

A third claims:

“When we call the BOT to convene, no one comes. The parents are either not interested or busy, or are afraid being forced to pay donations. ...The BOT is only a name and not activated.”

A fourth principal mentions:

“The BOT is only symbolic. We are forced to ask outsiders to become members, but how can I do that??”

A fifth principal adds:

“The members of the BOT sometimes even ask how much they would get to become members.”

Finally, a sixth principal states:

“We got the orders to activate the BOT. Well, does this mean that I should go and find these people?! I think it is related to our culture that puts the entire responsibility on the shoulders of the school alone and that forces it to take the decisions. I wish that the local community would come and ask us what we need.”

Finally, when asking about the most important actor in the decision-making process, the responses divert. Few principals claim that it is the leadership conference (mainly involving the principal and the department heads), which is the most important actor. A principal confirms:

“The most important actor is the leadership conference. Through it we take the most important decisions in the school”

Another principal illustrates:

“The leadership conference is the most influential council for decision-making.”

The majority of the interviewed principals confirm that the principal is the most important actor in the decision-making process. A principal stresses:

“The principal is the most important actor. He is responsible for everything. Hence, she/he should get the needed training and incentives and have the needed support from above as well as be empowered financially.”

A second principal emphasizes:

“The most important actor is the principal, who takes the most important decisions based upon the information that he gets from the department leaders or teachers or teams.”

A third principal adds:

“The principal is the one who knows best what the school needs.”

Nevertheless, few principals believe that the principal should not be the main actor in the decision-making process alone. A principal suggests:

“I do not think that that the principal is the main actor. He should not be the main actor. All the members in the school should be effective. Otherwise, the symphony will only be noisy. Of course, the principal must be the coordinator; however, the entire school should be active.”

One of the interviewed principals even confirms that leading the school by himself alone is not possible. He says:

“It is not possible that the principal controls everything in the school. It requires him to be an angel.”

A further principal comments:

“We work in teams and have a collective decision-making process. ...Therefore, all members of the school play an important role.”

Finally, a principal summarizes:

“All actors should play an important role. And the main reason for our failure is that the stakeholders left all the responsibility to the school and became passive.”

Thus, from all the above it can be concluded that even though many principals admit that they are supported by the local educational authorities, yet few still emphasize the hierarchy in the educational system.

Moreover, as it is the case in Germany, the parents in the Egyptian vocational schools intervene only to solve the problems of their children. Otherwise, they do not go to the school because they do not live nearby or because of their poor socio-economic status, which makes them fear being asked to donate. As for the students, the majority of the principals claim that the students do not participate in school-life and that their role is weak.

Moving on to the NGOs, although the laws encourage their participation in the school-life, yet their relationship with the schools ranges from non-existent to weak due to the complicated regulations or the bad experience that the schools have with them. Nevertheless, few principals confirm that they have had a good relationship with them and benefited from their role.

Regarding the relationship with the enterprises, in the full-time vocational schools this relationship is not-existent, whereas it is in the vocational schools with the dual-system confined to planning the education of the students. Furthermore, it is mainly the regional units that coordinate and mediate the relationship between the vocational schools and the factories, and many principals in turn welcome this mediating role to avoid any pressures or bad reputation.

Despite the existence of the BOTs that represent the various stakeholders and involve them in the decision-making process, the majority if not all the principals claim that these BOTs are not active and that the schools are the ones

which take the initiative and look for ways to attract the members.

Hence, even though the vocational schools in Egypt are encouraged to involve the stakeholders in the decision-making process, yet the majority of the principals claim that the various stakeholders are the ones, who do not exploit this opportunity and refrain from participating. This further explains why the majority of the interviewees consider the leadership conference or the principal (i.e. the most influential functional positions in the schools) as being the most important actors in the decision-making process.

### **3 Decentralization of decision-making and planning**

The supreme council for pre-university education that is under the jurisdiction of the EMOE is the main entity responsible for planning the educational system. Whereas implementation is left to the local educational authorities and the schools, which are deprived thereby from the right to plan.<sup>1</sup> The EMOE with its central apparatuses dominate the educational system.<sup>2</sup> Thus, Andraus (2000) illustrates the gap or distance between the ministry that plans and the executive bodies (local educational authorities or schools) in the various governorates that implement these plans.<sup>3</sup> And because the latter are not involved in planning, many problems emerge whether within the schools or in the entire educational system as:

- the lack of priorities in goal-setting, which leads to ineffective use of resources, since prioritizing is needed in order to allocate the resources and time properly,<sup>4</sup>
- the vagueness and generality of goals, claiming that this allows easier possible amendments, which makes them difficult to comprehend and does not clearly define responsibilities,<sup>5</sup>
- the dependency on complying groups in the decision-making process without revision or listening to the point of view of the opposition groups.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Nagda Ibrahim Ali Suliman (1997). *Improving Local Management of Education: A Futuristic Vision*. Ph.D Thesis in Education. Cairo: The National Center for Educational Research and Studies (Original in Arabic), p. 74.

<sup>2</sup> Mahmoud Atta Mohamed Ali Museil (May 2002), op. cit, p. 122.

<sup>3</sup> Amal Kamel Andraus (2000), op. cit, p. 220.

<sup>4</sup> Mohamed Seif El Din Fahmi (1993). "Reflections on the Educational Policies in Egypt". In: *The Education Periodical. Al Azhar University*. Vol. 30, pp. 1-25 (Original in Arabic), p. 23

<sup>5</sup> Hassan Mohamed Hassan (December 1994). "An Analytical Vision Concerning Few Educational Studies in the Arabic Region". In: *Educational Symposium*. Part 2. Cairo: 10<sup>th</sup>-15<sup>th</sup>. (Original in Arabic), p. 25.



- the dependency on rules and regulations to get the needed information, which leads to the bureaucratization and the routine of work without offering greater flexibility for innovation and creativity.<sup>2</sup>

When interviewing the principals, they mention that only the implementation of the decisions taken from above is left to them. A principal says:

“We receive the decision from above and have to implement them as they are set. Therefore, we meet gradually to discuss how we shall implement them.”

A second principal adds:

“We have no influence over the decisions coming from above. We have to implement them. Hence as a principal I feel hindered.”

A third principal confirms:

“The EMOE is the most important actor because it takes the various rules and decisions and we have to implement the orders.”

A fourth principal clearly illustrates the gap that happens between the schools and the central authorities. He demonstrates:

“The higher authorities set policies that cannot be applied in the lower levels. They just want to succeed without necessarily focusing on the content.”

A fifth principal adds:

“We are at the lower level and the authorities are sitting on the desks and do not have any idea about what happens in the school.”

However, when it comes to planning the school affairs, the local educational authorities give the schools the opportunity to determine their needs, and if the needed resources are available, then the former meet their needs. A principal mentions:

“Usually the administrate asks us about our needs. We inform them about our needs and then they respond to us.”

A second principal even confirms:

“Whatever we need from the higher authorities, we get.”

The majority of the principals confirm that the “implementation” decisions are taken in a participatory procedure in these meetings. A principal comments:

“We work in teams and have a collective decision-making process.”

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<sup>1</sup> Amal Othman Kuheil (2007). *Suggested Strategies to Improve the Primary Education School Administration according to the Prerequisites of the Future School*. Ph.D. Thesis in Education Cairo: The National Center for Educational Research and Studies. (Original in Arabic), p.185.

<sup>2</sup> Salma Ahmed Mahmoud Khalil (2001). “Managerial Communication in the field of Education in the Arab Republic of Egypt: A Survey”. In: *Conference of Educational Management in the Arabic Region in the Era of Information*. 27<sup>th</sup>- 29<sup>th</sup> January. Cairo: Dar Al Fikr Al Arabi. (Original in Arabic), p. 279.

Few principals mention that most of the decisions are taken by the leadership conference. A principal says:

“The principal and the leadership conference take most of the decisions.”

Other principals even mention that they extend the circle of decision-making to involve other stakeholders such as parents and local members. A principal indicates that the local community members participate in the decision-making process, he claims:

“We meet once a month and the members of the local community may participate.”

Another principal states that most of the decisions are taken by the BOT, which encompasses all the stakeholders. He demonstrates:

“Inside the school most of the decisions are taken by the BOT. The principal does not take decisions individually.”

Thus, it can be concluded that the decisions related to how to implement these policies and rules are taken in a participatory way.

As for curricula, there is the permanent committee for improving curricula, which is responsible for improving or changing curricula, while the ministry of education is responsible for providing the textbooks, through two main ways:

- A contest: where the committee determines the curricula and the different topics, and the ministry announces a contest for composing the textbooks according to the preset conditions. Then the ministry chooses the best suitable textbook, buys the composition right from the author and grants him a reward.
- Composition: where the committee nominates certain experts to compose the needed textbooks.

Thereafter, the books' department in the ministry of education begins to print and disseminate the textbooks on the different schools.

The local consultative educational committees may suggest the amendment of certain textbooks or may propose new topics. But this rarely happens.<sup>1</sup> And the mere role of the educational directorates and administrates related to curricula is to supervise their usage and application in the various schools.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, curricula and textbooks are centrally controlled, while the schools and the teachers are obliged to adopt them.<sup>3</sup> But regarding the practical part, it is the regional units with the private enterprises that determine its contents.

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<sup>1</sup> Mahmoud Atta Mohamed Ali Museil (Sept 1996), op. cit, pp. 171-173.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, p. 176.

<sup>3</sup> Aida Abbas Abu Ghareeb (2005), op. cit, p.19.

Thus, it can be concluded that the Egyptian vocational schools are only able to plan the way they will implement the goals and objectives coming from the local educational authorities, provided they follow the rules and regulations and comply to the available resources. This indicates that the schools still lack the capability of defining and setting their goals and objectives. Nevertheless, the majority of the principals confirm that the “implementation” decisions are taken in a participatory procedure in these meetings.

#### **4 Decentralization of decision-making and the role of the school principal**

The responsibilities of the principal are defined in article number three of the ministerial decree number 120/1986 as such:

- determining and supervising the responsibilities and duties of all the working staff,
- forming the committee of the school schedule,
- accrediting the school schedule and supervising its implementation,
- disseminating textbooks and curricula,
- observing and directing all working-staff,
- monitoring the implementation of all directives coming to the school,
- accrediting the plan of activities,
- presiding the BOT as well as the PTA,
- representing the school in external meetings,
- presiding all the works related to examination.

Based on the above, Baghdadi (2005) concludes that the principals have only executive functions confined to the mere implementation of the rules emanating from the center; i.e. the EMOE.<sup>1</sup> When interviewing the principals, many clearly confirm that they are controlled by the rules coming from the higher authorities. A principal mentions:

“The minister says that the principal is responsible in his school and that we have decentralization. However, that is not true. The principal is limited rather than being empowered.”

A second principal even comments:

“If I did not take the decisions and actions that satisfy the higher authorities, I may be subject to investigation.”

Nevertheless, as in Germany, many other principals believe that the nature of the relationship with the local educational authorities depends on either their

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<sup>1</sup> Manar Mohamed Ismail Baghdadi (2005). *Educational Policy Making: A Comparative Study among Egypt, England and China*. Ph.D. Thesis in Education. Cairo: Institute for Educational Studies and Research. (Original in Arabic), p. 270.

personality or on the personality of both sides; the principals and the higher authorities. A principal says:

“The principal plays the most important role, and the good relation that the school has with the higher authorities depends largely upon his personality.”

Another principal adds:

“The relationship with the authorities depends upon my personality and experience in work.”

A third principal states:

“The amount of autonomy that a school may have depends on the personality of both sides the principal and the higher educational authorities.”

On the other hand, Kuheil (2004) illustrates that since the principals are the only responsible persons for the technical, administrative and financial management of the school, they rarely seek to innovate or take any risks in order to avoid taking any blame in case of failure. In addition, she claims that the principals often assume that change may lead to chaos and waste of time on trial and errors. Thus, direct supervision is used, a matter, which negatively affects the performance of teachers and does not allow them to express their opinions freely.<sup>1</sup> This is why when interviewing the principals, the majority confirm that it is the principal who plays the most important role in the decision-making process, as previously indicated.

Nevertheless, the majority of the principals claim that they try through divergent ways to involve the various stakeholders in the decision-making process. A principal demonstrates how his way of presenting information may involve them, he says:

“The parents are passive. But it all depends upon the personality of the principal who through the way of presenting the various problems may encourage the parents to participate in the school life.”

A second principal indicates that he seeks this involvement through activating the BOT. He illustrates:

“We are trying based on the QM system to develop the BOT so that the decision-making process will not be centralized.”

On the other hand, a principal confirms that he involves the stakeholders at times of conflict. He mentions:

“The principal is the most important actor. But sometimes in the case of hesitation and conflict he listens to the decisions of the colleagues.”

Another principal illustrates:

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<sup>1</sup> Amal Othman Kuheil (2004). *The School Leadership and its Relationship to the Teachers' Professional Development*. Master Thesis in Education. Cairo: Institute for Educational Studies and Research (Original in Arabic), pp. 224-225.

“The leadership conference (with the department heads and the principal deputy) is the most influential council for decision-making. I present the topics in the conference and we vote. There are some decisions that need some kind of centralization from the side of the principal, like when a decision that was approved by the leadership conference is not implemented effectively. In this instance, I step in to achieve a sense of strictness in implementation.”

However, when asking the interviewed principals about their opinion regarding decentralization of decision-making despite being controlled by the various rules and regulation, the majority of them clearly advocate the extension of it provided that some of their suggestions take place. For example, a principal suggests:

“We wish that the parents could be obliged to attend at least once in a week in the school. Once a parent came to the school, made a big problem and then found out that his son is even not enrolled in the school. This shows that the parents have no connection to the school and connect only when a severe problem happens. And this problem emanates from the parents not from us.”

A second principal adds:

“I am for decentralization of decision-making provided that the higher authorities listen to us.”

A third further suggests:

“I advocate decentralization of decision-making, but I wish if the principals could get enough training to handle and reduce inconsistencies.”

Hence from above it can be concluded that despite feeling bound by the rules and regulations determined from the local educational authorities (directorates and administrates), the majority of the interviewed principals in the Egyptian vocational schools, as it is the case in Germany, adopt participatory leadership that involves the stakeholders in decision-making process. The principals depend thereby on their personality traits, the shared information and various tactics to attract the stakeholders, such as activating the leadership conference, or involving the stakeholders at times of conflicts.

Furthermore, the majority of the interviewed principals advocate the continuation of decentralization of decision-making if - as also suggested in Germany – they receive the needed training and support as well as the stakeholders become involved.

## **Part Four**

### **Discussion**

Both countries have taken initiatives to decentralize decision-making in the vocational schools. Of these initiatives is empowering the school conferences in Germany and BOTs in Egypt to take various decisions. However, in both countries the interviewed vocational principals still feel that no radical changes have occurred and that they are hindered by the various rules and regulations and the lack of time. Therefore, they feel overburdened. This sheds light on the persistence of red tape and divergent bureaucratic procedures.

Moreover, when seeking to involve the various stakeholders in the decision-making process, many principals in both countries claim to face obstacles. For instance, when trying to involve the parents in the school life, the principals in both countries confirm that the parents have been passive and contact the schools merely on an individual basis when a certain problem occurs to their children. In Germany, the parents either place the entire responsibility of educating their children on the schools and the enterprises or consider their children to be mature and thus self-dependent. In Egypt, the problem emerges from the fact that the poor socio-economic conditions of the parents may discourage them from engaging in the school-life to avoid being asked to make donations. Hence, this study confirms what the studies of Wirris (2002), Brackhahn et al. (2004) and Sacher (2008) have previously demonstrated about the difficulties that schools in general face to engage the parents, and it advocates finding new ways to make the parents perceive the schools as partners and not as the sole responsible entity for the education of their children.

As for the teachers, the principals in both countries confirm their involvement in taking decisions related to pedagogical issues. Few principals in Germany even mention that the teachers are involved in strategic matters. Hence, the interviewed principals in both countries adopt participatory leadership.

Considering the role of the students, the vocational principals in both countries mention that the students are passive stakeholders and justify this with the fact that the students in general prefer to solve their problems directly with their teachers or the principal, or are only attending the school two days a week according to the dual system. Hence, they consider the school to be a provisional phase until they graduate and find a job. Only one principal in Germany considers the students to be clients and declares that through their participation many

problems become obvious. Therefore, the students' unions have to be activated in order to encourage the discussion of school matters from a different perspective, namely that of the students.

When talking about the role of the enterprises, the answers of the interviewed principals in both countries divert. Only those vocational schools that apply the dual-system confirm to have good relationships with the enterprises, which provide apprenticeships to their students and organize the practical exams. Few principals in Germany announce that the enterprises are represented in the school conference when major issues are discussed. However, the majority of the principals emphasize that the role of these enterprises is mainly advisory. On the other hand, the full-time vocational principals in both countries clearly state that they have limited to no contact with the enterprises. Yet, in general, many of the interviewed principals justify the weak relationship with the enterprises to the low socio-economic region in which they exist or to the fact that the nearby enterprises do not work in the same field of the schools. However, the majority of the Egyptian interviewed principals encourage the role of the regional units that mediate the relationship with the enterprises and demand that the regional units further expand and activate the relationship. In fact, the idea of having a unit mediating the relationship between the schools and the enterprises may even reduce the fear of the principals to be affected by the enterprises, “to lose their neutrality” like few principals in Germany have mentioned or “to being arm-wrested” like the Egyptian principals have phrased it. These regional units may even help the schools get the various kinds of supports (especially the financial support) that they need without being subject to any pressure. Furthermore, they may even represent the interests of the students when they organize the apprenticeships in the enterprises. Thus, their role should be further supported and expanded to include even the full-time vocational schools.

As for the NGOs and local community, almost the same opinion applies. The majority of the German interviewed principals claim to have limited contact with the NGOs in order to keep their neutrality, while in Egypt the majority of the interviewed principals avoid this contact to avoid a reputation of accepting donations or being corrupt, even though the laws in general encourage the cooperation between the schools and the NGOs. Only few of the Egyptian principals demonstrate that they have good experience with the NGOs that supported them financially or built them laboratories.

This may reflect the importance of a) having good contact with the NGOs, which may through various ways support the schools, and of b) training the principals on PR and how to approach the NGOs and local community.

Moreover, the perception of the principals - that if they resort to the NGOs and other stakeholders they will be perceived as begging - should also be changed and be perceived as attempts to initiate and maintain partnerships with the stakeholders. This can be changed through training since the mere existence of laws has proved in this case to be insufficient. Training is needed to train the principals on how to implement the laws and benefit from the opportunities they provide. Furthermore, the regional units could also be beneficial in mediating the relationship with the NGOs, allowing thereby the unattractive schools to have access to the NGOs.

In addition, it is worth noting that the majority of principals whether in Germany or in Egypt consider the local educational authorities to be supportive. In Germany, the interviewed principals state that in most of the cases they deal with the local educational authorities on equal basis. Only in cases of emergency or when there are no rules regulating the situation, the schools then feel subordinated to the local educational authorities. Nevertheless, the majority resort this good relationship either to their personality or to the personalities of both sides. In Egypt as in Germany, the Egyptian principals resort the good relationships with the local educational authorities to their personality. However, the majority feel that they are generally subordinated to the local educational authorities and do not act on equal basis or as partners with them. Either way, the principals whether in Germany or in Egypt do not consider the good relationship with the higher authorities as policy-advocated; rather, as an effort that they make to have the relationship running this way. This is another instance that requires training in order to inform the principals about their rights and opportunities.

As for the most influential actor in decision-making, the views divert radically. In Germany, few of the principals consider the local educational authorities to be the influential actor, others consider the school conference to be the influential actor, while the rest believe that the influential actor varies based on the focal point. Inside the classes, it is the teacher, who is important. On the meso- or macro-level, it is the principal, who is the influential actor. On the other hand, in Egypt, the majority perceive the principals and the leadership conference as the influential actors. Yet, few of the Egyptian interviewed principals express their desire to have the stakeholders more involved in the decision-making process.



These responses reflect how participatory the decision-making process is. For example, in Egypt it can be inducted that it is the principal or the leadership conference that take the most important decisions and thus are considered to be the influential actors, while in Germany the decision-making process is more participatory and hence, various stakeholders are considered as influential.

In addition, these responses may also reflect how the interviewed principals perceive responsibility. In Germany, the principals are more likely to perceive responsibility to be collective. Maybe this is why they mention the involvement of the local educational authorities, school conference or different actors in different situations. While in Egypt, the principals perceive responsibility as being put only on their shoulders or on the leadership conference at most and thus, consider themselves to be influential.

Finally, it seems that in both countries the involvement of stakeholders does not have a progressive position on the continuum that was mentioned by Ornstein (1983). Rather, it takes either the position of client-related when many principals indicate that the role of the parents, students, and NGOs and local community is confined to listening, or may be extended to the position of producer-related confined to advising when considering the role of the enterprises in those schools that adopt the dual-system. While it is only the local educational authorities and the teachers in both countries, who are considered to be governor-related and may play active roles as well as offer advice and support.

Considering planning, overall planning in both countries is left to the KMs and EMOE. However, the interviewed principals in Germany state that they are autonomous in setting their annual goals and objectives, which they collectively define in their profile and programs. A matter that gives them a sense of responsibility and ownership, as they are held accountable based on these plans. Even though, this autonomy is bounded, since the schools have to abide by the broader policies and rules as well as the available resources.

In Egypt, it is the central apparatuses that conduct the overall planning, while the local educational authorities and the school are left only with the implementation. Therefore, various principals indicate that they have no autonomy and just follow the rules and orders, a matter that makes them feel the existence of a gap between the schools and the central authorities. This further confirms the study of Andraus (2000) that indicates a gap between the central apparatuses, the local educational authorities and the schools. Nevertheless, the interviewed principals state that the local educational authorities usually support and ask them about their needs. If the resources were available then their needs are

met. Moreover, the principals claim that the decision inside the school are taken in a collective, participative way, whether in the teams, the school conferences, the BOTs where various stakeholders are represented, or in the leadership conference.

However, it can be concluded that Germany in terms of planning is in a more progressive phase than Egypt, as the vocational schools in the former are able to set their goals and objectives, and define their programs. While their counterparts in Egypt remain in the phase where they can only state their needs of resources and await the plans and objectives deriving from the higher levels. It is only the decisions regarding the implementation inside the schools that are taken in a participatory way inside the Egyptian vocational schools.

This sheds light on the role of the school leadership. In both countries, the interviewed principals emphasize the role of the principal. S/he is the responsible person for the actions in the school. What makes the role more complex is that the principal has only the ability to motivate the teachers and the stakeholders to participate in the school life. The teachers as civil servants cannot be dismissed and the stakeholders as volunteers cannot be coerced to volunteer.

Thus, many interviewed principals in Germany claim to deploy various tactics for motivating the stakeholders such as seeking the advice of the stakeholders and devolving decision-making in pedagogical issues to the teachers or teams, while keeping the managerial decisions to them. Few claim also to influence the school conferences and its decisions either by directing the discussions in the conferences or by guiding the implementation of the decisions. Furthermore, they demonstrate that their personality traits play an influential role in expressing opinions and preventing any conflicts that might ensue as a by-product to involving various stakeholders with divergent interests. Thus, many claim that despite deploying participatory leadership, the principal remains having the final voice in the school. Therefore, the majority were in favour of decentralization of decision-making if they would feel real change or else it would be just another overload on them.

In Egypt, the principals add that even though they are considered as being responsible in their schools, they are bound by taking decisions that would satisfy the local educational authorities. However, again as it is the case in Germany, the various principals in Egypt claim that through their personality traits and tactics - such as activating the leadership conference, or involving the stakeholders at times of conflicts - they would be able to have good relationships with the local educational authorities and to involve the stakeholders in the decision-

making process, following thereby participatory leadership. Therefore, the majority were in favour of extending decentralization of decision-making, if they receive support from the higher authorities and receive the needed training.

### **Summary**

Decentralization of decision-making generally involves the transfer of decision-making from the center to the grassroots. This entails the creation of elected bodies to include and involve various stakeholders in the decision-making process (see model 1). However, the role of the stakeholders in these councils in both countries may range from merely listening to advising to actively taking decisions.

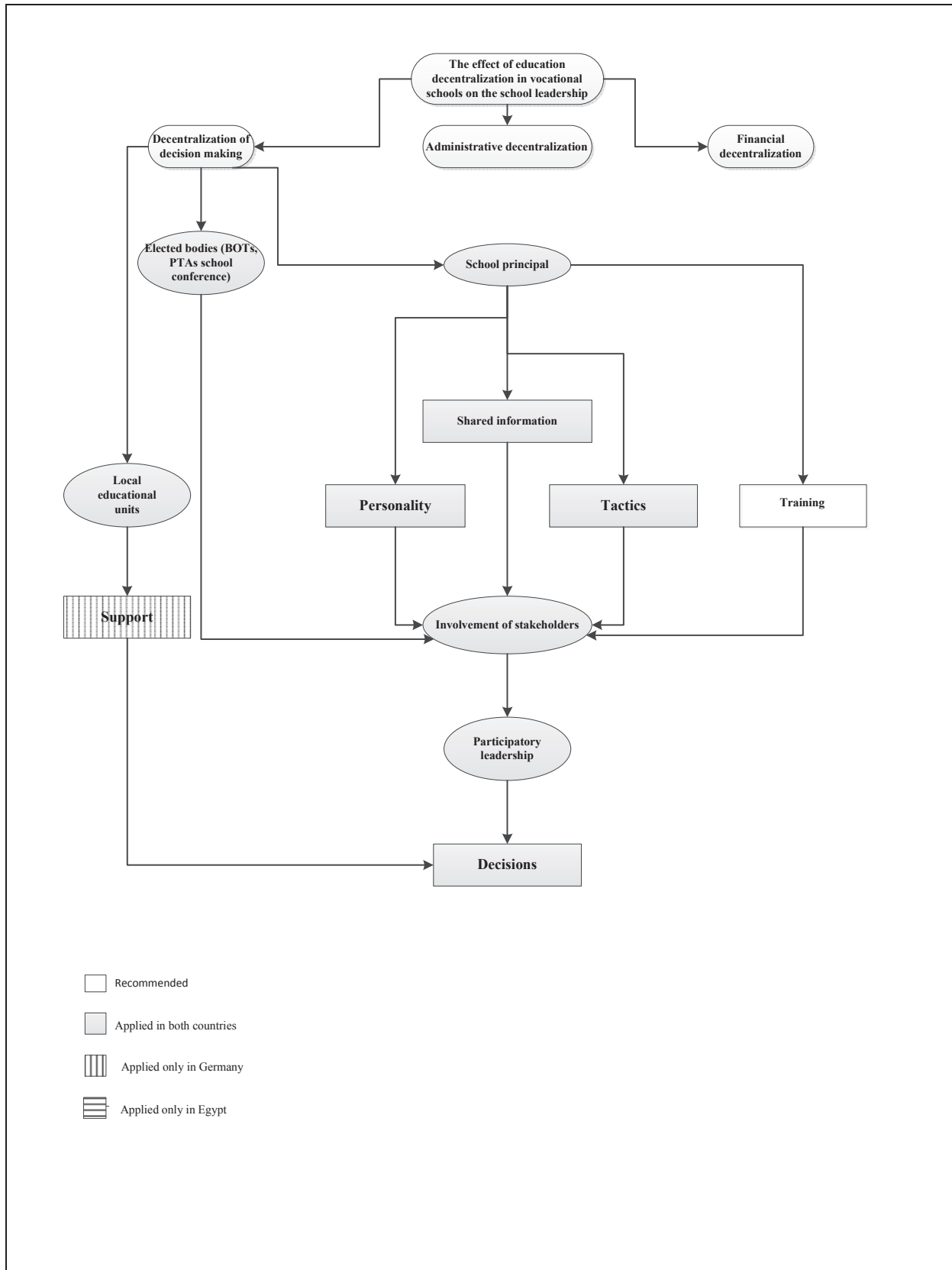
Even though involving stakeholders has advantages, yet it is not an easy matter and may not lead to the optimal decisions, especially in planning. Nevertheless, when studying the degree to which the schools participate in planning, it can be concluded that the schools in both countries are able to plan their own activities and in Germany even plan their annual goals and objectives autonomously if they follow the rules and regulations. This justifies the importance of the role of the principal as the main responsible person for the school activities in directing the decision-making process in a way that would keep: the conformity with the rules and regulations, the good relationship with the local educational authorities, and encourage the involvement of the stakeholders. Therefore, training the principals and taking support from local educational authorities are important for the success of decentralization of decision-making.

Finally, because the principals in both countries play a key role in involving the stakeholders in the decision-making processes (through their personality traits, shared information or tactics), hence, decentralization of decision-making encourages the adoption of a participatory leadership.

### **Recommendations**

- Taking supporting rules and regulations and reducing red-tape and complicated rules.
- Having political will to decentralize the decision-making process and supporting the vocational schools in planning their objectives and activities.
- Finding ways to encourage the role of the parents and change their mentality to make them perceive the schools as partners and not the sole responsible entity for their education.

- Activating the role of the student unions and encourage the students to represent their interests in the decision-making process.
- Expanding the role of the regional units in Egypt and encouraging the creation of similar entities in Germany to develop and enhance the relationship between the vocational schools, whether full-time schools or adopting the dual-system, and the enterprises.
- Providing training programs to the principals on group dynamics, conflict and time management, and how to approach the stakeholders and benefit from the rights and opportunities that the laws present to them.



Model 1: Decentralization of decision-making and school leadership (developed by the author)



## **Chapter Five**

### **The Effect of Administrative Decentralization on School Leadership in Germany and Egypt**

For the school leadership to be able to implement the taken decisions it has to have the administrative authorities to manage the available resources towards achieving the desired goals. It has also to adopt a leadership model that emphasizes efficient school performance and student achievement.

This chapter aims at verifying the hypothesis that administrative decentralization in vocational schools leads to the adoption of instructional leadership. Part one of this chapter discusses the aspects of administrative decentralization and instructional leadership in general.

Part two discusses the effect of administrative decentralization in Germany on the school leadership.

Part three discusses the effect of administrative decentralization in Egypt on the school leadership.

Part four discusses the findings of the interviews conducted in Germany and Egypt and presents a model for how administrative decentralization can be implemented in the vocational schools.

## **Part One**

### **The Effect of Administrative Decentralization on School Leadership**

In order to be able to test the hypothesis whether administrative decentralization leads to the adoption of instructional leadership, it is important to investigate the impact of administrative decentralization as well as of instructional leadership.

#### **1 Administrative decentralization: the definition and forms**

Ornstein (1983) defines administrative decentralization or what sometimes is referred to as “decentralization of human resources management” as the transfer of some of the administrative authorities and responsibilities (such as personnel selection and recruitment, evaluation, training, and compensation<sup>1</sup>) to the local levels to improve service delivery.<sup>2</sup> It is the process whereby the school system is further divided into smaller units. The locus of power remains in the central administration,<sup>3</sup> while the local units are given the opportunity to take some of the decisions that were formerly made by the central administration. In most of the cases, the local units would control personnel, curriculum, student policy, and financing.<sup>4</sup> Thus, administrative decentralization may take one of three main forms:

- De-concentration: when the ministry of education transfers some of the authorities to the local educational authorities (e.g. educational directorates or administrates). Yet, the latter resort to the ministry in every detail. This case is the most famous and widely applied form of administrative decentralization of education.<sup>5</sup>
- Delegation: when some of the authorities are transferred to semi-independent organizations, public enterprises or NGOs. However, these organizations still receive public funding from the ministry and are responsible to it.
- Devolution: when the local governments are given the legal power to provide education and have a high degree of discretion and autonomy. Nevertheless, three conditions should prevail in the local governments for the suc-

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<sup>1</sup> Seitz & Roman Capaul (2005), op. cit, p. 338.

<sup>2</sup> Allan C. Ornstein (1983), op. cit, pp. 3-10, p. 3.

<sup>3</sup> Allan C. Ornstein (1975). “School Decentralization: Descriptions of Selected Systems”. In: *NASSO Bulletin*, Vol. 59, pp. 24-34, p. 24.

<sup>4</sup> Priscilla Wohlstetter & Karen McCurdy (January 1991), op. cit, p. 393.

<sup>5</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, p. 23.



cess of devolution. These are 1- having a separate legal status from the central government, 2- having the needed financial resources, 3- and having the necessary capacities to perform the new tasks.<sup>1</sup>

According to the previously mentioned forms of administrative decentralization, Yin et al. (1974) elaborate that the school leadership may only be able to manage the human resources if this responsibility was either de-concentrated or devolved to it. In the case of de-concentration, the school leader follows the rules and regulations set by the (central) ministry of education, what is sometimes referred to as spatial decentralization.<sup>2</sup> Whereas in the case of devolution, the school leadership gets discretion over human resources selection, evaluation and development,<sup>3</sup> in what is sometimes referred to as functional decentralization.<sup>4</sup> Accordingly, local educational authorities rule at a distance and provide only general directions.<sup>5</sup> Risk is thereby reduced, accountability is increased, and service delivery is improved and tailored according to the local needs.<sup>6</sup>

Hence, many countries apply administrative decentralization to achieve advantages such as improved governance, increased transparency and accountability,<sup>7</sup> effective and efficient production and delivery of public goods and services,<sup>8</sup> reduced administrative overload or barriers, stronger relations between the schools and the local educational authorities, redirected spending to the schools based on their needs,<sup>9</sup> flatter hierarchies and reduced administrative levels, participation of co-workers in leadership matters and assignments, deregula-

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<sup>1</sup> Samir Abd El Wahab (2006), op. cit, p. 16

<sup>2</sup> Robert K. Yin, Robert W. Hearn & Paula Meinetz Shapiro (1974). "Administrative Decentralization of Municipal Services: Assessing the New York Experience". In: *Policy Sciences*, Vol. 5, No. 1, March, pp. 57-70, p. 60.

<sup>3</sup> Helena Munin (20019). *Schulautonomie: Diskurse, Maßnahmen und Effekte im internationalen Vergleich, insbesondere in Deutschland*. Weinheim und Basel: Beltz Verlag, p.21.

<sup>4</sup> John M. Cohen & Stephen B. Peterson (1996). *Administrative Decentralization: A New Framework for Improved Governance, Accountability, and Performance*. [www.cid.harvard.edu/hiid/582.pdf](http://www.cid.harvard.edu/hiid/582.pdf). 29/04/2009.

<sup>5</sup> Peter Daschner et. al. (1995), op. Cit, p. 117.

<sup>6</sup> John M. Cohen & Stephen B. Peterson (1996), op. cit.

<sup>7</sup> Mussie T. Tessema. Joseph L. Soeters & Alex Ngoma ( 2009). "Decentralization of HR Functions: Lessons from the Singapore Civil Service". In: *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, Vol. 29, pp. 168-185, p. 171.

<sup>8</sup> John M. Cohen & Stephen B. Peterson (1996), op. cit.

<sup>9</sup> Allan C. Ornstein (1983), op.cit, p. 5.

tion and de-bureaucratization<sup>1</sup>, increased accountability<sup>2</sup>, teacher empowerment, higher salaries, and better working conditions<sup>3</sup>.

However, Ornstein (1983) believes that administrative decentralization may lead to pitfalls like differences in the managerial rules among the various local educational authorities or schools, recruitment based on ethnicity and race, nepotism, uninformed or ill-informed school-boards, and corruption especially in the absence of accountability<sup>4</sup>.

Furthermore, Daschner et al. (1995) and a study of the OECD (2001) warn that administrative decentralization may fail in the case of having:

- the wrong idea of “one fits for all” and that what can be applied on one school can be applied on the rest,
- the belief that teachers accept and implement innovative ideas, while in reality they may attempt to adapt the new initiatives to their own interests or opinions,
- vague goals and objectives in the schools that make them difficult to implement,<sup>5</sup>
- partially relaxed rules that hinder the school leadership,
- a slowly changing school culture that hinders the reform efforts.<sup>6</sup>

For the success of administrative decentralization, Pont et al. (2008) consider a system of accountability to the central government; i.e. the ministry of education; as essential, in addition to the capability of the school leadership to carry out the new tasks and combat high levels of stress, overload, conflicts, and uncertainty.<sup>7</sup> Therefore, Cohen& Petersen (1996) advocate gradual implementation of administrative decentralization with careful attention to human, financial and institutional capacities,<sup>8</sup> where Tessema et al. (2009) stress that the civil servants or employees, to whom the tasks are going to be devolved, acquire the

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<sup>1</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), op. cit, p. 34.

<sup>2</sup> John M. Cohen& Stephen B. Peterson (1996), op .cit.

<sup>3</sup> Herbert J. Walberg, Susan J. Paik, Atsuko Komukai& Karen Freeman (Winter 2000), op. cit, p. 163.

<sup>4</sup> Allan C. Ornstein (1983), op. cit, p. 6.

<sup>5</sup> Peter Daschner et. al. (1995), op. cit, pp. 37-38.

<sup>6</sup> OECD ( 2001) op. cit, p. 52.

<sup>7</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2005). „Selbstständige Schule: Begründung und Konkretisierung“. In: *Schule auf dem Weg zur Selbstständigkeit*. Herbert Buchen, Leonhard Horster&Hans-Günter Rolff (Hrsg.). Stuttgart: RAABE Fachverlag für Bildungsmanagement, pp. 9-22, p. 10.

<sup>8</sup> John M. Cohen& Stephen B. Peterson(1996), op. cit.

necessary capabilities to perform their new authorities.<sup>1</sup> From the authorities that may be decentralized to the school are:

### **Teacher selection**

Secure employment free from worries about the future allows the teachers to perform their tasks to their utmost.<sup>2</sup> Place et al. (1993) demonstrate that in most of the countries teacher recruitment is centrally controlled to ensure a satisfactory behavior and that all applicants meet the required standards. As for selection on the other hand, there is a recent trend in some countries towards allowing the schools to select the teachers as an initiative to empower the schoolboards, strengthen the role and involvement of parents in the school life, and hold the schools accountable for their performance.<sup>3</sup> Most of the countries that have renewed interest in decentralizing their educational systems encourage giving the school leaders a bigger role in teacher selection,<sup>4</sup> even though teacher selection is a complex matter that requires gathering, coding, retrieving and interpreting information, and decision making.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, it is very important to select those teachers who would fit into the organization culture of the school.<sup>6</sup>

Therefore, DeArmond et al. (2010) illustrate that school-based selection aims at 1- making a better match and fit between the school and the teachers, and 2- solving the problem of identifying teachers' quality by exchanging information between the schools and the candidates.<sup>7</sup> Thus, the principals should provide clear messages about the needed qualities in the candidates,<sup>8</sup> a matter that depends to a large degree on the relative attractiveness of the school itself.<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Mussie T. Tessema, Joseph L. Soeters & Alex Ngoma (2009), op. cit, p. 181.

<sup>2</sup> Sharon Conley & Naftaly S. Glasman (January 2008). "Fear, the School Organization, and Teacher Evaluation". In: *Educational Policy*, Vol. 22, No. 1, pp. 63-85, p. 65.

<sup>3</sup> Dale Ballou & Michael Podursky (1998). "Teacher Recruitment and Retention in Public and Private Schools". In: *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*. Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 393-417, p. 394.

<sup>4</sup> Andrew J. Hobson et al. (2010). *International Approaches to Teacher Selection and Recruitment*, OECD Education Working Papers, No. 47, OECD Publishing, p. 8.

<sup>5</sup> Andrew W. Place & Theodore J. Kowalski (1993). "Principal Ratings of Criteria Associated with Teacher Selection". In: *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, Vol. 7, pp. 291-300, p. 291.

<sup>6</sup> Theo M.E. Liket (1999), op. cit, p. 234.

<sup>7</sup> Mochel DeArmond, Betheny Gross, and Dan Goldhaber (2010). "Is it Better to Be Good or Lucky? Decentralized Teacher Selection in Elementary Schools". In: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 46, No. 3, pp. 322-362, p. 324.

<sup>8</sup> Warren C. Hope (1999). "Principals' Orientation and Induction Activities as Factors in Teacher Retention". In: *The Clearing House*, Vol. 73, No. 1, pp. 54-56, p. 54.

<sup>9</sup> Mochel DeArmond, Betheny Gross, and Dan Goldhaber (2010), op. cit, p. 350.

Nevertheless, the central authority (ministry) shall be responsible for: personnel costs, basic terms and conditions for employment and management, pension and social security, and handling forwarded appeals.<sup>1</sup> It may have also advisory functions with regard to hiring, training, and evaluation.<sup>2</sup>

## **Evaluation**

Evaluation- whether external or internal- is crucial for holding the schools accountable for what they do or do not do.<sup>3</sup> There are two kinds of school evaluation, one that is summative where implementation, continuation as well as the costs of adopting a certain program or initiative are evaluated, and the second is formative where the strengths and weaknesses of a certain initiative are evaluated. The second type of evaluation is considered by many teachers as hostile, since it tends to evaluate their performance more than the program or the initiative itself.<sup>4</sup>

There are various models for performance evaluation. From these are:

- *Management by objectives model*: accordingly, the criteria for evaluation are the objectives that are to be implemented in a specific period using specific methods.
- *Competency-based approaches*: where the competencies of the teachers are evaluated.
- *Research based teacher evaluation*: in which classroom performance is evaluated against the criteria identified in the empirical studies of teaching effectiveness.
- *The reflective teaching or decision-making model*: where the teachers are evaluated based upon their contribution to tactical and strategic decisions about classroom activities.
- *The outcome model*: where the teachers are evaluated not according to what they do but according to what they should be doing.

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<sup>1</sup> Alejandra Mizala & Pilar Romaguera (2004). "School and Teacher Performance Incentives: The Latin American Experience". In: *International Journal of Educational Development*, No. 24, pp. 739-754, p. 740.

<sup>2</sup> Mussie T. Tessema, Joseph L. Soeters & Alex Ngoma (2009), op. cit, pp. 175-176.

<sup>3</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (1996), op. cit, p. 219.

<sup>4</sup> Thomas Widmer & Wolfgang Beywl (2009). „Divergente Entwicklungspfade der Evaluation: Beobachtung, Thesen und Perspektiven einer feldabhängigen ungleichzeitigen Professionalisierung in Deutschland, Österreich und der Schweiz“. In: *Evaluation: Ein systematisches Handbuch*. Thomas Widmer, Wolfgang Beywl & Carlo Fabian (Hrsg.). VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 509-528, p. 520.

- *The hybrid model*: where different models are used simultaneously.<sup>1</sup>

Traditionally, evaluation has been process-oriented, currently there is a trend towards making evaluation be more outcome oriented.<sup>2</sup>

In external evaluation, evaluators from outside the school evaluate the school performance to investigate how the teachers implement the school objectives and the pedagogical principles and rules.<sup>3</sup> Knauss (1999) highlights that external evaluation has acquired advisory feature rather than depending merely on inspection.<sup>4</sup> Unfortunately, in many instances the teachers consider external evaluation as hostile aiming only at detecting the negative aspects of their performance while ignoring the positive aspects.<sup>5</sup> In addition, many evaluators believe that no school is perfect and that some negative aspects have to exist.<sup>6</sup> Yet, a basic fact about evaluation is that no personnel or institution can fulfil all the required criteria.<sup>7</sup>

Heinrich (2007) argues that even though administrative decentralization has increased the autonomy of the school in general, yet this autonomy has been hindered by external evaluation, which treats the schools equally irrespective of their individual circumstances and needs.<sup>8</sup> However, Schönig (2000) & Rolff (2007) signal the recent call for changing the way external evaluation is perceived, leaning towards considering it as aiming at providing consultation and advice to the school<sup>9</sup> and helping it improve its performance to achieve education quality.<sup>10</sup> Thus, the more autonomy the school is given, the more external evaluation becomes essential to ensure that the school is following the right

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<sup>1</sup> Michael Scriven (1995). "A Unified Theory Approach to Teacher Evaluation". In: *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, Vol. 21, pp. 111-129, pp. 121-122.

<sup>2</sup> William J. Webster (1995). "The Connection between Personnel Evaluation and School Evaluation". In: *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, Vol. 21, pp. 227-254, p. 227.

<sup>3</sup> Werner Wiater (2005). „Evaluation in Schule und Unterricht“. In: *Evaluation und Analyse in der Schulentwicklung: Ansätze, Methoden und Beispiele für die Schulpraxis*. Josef Maisch (Hrsg.). Donauwörth: Auer Verlag GmbH, pp. 8-21, p. 17.

<sup>4</sup> Georg Knauss (1999), op.cit, p. 226.

<sup>5</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (1996), op.cit, p. 226.

<sup>6</sup> Ingeborg Wieris (2002), op.cit, p. pp. 254-255.

<sup>7</sup> Stefani Ernst (2003). „Externe Evaluation in Kooperation: Konflikte im Spannungsfeld von Praxisforschung und angewandter Organisationsberatung“. In: *Sozialwissenschaften und Berufspraxis (SuB)*. 26. Jg. Heft 3 pp. 269-284, p. 270.

<sup>8</sup> Martin Heinrich (2007). *Governance in der Schulentwicklung: Von der Autonomie zur evaluationsbasierten Steuerung*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, p.35.

<sup>9</sup> Wolfgang Schönig (2000). *Schulentwicklung beraten: Das Modell mehrdimensionaler Organisationsberatung der einzelnen Schule*. Weinheim und München: Juventa Verlag, p. 213.

<sup>10</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007), op.cit, p. 23.

path,<sup>1</sup> even if the costs of the latter were high.<sup>2</sup> External evaluation opens new angles and perspectives.<sup>3</sup>

Brackhahn et al. (2004) & Müller (2005) stress that external evaluation should be connected to school reform initiatives; otherwise, the benefits of these reforms will not be achieved. External evaluation should focus on the needs and change requirements in the school and should provide feedback.<sup>4</sup> And when feedback is sent to schools it should not be sent in its raw form, rather, be analyzed so that school performance can be compared, weaknesses and strengths can be acknowledged, and counteractions can be taken.<sup>5</sup> The school leadership may play the key role in achieving this bond between external evaluation and school reforms.<sup>6</sup>

Internal evaluation, on the other hand, is when the teachers are subject to evaluation by their principal or peers.<sup>7</sup> The principal's evaluation is usually the widely used form, since peer evaluation may cause internal conflicts, especially if the evaluation results were negative.<sup>8</sup>

Maritzen (1998) and Rolff (2007) consider that internal evaluation cannot be beneficial unless its results are written in a report and disseminated to the school members for discussion. Thereafter, external consultants or evaluators can intervene and provide their advice.<sup>9</sup> Usually, the report mentions the status-quo of the school, its strengths and weaknesses, and the main focal points in the upcoming year. Through it, the focus of external evaluation shall be directed from merely focusing on teacher performance in classes to school performance in general and its ability to achieve the intended goals.<sup>10</sup> And as it is the case with external evaluation, the more autonomous the schools will become, the more it will be pushed to evaluate itself. Nevo (2001) mentions that internal

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<sup>1</sup> Wolfgang Schönig(2000), op.cit, p. 214.

<sup>2</sup> Peter Daschner et. al. (1995), op.cit, p. 50.

<sup>3</sup> Stefani Ernst (2003), op.cit, p. 282.

<sup>4</sup> B. Brackhahn, R. Brockmeyer, & P. Gruner (2004), op.cit, p. 75.

<sup>5</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007), op.cit, p. 164.

<sup>6</sup> Sabine Müller (2005). „Interne Evaluation in Schulen“. In: *Schulentwicklung und Schulwirksamkeit: Systemsteuerung, Bildungschancen und Entwicklung der Schulen*. Heinz Günter Holtappels& Katrin Höhmann (Hrsg.). Wienheim und München: Juventa Verlag 2005. pp. 196-205, p. 201.

<sup>7</sup> Cyrus Achouri (2009). *Systemic Leadership: Ein innovativer Weg der Personalführung*. Oldenburg Verlag München, p. 14.

<sup>8</sup> Lars Holzäpfel (2008). *Beratung bei der Einführung von Selbstevaluation an Schulen*. Münster: Waxmann, p.38.

<sup>9</sup> Norbert Maritzen (1998), op.cit, p. 145.

<sup>10</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (1996), op.cit, p. 226.

evaluation is becoming an important feature of autonomous schools in decentralized educational system. The autonomous schools are encouraged to identify their goals, be in charge of the educational process, and evaluate their own actions, as they are expected to be responsible and accountable for their deeds.<sup>1</sup> Yet, internal evaluation requires the teachers to be trained on how to implement it, not to focus on the short-term goals at the expense of the long-term goals, not to focus merely on organizational and managerial matters but also on the teaching and learning aspects, and to get the necessary support to continue and develop the evaluation process.<sup>2</sup> Thus, internal evaluation may maintain collegiality and cooperation among the colleagues.<sup>3</sup>

Allowing the teachers to choose the areas upon which they are going to be evaluated has a great appeal to many teachers,<sup>4</sup> and is considered as paving the way towards strengthening school autonomy.<sup>5</sup> Internal evaluation is dependent on the school that determines how, when, and why internal evaluation should be implemented.<sup>6</sup>

Dashner et al. (1995) and Spiel & Bergsmann (2009) highlight the discussions that have flourished concerning involving the students and the parents in internal evaluation. Pupils' opinion may provide feedback to the teachers about their performance in class, while the parents' feedback may represent the client-view.<sup>7</sup> Ernst (2003) adds that it is important to include the various stakeholders in the evaluation process in order to inform them about the processes within the schools as well as to benefit from their ideas.<sup>8</sup> But the latter should be trained on evaluation, and agreement on what constitutes quality should be reached at. Therefore, evaluation should be done through a democratic process, where all the involved members can determine the focal point, what data to collect, and

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<sup>1</sup> David Nevo (2001). "School Evaluation: Internal or External?". In: *Studies in Educational Evaluation*. No. 27, pp. 95-106, p. 96.

<sup>2</sup> Trond Alvik (1995). "School-Based Evaluation: A Close Up". In: *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, Vol. 21, pp. 311-343, p. 319.

<sup>3</sup> David Nevo (2001), op. cit, p. 97.

<sup>4</sup> Sharon Conley & Naftaly S. Glasman (January 2008), op. cit, p. 79.

<sup>5</sup> Theo M.E. Liket (1999), op. cit, p. 239.

<sup>6</sup> Trond Alvik (1995), op. cit, p. 318.

<sup>7</sup> Peter Daschner et. al. (1995), op.cit, p. 48.

<sup>8</sup> Stefani Ernst (2003), op. cit, p. 272.

how to benefit from the findings.<sup>1</sup> Whenever evaluation involves more stakeholders, there is a bigger chance that its results will be taken into account.<sup>2</sup>

Nevo (2001) claims that connecting internal with external evaluation can be beneficial. External evaluation may foster internal evaluation through encouraging the schools to engage in internal evaluation in order to prepare themselves for the external evaluation, providing the schools with useful information either from the center, national standards or comparative data from other schools, as well as aiding them in analyzing their data and assess their quality. Internal evaluation may also benefit external evaluation by a) expanding the scope of external evaluation through pointing out the most important data that should be collected, as most of the times external evaluation is blamed for focusing on trivial issues in its search for reaching at generalizations, b) helping external evaluation in interpreting the findings and representing the local perspective concerning these findings, c) gaining experience and facilitating the language of external evaluation and its significance, and d) stimulating self-confidence and become less defensive when confronted with negative evaluation.<sup>3</sup>

However, internal and external evaluations may not be connected together. They may use different mechanisms and focal points,<sup>4</sup> and provide only limited appraisal and sanctioning mechanisms, which most of the teachers unions oppose.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, their co-existence may cause a duplication of tasks, mistrust and misunderstanding.<sup>6</sup> Thus, Rolff (2007) claims that school evalua-

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<sup>1</sup> Trond Alvik (1995), op. cit, pp. 315-317.

<sup>2</sup> Christiane Spiel& Evelyn Bergsmann (2009). „Zur Nutzung der Evaluationsfunktion: Partielle Bestandaufnahme und Pilotstudie in österreichischen und deutschen Bundesministerien“. In: *Evaluation: Ein systematisches Handbuch*. Thomas Widmer, Wolfgang Beywl& Carlo Fabian (Hrsg.). VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 477- 485, p. 478.

<sup>3</sup> David Nevo (2001), op. cit, pp. 98-100.

<sup>4</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007), op. cit, p. 160.

<sup>5</sup> Hermann Pfeiffer (2005). „Schullietung und Schulentwicklung“. In: *Schulentwicklung und Schulwirksamkeit: Systemsteuerung, Bildungschancen und Entwicklung der Schulen*. Heinz Günter Holtappels& Katrin Höhmann (Hrsgs.). Wienheim und München: Juventa Verlag, p. 95.

<sup>6</sup> Matthias Becker(2007). “Innere und äußere Reformen in berufsbildenden Schulen; Ergebnisse einer bundesweiten Erhebung“. In: *Qualitätsentwicklung und –sicherung an berufsbildenden Schulen und Verbesserungen der Unterrichtsqualität – notwendige Ergänzungen oder Widerspruch?*. G. Roggenbrodt& K. Rütters (Hrsg.). Bielefeld: W. Bertelsmann, pp. 13-33, p. 22.



tion in general can only be effective if the results were discussed and procedures were taken to improve the negative aspects.<sup>1</sup>

Yet, Steiner& Ritz (2002) mention the benefits of evaluation - whether internal or external - such as a) the ability to determine the need for further training and incentives, b) the possibility of the school principal to guide and direct the working staff towards a better performance through the meetings that are held between the former and the latter, and c) finally, the possibility of the principal to identify the vacant posts and the needed skills and qualifications that should prevail in the applicants.<sup>2</sup> Moreover, Brackhahn et al. (2004) add that evaluation helps in determining the main aspects that require reform. Therefore, it is a mean towards improving school quality.<sup>3</sup>

Sometimes evaluation may be overestimated - especially when fear related to its consequences exists - or underestimated and hence no careful attention may be shown in its planning, implementation, and conclusion.<sup>4</sup> Thus, the objectives of evaluation as well as its mechanisms should be clearly defined.<sup>5</sup>

One of the main weak points of evaluation is the human element (human judgement). The evaluators may be affected by their personal judgement regarding the person subject to evaluation. Therefore, the use of several evaluation models and evaluators is recommended.<sup>6</sup> In addition, evaluation should be continuously done on a random basis,<sup>7</sup> and be considered as a form of transparency concerning school and teacher performance.<sup>8</sup>

School evaluation is a complex process since the educational goals are mostly vague and normative.<sup>9</sup> Thus, the commitment of the school leadership is very essential for motivating the teachers to accept and organize the entire evaluation process.<sup>10</sup>

## Teams

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<sup>1</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007), op. cit, p. 77.

<sup>2</sup> Reto Steiner& Adrian Ritz (2002), op. cit, pp. 212-213.

<sup>3</sup> B. Brackhahn, R. Brockmeyer, & P. Gruner (2004), op. cit, p. 70.

<sup>4</sup> Stefani Ernst (2003), op. cit, p. 269.

<sup>5</sup> Sabine Müller (2005), op. cit, p. 203.

<sup>6</sup> Ben Wilson& James A. Wood (1996). "Teacher Evaluation: A National Dilemma". In: *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, Vol. 10, pp. 75-85, p. 81.

<sup>7</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher& Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p.119.

<sup>8</sup> Claus G. Buhren& Hans-Günter Rolff (2002). *Personalentwicklung in Schulen: Konzepte, Praxisbausteine, Methoden*. Weinheim und Basel: Beltz Verlag, p. 35.

<sup>9</sup> William J. Webster (1995), op. cit, p. 236.

<sup>10</sup> Trond Alvik (1995), op. cit, p. 329.

Teachers have been mostly working as single warriors, independent in their class and rarely controlled.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, the teachers may be sceptic about decentralization and school autonomy when it obliges them to work in teams and set collective objectives.<sup>2</sup> Dubs (1994) claims that the teachers reject teamwork in most of the cases only because they do not like to reveal their work to others.<sup>3</sup>

Nevertheless, teams can achieve many advantages, like a) reduce uncertainty and insecurity through collegial communication, cooperation, and exchange of experience,<sup>4</sup> b) foster commitment to decisions,<sup>5</sup> c) give the teachers a feeling of self esteem and of being in charge as well as more confidence and a sense of professionalism, and d) increase teacher morale and enable them to speak out and express their views. Hence, teams make the teachers work less in isolation and have the impression that their school is run democratically.<sup>6</sup>

Chapman& Boyd (1986) reveal that the younger staffs are the most enthusiastic and willing to participate in teamwork.<sup>7</sup> Nevertheless, successful teams require conflict management, support from the leadership,<sup>8</sup> time, training and funding or else difficulties will ensue.<sup>9</sup>

Gande et al. (1994) mention that teams would be successful when certain criteria prevail, like when the goals of the teams are defined, the rules of the games and how to take decisions become clear, differences in the points of view are accepted, conflicts are discussed, a minimal degree of solidarity is existent, honesty is prevailing, conferences and meetings are prepared, the flow of information internally and externally is functioning, and the division of tasks is func-

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<sup>1</sup> Heinz Klippert (2006). *Lehrerentlastung: Strategien zur wirksamen Arbeitserleichterung in Schule und Unterricht*. Weinheim: Beltz Verlag, p. 138.

<sup>2</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007), op. cit, p. 56.

<sup>3</sup> Georg E. Becker (2004). *Bildungsstandards-Ausweg oder Alibi?*. Weinheim: Belt Verlag, p. 134.

<sup>4</sup> Josef Ackermann (2006). „Führung im globalen Unternehmen“. In: *Leadership- Best Practices and Trends*. Heike Bruch, Stefan Krummacker& Bernd Vogel (Hrsg.). Wiesbaden: Gabler Verlag, pp. 57-64, p. 62.

<sup>5</sup> John T. Lange (1993), op. cit, p.99.

<sup>6</sup> Elke Münch (1999), op. cit, p. 58.

<sup>7</sup> Judith Chapman& William Lowe Boyd (Fall 1986), op. cit, p. 43.

<sup>8</sup> Hans-Gerd Ridder& Christina Hoon (2006), „Führung in Teams: Geteilte Führung als Beitrag zum Führungsprozess“. In: *Leadership – Best Practices und Trends*. Heike Bruch, Stefan Krummacker& Bernd Vogel (Hrsg.). Wiesbaden: Gabler Verlag, pp.157-166, p. 162.

<sup>9</sup> Armin Lohmann& Dorothea Minderop(2008). *Führungsverantwortung der Schulleitung: Handlungsstrategien für Schulentwicklung im Reißverschlussverfahren*. 3. Auflage. Köln: LinkLuchterhand, p. 166.

tioning.<sup>1</sup> Northouse (2004) adds unified commitment, collaborative climate, competent team members, external support, and principled leadership as further criteria for the success of teams.<sup>2</sup> Thus, collegial interaction among the teachers should increase so that teachers work less in isolation individuals and more in teams.<sup>3</sup>

Nevertheless, the role of teams may be undermined if most of their meetings were ritualized, no official rooms were assigned to them, and if their decisions were not taken seriously.<sup>4</sup>

Teams are usually built around a technical core such as classroom instruction or school-wide managerial issues.<sup>5</sup> Teams may reach consensus on didactic, methodological and curricular issues and discuss behavioral rules and measures for training.<sup>6</sup>

Rolff (2007) adds that the school program can be successfully implemented if a steering group coordinates the work of the teams and directs the implementation of the school program through drafting the school image, conceptualizing measures for school development, and establishing school-wide feedback and personnel development.<sup>7</sup> This steering group would represent the colleagues and involve the school leadership. But it would not lead the teams or else it would only be considered as an extension to the school leadership.<sup>8</sup> Therefore, it would mainly coordinate and advise as well as would be considered thereby as a step towards the autonomous school.<sup>9</sup> However, Taylor (1994) mentions that no empirical proof has verified that teams have an effect on student or teacher performance.<sup>10</sup>

## Training

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<sup>1</sup> Reinhard Gande, Hans Putzer & Herbert Schwetz (1994). *Schulautonomie: Ein Handbuch für die Praxis*. Graz: Leykam, pp. 99-100.

<sup>2</sup> Peter G. Northouse (2004), op. cit, p. 211.

<sup>3</sup> John L. Keedy (1999). "Examining Teacher Instructional Leadership within the Small Group Dynamics of Collegial Groups". In: *Teaching and Teacher Evaluation*, No. 15, pp. 785-799, p. 787.

<sup>4</sup> Heinz Klippert (2006), op. cit, p. 140.

<sup>5</sup> Dianne L. Taylor & Ira E. Bogotch (1994). "School-Level Effects of Teachers' Participation in Decision Making". In: *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*. No. 16, pp. 302-319, p. 303.

<sup>6</sup> Mart Petri, Norbert Posse & Edith Rüdell (2007), op. cit, pp. 15-16.

<sup>7</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (1999), op. cit, p. 66.

<sup>8</sup> Armin Lohmann & Dorothea Minderop (2008), op. cit, p. 175.

<sup>9</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007), op. cit, p. 18.

<sup>10</sup> Dianne L. Taylor & Ira E. Bogotch (1994), op. cit, p. 315.

Since education decentralization entails an increase in the school responsibilities and authorities, training and professional development become very important.<sup>1</sup> Recently, there has been a major trend towards addressing the entire school needs and not just the individual skills and competencies of the teachers.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, in some countries, school leadership is starting to receive training in areas such as: planning, budgeting, human resources development, and project management.<sup>3</sup> While the teachers - besides getting trained on the latest improvements in their subject - are trained on communication, teamwork,<sup>4</sup> resources management, basic business skills, transformation management, problem solving, cultural transformation, and initiating external relations.<sup>5</sup>

Several approaches have been adopted to provide training. From these are: the top-down approach where (central) training centers provide unified training courses to the teachers.<sup>6</sup> This is the most widely used approach, which has its advantages of introducing wide changes quickly. Yet, it ignores the special characteristics of each school. Bolden et al. (2011) further claim that the training programs that are given to the leaders using this top-down approach proved to be ineffective as they seek to transform the leaders independently from the organization itself. Thus, they suggest that training should be aligned with organizational culture, context and objectives.<sup>7</sup>

Another approach is the bottom-up approach that addresses the specific needs of a certain school or group of teachers. However, it may also lead to the repetition of the same weak points, since in most of the cases the school provides this kind of self-organized training.<sup>8</sup>

A new and widely advocated approach is the bottom-across approach. Here the teachers would exchange ideas and experiences with other teachers from other schools. However, it necessitates the existence of networks among

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<sup>1</sup> Hermann Lange (1993). "Personalentwicklung in Schulen und Schulverwaltung". In: *Autonomie der Schulen*. Hans-Peter de Lorent & Gudrun Zimdahl. Hamburg: Curio Verlag Erziehung und Wissenschaft GmbH, pp. 80-96, p. 91.

<sup>2</sup> OECD (1998). *Staying Ahead: In-Service Training and Teacher Professional Development*. OECD, p. 35.

<sup>3</sup> Peter Daschner et. al. (1995), op. cit, p. 44.

<sup>4</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (1993). *Wandel durch Selbstorganisation: Theoretische Grundlagen und praktische Hinweise für eine bessere Schule*. Weinheim: Juventa Verlag, p. 168.

<sup>5</sup> OECD (2001), op. cit, pp. 33-34.

<sup>6</sup> OECD (1998), op. cit, p. 33- 37.

<sup>7</sup> Richard Bolden, Beverly Hawkins, Jonathan Gosling & Scott Taylor (2011), op. cit, p. 6.

<sup>8</sup> Katie Head & Pauline Taylor (1997). *Readings in Teacher development*. Oxford: Heinemann, p.4

the various schools and requires an organizational culture that encourages this kind of cooperation.<sup>1</sup>

An associated problem to training is that in most of the countries, the assigned financial resources therefore are not adequate and no reimbursements may be available. Hence, many teachers resort to training only in the urgent cases, such as the quest for promotion.<sup>2</sup> Nevertheless, a new trend devolving funds for professional development to the schools is emerging.<sup>3</sup> In addition, in most of the cases, training is provided in the form of courses and workshops, where the teachers volunteer to attend them. Yet, most probably, the same teachers keenly attend the training courses. Therefore, it is very important for schools to consider training as a school's own policy and then let the teachers with the school leadership determine the training needs.<sup>4</sup>

Training is considered sometimes as a waste of time and effort. Thus, the teachers and school leadership should be motivated to get the necessary training.<sup>5</sup> And the school leadership should play an important role in promoting professional learning and development.<sup>6</sup> Furthermore, the teachers should have the right to assess their training requirements on their own, since at times of change and reform, having unified training programs may be required; however, on the long run they may be irresponsive to the school needs.<sup>7</sup>

## **2 Administrative decentralization and the role of the school principal**

Administrative decentralization requires the principal to facilitate school management by defining clearly the objectives and the tasks that should be performed.<sup>8</sup> Moreover, the principal plays an important role in internal evaluation, encouraging the teachers to acquire the appropriate professional development, and looking for creative ways to give the teachers the time, money and support they need, especially when they take new initiatives.<sup>9</sup> And even though these decentralization tendencies may be considered as an overload on the principals,

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<sup>1</sup> OECD (1998), op. cit, p. 41.

<sup>2</sup> OECD (1998), op. cit, Ibid, p. 168.

<sup>3</sup> John L. Keedy (1999), op. cit, p. 786.

<sup>4</sup> Rolf Dubs (1994), op. cit, p. 233-236.

<sup>5</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007), op. cit, p. 65.

<sup>6</sup> Peter Daschner et. al. (1995), op. cit, p. 211.

<sup>7</sup> OECD (1998), op. cit, p. 32.

<sup>8</sup> Jana Michelle Alig-Mielcarek (2003), op. cit, pp. 3-5.

<sup>9</sup> Diane Payne and Terry Wolfson (2000). "Teacher Professional Development". In: *The Principal's Critical Role*, Vol. 84, No. 13, pp. 13-21, pp. 13-19.

yet Huber (2008) considers them also as positive changes and new challenges that enrich the role of the principals.<sup>1</sup>

On the other hand, instructional leadership is defined as the principal's role in providing direction, resources, and support to the teachers and students to improve teaching and learning in the school.<sup>2</sup> Andrews et al. (1991), Harris & Wilson (1991) and Heck (1992) maintain that instructional leadership performs many functions including:

- instructional planning: where the principal identifies the curricular mandates, school priorities, and monitors the existing programs,<sup>3</sup>
- staffing: i.e. determining the demand for future qualifications and selecting the qualified cadre,
- encouraging human resources development by participating in the assessment of personnel development needs,<sup>4</sup>
- evaluating school and teaching performance by adopting various evaluation methods (whether formative or summative, using class visits or staff meetings),<sup>5</sup>
- communicating the goals and instructional strategies.<sup>6</sup>

Wissinger (1996) assumes the functions of instructional leadership to be difficult to implement by the principal alone and justifies that this is why various principals seek to incorporate the teachers (in what may be referred to as shared instructional leadership).<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Staphan Gerhard Huber (2008), op. cit. p. 102.

<sup>2</sup> Lance. V. Wright (Spring 1991), op. cit, p. 114.

<sup>3</sup> Nancy Catano & James H. Stronge (2007). "What Do We Expect of School Principals? Congruence between Principal Evaluation and Performance Standards". In: *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 379-399, p. 381.

<sup>4</sup> Richard L. Andrews, Margaret R. Basom & Myron Basom (Spring 1991). "Instructional Leadership: Supervision that Makes a Difference". In: *Theory into Practice*. Vol. XXX, No. 2, pp. 97-102, p. 98.

<sup>5</sup> Ben M. Harris & Lucy Wilson (1991). "Instructional Leadership Specifications for School Executives: A Preliminary Validation Study". In: *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, No. 5, pp. 21-30, p. 23.

<sup>6</sup> Ronald H. Heck (Spring 1992), op. cit, p. 30.

<sup>7</sup> Jochen Wissinger (1996). *Perspektiven schulischen Führungshandelns: Eine Untersuchung über das Selbstverständnis von SchulleiterInnen*. Weinheim: Juventa Verlag, p. 44.

## **Part Two**

### **The Effect of Administrative Decentralization in Germany on School Leadership**

In Germany, the vocational schools are witnessing a trend towards granting the schools greater responsibilities and discretion in human resources management. It is logical that schools manage their own personnel if they are to be given greater autonomy.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, the schools are gaining more authority in terms of the following functions:

#### **1 Administrative decentralization in the German vocational schools**

As for how administrative decentralization is implemented in the German vocational schools, the following can be concluded:

##### **Teacher selection**

In Germany, the teachers in all *Länder* have to complete a 24-month period (followed by Second State Examination) of postgraduate training after they acquire their university degree (First State Examination) and before they can apply for full-time teaching position. The required courses and the length of the student teaching period is determined by the KMK to prevent any obstacles that may arise when the teacher is transferred from one state to another.<sup>2</sup>

When a school needs new teaching staff, it announces the school board by writing down the needed teaching qualities. Thereafter, the local government, as the recruiting authority, publishes a written advertisement. Then a commission is created (combining the principal, representatives from the teachers, and representatives from the local educational authorities) to select and hire the suitable candidates.<sup>3</sup>

This commission investigates the candidates on equal basis based upon their capabilities, professional performance, their first and second state-exams achievements (Staatsexamen), and their knowledge in one or more field. Usually, an interview is made with the individual candidates to test their capabilities and qualifications. After that, the candidates are ranked according to their qualifications, and “the Best” is selected.<sup>4</sup> A principal summarizes:

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<sup>1</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 95.

<sup>2</sup> Mark A. Ashwill (1999), op. cit.

<sup>3</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001) op. cit, pp. 100-101.

<sup>4</sup> Rupert Vierlinger (1993). *Die offene Schule und Ihre Feinde*. Wien: Schulbuchverlag Jugend & Volk AG, p. 75.

“We describe the vacancy and the qualifications that we need. Generally, the principal is the one who takes the decision but he listens to the department heads. Then the applicants apply and we have introducing interviews. Usually representatives of the higher educational authorities, women and handicapped attend. We take the decision with consensus. And in case of dispute the principal has the last voice.”

Only in case of trainees can this interview be ignored, a principal mentions:

“We make the job description and the applicants apply here in the school. Then we have the introducing interviews except when previous trainees apply. And it has been always like this, that whomever we choose the higher educational authorities recruit.”

In the case of selecting a candidate who did well in the interview but was not the best in his grades of state-exams, the commission has then to prove the reason for its selection.<sup>1</sup>

Furthermore, the vocational schools are able to hire temporal teaching crafts for a certain period to meet any shortages in the teaching force (as shall be more elaborated in the next chapter).<sup>2</sup> A principal elaborates:

“We define our needs and then determine the job description on our homepage and announce the vacancy. Thereafter, we sit together and select the best applicant.”

The teacher unions demand that the selection procedures be held several times a year rather than once or twice a year and refuse that the selection procedures become like a third state-exam or focus on those candidates, who show willingness to do many functions beside their teaching tasks.<sup>3</sup>

Gellenberg et al. (2001) argue that the selection procedures depend to some extent on the principal. While some principals may not try to influence the selection procedures and leave the upper hand to the local educational authorities, yet others may use their tactics and experience to influence the selection procedures.<sup>4</sup> The majority of the interviewed principals confirm and a principal demonstrates how the principal is becoming influential in the selection procedure. He states:

“In teacher recruitment it is the principal who has the last decision. Yes, the higher authorities have a voice and participate but they mostly take the decision of the principal. And usually I ask for the opinion of my colleagues”

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<sup>1</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 95.

<sup>2</sup> Olga Zlatkin-Troitschanskaia (2006), op. cit, p.67.

<sup>3</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, pp. 104 -105.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid, p. 112.



Nevertheless, the local educational authorities may impose their demands on the school, which in turn violates the school autonomy. But when this is done, it is mainly done to achieve objectivity as much as possible.<sup>1</sup>

When a teacher is hired, usually he comes under a trial and supervision phase for a six-month period, where a mentor would integrate him in the school climate. If the teacher passes this phase successfully, he remains in school and becomes a civil servant it would be very difficult in that case to dismiss him. Therefore, Buhren& Rolff (2002) demand a loosening up of corresponding legal restrictions.<sup>2</sup> However, the majority of the interviewed principals are in favor of the civil service system. A principal explains:

“The civil service system gives a feeling of stability. This stability allows the teachers to improve their classes. Yet, if they know that they may be fired, they will get afraid. So I am not against the civil service system.”

Another principal expresses his reservation:

“I am for the system of civil service as it makes the people independent, even though it makes it difficult sometimes to encourage someone or motivate him to do something new.”

A third principal sheds light on the fact that despite the difficulty of firing the teachers, yet the teachers generally abide by the rules. He says:

“We do not have the ability of dismissal and it should be the last alternative. Rather, we should focus more on motivating the teachers. The teachers are nominated and hence should be loyal and are obliged to obey the rules.”

However, all the interviewed principals consider the possibility of firing a teacher as not an optimal solution, despite it may be seductive, and prefer the resort to other means of motivating the teachers. A principal mentions:

“We miss many instruments when a teacher is bad. But firing is not a solution, rather there is an entire system behind it. When one studies and makes his apprenticeship and goes to the school, he has then no other option than to become a teacher. This is the dilemma and this is what makes it difficult to fire a teacher. Hence, intervention possibilities should exist as well as an obligation to training and development. Reduction of the salary can be an option, but it is avoided. But these are options and the principal should not take them alone but with a team, who would determine this.”

Another principal adds:

“Firing is subjective. Sometimes it is wished but is politically fatal and would open the door for randomness. It would make the principal dominating.”

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<sup>1</sup> Sigrid Blömeke, Bardo Herzig& Gerhard Tulodziecki (2007), *Gestaltung von Schule: Eine Einführung in Schultheorie und Schulentwicklung*. Bad Heilbrunn: Julius Klinkhardt, p. 101.

<sup>2</sup> Claus G. Buhren& Hans-Günter Rolff (2002), op. cit, p. 32.

Furthermore, all the principals express the absence of financial incentives to motivate the teachers. A principal comments:

“I wish I could use financial incentives. But we do not have the money. And the schools are not established to do this.”

Another principal adds:

“We do not have financial incentives. This is why it is important that we choose those teachers who are motivated by themselves. We have to make sure that no one is overloaded or under-loaded. According to the civil service system, we still have the steering in the first three years. Thereafter not.”

However, few principals even oppose having financial incentives. A principal maintains:

“I do not wish to have financial incentives, because whatever I will be able to give the teacher, it will never compensate for what he does. In the end, the one who will get the incentive will feel insulted and the one who did not get it will also feel insulted. Thus, as long as no effective incentive system can be introduced, it will be better if we left the idea.”

Nevertheless, many principals demonstrate how they invent ways to motivate or “punish” the teachers. A principal illustrates:

“We do not have financial incentives. But we have our other alternatives such as granting a teacher a day-off or reducing his teaching classes. As a penalty, we may hold a meeting with the principal, which is very inconvenient, or assign more yard monitoring or a change in the schedule. We may also demand more training.”

Another principal adds:

“Sometimes when we do not hire teachers, we may use the dedicated money to pay for the over-time. For example, we have school development as a project and the teachers can apply in this team. When they perform the needed work, we give them then 1000 € extra.”

Concerning promotion, the teachers may be promoted to principal assistants or a position in the local educational authority with a higher rank and salary increase.<sup>1</sup>

As for selecting the principal, the teachers have been demanding recently a bigger role in his selection. In Germany, the local educational authorities appoint the principals with the attendance of school representatives. They are not required to attend special courses to be promoted; rather, it is their previous experience and performance that are the main criteria for their selection.<sup>2</sup> When asking the interviewed principals about whether or not they were satisfied with

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<sup>1</sup> Mark A. Ashwill (1999), *op. cit.*

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

the selection procedures or would prefer to have the school having the influential voice in their selection, the majority of them refused. A principal justifies:

“The principal is hired from the higher educational authorities as they do not want the schools to reproduce themselves. I believe, they think also that the colleagues may favour a weak principal. Hence, principal selection became an authoritative decision in which the school has no voice.

A second principal mentions:

“I am satisfied with the procedures of selecting the school leadership where the selection committee includes representatives of the senate, two school members, a representative for women and one for handicapped. The school is not a democracy-based organizational form; rather a hierarchical structured unit. This contradicts with the democratic participation of more school colleagues. Needless to mention, the possibility that they will not be objective. The school members may not have the necessary competencies for principal selection. Hence I am satisfied with the selection procedures”

A third principal comments:

“I was appointed from within the school. Few years ago, I would have said that the school should be more represented in the principal-selection procedure and have a stronger voice. Now I think that this procedure will not be intensively followed. So in my opinion there should be stronger participation but with no decision.”

A fourth principal states:

“I think that teachers cannot have an overview on the functions of the principals. They think they can have this, but they only want to select a principal who meets their interests.”

A fifth principal adds:

“If an outsider comes, he will be able to initiate reform. But an insider will face opposition. This is why the colleagues should not decide. We should not forget that the school is represented by 2 members. This is enough.”

A sixth principal elaborates:

“An advantage of this committee is that it represents various interests and not only one. Therefore, the school interests are also met through its representatives. Of course, it is important to have a good relationship with the authorities. This is why the interactive competencies of the principal should also be checked out.”

Only three principals express their willingness to have the schools playing an active role in their selection. The first principal justifies:

“I can understand that the higher educational authorities wish to have new people with new vision and angle. But I personally would never choose someone just because I already know him.”

The second principal adds:

“I think that the principal should be hired by the school conference because he will work with them for about 15 years. They have the right to choose him. If he was appointed against the will of the colleagues, then tension will ensue and the principal will be considered as related to the higher educational authorities. This will create a further gap between him and his colleagues. I think a principal should be *primus inter pares*”

The third principal maintains:

“I am for choosing the principal from within or else we should not wonder if no one does anything as a result of the absence of promotion possibilities.”

As a conclusion, the principal plays an influential role in teacher selection, while the school is only represented in his selection. Moreover, the principals do not have any rewarding or penalizing measures. Yet, the majority refuses to have financial incentives to ensure objectivity and does not consider the penalizing measures as a solution. Therefore, the majority favors the resort to various tactics for motivating the teachers.

## **Evaluation**

School evaluation in Germany is considered as one of the main priorities,<sup>1</sup> and according to Merki (2009) and Widmer& Beywl (2009) has undergone three phases: Phase one: in the 1970s and the 1980s when evaluation was concerned with the macro level. In this period questions related to the structure and the establishment of the educational system were raised. The emphasis was input-oriented, focusing mainly on certain factors such as teachers, teaching plans, school structures...etc.

Phase two: which in the 1990s focused on school development at the meso-level, i.e. the school itself. A reason behind this shift was the research results that proved that the schools were largely divergent among themselves than were the school types themselves. School development was conceived as achievable through the individual schools and not merely through laws and regulations. Thus, evaluation was considered as the main instrument for school development. In this phase, many models were implemented in the various *Länder*.

Phase three: which since 2000 has been largely influenced by the international comparative studies such as PISA and TIMSS tests. In that phase, it is signaled that the main reliance on evaluation within the schools is not correct and that it should be also accompanied with external evaluation reforms. Simul-

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<sup>1</sup> Georg Knauss (1999), op. cit, p. 224.

taneously, many of the school autonomy strengthening initiatives were further encouraged and accompanied with laws and regulations. This phase is the first phase to associate internal with the external evaluation initiatives,<sup>1</sup> and to shift the focal point from the meso-level (school level) to the macro – level (the entire school system).<sup>2</sup>

Therefore, the schools in Germany are subject to two kinds of evaluation; internal and external. An internal evaluation is done after the end of the trial period that the teacher has to pass before he is permanently appointed in his position. Moreover, evaluation occurs preceding a promotion.<sup>3</sup>

The principal evaluates the performance of the individual teachers based on the school program that is previously determined by all the stakeholders in the school.<sup>4</sup> The principal is considered as the best one who is able to scrutinize the performance of teachers and determine whether it is sufficient.<sup>5</sup> Thereafter, the results are discussed with the relevant teacher(s).<sup>6</sup>

The interviewed principals mention that they use various evaluation methods. One method for evaluating school performance is taking the annual goals and objectives as a benchmark for evaluating school performance. A principal mentions:

“We have the annual goals and objectives according to which we evaluate our performance.”

A second evaluation method is assigning certain teams to evaluate either the entire school performance or the performance of the various departments. A principal demonstrates:

“Another method of evaluation is the results that the teams achieve and present to the department heads in order to define what needs to be done to improve school performance. These results are finally presented to the principal.”

A further principal mentions:

“We evaluate our departments annually and I delegate a lot of responsibilities (of evaluation) to the department heads.”

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<sup>1</sup> Katharina Maag Merki (2009). „Evaluation im Bildungsbereich Schule in Deutschland“. In: *Evaluation: Ein systematisches Handbuch*. Thomas Widmer, Wolfgang Beywl & Carlo Fabian (Hrsg.). VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 157-162, pp. 158-159.

<sup>2</sup> Thomas Widmer & Wolfgang Beywl (2009), op.cit, p. 524.

<sup>3</sup> Claus G. Bühren & Hans-Günter Rolff (2002), op.cit, p. 34.

<sup>4</sup> Rolf Arnold & Christiane Griese (2004), op.cit, p. 95.

<sup>5</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), op.cit, p. 164.

<sup>6</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), op.cit, p. 286.

In the schools where over 200 teachers work, a school evaluator is responsible for internal evaluation, where s/he: supervises school operation, conducts teacher and student evaluation,<sup>1</sup> assesses the content and organization of classes, approves and accredits the teaching methods and materials, and advises as well as supports the fulfilment of school duties and tasks.<sup>2</sup> Most of the interviewed principals call this person the responsible one for quality management. A principal says:

“We have a responsible person for quality management and he performs the related work such as class inspection and accountability.”

A further principal even mentions that this person may also be guided by the European criteria. He explains:

“We have certain criteria according to the system of the EFQM (European foundation of QM) and we have a quality group and committed person. Accordingly, we defined our strengths, weaknesses and our improvement potentials. This helps us define our training needs to have a systematic class development.”

Standardized self-evaluation procedures have been sent to the schools so that they become familiar with the best ways of evaluating and comparing their performance with the performance of other schools, taking these procedures as a benchmark.<sup>3</sup>

All the principals mention that their schools adopt a fourth internal evaluation mechanism, namely peer review. A principal explains:

“We have every two years a peer review among the teachers. The results are then prepared and presented to the relevant teams. This in turn defines certain goals based on these result. Later these goals are further checked in the next feedback.”

A further principal elaborates:

“Peer review is about the degree to which the teachers are satisfied with the equipment and with the school leadership and colleagues. But the principal does not evaluate this peer review.”

Moreover, all the interviewed principals add a fifth kind of internal evaluation that they use, which is pupil feedback. A principal explains:

“When we started with the pupil questionnaire, the teachers were afraid that they would be identified. Now the results are sent to the teams so that the teams can judge how well they as teachers perform. This evaluation has been developed in such a way that the teachers themselves are keen to know who

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<sup>1</sup> B. Brackhahn, R. Brockmeyer, & P. Gruner (2004), op. cit, p. 11.

<sup>2</sup> Theo M.E. Liket (1999), op. cit, p. 230.

<sup>3</sup> Armin Lohmann (2007), op. cit, p. 79.

did well and not. And through the teams help and advice are shared in order to improve school performance.”

Even though, all the interviewed principals confirm that the teachers keep the results of the pupil feedback to themselves. A principal mentions:

“The teacher keeps the results of the pupils' feedback to himself, but he has to document to me how many times he conducted this questionnaire and when, but not the results.”

Only one principal mentions that few of the teachers in his school still perceive internal evaluation negatively. He says:

“There are still some teachers who fear and worry about internal evaluation. Other teachers consider the feedback as beneficial. And others consider evaluation as merely compulsory. What we have not done until now is to ask the pupils and the enterprises whether things have changed after they submitted their feedback or not. But the fear is too big.”

As for external evaluation, there has been a trend towards establishing an independent body for evaluation in the German *Länder* as it is the case in Bremen. These evaluation bodies perceive the schools as accountable and independent entities,<sup>1</sup> and set performance standards for the schools to allow comparisons.<sup>2</sup>

Furthermore, these bodies have the authority of writing evaluation reports about the schools as well as providing advice to school leadership to improve their performance and achieve education quality. These evaluation reports provide the KMs also with helpful information about the schools and may guide them in setting education policies. Moreover, the evaluation bodies evaluate the school as a whole and do not provide detailed information about every teacher or class, as this is done on a nation-wide basis.<sup>3</sup> They also may discard a school from the evaluation list if the school has shown good performance in previous evaluation instances.<sup>4</sup> However, they do not have any sanction rights; rather they only make sure that the schools abide by the standards.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Jürgen Kussau & Thomas Brüsemeister (2007). *Governance, Schule und Politik: Zwischen Antagonismus und Kooperation*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, p.241.

<sup>2</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2007). *Studien zu einer Theorie der Schulentwicklung*. Weinheim und Basel: Beltz Verlag, p. 78.

<sup>3</sup> Jürgen Kussau & Thomas Brüsemeister (2007), op. cit, pp. 240-244.

<sup>4</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), op. cit, p. 254.

<sup>5</sup> Jürgen Kussau & Thomas Brüsemeister (2007), op. cit, p. 243.

When asking the interviewed principals about how they perceive external evaluation, their opinions differ. The majority in Lower Saxony still considers it as inspection. A principal elaborates:

“External evaluation in Lower Saxony is mainly practiced as school inspection. In the first round, the inspectors came and visited the classes and we had to present our reports, schedule and equipments. We had to present our position. Thereafter, a discussion was held with the principal and later with the representatives of the pupils, parents and enterprises in the absence of the principal. As a result, a final report was issued to become a basis for analysing the school and determining how to overcome its weaknesses.”

Another principal adds:

“We meet external evaluation with defence and overload and believe that it should be kept away. Like this, many good things happen in the schools and no one knows about them. Accordingly, many schools miss a good opportunity to present themselves and get the chance for improvement. And this does not guarantee any change, too.”

Yet, the majority in Bremen considers external evaluation as advisory. A principal demonstrates:

“I see external evaluation as advising, because it highlights if everything is running properly or needs further development, and we then get the stamp as a prior step to autonomy. Of course it has an aspect of control because the focal points are considered and then the authorities determine if everything is running well or if they have to speak to us.”

Another principal adds:

“We consider external evaluation as advising and this is why it should not be inspection and that often, because if often we will not take it seriously and we will get only busy measuring our performance and detracted from our real work.”

A further principal warns against the repetition of this evaluation. He says:

“The doses of external evaluation should be taken in account. The schools should remain autonomous while the results should remain transparent.”

However, only one of the principals refuses external evaluation. He justifies:

“We do not have reports or evaluation. The teachers got academic education and hence, to evaluate them, this will be improper. But we have continuing discussions which are also documented. In these discussion we discuss our perspectives and evaluate our performance based on our goals and objectives and determine what we have achieved and not and what we should develop.”

Moreover, two principals in Bremen are indifferent about external evaluation. One mentions:



“External evaluation is neither advisory nor inspection. The evaluators come with a different perspective and this is good because sometimes they highlight things or mistakes that we do not acknowledge. Anyways, external evaluation is essential.”

The other principal adds:

“I do not perceive the role of external evaluation. Many teachers still believe that it is about being well or bad. They perceive it formally and this formalization makes external evaluation absurd.”

An expert mentions the advantage of external evaluation. He demonstrates:

“As long as external evaluation is aiming at achieving school development, then it is important. Yet, if it seizes control, then it will become the wrong instrument. But the tendency now is towards advising.”

In addition to the above mentioned external evaluation mechanisms, other evaluation endeavours in Germany also take place, such as international comparative tests like TIMSS and PISA, educational standards to ensure a unified standard of education provided to all pupils all over the country, and unified central exams to ensure the same education quality and the acceptance of the various educational degrees of the various schools.<sup>1</sup>

As a conclusion, the German vocational schools are subject to internal and external evaluation. Internal evaluation is mainly conducted through: 1- peer review, which focuses on the school climate and how the teachers cooperate, 2- pupils’ feedback, where the pupils evaluate the teacher in the class. However, the teachers keep the results to themselves (a matter that questions the effectiveness of this method), 3- teams that evaluate the progress in achieving the annual goals and objectives, and 4- the responsible teacher for QM, who may be guided by diverse standards. Even though the principals are supposed to evaluate the teachers, the interviewed principals mention that they are overloaded and do not have the time therefore.

Because of the various evaluation endeavours, Holzapfel (1999) argues that the schools are exhausted from all these evaluation endeavours, even though they are implemented to improve the quality of education.<sup>2</sup>

## **Teams**

When asking the interviewed principals about teams, all of them mention that they have teams. A principal states:

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<sup>1</sup> Katharina Maag Merki (2009), op. cit, pp. 159-160.

<sup>2</sup> Hartmut Holzapfel (1999), op. cit, p. 45.

“We have a team structure where the teams are dedicated to implement our annual goals and objectives. And their work is also evaluated. Some of these teams are mainly superficial and others are active.”

These teams are developed around certain aspects. For example, some of the teams are built around departments, fields or classes. A principal explains:

“We have teams that are settled in the departments. In addition, we are obliged to form teams under the title of year-teams that include the colleagues who teach in the same year. Moreover, we have class-teams for the classes and project-teams.”

Another principal adds:

“We have 3 kinds of teams. The most important ones are the field-teams and they lead the courses of study. Then we have the discipline teams below them and they focus on the disciplines not the organizational matters. At last, we have the project and service-teams such as the team for management or environment or budget...etc. but everything that is related to QM has a responsible person therefore.”

However, all the interviewed principals confirm that not all the teams are equally efficient. Few claim that those teams who are involved in projects are the most efficient. A principal comments:

“We have teams. Some of them are effective. But we also have single warriors. The effective teams are those based on certain projects.”

A principal claims age to play a role. He says:

“Some teams are effective and others are not that interested. But generally, it is the young teachers who are the most active.”

Other principals add that the harmony among the members plays a role. A principal says:

“Teams are successful when the teachers think that what they do together is better than what they do individually.”

Another principal further explains:

“The success of the teams depends on the mutual understanding and whether they are developed voluntarily or were forced to come together. Also if they work individually, they will not be successful.”

Yet, all interviewed principals declare to have also inefficient teams. A principal comments:

“What we have is working groups and are mostly not organized.”

Another principal adds:

“They are not real teams. They still are individual teachers gathered together, despite the studies that present the advantages of teamwork. But there is also opposition to this teamwork. No one opposes working in teams, but 80% of my teachers are single warriors. This requires changing our perception regarding the class formation and this is difficult. Some think that when they discuss

the issues with others, then they will be committed to the collectively taken decision and not to that what they want. But I think that teamwork can achieve a relief and improve classes without being in need of additional money.”

Thus, few principals confirm having teachers working still as single warriors. A principal even stresses the importance of having single warriors. He demonstrates:

“The teacher should be a single warrior in his class and be involved in teams simultaneously. This is why we have individual training programs to strengthen the quality in school and use collective training to achieve cooperation and strengthen the teams. .... Having only teams for everything is absurd. I need single warriors too.”

Finally, a principal summarizes:

“We have teams but we should not idealize them. Those who are organized are those that ensue from emergencies and need. Thus, the ideal is not achievable. However, the teams grew stronger now and they have higher interest in developing their work. Before, they used to take care of everything. But this has faded now in the background and at the front lies their field and its development. I personally find this as a positive development, but the others don’t.”

Hence, from above it can be concluded that the vocational schools in Germany are encouraged to build teams and to work collaboratively. However, despite their existence, not all teams are affective. Based on the interviewed principals, those teams that are built around fields, departments, classes and projects as well as have harmony among their members are the most effective teams.

## **Training**

Schreyögg& Lehmeier (2003) consider teacher training in Germany to be to some extent centrally and de-centrally controlled.<sup>1</sup> In each state, a state-sponsored institution provides different courses to the teachers and may invite professors to give some of the courses. Yet, the school may itself organize its own continuing training programs.<sup>2</sup>

In practice, the teacher himself determines his needs of training, while the principal or the school conference is included only when a replacement for the teacher is needed during his training period.<sup>3</sup> Moreover, in many *Länder* like Lower Saxony, the teachers are not obliged to attend training courses but they are encouraged to do so. Yet, in the *Länder* like Bremen where the teachers are

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<sup>1</sup> Astrid Schreyögg& Heinz Lehmeier (2003). *Personalentwicklung in der Schule*. Bonn: Deutscher psychologen Verlag GmbH, p. 45.

<sup>2</sup> Mark A. Ashwill (1999), op. cit.

<sup>3</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), op. cit, p. 218.

obliged to get continuing training, the teachers have the freedom to choose whatever courses they would like to take.<sup>1</sup>

Worris (2002) claims that the young teachers are active and keen to get training.<sup>2</sup> While the older and more experienced teachers prefer to choose by their own the training programs that they would take.<sup>3</sup>

Most of the training courses revolve around teaching techniques, pedagogic, psychological, and didactic knowledge and skills, new teaching subjects, problem solving, and special courses for school directors and inspectors.<sup>4</sup>

As for the principals, usually they get their training programs once they are hired in their position as principals. However, Worris (2002) complains that many principals lack the financial competences and that most of the training programs are merely about the legal rules and regulations.<sup>5</sup>

Generally, the training courses in Germany still suffer from the inadequate amounts of financial resources devoted to them.<sup>6</sup> Thus, there is a trend towards decentralizing training by offering professional development to teachers in their schools, whether this will involve all teachers or a group of them, and towards encouraging the teachers to determine by their own their professional development needs.<sup>7</sup>

All the interviewed principals confirm that the teachers receive training. In Bremen, training is even compulsory and a special budget is assigned for that. A principal comments:

“Each teacher is obliged to get 30 hours of training each year. 15 hours as individual training and 15 for collective training. The training budget is divided into 2 halves accordingly. The teacher can choose whatever training programs he would like to take, and the school leadership determines the collective training programs. So the leadership and the teachers choose the training programs. The collective training programs are organized in the school in the evening either for all the colleagues or for a certain field. And we decide whether we work out a certain topic or we invite experts to the school.”

In Lower Saxony, training is not compulsory, however, widely taken. A principal explains:

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<sup>1</sup> Mark A. Ashwill (1999), *op. cit.*

<sup>2</sup> Ingeborg Worris (2002), *op. cit.*, p. 218.

<sup>3</sup> Helmut Fend (2008), *op. cit.*, p. 338.

<sup>4</sup> Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1998), *op. cit.*, p. 69.

<sup>5</sup> Ingeborg Worris (2002), *op. cit.*, pp. 227-229.

<sup>6</sup> Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1998), *op. cit.*, p. 70.

<sup>7</sup> Beatriz Pont, Deborah Nusche, & Hunter Moorman (2008), *op. cit.*, pp. 48-49.

“Here in Lower Saxony we do not have the compulsory system of training as in Bremen. But I would like to try it (if it is compulsory). This is not bad”

Training needs are determined through various ways. One way is through the teacher himself/herself. A principal elaborates:

“A teacher may apply to get training. We see if we have enough money. Therefore, in most of the cases we have the needed money.”

Another principal mentions that he and the teachers determine the need for training. He claims:

“My colleagues and I determine the needs for training. Each teacher who chooses a certain program should justify his choice. Sometimes the teachers pay the money for training on their own. Through our school development program we determine our need for training and thus bring experts and trainers to our school and the colleagues can apply. These programs are offered after class and are cheaper.”

Yet, the majority of the interviewed principals mention that training is mostly determined by the teams. A principal confirms:

“Training is a team decision in our school. Teams determine the annual need for training, pay it from a special budget, and if possible take the training also in teams.”

Another principal adds:

“The school conference, the teams, the teachers, or the school leadership may define the needs for training. And if many require a certain program we may organize training inside the school.”

A third further announces that they have a responsible person for training. He says:

“We have a functional position for training, where the committed person is not only responsible for organizing training but also for developing a concept for training. Sometimes through discussion with this person we reach at fascinating results but sometimes not.”

A fourth principal mentions that sometimes the schools receive offers for training whether from public or private entities. He says:

“We receive a lot of offers from various parties. We have a double procedure. Either we send these offers to all the departments to choose from them or the departments themselves organize the kind of training that they need.”

Moreover, all the interviewed principals mention that the training courses may be taken individually or collectively. A principal illustrates:

“Our teachers take collective and individual training programs, but the best programs are those chosen by the teachers on their own. Because then they will consider them to be important and beneficiary.”

The training courses may be taken inside the schools or outside. A principal states:

“Most of the training is done in the school, but sometimes the higher authorities may invite us for training programs.”

The majority of the interviewed principals confirm that the teachers have mixed results about training. A principal comments:

“Some perceive it as just receiving certificates.”

A second principal adds:

“Training is considered by some teachers as a challenge and by others as an overload. The rest perceive it as a possibility. Before, it was voluntary. Now we are obliged to get it. But the teachers can choose the programs they like, provided they are accepted as training.”

Few principals wish if training were voluntary or else the teachers will only be compelled to attend it, a matter that will be ineffective. A principal summarizes:

“The best training is voluntary. Now the teacher fulfils his obligation with only half a heart.”

Another principal wishes if training courses were aiming at strengthening the vocational schools. He says:

“Training should strengthen the teachers and also bring the colleagues together to achieve common goals.”

From above, it can be concluded that the vocational schools in Germany are autonomous in organizing their training courses. These can be determined by the teacher himself, in cooperation with the principal, through the teams, or by the responsible teacher for training in school. Furthermore, these courses may be taken individually or collectively, inside or outside the school, and be offered by (central) educational institutions or private enterprises. Nevertheless, many teachers may still resent training and consider it as an overload. Therefore, few interviewed principals wish if training could remain voluntary and aim at strengthening the schools and developing the interpersonal and managerial skills.

## **2 Administrative decentralization and the role of the school principal**

With the tendency toward empowering the vocational schools and encouraging their autonomy, the principals are empowered in certain aspects. One of these aspects as mentioned before is teacher selection, whether it was temporal as a principal claims:

“As for temporal recruitment: I can hire the candidates without the resort to the senate.”

Or was permanent as a second principal adds:

“Now I have the authority to tell the higher educational authorities in case of a vacancy that I have found this applicant with the specified qualifications and that I would like to hire him/her. And until now they have accepted my opinion.”

However, all the interviewed principals declare that they do not control any incentives. Only few mention that they resort to symbolic incentives. A principal claims:

“We have only symbolic incentives and in case of inefficient teachers, it depends upon the pressure that the principal can exert and the training that he demands. But even this is limited.”

An expert adds:

“Principals do not have the ability to provide financial incentives, but they can assign attractive duties to the efficient teachers as well as provide relieving hours. There is a way to provide non-financial incentives. Incentives are important but they need not to be financial in the first line.”

When it comes to penalizing measures, all the interviewed principals confirm that they are hindered. A principal illustrates:

“The principal is hindered. When a teacher commits a fault, then corrective measures should be taken. Yet, the principal cannot do this. What follows is always a discussion at the higher educational authorities.”

A second principal adds:

“In some cases, we wish if we could fire a teacher, and when we make our suggestions to the higher educational authorities nothing happens.”

Nevertheless, all interviewed principals mention that they have their own “informal” ways of disciplining the inefficient teachers. A principal demonstrates:

“We do not have a penalizing system “formally speaking”. But we have our own informal ways, such as having a discussion with the principal, or giving a teacher a bad schedule”

However, the majority are against penalties. A principal explains:

“A penalizing system is preventive. It merely seeks to prevent the teachers from doing something. This is not efficient. What is important is to empower the teachers and to identify them with the duties they do. This is why having member-discussions with the aim of strengthening the teachers is what really matters. Penalty is not a solution.”

When it comes to evaluation, the majority of the interviewed principals declare that they have the authority to evaluate the teachers, yet they lack the time for that. A principal demonstrates:

“It is mentioned that the principal should visit the teachers in class and provide advices. However, this is a field where we see a gap between what is written and what is practiced”

A second principal supports:

“The new authorities are an overload as we have to do more based on the old procedures.”

A principal even mentions that his evaluation was even indirectly rejected and that he had to revise it. This represents a challenge or hindrance to the principals and makes them refrain from evaluating. He says:

“I wrote that I do not see a certain teacher as deserving the life-long post. Later, I faced opposition from the union and was asked if I had thought the matter properly.”

Another principal adds:

“As a principal, I do not feel that the teacher will not oppose me.”

As for team building, all the interviewed principals claim to have teams and to be motivating their work. A principal states:

“We consider team-work as part of school development.”

A second principal wishes if there would be rules for organizing their work. He says:

“I wish if we had rules organizing teamwork. Then we will be obliged to work in teams.”

Regarding training, the majority of the interviewed principals clearly mention that they encourage the teachers to take the courses they need. A principal even stresses that he reorganizes the schedules to allow the teachers to take the courses. He says:

“Training should be determined based upon the need for it. The school should organize the absence of the teacher, and the teachers should determine the content of training by themselves; however, based on objective criteria”

Few principals mention that given the limited budget and time, they may accept or reject the training demands of the teachers. A principal explains:

“Training is suggested by the teams and the responsible person for training. Then we discuss the demands in the leadership conference and decide either to accept or refuse some or all.”

Given all these functions that the principals perform, all the interviewed principals mention that they are overloaded. A principal comments:



“The problem is that we acquired new responsibilities besides the old ones. This constitutes an overload.”

However, the majority of the principals are for expanding administrative decentralization if they were empowered with authorities next to the responsibilities that they already have. A principal says:

“Again the principal has many responsibilities, but he should also be given equivalent authorities.”

A second principal demands that principals get the needed training. He says:

“The principal is responsible for everything and hence, should get the needed training and incentives as well as have the needed support from above. The principal should be empowered financially.”

In addition, an expert suggests:

“It is better if the principal, especially in the big schools, devolves some of the authorities to the teams.”

Finally, a principal comments:

“We just try to do paperwork. I am not against or for decentralization. I am only for empowering the principal, providing him with the sufficient resources, and supporting his decisions. Yet, it is also not possible to let the principal control everything in the school. It requires him to be an angel.”

From above, it can be concluded that the principals are mainly empowered in terms of teacher selection. Yet, when it comes to motivating and penalising the teachers, they become short-handed.

Even though the principals are entitled to evaluate teacher performance, all the interviewed principals rely on pupil feedback, peer review, and the teams in evaluation. Moreover, most of the interviewed principals indirectly mention that they encourage teamwork whether in conducting certain projects or in organizing the work of the various departments.

Finally, all the interviewed principals stress their own role in encouraging and facilitating the work of the teachers to allow them to receive training, with the emphasis on accepting or rejecting the training demands based on its relevance and availability of resources.

Given all these functions that the principals perform, all the interviewed principals complain that they are overloaded, and hence, demand to be empowered with authorities next to their responsibilities and be given the needed training if administrative decentralization is to be further extended.

### **Part Three**

## **The Effect of Administrative Decentralization in Egypt on School Leadership**

As for administrative decentralization in Egypt, it can be claimed that the administrative authorities are de-concentrated as the local educational units control most of the authorities and the interviewed principals mention that they have limited authorities, as shall be presented in the following authorities:

### **1 Administrative decentralization in the Egyptian vocational schools**

As for how administrative decentralization is implemented in the Egyptian vocational schools, the following can be concluded:

#### **Teacher selection**

In Egypt, the EMOE through its directorates is responsible for recruiting the teachers.<sup>1</sup> Recruitment is based on the needs of the schools and the grades and seniority of the applicants.<sup>2</sup>

In case of surplus in the number of the available applicants, they may be transferred to the other governorates that have a shortage in the available applicants. However, each governorate should pertain at least 30% of its applicants.<sup>3</sup> The coordination apparatuses in the EMOE organize the transfer procedures from one governorate to the other based on the vacancies available.<sup>4</sup>

Since 1998, there has been a major trend towards recruiting the teachers based on a contest. The EMOE announces the vacant positions and the applicants have to be from the latest graduation year, complete the application form, and vow that he/she will work for at least five years and will not ask for transfer within this period.<sup>5</sup>

The teachers once hired become civil servants. The EMOE is responsible for their promotion and transfer. Although the law for local government has al-

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<sup>1</sup> Amal Othman Kuheil (2007), op. cit, p. 191.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, p.185.

<sup>3</sup> Arafat Abd El Aziz Suliman (1985). *The Strategy for Management in Education: An Analytic and Comparative Study*. (2<sup>nd</sup> edition). Cairo: the Anlgoegyptian Library, (Original in Arabic), p. 219.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid, p. 220.

<sup>5</sup> Manar Mohamed Ismail Baghdadi (2000). *The Policies of Selecting and Recruiting the Pre-University Teachers: A Comparative Study between Egypt and the USA*. Master Thesis in Education. Cairo University: Institute of Educational Studies and Research, (Original in Arabic), pp. 104- 106.

lowed the governor to appoint teachers in the vacant positions; however, this is usually devolved to the educational directorates and administrates.<sup>1</sup>

When asking the interviewed principals about teacher selection, all of them mention that they define merely their needs of the teaching staff. A principal confirms:

“Now we define only our needs but do not choose them.”

Only one principal mentions that he may refuse a newly hired teacher. He says:

“I can refuse a newly hired teacher and I can move a teacher to administrative duties.”

However, the majority wish to have a role in selecting the teachers. A principal explains:

“The principal will choose the best. Sometimes we get inefficient teachers and this takes a lot of effort from us.”

An expert comments:

“I agree that the principal should choose the teachers, because he is the best to choose who has the skills and who can work effectively.”

However, only two principals refuse that the principals would select the teachers. The first demonstrates:

“It will be difficult if the principal selects the teachers because we are controlled by the ministerial decrees. I cannot remove a teacher from the school if he is not efficient.”

The other principal comments:

“Selecting the teachers used to be a procedure in the past when the principal was really respected and powerful, but we are not angels.”

Concerning the selection of principals, usually it is done based on the academic qualifications of the applicant. The educational directorates determine the nomination after studying the nominee’s qualification and curriculum vitae.<sup>2</sup>

However, all except two principals refuse the idea of letting the teachers select the principal. A principal justifies:

“Because the teachers will not be able to judge, unless they work with him. Otherwise the teachers will not be objective in their choice.”

One of both teachers who advocate that the teachers select their principals justifies his opinion by stating that he does not see any reason for opposing this. The other principal claims that the focus when selecting the principal is supposed to be on the qualifications not on the person who selects. He says:

“The important thing is the qualifications of the candidate not the person who selects. And we should put the right person in the right place and the principal

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<sup>1</sup> Manar Mohamed Ismail Baghdadi (2000), *op. cit.*, p. 44.

<sup>2</sup> Nagat Rabbee Sabri Daoud El Sayed (1997), *op. cit.*, p. 45.

should have a good reputation.”

However, an expert comments:

“In my opinion this will open a door to nepotism and this will leave negative reflections on the educational system and process.”

A second expert adds:

“We heard that principals' recruitment will be based on interviews and in exchange with high incentives. However, many teachers prefer staying closer to the students than being accountable and responsible for the entire school. In addition, the returns or the financial incentives are not encouraging.”

When asking about whether the principals would prefer if they come from within the school, the opinions disperse between proponents and opponents. The proponents justify their opinion by stating that the principal would know the school and its needs better than an outsider, in addition to the harmony that will be achieved when he is chosen by his colleagues. A principal explains:

“It is better if the principal comes from within because otherwise he will need time to know the school. It would be even better if he was a former teacher in the vocational school to understand also the financial issues.”

Whereas the opponents believe that an outsider will bring new ideas and will be new to everyone inside the school. Thus, he will behave objectively with everybody. A principal maintains:

“Nepotism can cause failure. In addition, anything new has its charm.”

A second principal adds:

“The principal will be new to everyone and every one will be cautious. But the advantages for having a principal from outside the school are more.”

Only one principal was indifferent. He says:

“It depends upon the type of the school. It is better if the principal has high qualification especially in vocational education. What benefited me was that I had a practical experience.”

Furthermore, unlike the case in Germany, the majority wish if they could remove the teachers, despite having this authority by the rules and regulations. A principal says:

“Yes, I am for removal and the authorities should trust the principal.”

Another principal adds:

“Yes, the principal should have the authority to remove the teachers to retain the best qualifications.”

A third principal comments:

“Yes but under one condition: when the principal is fair and objective.”

A fourth principal mentions:

“Now it is possible that when a teacher is not efficient and I demanded his transition, that he will not be removed.”

A fifth principal however claims that the educational directorates support him in his decisions. He says:

“The educational directorate assists and supports us. So, if we need to punish someone, usually the directorate supports us and removes the teacher.”

Only one principal wishes to have incentives more than the authority to dismiss a teacher. He says:

“I don't want to have dismissal authorities. I wish to have incentives instead, so that I may sanction the inefficient.”

As for the incentives, all of the interviewed principals in the full-time vocational schools confirm that they no longer control any financial incentives. A principal maintains:

“Before we used to provide incentives and we could cut them as a way of sanctioning, even though the incentives were low.”

While those in the vocational schools following the dual-system mention that the incentives that they command cannot be really considered as incentives, since they are not based on performance, rather on attendance. A principal explains:

“The problem currently is that when we get the incentives the criteria that we receive for their spending is the attendance and not the performance.”

Suleiman (1997) claims that having a unified incentive system that does not distinguish the hard workers from the rest, makes the teachers indifferent and not keen to pay extra effort.<sup>1</sup> All the interviewed principals admit that they only have symbolic incentives, as a principal summarizes:

“We only have symbolic incentives. I wish if we had financial incentives but I am afraid that the principal might misuse them.”

On the other hand, all the interviewed principals mention that they have sanctioning measures, even if they were limited. A principal explains:

“We make an internal investigation, but do not send it right away to the authorities. I just keep it and just warn the teacher. If she/he made another mistake I start collecting these mistakes and then submit them to the authorities.”

Another principal adds:

“We use the report as a method. The problem is that when we give the teacher a bad grade, the teacher complains. Then the higher authorities come and investigate. If this was fairly given, then everything continues and the teacher gets the grade. If not, maybe the principal gets the sanction. Thus, most of the principals refrain from giving lower grades.”

However, the majority of the interviewed principals do not wish, like their German counterparts, to control financial incentives. A principal justifies:

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<sup>2</sup> Nagdah Ibrahim Ali Suleiman (1997). op. cit. pp. 99-102.

“The human being is not an angel (i.e. not objective), but if a monitoring system exists maybe we can benefit from the incentives. And anyone who pays more effort should be compensated.”

A second principal adds:

“If we get the incentives, more bureaucratic procedures will be imposed on the principal. A solution for this is to reduce the value of the incentive to have a reduced effect. And of course the principals must be trustworthy.”

Nevertheless, few wish to have control over financial incentives instead of sanctions. A principal supports:

“I wish to have incentives instead of sanctions. And better if these sanctions were monetary and if they were in my hands.”

A second principal further wishes:

“I wish to have incentives because this will empower the principal and force the teachers to obey him.”

From above, it can be concluded that the vocational principals in Egypt play no role in teacher selection. The majority of the interviewed principals refuse also, as their counterparts in Germany, that the teachers select their principals, claiming that they will not be objective and only driven by their interests.

When it comes to incentives, the majority confirm that they have only the ability to use symbolic incentives. While the principals of the vocational schools with dual-system perceive the financial incentives as not influential since they are based upon the attendance of the teachers rather than their performance in order to ensure objectivity. Nevertheless, the majority of the interviewed principals refuses the financial incentives, like their counterparts in Germany, and wish the activation of the penalizing measures (unlike the counterparts in Germany).

## **Evaluation**

The vocational schools are subject to external and internal evaluation. Internal evaluation is mainly done by the principal and the primary teacher. An expert explains:

“The prime teachers evaluate the teachers, then the inspectors and the principal. Coordination should exist among these parties, but does not necessarily happen.”

The principal evaluates the general performance of the teachers while the primary teacher directs his colleagues in his field of specialization, evaluates their performance, and monitors their attendance. Usually, the primary teacher is close to the teachers and knows their problems, their strengths, and weaknesses.

Yet, any complaints regarding teacher performance would fall on the teacher alone.<sup>1</sup>

The teachers pay great attention to the principal more than any one else, even though s/he does not have the authority of appraisal or punishment.<sup>2</sup> Yet, direct supervision is used.<sup>3</sup> A principal demonstrates:

“We have to submit a report. 10% of the teachers are supposed to get the maximal grades but what about the rest? We are forced to give the maximal grades to avoid problems. I found the principal before me doing this. If I change it, the teachers will complain against me at the administrate.”

A second principal adds:

“The annual report is complex and I have to have a strong reason to lower the grade. To remove the teacher this is almost impossible. But the principal is the best one to judge on the teachers provided that he is objective and not biased.”

However, a third principal mentions that being able to enforce his evaluation is based on his personality. He says:

“No, the principal can lower the grades based upon the performance of the teachers. I did this last year. This depends upon my personality.”

The majority of the interviewed principals, however, mention that when they see an inefficient teacher, they try to advise him. A principal mentions:

“We try to talk with the inefficient and sometimes we warn. But if necessary we make an investigation.”

An expert summarizes:

“Internal evaluation is based on a report with certain fixed items based upon which the grades are given. The principal is mainly responsible for it.”

As for external evaluation, four external evaluation methods are used in Egypt. These are:

- the individual method: where the inspector visits the classroom and evaluates the teacher performance in class. Thereafter, he meets him and discusses the strong and weak points in his performance,

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<sup>1</sup> Khaled Atteya Sayed Ahmed Yakoub (2001). *Improving the System of Teacher Accountability in Egypt according to the Experience of the United Kingdom*. Master Thesis in Education. Cairo University, Institute of Educational Studies and Research (Original in Arabic), p. 79, p.89.

<sup>2</sup> Hanem Ali Abd El Maksoud & Husein Tahoun (1993). “Psychological Pressure on the Teachers and Their Relationship to Some Variables: A Cross-Cultural Study in Egypt and Saudi Arabia”. In: *The Periodical of Faculty of Education*. Ein Shams University. Vol. 17, Part 3, pp. 295-334 (Original in Arabic), p. 324.

<sup>3</sup> Amal Othman Kuheil (2004), op. cit, p. 225.

- the collective method: where the department inspector meets with all the teachers of a certain subject to inform them about the new rules and teaching methods in this subject,
- the demonstrative method: where the inspector may present new experiments and activities in evaluating students' performance,
- the pedagogical research method: where the inspectors may refer the teachers to certain studies and researches to improve their performance.<sup>1</sup>

External evaluation is organized centrally by the EMOE and its educational directorates and administrates. However, some complain about the limited visits that school inspection groups make to the schools,<sup>2</sup> and that they mainly focus on inputs such as school buildings, facilities and equipment, teacher performance in class.<sup>3</sup> A principal comments:

“There is inspection. In most of the cases, it is mainly compliments. Many of these inspections do not realize their true role and are not up to date. Hence, the criteria for their selection should be changed.”

A second principal adds:

“We welcome the visitors. But although they have ideas, they make comparisons with other schools. This may be not equivalent to our capabilities.”

Moreover, the majority of the interviewed principals claim the nature for external evaluation to be serving mainly the formalities and looking for mistakes. A principal demonstrates:

“The inspectors just spend one hour and then leave us. They only look for formalities.”

Another principal adds:

“No one looks and monitors the educational process. The inspectors look only for mistakes and do not advise us.”

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<sup>1</sup> Abd El Rahman Mohamed Ahmed El Nahhal (1996). *Improving the Pedagogical Inspection System in First Three Years of Preparatory Education in Emirates according to the Experiences of Arab Republic of Egypt and the United Kingdom*. Master Thesis in Education. Cairo University: Institute of Educational Studies and Research, (Original in Arabic), pp. 101- 102.

<sup>2</sup> El Sayed Abd El Aziz El Bahwashi (1994). “Selecting and Training Primary Education School-Leadership in Egypt: Between Reality and Hope in A Changing World”. In: *Conference on Education Management in the Arab World in A Changing World*. The Second Annual Conference. Part 2, 22-24 January. pp. 135-160 (Original in Arabic), p. 97.

<sup>3</sup> Ahmed Ibrahim Ahmed (1998). “Some Aspects of Managerial Malfunction in the Public Secondary Schools: A Survey”. In: *Conference on Towards an Arabic Distinct Education to Face Renewed Challenges*. Alexandria: 12-13 Mai, pp. 65-146 (Original in Arabic), p. 97.



A third principal even indicates that the inspectors may even be contradictory. He says:

“Sometimes when we get different inspectors they may refuse each others demands or demand contradictory things, and we are lost in between. We hope that they would ask about our problems and how we solve them. But they just look for formalities.”

However, only three of the interviewed principals mention that they receive advice from the inspectors. A principal confirms:

“We receive financial inspection, which monitors us. The inspectors advise us and if we have pitfalls, we try to solve them before they leave. They support us. They really help us, and do not look for mistakes. It is natural that we are not perfect and make mistakes.”

A second principal adds:

“Inspection is supposed to advise the teachers and not to look for mistakes. This is what the inspectors really do, even the financial inspectors advise us.”

Many interviewed principals mention the negative effects that the current external evaluation “inspection” has. A principal summarizes:

“The problem is that we do not present the problems to the higher levels honestly. The role of school inspection is to come, evaluate us and help us solve the problems that we face. Yet, the problems are far difficult than what they can solve. As a result, they visit us and do not report our problems to the higher levels in order not to appear as inefficient or incapable.... The end-result is that the authorities are not informed about what we face in reality.”

Therefore, many wish that the awareness about the advisory role of external evaluation increases. A principal says:

“Awareness should increase and the visits should be helpful and not be looking for mistakes. Their awareness should increase.”

As a conclusion, and as it is the case in Germany, the Egyptian vocational schools are subject to internal and external evaluation. Internal evaluation is exercised by the principals and the prime teachers. However, the teachers pay greater attention to the principal’s evaluation (since it is s/he, who writes the annual reports and grants them the grades), even though, as the majority of the interviewed principals mention, the principal in most of the cases gives them the final grades to avoid problems. This makes it in practice ineffective, serving only the formalities.

External evaluation is organized by the EMOE, the directorates, and the administrates. However, it is considered by the interviewed principals as inspection, input- and process-oriented, and focusing merely on mistakes. Therefore,

few wish that the awareness about the advisory role of external evaluation increases.

### **Teams**

An interviewed expert confirms that the schools are obliged to build teams. She says:

“Each school is obliged by the law to have a training unit and to solve many aspects through the teams, especially when renovating and buying materials.”

All the interviewed principals confirm that they have teams. A principal demonstrates:

“How can the principal be able to know everything about the school without cooperating with the teachers? Thus, teamwork is very important. We have teams and I personally encourage them. No individual work succeeds.”

Yet, the interviewed principals mention different reasons for the success or failure of teams. A principal illustrates how the cooperation among the members plays an effective role. He says:

“The success of teams depends on how the colleagues look at each other. If they are cooperative then they work collectively.”

Another principal mentions that sometimes he may intervene and encourage the members to work in teams. He says:

“In vocational education we have to work in teams in order to organize and unify the teaching topics and materials. Sometimes I intervene and encourage them to work in teams and coordinate their work.”

From above it can be concluded that, as it is the case in Germany, all the interviewed principals declare that they have teams, even though not all teams are affective, as it is again the case in Germany. The interviewed principals resort the effectiveness of some of the teams to the harmony among the members as well as their personal interventions when necessary.

### **Training**

In Egypt, training starts during the study in the faculties of education,<sup>1</sup> where the students of the third and fourth year have to attend one day weekly in a preparatory and a secondary school respectively. By the end of the last semester, they should get a two-week training in a preparatory or secondary school.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Amani Abd El Kader M. Shaaban (1998). *The Improvement of Primary Education Teacher Preparation in the Arab Republic of Egypt*. Ph.D. Thesis in Education. Cairo University: Institute of Educational Studies and Research (Original in Arabic), p. 202.

<sup>2</sup> Mustapha Abd El Samee Mohamed & Suheir Mohamed Huwalah (2005). *Teacher Preparation: His Development and Training*. Dar El Fikr (Original in Arabic), p. 264.

After graduation and being hired as teachers, the new teachers get in-service training.<sup>1</sup> These training programs are organized and financed by the general administration for training in the EMOE. At the local level, each educational directorate has a training department that is responsible for implementing the training programs determined by the (central) general administration of training. The general administration puts annually two training plans in coordination with the Central Apparatus for Organization and Management. The first plan is the central training plan. It includes training programs for the trainers and inspectors, and programs with certain features such as these training programs that are presented based upon agreements with other countries.<sup>2</sup> The second plan is the local training plan that the education directorates and administrates implement in order to meet the training demands of the teachers.<sup>3</sup> However, most of these training programs focus on the promotion programs to higher positions,<sup>4</sup> since attending training programs is often considered as an essential requirement for promotion.<sup>5</sup>

Generally, the teachers take training courses that are set by the local educational authorities. A principal explains:

“We receive training programs from the higher authorities and we should nominate teachers to attend.”

Yet, since these training programs take mainly the shape of lectures and focus on the theoretical parts and the individual effort instead of on team-work,<sup>6</sup> they are considered by Mohamed & Huwalah (2005) as traditional, insufficient, and even many teachers consider them as a waste of time, effort, and money.<sup>7</sup> In addition, video conferencing is used mainly to inform the teachers about the latest reforms in curricula.<sup>8</sup> Moreover, Ali (2002) complains that the training programs are far from reality and the teachers do not have a choice in selecting the programs that they attend, especially those for promotion.<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Mustapha Abd El Samee Mohamed & Suheir Mohamed Huwalah (2005). op. cit, p. 260.

<sup>2</sup> Abd El Rahman Mohamed Ahmed El Nahhal (1996), op. cit, pp. 102- 103.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, p. 103.

<sup>4</sup> Mustapha Abd El Samee Mohamed & Suheir Mohamed Huwalah (2005), op. cit, p. 266.

<sup>5</sup> Nagdah Ibrahim Ali Suleiman (1997), op. cit, p. 79.

<sup>6</sup> Nabil Saad Khalil (October 1995). “A Proposed Model to Improve the Work of the School Leadership in the Arab Republic of Egypt according to Some Modern Managerial Models”. In: *Magazine of Research in Pedagogy and Psychology*. Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 99-142 (Original in Arabic), p. 114.

<sup>7</sup> El Sayed Abd El Aziz El Bahwashi (1994), op. cit, p. 154.

<sup>8</sup> Mustapha Abd El Samee Mohamed & Suheir Mohamed Huwalah (2005), op. cit, p. 268.

<sup>9</sup> Zeinab Mahmoud Muselhi Ali (2002). *Similarities and Differences among the Institutions and the Programs of Pre- University Teacher Preparation in Egypt since the Eighties*.

Ibrahim (1998) and Mohamed& Huwalah (2005) assume that these training programs do not distinguish between the newly hired teachers and the teachers with experience, and the subjects are sometimes contradictory. In addition, 50-100 teachers attend the training sessions, a matter that does not allow discussions and in-depth analysis of the training material.<sup>1</sup> Consequently, this reduces their effect. Not to mention that in most of the cases the effect of training is not evaluated after the trainees go back to their schools.<sup>2</sup>

The majority of the interviewed principals confirm that training is routine and inefficient. A principal says:

“Training is mainly routine and not serious. But when the directorate sends trainers to us, then it gets more serious.”

Many interviewed principals further mention that many teachers just attend training either to escape from the workload, as a principal states:

“It is better if the training programs were centrally controlled, because sometimes teachers enrol themselves as a way to escape from work.”

Or for promotion. A principal explains:

“Not all teachers are enthusiastic. Many attend only for promotion, even though the majority does not want to be promoted to higher levels in order not to be far from the students, be responsible for anything, or become later a principal, especially since the difference between the posts is not obvious.”

On the other hand, all the interviewed principals mention that they have a training unit inside the school that organizes training within it. A principal mentions:

“Part of our QM program is to develop a training unit in the school to define the training needs and achieve self-sufficiency in training by letting the teachers who got training programs train the rest who did not attend these programs. If not then they may invite experts.”

Moreover, the teachers may take training in the factory as another principal adds:

“Now we receive actual training in the factories and the trainees used to even get incentives. These were effective.”

Few principals even mention that the teachers select the courses they would like to take. A principal claims:

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Ph.D. Thesis in Education. Cairo University: Institute of Educational Studies and Research (Original in Arabic), p. 391.

<sup>1</sup> Yehia Mohamed El Sadek Ibrahim (1998). *Training the Newly Hired Teacher: A Comparative Study*. Ph.D. Thesis in Education. Cairo University: Institute of Educational Studies and Research (Original in Arabic), pp. 106-112.

<sup>2</sup> Mustapha Abd El Samee Mohamed& Suheir Mohamed Huwalah (2005), op. cit, p. 270.

“Our teachers take the initiative and ask for training and sometimes teach each other.”

Gawhar (1994) and Khalil (1997) oppose the training programs provided to principals, as they are not sufficient, do not prepare the school leadership to hold new responsibilities, and their goals (whether they are for training or promotion) are not really clear. They are mainly theoretical taking the lecture type without using work shops or problem-solving style.<sup>1</sup> Due to these problems, many school leaders are not able to adapt to the technological changes and the new developments in education.<sup>2</sup>

As for the training courses that the principals receive, a principal mentions:

“Before being hired here as a principal, I received a qualifying training in how to deal with the colleagues and handle problems in the various situations.”

Another principal adds:

“Through the training I already received, I got to know more about my rights.”

Yet, few principals are not positive about the means through which they get training. A principal justifies:

“The training that the principals get is negative and insufficient. Yes, the principals should be trained on management and leadership, but this video-conferencing is not effective.”

Finally, one principal wishes that the inspectors would also receive training. He says:

“Everybody needs training. The principals, the teachers, and the inspectors, too. We need training especially on the new managerial aspects.”

From above, it can be concluded that in Egypt there are compulsory training programs that the vocational teachers have to attend. Usually, these are provided by the local educational units and many interviewed principals consider them as routine and ineffective. In addition, the teachers may voluntarily attend training courses coordinated either by the training unit in the schools or by the enterprises (outside the schools). As for the training provided to the principals, few claim that they are beneficial and have informed them about their rights, even though few complain about the means through which they received this training.

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<sup>1</sup> Nabil Saad Khalil (October 1995), op. cit, p. 114.

<sup>2</sup> Salah El Din Gawhar (1994). “A Futuristic View towards the Role of the Educational Management”. In: *The Pedagogical Symposium*. 10-15 December. Part 13. pp. 1-9 (Original in Arabic), p. 5.

## **2 Administrative decentralization and the role of the school principal**

Even though many interviewed principals declare that they have acquired new authorities, yet all the interviewed principals claim to be hindered. For example, in terms of teacher selection all clearly state that they have no role in it. A principal explains:

“The principal has not any influence or voice in selecting the teachers. They are selected by the governorate. The ministry defines it demands for the human resources and informs the governorate about it.”

This is why many wish to have the ability to select the teachers. A principal comments:

“Yes, it would be better if the principal had the ability to select the teachers.”

Another principal agrees:

“The principal should be notified about the teachers and he should be able to judge their eligibility even if they had the needed qualification.”

In addition, many interviewed principals wish if they could have sanction mechanisms. A principal mentions:

“I wish I could have sanctioning mechanisms. Those who implement the decision should be rewarded and those who do not implement them should be sanctioned.”

Many interviewed principals claim to have no real authority over the incentives they provide to the teachers. A principal maintains:

“The incentives we provide are based on attendance not performance. Therefore, the inefficient teachers know that the principal has no authority over them. But with financial incentives they will be forced to do their duties.”

Therefore, few principals wish to have control over incentives. A principal explains:

“Yes, I wish that I could have incentives and that I would have certain items that I can spend on the teachers as an incentive.”

However, the majority insist on the importance of objectivity. A principal warns:

“The problem lies in the subjectivity.”

On the other hand, the majority warn against the disadvantages of having incentives. A principal demonstrates:

“These incentives would cause only problems if they were granted subjectively and not based upon the real work of the teachers, or if the principal was not dividing work effectively or proved to be weak.”

Concerning evaluation, all interviewed principals claim to be unable to grant a teacher a bad grade or else the teacher will complain and the response will be against them. A principal illustrates:

“If I give a teacher a grade less than what he is used to take, and he complained to the authorities, then they will investigate with me. This kills the principal's self-confidence and his fairness and honesty. What about my opinion? I do not implement what I see right. I implement only what the authorities want from me.”

Hence, many interviewed principals believe that this is the reason why many schools suffer from inefficient teachers. A principal announces:

“Now we face the problem that many are promoted despite being ineffective”

Many interviewed principals perceive external evaluation as taking the form of inspection. Yet, many mention further that through their personality they can come along with the inspectors. A principal claims:

“In the beginning we used to have problems especially when someone new in the authority was hired. After a while, everything was solved. But when we have the right we insist on our position. And when the inspectors find that we are right, they accept it and even adopt our opinion.”

A second principal adds:

“External evaluation should be supportive. But looking for faults depends on the personality of the principal and how he deals with the inspectors.”

Moreover, all the interviewed principals claim to encourage the creation of teams. A principal states:

“The creation of teams depends upon the principal and the teachers. It is better if in the beginning we have a leadership conference and set a vision and goals, so that everything becomes clear and the teachers know what they have to do and create teams to cooperate. Of course, few teachers like to work individually and usually they are the ones to cause problems and are the easiest to make mistakes. But the majority like working in teams.”

When it comes to training, the principals have merely the ability to encourage the teachers to take them. Yet, they cannot order them to get training. Therefore, they are also limited. A principal explains:

“I cannot tell or suggest that a teacher takes certain training. But I can use mechanisms to improve his level. For example we insist in the school leadership conference that we should know what each teacher does and try to show him his weaknesses in a brotherly way.”

Nevertheless, the majority demand the extension of administrative decentralization.

Thus, it can be concluded that when it comes to administrative decentralization, the principals of the vocational schools in Egypt still feel hindered or bounded in many aspects such as selection the teachers, providing incentives or imposing sanctions, providing real evaluation reports and firing the teachers. However, when it comes to teams and training, they only have the authority to

encourage the teachers. While it is the teachers who choose the training programs they need and build teams.



## **Part Four**

### **Discussion**

Administrative decentralization is the transfer of some of the administrative authorities and responsibilities for managing the human resources from the center to the local units and the schools. The schools accordingly either become able to perform certain functions with the assistance of the local educational authorities based on what is called de-concentration, or acquire discretion in performing the functions, according to what is called devolution.

From these functions is teacher selection. In the German vocational schools, the principal has the ability to hire autonomously the temporal teaching staff. In addition, the majority of the interviewed principals claim that the local educational authorities adopt their opinion when it comes to the permanent recruitment of the new teachers, although the local educational authorities are strongly present in the selection committee. Therefore, it can be inducted that temporal hiring of teaching staff is devolved to the principals while permanent recruitment is de-concentrated, since that the local educational authorities may veto his decisions.

Unlike the case in Germany, in Egypt the authority of teacher selection is given by the law to the governor, who in practice delegates it to the educational local authorities (directorates). Thus, the principal has no authority over teacher selection. A matter that makes Germany in terms of teacher selection be in a progressive phase than Egypt.

Regarding principal selection, the vocational schools in Germany are represented in the selection committee. Nevertheless, they do not constitute a majority and thus cannot influence the decision of the committee. While in Egypt, the school is not represented at all. Moreover, the majority of the interviewed principals in both countries refuse that the teachers acquire an influential role in the selection committee and resort this opinion to the aim of ensuring objectivity. They believe that the teachers are not able to judge the qualifications of the principal and assume that a principal from outside the school would bring new ideas and fresh blood to the school. However, few interviewed principals warn that the new principals from outside the school will not be informed about the problems of the schools and will kill chances of promotion for the school teachers. Nevertheless, it seems that the local educational authorities in both countries have an influential role in teacher and principal selection rather than merely an advisory role.

The interviewed principals in both countries mention that they face major difficulties with the inefficient teachers and hesitate before using sanctioning measures - that are difficult to deploy in practice –as they would be asked by the local educational authorities to rethink the matter and justify their decision. Nevertheless, the majority of the interviewed principals in Germany consider motivating the teachers as more important than sanctioning them, while in Egypt the interviewed principals wish to have activated sanctioning measures. This can be resorted to the fact that the principals in Egypt do not play any role in selecting their teachers and have only symbolic incentives. Thus, the resort to sanctioning measures is considered by them as a plausible option when it comes to dealing with inefficient teachers.

Regarding the incentives, the majority of the interviewed principals in Germany refuse to have financial incentives. They are for motivating the teachers in a way that would ensure objectivity and avoid conflict and envy among the colleagues.

In Egypt, the majority of the interviewed principals also refuse to have financial incentives in order to ensure objectivity. Even though the principals in the vocational schools that adopt the dual-system provide financial incentives, the majority perceive these incentives to be ineffective as they are based on the attendance instead of teacher performance. This is set to achieve equality among the teachers and avoid nepotism.

As for evaluation, the vocational schools in both countries are subject to internal and external evaluation. In Germany, the interviewed principals mention that they depend on pupils' feedback, peer review, teams, and the responsible teacher for QM as methods for internal evaluation. And even though some of these methods focus on the inputs such as pupils' feedback and peer review, the other methods such as the teams and the responsible teacher for QM focus on outputs (i.e. the extend to which the intended goals are achieved). Thus, it can be inducted that internal evaluation in the German vocational schools is devolved and applies the competency-based model that focuses on the performance of the teachers next to the outcome model that focuses on what the teachers should be doing instead of what they are doing. However, if the evaluation reports are not discussed in the school as it happens with the pupils' feedback, then evaluation becomes ineffective, as considered by Rolff (2007).

In Egypt, the vocational schools depend merely on the evaluation of the principals and the prime teachers as methods for internal evaluation. These methods are mainly input-oriented and adopt the competency-based model.

However, the teachers pay greater attention to principal's evaluation, even though all of them get the final grades. This questions the effectiveness of this evaluation.

Concerning external evaluation, it can be inducted that the vocational schools in Germany adopt the "management by objectives" model next to the competency-based model, where the schools set annual goals and objectives and the external evaluators visit them to evaluate the progress being done towards achieving these goals and objectives. This justifies why the majority of the interviewed principals perceive external evaluation as advisory, unlike the case in Egypt. In Egypt, external evaluation based on the responses of the interviewed principals still takes the form of inspection focusing on the inputs, adopting thereby merely the competency-based model. This may explain why the majority of the interviewed principals perceive it as a procedure looking for mistakes rather than being advisory. Furthermore, the way the principals in both countries perceive external evaluation may also be related to the kind of relationship they have with the local educational authorities. In the previous chapter, the German principals mention that they perceive this relationship as being on equal basis. Maybe this is why they also perceive external evaluation as advisory, while their Egyptian counterparts perceive their schools as subordinated to the local educational authorities and hence this may justify why they perceive external evaluation as inspection and looking only for mistakes.

Since in Germany the focus is put on inputs and outputs in internal and external evaluation, and the peers, teams and pupils are involved in internal evaluation, thus it can be inducted that Germany in terms of evaluation is in a more progressive phase than Egypt.

Nevertheless, in Egypt the principals play a bigger role in internal evaluation even if they believe that they are hindered through not being able to lower the grades or the evaluation of a teacher.

However, no one of the interviewed principals in both countries mentions the existence of a connection between internal and external evaluation, as advocated by Brackhahn et al. (2004) and Müller (2005).

Moving on to teams, in both countries all the interviewed principals declare having teams. Nevertheless, they also mention that they still have teachers who prefer to work individually. In addition, they all mention that not all teams are affective and emphasize that when teams are built around certain projects, fields or departments, they are more likely to be affective than those teams with vague goals. Following on that, they highlight also the importance of harmony

among the members. However, only few interviewed principals in Egypt mention the factor of their personal intervention as the reason behind the effectiveness of the teams.

As for training, in Germany it is compulsory in Bremen yet voluntary in Lower Saxony. Nevertheless, the vocational schools in Germany are autonomous in organizing their training courses. These are mostly selected by: the teacher himself, in cooperation with the principal, by the teams, or by the responsible teacher for training in the school. In addition, they may also be taken individually or collectively, inside or outside the school, and be offered by (central) educational institutions or private enterprises. Yet, the majority of the interviewed principals complain that the budget dedicated for it is limited.

Nevertheless, it can be concluded that the training approach in Germany is mostly following a bottom-up approach addressing the needs of the teachers rather than being determined merely by the local educational authorities and imposed on all teachers.

In Egypt, training is compulsory for promotion and is mainly planned by the central authorities and provided by the local educational authorities, following thereby a top-down approach. However, the majority of the interviewed principals claim to have a training unit that determines the training needs, organizes the courses, and enables the teachers who got external training to train the rest in the school, following thereby a bottom-cross approach that is across the colleagues. Nevertheless, the majority of the interviewed principals complain that the training courses are routine, taking the form of lectures, and are mainly theoretical.

Regarding the role of the principal, it can be inducted that the majority of them in both countries claim to be hindered. In Germany, even though the principal has the ability to select the temporal teaching staff and has an influential role in teacher selection for permanent recruitment, yet the majority of the interviewed principals feel hindered when having to deal with inefficient teachers. They neither have incentives to motivate them, nor sanctioning mechanisms, except in occasional cases only and are considered by the majority as not the solution.

In Egypt on the other hand, besides not having incentives and sanctioning mechanisms, the principals are a step behind their counterparts in Germany, as they do not have any role in teacher selection. Thus, they have no influential role on the main input affecting the educational process.

As for evaluation, even though in Germany the principals by the law are able to evaluate teacher performance. Yet in practice, this is left to other methods as pupils' feedback, peer review, teams and a responsible teacher for QM in addition to the external evaluators. Moreover, the majority of the interviewed principals in Germany indicate the good relationship that they have with the external evaluators. Thus, it can be concluded that the adopted instructional model of leadership in terms of selection and evaluation is witnessed in its broader view (including all the activities that improve student achievement).

In Egypt, on the other hand, the principal plays the dominant role in internal evaluation and he may pay class visits to document his evaluation and provide advice. Hence, the instructional leadership model in its narrow sense is obvious. Furthermore, many interviewed principals consider external evaluation as taking the form of inspection and few claim that having good relations with the inspectors depends heavily on their personality.

Regarding the teams, the interviewed principals in both countries claim to encourage - if not are obliged to build - teams. The teams work to a great extent in both countries autonomously from the school leadership. None of the interviewed principals in both countries mentions that he seeks to motivate the ineffective teams. In fact, the majority resort the efficiency of teams either to the clear objectives, structure of the teams, or to the harmony among the members. Thus, it can be inducted that a shared instructional leadership model is adopted in both countries with regard to the teams, since the school leadership encourages collegiality, experimentation, and teamwork, as suggested by Coleman & La Rocque (1988) and later by Mitchel & Castle (2005) to improve teaching and learning.

Moreover, the interviewed principals in both countries mention that it is either the teachers or the teams that determine their requirements of training and the needed time for that; whether this training was compulsory or voluntary, individually or collectively taken. Thus, it can be also concluded here that in training a shared instructional leadership is adopted.

Finally, since 1- the German vocational principals share the authority of teachers selection whether with the local educational units (in terms of permanent selection) and the heads of the departments (in terms of temporal selection), 2- motivate in both countries the teachers, 3- play in Egypt a leading role in internal evaluation and share it with the colleagues (through peer review in Germany and the evaluation of prime teachers in Egypt), and 4- encourage team-building and training, it can be inducted that administrative decentralization

leads to the adoption of instructional leadership. Yet, it is more likely to be "shared instructional leadership", as the principals, in addition to taking the necessary measures to improve the educational process, seek the ideas and expertise of the colleagues when it comes to: temporal hiring, evaluation and team-building, and facilitate teacher growth through training in a way that would improve teaching and student achievement.

## **Summary**

Administrative decentralization is the transfer of some of the administrative authorities such as personnel selection, evaluation, training, and compensation to the local levels to improve service delivery. Here, the incremental approach may be adopted. Administrative authorities like permanent teacher selection can be de-concentrated, while the rest such as temporal teacher selection, internal evaluation, training and team building can be devolved.

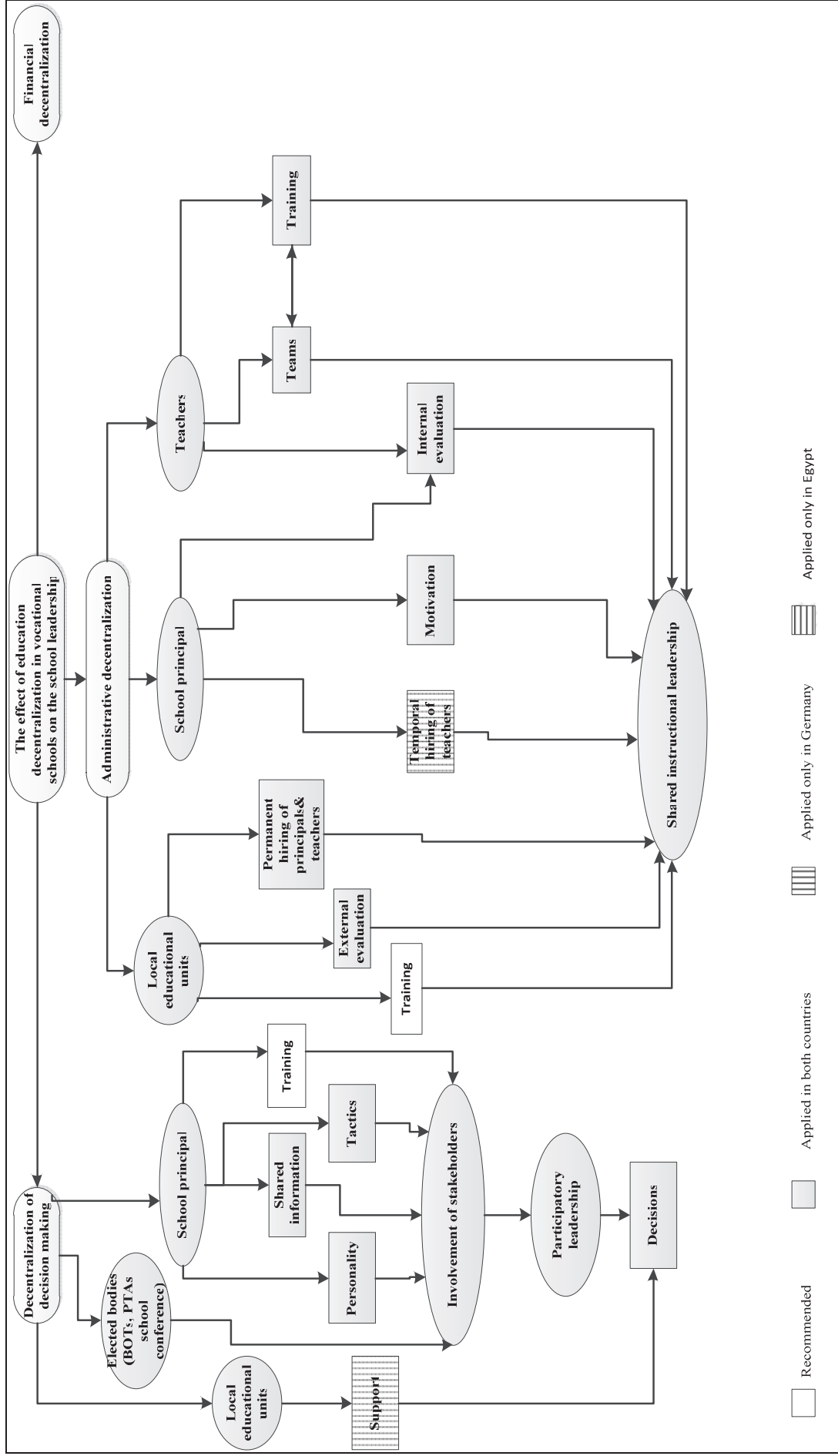
Even though in both countries the schools have the autonomy in: conducting internal evaluation, build teams, and choose the needed training programs, yet, the principals in Germany have the ability to autonomously select the temporal teaching staff, while their counterparts in Egypt miss this authority. In addition, the principals in both countries do not have the ability to hire, reward or penalize, and dismiss the permanent teachers.

Finally, based on the interviews in both countries, the principals confirm that they seek the opinion and ideas of their colleagues in performing their authorities as well as delegate many issues such as internal evaluation and organization of training to the teachers and teams following thereby a shared instructional model of leadership (see model 2).

## **Recommendations**

- Providing the principals in Egypt at least the right to have a voice in teacher selection.
- Activating the sanctioning measures to deter the ineffective teachers.
- Focusing in evaluation, whether internal or external, on the processes and outputs besides the inputs.
- Involving various stakeholders such as parents, pupils ... etc in evaluation, and training them in addition to the evaluators on the recent evaluative methods in an attempt to change the mentality (especially that of the teachers and evaluators) that evaluation equates inspection.

- Discussing the evaluation reports in the schools and reducing the focus on ranking.
- Building the teams around fields, departments and projects as well as ensuring that they are composed of harmonious members.
- Making training be voluntary, focusing on improving interpersonal and managerial skills besides the scientific skills, and taking the form of workshops and problem-solving exercises.



Model 2: Administrative Decentralization and school leadership (including decentralization of decision-making; developed by the author)



## **Chapter Six**

### **The Effect of Financial Decentralization on School Leadership in Germany and Egypt**

For the comprehensive implementation of education decentralization, the local units have to acquire discretion over their financial resources. Financial decentralization is a two-sided term that involves decentralization of expenditure as well as decentralization of revenues.

The principal has to have the capacity to deploy the available resources efficiently as well as look for new ways of fundraising, like donations, sponsoring...etc. This is why this chapter aims at answering the question whether financial decentralization in the vocational schools encourages the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership.

Part one of this chapter discusses the aspects of financial decentralization and entrepreneurial leadership in general.

Part two discusses the effect of financial decentralization in Germany on the school leadership.

Part three discusses the effect of financial decentralization in Egypt on the school leadership.

Part four discusses the findings of the interviews conducted in Germany and Egypt and presents a model for how financial decentralization can be implemented in the vocational schools.

## Part One

### The Effect of Financial Decentralization on School Leadership

In order to be able to test the hypothesis whether financial decentralization leads to the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership, it is important to investigate the impact of financial decentralization as well as of entrepreneurial leadership.

#### 1 Financial decentralization: definition, objectives, advantages and disadvantages

Financial decentralization or sometimes known as “decentralization of financial resources” often indicates that aside from having the schools being able to manage freely their own (public) budget, they are able to use other means such as loans and donations for fundraising.<sup>1</sup> Thus, it involves both expenditure decentralization and revenue decentralization; expenditure decentralization when the schools have their expenditure discretion and revenue decentralization when the schools have the right to collect revenues through taxes or other revenue instruments.<sup>2</sup> Hence, Xiaoli (2007) defines financial decentralization as the devolution of financial power and authority from the center to the local units and has been implemented in federal as well as unitary states.<sup>3</sup>

Governments resort to financial decentralization of education in order to reduce the size of the government and the associated bureaucratic procedures,<sup>4</sup> reduce government spending on education, and to assign the resources based on criteria such as school results and number of students.<sup>5</sup> However, the main goal behind it is to allow the schools to use the available money efficiently and to spend it on the needed items.<sup>6</sup> Accordingly, financial decentralization involves setting the budget, self-managing material and financial resources, managing any new establishments in school buildings, being able to save money for future investments, reducing bureaucratic expenses and procedures when ordering education materials or equipments, and increasing the ordering ability of princi-

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<sup>1</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op.cit, p. 14.

<sup>2</sup> Taryn Rounds Parry (1997). op. cit. p. 212.

<sup>3</sup> Sun Xiaoli (2007), op. cit, p. 41

<sup>4</sup> Silika Prohl & Friedrich Schneider (2009). “Does Decentralization Reduce Government Size? A Quantitative Study of the Decentralization Hypothesis”. In: *Public Finance Review*, Vol. 37, No. 6, pp. 639-664, p. 642.

<sup>5</sup> Sebastian Galiani, Paul Gertler & Ernesto Schargrsky (2008). “School Decentralization: Helping the good get better, but leaving the poor behind”. In: *Journal of Public Economics*. No. 92, pp. 2106-2120, p. 2118.

<sup>6</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 38.

pal.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, in its most developed forms, the schools should be able to set their own budgets and raise funds through different activities.<sup>2</sup>

Although financial decentralization of education may achieve many advantages, such as increased community participation, better resource allocation, and increased total funding of education, it can have also some disadvantages. These can be: inequality among the different regions in their ability to raise funds; reduced public spending on education, since the government would encourage the schools to search for new sources of finance; and reduced rates of enrolment in education, since the parents may feel that they are not able to finance the education of their children.<sup>3</sup>

Hence, financial decentralization should be considered with caution as it entails various implications.

## **2 Related theories and implications of financial decentralization**

From above, it should not be taken for granted that financial decentralization will necessarily save money; rather it will more reduce inefficiencies. And if it was implemented to increase local financing, then financial responsibilities and authorities shall better be transferred to the school level,<sup>4</sup> where the schools will have to ensure that the revenues are covering their expenditure and that they are operating within the limits of their budget.<sup>5</sup> In addition, the state should only intervene to ensure equal allocation of resources among the various schools.<sup>6</sup>

Related to the topic of whether financial decentralization can reduce government expenditure, two main theses are mentioned. The first is the competition thesis based on the contributions of Brennan and Buchanan and the second is the decentralization thesis based on the contributions of Oates. According to the competition thesis, the politicians seek to encourage the expansion of local spending in order to maximize their political income and chance to get re-elected. A matter that may result in increased expenditure. However, proponents

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<sup>1</sup> Peter Daschner et al. (1995), op. cit, p. 129

<sup>2</sup> Matthias Rürup & Martin Heinrich (2007). "Schulen unter Zugzwang: Die Schulautonomiegesetzgebung der deutschen Länder als Rahmen der Schulentwicklung". In: *Educational Governance: Handlungskoordination und Steuerung im Bildungssystem*. Herbert Altricht, Thomas Brüsemeister & Jochen Wissinger (Hrsg.). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 157-184, pp. 174-175.

<sup>3</sup> Herbert J. Walberg et al. (2000), op. cit, p. 158.

<sup>4</sup> Georg E. Becker (2004), op. cit, p. 158.

<sup>5</sup> Peter Daschner et al. (1995), op. cit, p. 131.

<sup>6</sup> Wolfgang Schönig (2000), op. cit, p. 215.

believe that if financial decentralization was associated with a democratic system, where the local voters are able to hold the politician accountable and have sanction mechanisms not just through their votes in the elections but also through their personal contacts, then the people will be willing to pay more taxes (i.e. more revenues for the local units) in order to get the public goods with the right mixture of prices. Moreover, this popular supervision is most likely to reduce any corruption that may occur.<sup>1</sup>

The decentralization thesis on the other hand stresses on the relationship between the policy makers and the electorate. Accordingly, it is claimed that providing public goods at the local level is better than providing it at the national level, since the local levels will respond better to the demands of the voters and reduce the discrepancies between the demands of the voters and the actual outcomes leading thereby to reduced inefficiencies. However, Busemeyer (2007) opposes this claim and believes that financial decentralization may lose the benefits of the economies of scale and increase the administrative costs, especially in the developing countries.

Thus, there is a main debate about the amount of spending that should be permitted if financial decentralization is to be achieved. At the national level, it is believed that financial decentralization may increase social trust and competition that may result in reduced general spending. However, if decentralization of expenditure was not accompanied with decentralization of revenues, the total impact is going to lead to increased expenditure and dependency on governmental grants and revenue sharing. Therefore, many studies warn that financial decentralization may lead to increased expenditure if the various revenues were not decentralized, too.<sup>2</sup>

Generally, if financial decentralization implies that the schools are able to autonomously manage their own budget and raise additional sources of fundraising, then the schools should be allowed to freely negotiate their budget with the local educational authorities,<sup>3</sup> flexibly determine their needed resources and make their own savings for future investments (i.e. setting their own budget<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Marius R. Busemeyer (2007). "The Impact of Fiscal Decentralization on Education and Other Types of Spending". In: *MPIfG Discussion Paper 07/8*, pp. 5-28, p. 6/ p. 15.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, pp.6-8.

<sup>3</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher& Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 50.

<sup>4</sup> Williams C. Thomas& Herman E. Hilleboe (September 1968). "Administrative Centralization versus Decentralization and the Role of Generalists and Specialists". In: *Public Health National Health*. Vol. 58, No. 9, pp. 1620-1632. p. 1630.

without punishing any savings,<sup>1</sup>), be able to purchase materials and equipments,<sup>2</sup> and have discretion over investment, maintenance and repair.<sup>3</sup> Based on that, the schools will be forced to determine their objectives, revenues and expenditure. They will be able to set their budget for either the entire organization or for each sub-unit and for the period that they find it suitable for a long-term (5 years for example) or annually or every six months or quarterly or monthly.<sup>4</sup> Thereafter, the budget will be evaluated by the local educational authorities, where the principal shall be held responsible for the entire school budget.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, it is preferable to involve all the stakeholders in the budget implementation to encourage them all to save money.<sup>6</sup>

Since financial decentralization may lead to mixed results,<sup>7</sup> in many countries an incremental approach to implement financial decentralization is advocated. For instance, the government may begin with transferring financial resources to local educational authorities and allow the schools to acquire educational materials, equipment, and services according to their needs. The second step may involve the local community financing school projects. Finally, in the last step the schools may be allowed to plan their own projects and finance them depending on their own revenues.<sup>8</sup> However, throughout these phases the schools are encouraged to look for diverse revenues.

### **3 Diverse revenues available to the vocational schools**

In financial decentralization schools may resort to diverse funding structures besides the public funds to finance their own projects and programs.<sup>9</sup> These might be:

#### **Charging school fees**

Wahlberg et al. (2002) suggest the schools to keep a proportion of the school fees that usually go to the center rather than charging new or additional

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<sup>1</sup> Peter Daschner et al. (1995), op. cit, p. 131.

<sup>2</sup> Wolfgang Böttcher & Frank Meetz (2007). „Fundraising und Sponsoring an deutschen Schulen- Konzepte, Begriffe, Praxis und Probleme“. In: *Grundwissen Schulleitung: Handbuch für das Schulmanagement*. Raimund Pfundtner (Hrsg.). Köln: LinkLuchterhand, Wolters Kluwer Deutschland GmbH, pp. 309-320, p. 310.

<sup>3</sup> Beatriz Pont, Deborah Nusche, & Hunter Moorman (2008), op. cit, p. 53

<sup>4</sup> Norbert Maritzen (1998), op. cit, pp. 216-218.

<sup>5</sup> Hans-Günter Rolff (2005), op. cit, p. 17.

<sup>6</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 54.

<sup>7</sup> Helmut Fend (2008), op. cit, p. 193

<sup>8</sup> Helga Cuellar-Marchelli (2003), op. cit, p. 151.

<sup>9</sup> Sun Xiaoli (2007), op. cit, p. 43.

fees in order to avoid increased expenses placed on the shoulders of the parents and thereby increased rates of drop-outs. Furthermore, they consider vouchers as a possible alternative, if were given directly to the pupils or their families to pay for school fees, food, textbooks, and health care.<sup>1</sup>

### **Sponsoring**

Bellenberg et al. (2001) demonstrate how sponsors such as parents, experts, aid organizations, unions, political parties, industries, officials and businesspersons can support the schools with resources, whether financial or material, as a way to show their social responsibility towards the community. However, they warn against the dependency of schools on these sponsors and stress that sponsoring should not be used to finance essential demands or else, the school might become subject to the problem of discontinued resources. Therefore, they advocate the careful selection of sponsors and consider sponsoring as a process that requires time, effort and personnel.<sup>2</sup>

Sponsoring generally involves a written contract in which the sponsor determines his expectation in return for the money that he is giving to the school,<sup>3</sup> (although sponsoring is to be conceived as merely a part of the sponsor's social responsibility towards his community) and where the school guarantees the acquisition of the needed resources.<sup>4</sup>

Even though sponsoring may help the schools to integrate better in the local community, yet school sponsoring is still not widely applied.<sup>5</sup>

### **Donations**

Here donors grant money to the schools in exchange for nothing but an appreciation. The name of the donor may even be kept secret. This is why donations differ from sponsoring as the latter aims at marketing. Donations, on the other hand, are given to the schools without having any expectation, interest, or demand in return,<sup>6</sup> even if the donors may have their own unpublicized hidden goals.<sup>7</sup>

### **Advertisement**

Here the schools may advertise for the products of certain companies in their school-magazines or newspapers or through advertisement stands. How-

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<sup>1</sup> Herbert J. Walberg & et al. (2000), op. cit, p. 160.

<sup>2</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, pp. 62-63.

<sup>3</sup> Wolfgang Böttcher & Frank Meetz (2007) op. cit, p. 310.

<sup>4</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 88.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid, pp. 61-62.

<sup>6</sup> Wolfgang Böttcher & Frank Meetz (2007) op. cit, p. 311.

<sup>7</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 63.

ever, many still resent the idea of advertisement and believe that schools should not become commercialized and be a front for advertisements, especially when the main target group is the students. Yet, Bellenberg et al. (2001) believe that if these advertisements and their companies were carefully selected, then no problems may ensue. In fact, Berlin allowed this procedure in 1997. However, it forbids any advertisements for cigarettes, alcohol, and political parties.<sup>1</sup>

On the other hand, some opinions have raised doubts and warn that advertisement in schools may influence the mainstream.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, Bellenberg et al. (2001) propose that the schools adopt the following procedures when they resort to advertisement or sponsoring:

- *Sponsor selection*: where the school would have to look for the proper sponsor who can promote its goals and contribute with financial or material resources. The school has to determine whether the sponsor will support it because he really believes in the causes or because he just wants to achieve some self-interests. If the latter is the case, the school should consider whether the intentions are proper and appropriate with regard to the school image and interests or not. Finally, the school has to determine the means by which it will acknowledge the contributions of the sponsor.

- *Contract conclusion*: an oral or (preferably) a written contract between both the school and the sponsor is to be concluded. In that contract it shall be clearly stated how the sponsor will serve the school and how the school will promote the interests of the sponsor. Hence, this contract has to be cautiously studied and signed.<sup>3</sup>

In this matter, sponsoring differs from advertisement, as the sponsor is not advertising about himself; rather is either supporting the school initiatives or trying to influence its behaviour in a certain way.<sup>4</sup>

However, teachers, parents and school leadership usually favour sponsoring over advertisements.<sup>5</sup>

### **Additional sources of fundraising**

Daschner et al. (1995) suggest various additional resources to support the school such as multi-usage of school buildings, cooperation with local commu-

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<sup>1</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001) op. cit, p. 64.

<sup>2</sup> Wolfgang Böttcher & Frank Meetz (2007), op. cit, p. 311.

<sup>3</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001) op. cit, pp. 80- 82.

<sup>4</sup> Wolfgang Böttcher & Frank Meetz (2007), op. cit, p. 311.

<sup>5</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001) op. cit, p.76.

nity members, taking part in the local cultural and social events, and opening the school for the local population.<sup>1</sup>

The community may contribute to education with activities, such as: supplying food and nutrition and organizing rallies and ceremonies to raise fund.<sup>2</sup>

Bellenberg et al. (2001) explain how many voices whether scholars or teacher unions oppose the dependency on these additional resources, the disparities that might arise among the different schools, and the materialistic view the schools may adopt at the expense of education quality.<sup>3</sup>

Moreover, Bellenberg et al. (2001) mention other negative aspects that may result from the dependency on additional resources, such as the fear that the public budget allocated to the schools will be cut for the schools that are successful in fundraising, or the danger that the additional funds may be cut in an unforeseen way. Therefore, they recommend that the contracts should clearly state the duration of the fund-flow and the means for ending the contract between both sides.

In addition, guarantees for preserving the neutral and tolerant nature of the school should be granted. Therefore, Bellenberg et al. (2001) suggest the establishment of an institution that would organize the acceptance and dissemination of the additional funds on different schools in a way that would not affect their autonomy and neutrality. Furthermore, this institution might help the various schools to equally approach the local community.<sup>4</sup>

### **Transfers from the central government**

Even if financial decentralization is implemented, the schools will still receive transfers from the centre. These transfers may take the form of 1- block grants where the school boards freely decide how to spend this money on the various priorities,<sup>5</sup> or may take the form of 2- a lump sum based on a formula that takes into account the number and type of students and the schools assess how to spend this lump sum on personnel, equipment, maintenance and supplies. Furthermore, surplus funds may be transferred to the following years or to certain programs that need more funds. While the local educational authorities, on the other hand, become responsible for purchasing and warehousing supplies

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<sup>1</sup> Peter Daschner et. al. (1995), op. cit, p. 124.

<sup>2</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit, pp. 11-12.

<sup>3</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher& Klaus Klemm (2001) op. cit, pp. 70-84.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid, pp. 75-86.

<sup>5</sup> Helga Cuellar-Marchelli (2003), op. cit, p. 153.



and equipments that the schools require,<sup>1</sup> to avoid waste of expenditure and achieve efficiency and effectiveness.<sup>2</sup>

Caldwell (2008) mentions that in most of the countries financial resources are allocated based on three main criteria, which are:

- *Per-capita criterion*: where weights are given to the different stages of schooling with respect to the class size and the pupil-teacher ratio. This is the most classical approach, where the class becomes the focal point.

- *Needs-based criterion*: where allocation is based on the school location, size and specialization while taking into account the economies of scale. Here the school is the focal point,

- *Socio-economic criterion*: which focuses on the socio-economic status of the families or communities of the pupils and the degree of special education needed.<sup>3</sup> The social environment becomes here the focal point.

However, Seitz & Capaul (2005) mention that in the system of NPM, financial resources are not allocated based upon the previous years rather upon the planned goals and objectives of the coming year. Hence, the schools are obliged to define the goals and objectives and the needed resources. Later they become autonomous in using the available resources therefore.<sup>4</sup>

It is worth mentioning that in most - if not all - countries, school leadership has no control over teacher salaries.<sup>5</sup> Accordingly, the salaries are usually based on salary schedules depending on the teachers' experience and educational credentials. Merit pay in return is widely refused by teacher unions in order to avoid variations.<sup>6</sup>

However, financial decentralization may lead to increased inequality either among the regions or among the schools. This is why governmental transfers and centrally controlled salaries and wages are highly advocated as a way to attract good qualifications.<sup>7</sup>

Xiaoli (2007) advocates that local units control the incentives and co-finance the daily operation especially in countries with history of centralization.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Kathleen Kubick (1988), op. cit.

<sup>2</sup> Judith D. Chapman & Jeffrey F. Dunstan (1990), op. cit, p. 184.

<sup>3</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2008), op. cit, p. 248.

<sup>4</sup> Hans Seitz & Roman Capaul (2005), op. cit, p. 459.

<sup>5</sup> Beatriz Pont, Deborah Nusche, & Hunter Moorman (2008), op. cit, p. 54.

<sup>6</sup> Dale Ballou & Michael Podursky (1998), op. cit, p. 410.

<sup>7</sup> Mark Bray (1991). "Centralization versus Decentralization in Educational Administration: Regional Issues". In: *Educational Policy*, Vol. 5, No. 4, December, pp. 371-385, p. 376-380.

<sup>8</sup> Sun Xiaoli (2007), op. cit, p. 52.

Caldwell (2005) on the other hand claims that many countries that reached progressive phases in financial decentralization succeeded in devolving 90% of the financial responsibilities to the schools, as it is believed that they are the best to meet their needs,<sup>1</sup> and that no real transfer of authority and responsibility can occur without financial decentralization.

The schools need to control revenues in order to be able to perform their responsibilities and functions effectively and independently. Otherwise, the central government will keep on providing financial assistance, and the schools will be dependent on them. This problem is facing various developing countries.<sup>2</sup> Moreover, community support is advocated. However, this support may come at a price. Community members expect a participation in the decision-making process.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, effective financial decentralization requires empowered school leadership, who are able to raise funds through mobilizing the local community.

#### **4 Financial decentralization and the role of the school principal**

To achieve financial decentralization effectively major changes shall be made in the role of the principal.<sup>4</sup> Dubs (1994) maintains that the principal has to have a clear vision and mission about the school and has to set priorities for allocating resources in order to achieve them. Discussions and bargaining with all school stakeholders become essential in order to gain the needed support.<sup>5</sup> Yet, this requires patience and the ability to convince the others.<sup>6</sup>

Moreover, the study of the OECD in 2001 on the new school management approaches emphasizes that more discretion should be granted to the principal to manage and set the budget.<sup>7</sup> Yet, this further necessitates that the principal be: a)

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<sup>1</sup> Brian J. Caldwell (2005), op. cit, p. 16.

<sup>2</sup> Love Edquist (2005), op. cit. pp. 11-12.

<sup>3</sup> David W. Chapman (April 2000), op. cit, p. 297.

<sup>4</sup> Kathryn S. Whitaker (2002). "Principal role changes and influence on principal recruitment and selection". In: *Journal of Educational Administration* Vol. 41 No. 1, pp. 37-54, p. 49.

<sup>5</sup> Rolf Dubs (2005). „Der Schulleiter in der selbstständigen Schule: Die neue Rolle des Schulleiters hängt von der Ausgestaltung der selbstständigen Schule ab“. In: *Schule auf dem Weg zur Selbstständigkeit*. Herbert Buchen, Leonhard Horster&Hans-Günter Rolff (Hrsg.). Stuttgart: RAABE Fachverlag für Bildungsmanagement, pp.23-42, p. 33.

<sup>6</sup> Susan C. Hines& Lloyd E. Mc Cleary (1980). "The Role of the Principal in Community Involvement". In: *NASSP Bulletin*, pp. 67-77, p.70.

<sup>7</sup> OECD (2001), op. cit, p. 39.

aware of the financial makeup of his school,<sup>1</sup> b) able to use the money wisely and demonstrate pay-off, c) can operate in a transparent way, and d) knows how to bargain.<sup>2</sup> All this puts further responsibilities on the principals even though they may have not received the needed training.<sup>3</sup>

On the other hand, Peters (2005) claims that entrepreneurial leadership seeks to: respond to customer needs, motivate employees, open up new relations with the external world, modernize old processes, secure old sources of finance and open new ones, and meet insecurity by risk-taking.<sup>4</sup>

Thus, it can be concluded that since financial decentralization requires a principal who has a mission and a vision, sets priorities for resource allocation, looks for innovative ways to raise funds, initiates contact with the local community and bargains with stakeholders, then entrepreneurial leadership is required. According to Pechlaner & Hammann (2007) this entrepreneurial leader should also possess personal characteristics such as creativity, self-control, tolerating uncertainty, leading initiatives, taking risks, and assuming responsibility.<sup>5</sup>

Yet, although entrepreneurial leadership may require autonomy to be able to take initiatives, yet, this does not mean that it will not be subject to accountability.

## **5 Financial decentralization and accountability**

Devolving financial authorities and responsibilities to the vocational schools has to be accompanied with accountability.<sup>6</sup> It is essential that the schools be held accountable to the centre and the local educational authorities for their expenditure.<sup>7</sup> They have to prove that they spend their determined budget according to the pre-set rules and regulations.<sup>8</sup> Moreover, an auditing should be also conducted not only on expenditure but also on revenues or received finances to allow transparency<sup>9</sup>.

Furthermore, the school leadership should be also held accountable to the parents and the school council,<sup>10</sup> where the latter would compare the reports on

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<sup>1</sup> Abdul Sahid (2004), op. cit, p. 149.

<sup>2</sup> David W. Chapman (April 2000), op. cit, p. 298.

<sup>3</sup> Judith D. Chapman & Jeffrey F. Dunstan (1990), op. cit, p. 184.

<sup>4</sup> Mike Peters (2005), op. cit, p. 577.

<sup>5</sup> Harald Pechlaner & Eva-Maria Hammann (2007), op. cit, p. 100.

<sup>6</sup> Rupert Vierlinger (1993), op. cit, p. 74.

<sup>7</sup> Hans Seitz & Roman Capaul (2007), op. cit, p. 88.

<sup>8</sup> Armin Lohmann & Dorothea Minderop (2008), op. cit, p. 241.

<sup>9</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 88.

<sup>10</sup> Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (2001), op. cit, p. 50.

school performance and expenditure with the school profile that presents the intended goals and objectives of the school.<sup>1</sup>

Various countries have been trying to hold the schools accountable while granting them more discretion.<sup>2</sup> Yet, this paradox made the schools face a tension between the need to be autonomous and the need to be held accountable. It further made some teachers resent the autonomy that is promised and complain that the attached accountability has constrained their work intensively.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), *op. cit*, p. 42.

<sup>2</sup> Armin Lohmann & Dorothea Minderop (2008), *op. cit*, p. 239.

<sup>3</sup> Martin Heinrich (2007), *op. cit*, p. 63.

## Part Two

### The Effect of Financial Decentralization in Germany on School Leadership

#### 1 Education financing in Germany

School education in Germany is free. Public spending on education constitutes nearly 10-15% of the total federal budget and 28% of the states' (*Länder*) budget.<sup>1</sup> The federal government pays around 6.5% of the total amount spent on education, while the *Länder* pay around 74.3% and the local units pay around 19.2%.<sup>2</sup> However, the amount spent differs from one school-type to the other. Hence, in primary education, Germany pays less than the average in the OECD states, the same applies for the preparatory phase (secondary phase I or Sekundarstufe I), but above most of the other countries in high school level (secondary phase II or Sekundarstufe II).<sup>3</sup>

The *Länder* finance the salaries of the teaching staff, while the local units finance school buildings, teaching materials, rents and further expenses, as well as the salaries of the non-teaching staff such as the cleaning staff, the social workers and secretaries.<sup>4</sup> Yet, the *Länder* may pay for the temporary teaching or non-teaching staff that the schools temporarily hire to meet a sudden drop in the teaching staff or school activities,<sup>5</sup> a matter that empowers the school and enables it to hire the needed staff.<sup>6</sup> It is worth noting that expenditure on students forms about 40%-60% of the school's total income.<sup>7</sup>

From above, the schools in Germany depend heavily on public funds<sup>8</sup> and resource allocation follows a top-down approach and is input oriented, as the local units assign the teaching and learning materials to the different schools based on certain (input) criteria such as the number of students enrolled and their needs.<sup>9</sup>

Before, in case of excess of material supply over demand, the budget was cut in the following year by the same amount of this excess in order to force the

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<sup>1</sup> Ludger Wössmann (2007), op. cit, pp.63-65.

<sup>2</sup> Helena Munin (2001), op. cit, p. 95.

<sup>3</sup> Sigrid Blömeke, Bardo Herzig & Gerhard Tulodziecki (2007), op. cit, p. 114.

<sup>4</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 13.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid, p. 120.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid, p. 160.

<sup>7</sup> Ibid, p. 67.

<sup>8</sup> Sabine Kuhlmann (2004), op. cit, pp. 5.

<sup>9</sup> Olga Zlatkin-Troitschanskaia (2006), op. cit, p. 58.

schools to rationalize their demands.<sup>1</sup> However, this has changed. Currently, the schools have the flexibility of spending their budget according to their own needs, i.e. they can move money from one item to the other and can save money for future investments.<sup>2</sup> If the money did not suffice, the Länder may transfer some of the additional funds.<sup>3</sup>

On the other hand, the teacher salaries are controlled centrally by the ranks and financial degrees, even if they differed based on the school type.<sup>4</sup> Although few voices demanded that the salaries become performance-based or merit-based, yet most of the teacher unions - like in most other countries - refused this to ensure objectivity.<sup>5</sup> Therefore, the personnel budget is still centrally controlled by the Länder, despite the major recent trend towards granting the schools their autonomy in personnel management, especially when it comes to hiring the needed staff temporarily (as discussed in the previous chapter).

Many Länder in Germany started divergent initiatives towards achieving financial decentralization. In 1995 the Land of Bremen was the pilot Land to adopt financial decentralization (budgeting) in schools. Accordingly, changes in the procedures of setting the budget were introduced, more flexibility was sought, and finance was related to performance. Based on that, the budget became focused on the goals and outputs.<sup>6</sup>

In the Land of Hesse (especially Frankfurt) many public school acquired discretion in expenditure on school buildings, furniture and facilities, school hygiene, and management requirements.<sup>7</sup> In North-Rhein Westphalia the education commission allowed the resort to additional funds. The same applies in Lower Saxony, where sponsoring and advertisements are allowed.<sup>8</sup>

## **2 Facets of financial decentralization in Germany**

When conducting the interviews with the vocational principals in Bremen and Lower Saxony, all the interviewees stress that their Länder adopted financial decentralization. One facet of this financial decentralization that they have mentioned is what they call budgeting (Bugetierung). A principal demonstrates:

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<sup>1</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, pp. 15-16

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, p. 42.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, p. 17.

<sup>4</sup> Sigrid Blömeke, Bardo Herzig & Gerhard Tulodziecki (2007), op. cit, p. 115.

<sup>5</sup> Claus G. Bühren & Hans-Günter Rolff (2007), op. cit, p. 40.

<sup>6</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, pp. 55-57.

<sup>7</sup> Peter Daschner et. al. (1995), op. cit, pp. 130-131.

<sup>8</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 66.

“There is an annual statistic about the number of students, type of school and the requested teaching hours. These are converted into teaching positions that in turn are translated into money. Accordingly, all schools receive their personnel budget and in the case of deficit we can hire the needed staff.”

However, an expert mentions that this money is not automatically given to all schools; rather, to only those schools that need to hire teaching staff temporarily. He illustrates:

“The schools receive only this money when they lack the necessary teaching staff and have no other choice than to resort to the free market. The schools in this case shall propose their demands that might be accepted or not based on certain criteria.”

A second facet of financial decentralization that the principals mention is the budget for learning and teaching materials. A principal explains:

“We receive in addition - based on the number of students - money for learning and teaching materials.”

The school is autonomous in spending this money. A principal adds:

“The principal is allowed to spend this money freely. Usually I – (as the principal) – discuss the demands of the various departments with the heads of departments and accordingly we determine how to divide this money.”

The law permits mutual coverage and transferability; i.e. the schools can transfer the money to other years or projects and move money from one budget to the other and vice versa. A principal summarizes:

“We are a budgeted school. We can autonomously determine how we can use our money and on which item.... We can appoint through the personnel budget the needed teaching staff, and if we do not find the qualified staff we may not even appoint anyone and use the money for other projects. We have the choice.”

Even though the schools have this autonomy, yet there are certain rules that guide their spending. A principal illustrates:

“We never exceeded our assigned budget. We abide by the rules.”

These rules aim at guiding school expenditure in order to avoid waste of money. Therefore, a principal adds:

“The authorities should trust that if we get more money than our needs we will say we do not need anymore.”

Nevertheless, in most cases the principals confirmed that the money is not sufficient. A principal states:

“We get nearly only 82% of the money that we really need. This means that we have to raise the rest 18% on our own using various means. ...This forces us in turn to hire the teaching staff for short periods, temporarily, and mostly

with poor qualifications since we cannot afford to pay the qualified. Budgeting serves in the first line as saving measures.”

Thus, many principals consider financial decentralization as a saving measure and an incentive to look for alternative resources.

It can be concluded that the schools receive certain amounts of money, based on the number of students and the type of school, for personnel and for learning and teaching materials. The schools have then the autonomy to use the money in the way they see best, based on the principle of mutual coverage and transferability, provided that they follow the rules and regulations to avoid any waste of money. Yet since, the money may not suffice, the German schools (including the vocational schools) are encouraged to raise funds up till 50% of their annual budget.<sup>1</sup>

### **3 Diverse revenues available to the German vocational schools**

From the interviews, it can be concluded that the schools resort to the following resources:

#### **Sponsoring**

As already mentioned, in the Land of Lower Saxony sponsoring is allowed,<sup>2</sup> and many complex rules were omitted to encourage and facilitate it, especially when it comes to ordering or purchasing educational materials. A handbook has been disseminated to the schools to show them sources and places from where they can buy their necessities at special prices. However, this handbook is just guidance and the schools are free to make their purchases from wherever they want.<sup>3</sup>

Sponsoring is also allowed in other Länder like in Bremen. A principal mentions:

“We have contacts to unions and they support us. However, financial support rarely takes place.”

Sponsors can be - among other actors - banks, firms, special funds and insurance companies.<sup>4</sup> Thus, the schools have to sell themselves and do their best to attract sponsors. A principal mentions:

“We organize annually a meeting (Abendtreffen) with hairdressers to exchange information and establish contacts with them.... However, these meet-

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<sup>1</sup> Peter Daschner et al. (1995), op. cit, p. 133.

<sup>2</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 66.

<sup>3</sup> Peter Daschner et al. (1995), op. cit, p. 132.

<sup>4</sup> Gabriele Bellenberg, Wolfgang Böttcher & Klaus Klemm (2001), op. cit, p. 31.



ings in other departments are not the norm because we mostly have contacts with small enterprises that have their own problems, too.”

All the principals mention the rareness of sponsoring. A principal comments:

“Although the laws allow sponsoring, yet this is not completely developed in our society and does not fit to our social democratic free market that we have.”

Furthermore, sponsoring is not always considered as a positive source of finance. Some of the principals consider it as a kind of begging. A principal states:

“Our activities cost us a lot of money. Therefore, we resort to the firms and beg for the money. Sometimes they sponsor us or find for us other sponsors.”

Hence from above, it can be concluded that even though the education laws in Bremen and Lower Saxony allow the resort to sponsoring, yet this is not widely used either due to the inability of the schools to sell themselves or to the suspicion with which sponsoring may be considered as a form of begging.

### **Donations**

Klemm (2005) claims that even though the parents used to contribute to schoolbooks and transportation, yet this has declined throughout the whole country, and the poor families became obliged to pay the same contributions like the rich.<sup>1</sup> Currently most of the donations emanate either from the enterprises with which the vocational schools have contact, or from the local government. A principal commented:

“We have good contacts with the enterprises and they support us. However, the biggest donations come from the local government.”

Another principal demonstrates:

“Most of the donations come from the biggest enterprises, whilst this has not been realized with the smaller ones.”

A third principal adds:

“Once an enterprise paid us money for acquiring PCs and software. This happened only because we had a special group that had to work with special programs. The enterprise agreed and paid the money. But this happened only once and was an exception.”

A fourth principal comments:

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<sup>1</sup> Klaus Klemm(2005). „Dezentralisierung und Privatisierung im Bildungswesen“. In: *Schulentwicklung und Schulwirksamkeit: Systemsteuerung, Bildungschancen und Entwicklung der Schulen*. Heinz Günter Holtappels& Katrin Höhmann (Hrsg.). Wienheim und München: Juventa Verlag, pp. 111-120, p. 117.

“We could have achieved more if we had more time to contact the enterprises and expressed our demands to them. Yet, the problem is that we do not have enough time.”

From above, it can be concluded that many schools use the possibility of accepting donations as additional sources of finance. Most of the donations take the form of material donations and come from the large enterprises that have the capabilities to make such donations and have the interest to train the students on their machines.

### **Advertisement**

In Berlin, advertisements are allowed as long as they do not touch the high interests of the Land and the morals of the people.<sup>1</sup> In Bremen and Lower Saxony, however, advertisements are not widely used even though the education laws allow them. A principal mentions:

“Advertisement takes the form of granting machines to the school.”

Few principals on the other hand refuse the resort to advertisements since they may in their opinion affect the neutral nature of their school. A principal claims:

“We resort to advertisements only with relevance to our projects. Yet we do not widely advocate them as they may affect our neutrality. Also, advertisement requires time and effort and would distract us from our main tasks.”

Another principal mentions:

“Advertisement is difficult since we cannot dedicate ourselves to a single advertiser. Instead we have to keep our neutrality.”

A third principal explains:

“Only if the enterprise announced that it would only support the school through these additional resources while confirming that it will not intervene in the school or affect its neutrality, then I might consider this as a convenient measure.”

Thus, it can be concluded that the majority do not resort to advertisement at the hope of not turning their neutral nature into a commercial one.

### **Additional sources of fundraising**

Many schools receive or look for additional sources of finance. Currently, there are thoughts about disseminating vouchers to families to finance the education of their children. Others participate in school autonomy projects to receive additional funds.<sup>2</sup> A principal mentions:

“We receive money from Brussels when we participate in new educational projects.”

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<sup>1</sup> Peter Daschner et al. (1995), op. cit, p. 129,

<sup>2</sup> Helena Munin (2001), op. cit, p. 96.

Saving is another option. The vocational schools in Germany are allowed to save money to finance needed investments. Yet, most of the interviewees declare that they do not resort to saving, either because the money they get is not enough to allow them to save, or because they fear or cannot guarantee that the authorities would not cut their budget in the following year. This is why the majority of them use phrases like: we do not have any guarantees, we are not sure, we fear that our budget will be reduced...etc.

A principal explains:

“We are afraid to save, because if the schools did it then the authorities would claim that we can manage with far less money and reduce therefore our budget. In addition we do not receive much. And if we saved the authorities will cut 10% of our savings.”

A second principal mentions:

“We do not trust what may happen in the future since our past experience showed us that we may have cuts. ...We cannot trust anything since it is the politicians who hold the key for how much we shall get.”

A third principal adds:

“We do not save or invest because it is the local educational authorities that finance our need of new machines and equipments.”

Only one principal mentioned that he is not afraid of having any future cuts. He states:

“No, we are not afraid, since we discuss our objective& performance goals with the authorities and based on them we get the money.”

Finally, it is worth mentioning that a principal refuses to resort to any additional resources of fundraising in his schools and depends only on the public money that his school receives, claiming that all the money or donations have to be first submitted to the local educational authorities. After deducting their share the school receives the rest. This is a matter that he refuses and considers as time- and effort consuming without being encouraging and may even make the school dependent.

From above, it can be concluded that the German vocational schools benefit from the European models that are applied in them and have the ability to save. Nevertheless, saving is not widely used because either the money that the schools receive barely suffices their needs or they cannot trust that in the following year their budget will not be cut.

Nevertheless, it can be further inducted that it is important to realize that the German vocational principals play an essential role in fundraising.

#### **4 Financial decentralization and role of the school principal**

The principal is the main actor who is responsible for the school. In financial decentralization, he even becomes the main actor who may encourage or discourage fundraising. Most of the interviewees express their attempts to take the initiative and look for new sources of finance. A principal explains:

“I always try to convince the enterprises that it would be in their interest if the students were trained on their machines. And according to this strategy I managed to get either reduction on the prices of these machines and the materials or the enterprises donated to the schools machines that they were no longer needed.”

Other principals mention that they cooperate with the teachers to look for additional resources. A principal mentions:

“When we need to make something new and are therefore in need of money. Usually I sit with the teachers and start to discuss the possibilities with which we can get the money.”

Few interviewees mention that they depend on their department heads in fundraising. A principal adds:

“When the departments get their budgets then it is left to them how to deal with this money or how to look for additional resources.”

However, experts believe that no high expectations should be put on the principals since there are mainly teachers and not managers and did not get the necessary training. An expert comments:

“The principals are teachers and not trained on fundraising. In fact, the essence of the school is learning.”

Therefore, the majority of them wish more flexibility in spending the money they receive in order to reduce the need for fundraising. A principal wishes:

“We hope that – given the huge efforts that we make – the biggest acquisitions be controlled centrally and that they would not be under our own responsibility. In principle we are for financial decentralization.”

Another principal further declares:

“We refuse this separation between the budget of personnel and the budget of learn and teaching methods. It would be much better if they were merged to give us more flexibility.”

Finally, a third principal suggests:

“The school budgets need not to be confined to a year. This makes us have certainty for just that year. But if the financial plans were expandable then we would be able to plan for investments without fearing future cuts.”

Hence, the principals demand more autonomy and flexibility in how to utilize the available resources.

From above, it can be concluded that the German principals in the vocational schools play an influential role in fundraising. They either take solely the initiative to contact the sponsors or donors to raise funds or depend on the effort of the department heads or the teachers. In all cases, their belief-system and approach towards fundraising affects the school's ability to raise funds. They either encourage or reject fundraising.

Furthermore, the majority complain that the school takes the initiative to approach the local community, while the latter confines itself to the reactive role. This makes few principals even consider the resort to sponsoring as a sort of begging or as a waste of time and effort without having encouraging returns. This constitutes a negative view and may deprive the schools from the resort to possible potentials of fundraising.

Anyway, financial decentralization does not only entail autonomy but also accountability.

## **5 Financial decentralization and accountability**

The German vocational schools have to admit an annual report about their revenues and expenditure and have to prove that they have used their budget in the right way.<sup>1</sup> Nevertheless, this accountability is mostly input-oriented. A principal acknowledges:

“On one hand the authorities want to implement financial decentralization and on the other they deploy in a centralized way control measures that we have to obey. In addition, we have the cost- performance ratio that controls our performance. And if a course of study was too expensive, then it gets abolished.”

Furthermore, no questionability exists for the effective and efficient deployment of the available material and human resources.<sup>2</sup> In addition, the schools are considered as monolithic entities. Thus, no clear accountability is imposed on the individual teachers for their actions and hence, no sanctions are imposed on them if they misused these resources.<sup>3</sup>

However, as a way to divert the focus from the inputs to the processes and output characteristics of the schools, the KMs in the various Länder began to set key-figures and disseminate them based on the reports about each school.<sup>4</sup> A principal demonstrates:

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<sup>1</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), *op. cit.*, pp. 189- 190.

<sup>2</sup> Ingeborg Wirris (2002), *op. cit.*, p. 187.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 263.

<sup>4</sup> Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Edge & Doris Jantzi (1999), *op. cit.*, p. 42.

“We receive from the state key figures such as student enrolment, number of classes, drop-out rates and persistency rates in each academic path...etc., according to which we are evaluated, compared and ranked.”

Finally, Becker (2007) considers financial responsibility for materials and equipments to be more developed in the vocational schools than in the general schools.<sup>1</sup> However, the majority of the interviewed principals confirm that accountability is a hard work demanding great effort and time.

Hence, from above it can be concluded that the vocational schools in Germany are held accountable for the budgets they get and how they spend them. Yet, this accountability is mainly input-oriented focusing on how the money is spent and not on how effectively and efficiently it is spent. Moreover, the focus is not put on how schools approach the external environment and raise funds.<sup>2</sup>

However, the use of key figures can be an initial step towards shifting the attention from inputs to processes and outputs. Yet, these figures should not just deem the ranking; rather, should also serve to improve the performance of the schools.

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<sup>1</sup> Matthias Becker (2007), *op. cit.*, p. 26.

<sup>2</sup> Matthias Rürup (2007), *op. cit.*, pp. 187-188.

### Part Three

## The Effect of Financial Decentralization in Egypt on School Leadership

### 1 Education financing in Egypt

The free costs of primary education were mentioned in many early constitutions such as the constitutions of 1923, 1930, 1956, and 1964 and were extended to include all schools.<sup>1</sup> The constitution of 1971 mentioned that education is an essential right for everyone and the state is responsible for providing and supervising it to ensure its quality. Thereafter, the education law number 139/1981 mentioned that education is free and compulsory in its primary and preliminary phases, which are also called the essential phase.<sup>2</sup> It also permitted the creation a fund for financing education from the local efforts.<sup>3</sup> Finally, the amendment of this law number 223/1988 allowed foreign assistance in education fundraising.<sup>4</sup>

Being a unitary state, the education budget in Egypt is disseminated on all governorates and levels of education whether general education or vocational and includes: 1) expenditure on investments on buildings, land, equipment and furniture and 2) recurrent expenditures such as wages and salaries, water, electricity, renovation, and teaching materials.<sup>5</sup> The local units (whether directorates, administrates or schools) receive their centrally determined budget and unlike in Germany do not have the freedom or autonomy to transfer money from one item to another.

Since 1990, government spending on education has witnessed an increase. Yet, the government remains the main fundraiser in education, even though it tries to diversify the financial resources by encouraging the resort to productive

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<sup>1</sup> Yossuf Khalifa Ghurab (Oct. 2003) "The Problem of Financial Subsidy for the Egyptian Education according to the Modern International Trends". In: *The Periodical of the Pedagogical Sciences*. Issue 4, pp. 71-137, (Original in Arabic), p. 84.

<sup>2</sup> Suad Mohamed Abd El Shafi (Oct. 1994). "Education Subsidy and the Educational Burdens that face the Egyptian family in the Essential Phase. An Analytical ad Critical Study". In: *The Periodical of the Faculty of Education- Damietta*. Issue 21, Part 2, pp. 153-190, (Original in Arabic), pp. 163-164.

<sup>3</sup> Ibtesam Mohamed Hassan Ramadan El Sahmawy (1985). *Financing Primary Education according to the Experiments of Some Other Countries*. Master Thesis in Education, Cairo: Ein Shams University, Faculty of Education, (Original in Arabic), pp. 92-93.

<sup>4</sup> Yossuf Khalifa Ghurab (Oct. 2003), op. cit, p. 84.

<sup>5</sup> Mohamed Mounir Mursi& Abd El Ghani El Nouri (1977). *Education Planning and its Economies*. Dar El Nahdah El Arabeyah, (Original in Arabic), p. 193.

projects, maintaining and financing the education funds, advocating the participation of local community and NGOs, and encouraging international assistance. Nevertheless, the raised money is still below the intended and needed level. Thus, the main sources of finance became: the national budget, the educational funds, and the financial aid coming from international assistance organizations.<sup>1</sup> Most of these resources again follow the top- down approach and are input-oriented as it is also the case in Germany.

## **2 Facets of financial decentralization in Egypt**

When conducting the interviews with the vocational principals in Cairo and Giza, all the interviewed principals stress that their governorates have already started to adopt financial decentralization in their schools. Simple renovation is one facet of this financial decentralization. It means doing the minor renovations such as painting the walls, changing the windows...etc. A principal mentions:

“Comprehensive renovation that includes renovating the entire school buildings is left to the institution of school building while simple renovation is left to the schools. We receive money based on the kind of school, number of classes and the number of students. This leads to a certain amount of money that allows us to make the necessary minor renovations.”

Another principal adds:

“We established a committee for determining the needs for renovation. When we receive the money, we spend it according to its decisions.”

An expert explains how simple renovation has offered the school more financial autonomy. He says:

“Before the schools had to express their demands for renovation to the higher authorities, which in turn used to send a committee to discuss these demands with the schools. And depending on the priorities of the higher authorities, these demands were either met or not. Now the schools receive the money and perform the renovations that they need.”

Few principals believe that simple renovation has simplified the bureaucratic procedures and has allowed them to take financial decisions concerning what and how to renovate without resorting to the local educational authorities.

A principal comments:

“Now the financial procedures are less. These used to take a lot of time and effort. Now we can make decisions without resorting first to the higher authorities.”

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<sup>1</sup> Yossuf Khalifa Ghurab (Oct. 2003), op. cit, p. 89.



A second principal adds:

“The higher authorities simplified things for us. They help us and advice us, especially when it comes to asking for money and writing the proposals.”

Yet, the majority of the principals – despite considering simple renovation as an initial step towards the path of financial decentralization – consider simple renovation as a still complex procedure that is accompanied with many bureaucratic steps. A principal demonstrates how the procedures of getting offers and spending the money on renovation have proved to be complicated. He explains:

“Although we are free to spend the money, yet this procedure is very much controlled. We have to offer three prices for the things and materials that we are willing to buy. Sometimes until we get the approval of the directorate we find that the prices have changed. This becomes then problematic for us, especially if we submitted the bills and the checks were then given to another seller. Needless to say, it is difficult to get the bills from the sellers.”

A second principal illustrates how the schools are bound by the items:

“The problem is that we are bound by the items. We cannot move the money from one item to the other. And sometimes we may receive money for items or activities that we do not offer in our school, such as music for example, but we can't spend the money therefore on other purposes.”

A third principal mentions that they are even bound by the time in which they have to spend the money:

“Once we took the money of the second semester and spent it on the same item but in the first semester instead of waiting until the second semester - as we were sure that we will get money in the second semester through other sources. Yet, this was not accepted by the higher authorities and we were subject to investigation.

A fourth principal demonstrates that simple renovation does not cover the expenses of the artisans:

“Renovation covers only the purchase of materials. But when it comes to paying the craftsmen such as the electrician... etc for the work they do, I cannot use the money to pay them and have to look for other ways to collect that money. This costs us a lot of time and money.”

An expert comments that simple renovation does not entail purchases of new equipments:

“The problem is that the money covers only simple renovation, while the majority of schools need to purchase or update their equipments.”

Thus, it can be concluded that even though Egypt has begun to implement financial decentralization through allowing the schools to define their needs for simple renovation, apply for the needed money, and later spend it. Even though

the schools receive money for simple renovation, yet this money as mentioned above does not cover all aspects and the schools are obliged to spend it on the assigned items and even in the specified time.

Hence, the vocational schools are encouraged to look for other resources of finance.

### **3 Diverse revenues available to the Egyptian vocational schools**

Since the money that is assigned to the vocational schools in Egypt is in many cases not sufficient to meet all the needs of the schools, therefore, the latter are allowed looking for additional sources of finance. The interviews demonstrate that the vocational schools are able to resort to the following sources:

#### **Sponsoring**

Based upon the interviews, the schools in Egypt in general have the ability to resort to sponsoring as a source of fundraising. The sponsors may be parents, local community members, businesspersons and NGOs. However, for sponsorship to be approved, it has to be unconditional and not related to students' enrolment. The majority of the interviewed principals confirm that sponsorship rarely takes place and that it is - in most cases - considered with suspicion. A principal mentions:

“Many parents would like to sponsor many of our activities, yet we do not ask them because we are afraid that this might be misunderstood by the authorities and considered as related to the student.”

Only one school that is mainly sponsored by the ministry of military production (EMOMP) and whose principal is a general in the military confirmed that they have no problems with sponsoring. He illustrates:

“Sometimes NGOs may sponsor the workshops and forums that we organize. ... We do not hesitate to resort to sponsoring like the rest of the principals who avoid taking this risk. In the military, we learn to take risks. Thus, if we need money we may resort to sponsoring.”

Hence, from above, it can be concluded that the principals mostly refrain from resorting to sponsoring in order to avoid any risks and any rumours of being corrupt. This strongly indicates that the principal plays an influential role in fundraising.

#### **Donations**

Donations are also accepted if the BOT approves them, as a kind of holding the schools accountable and to ensure that the parents are not forced to donate. A principal mentions:

“Donations are allowed provided that the leadership conference at the school, the BOT and the director general accept them.”

As it is the case with sponsoring, the donors can be factories, businesspersons...etc. However, from the interviews it can be concluded that the vocational schools that adopt the dual-system have a greater opportunity in receiving donations than their full-time counterparts. They resort this to the facilitating role of the regional units. A principal illustrates:

“All the schools that fall under the Mubarak-Kohl program have a regional unit that is the mediator between them and the factories. This regional unit is supposed also to help the schools in fundraising.”

Another principal mentions:

“Sometimes the factories donate. But they contribute with photo-copy machines or with incentives to the teachers who escort the students to the factories not with machines for learning.”

A third principal explains how the full-time vocational schools face difficulties in getting donations. He says:

“We are supposed to resort to the factories and the slogans of the local community. However, not all respond to our demands and initiatives. This mainly depends on our socio-economic environment. We are in a poor environment so we cannot expect much.”

A fourth principal stresses the fact that the surrounding environment plays a role in their ability to get donations. He demonstrates:

“Nobody supports us because we exist in a poor region and the majority of factories work in other fields. ... In addition, the parents expect that the school presents everything.”

Furthermore, as it is the case with sponsoring, most of the interviewed principals refuse or avoid resorting to donations as a way of fundraising. A principal states:

“We refuse in our school any kind of donations, especially from the parents, because then we will acquire the reputation that we force the parents or that we get donations.”

A second principal adds:

“We refuse any kind of donations whether financial or non-financial in order to avoid the reputation of being corrupt.”

A third principal suggests:

“I refuse donations from the parents. The local community should play a bigger role.”

However, most of these principals do not mind to accept donations from the businesspersons or the local community members. A principal hopes:

“We hope that the businessmen support us because we need to be up-to-date, and this will only happen through them.”

Another principal suggests:

“Even to receive machines, this is complicated. The machines have to be related to the curricula and the unit for equipments in the directorate and the administrate have to approve them.... Therefore, we think it is better for the NGOs to focus on things like furniture and renovation. This is easier and as important, too.”

Moreover, some of the principals focus on the negative aspect of donations. A principal claims:

“The factories want us to beg for the money. They never ask us in advance if we need anything.”

Only few try to look for new ways to benefit from the ability to accept donations without harming their reputation. A principal says:

“But I accept non-financial donations such as reparation.”

Nevertheless, an expert warns against the possibility of having inequality among the schools. He illustrates:

“The most famous schools are those that attract the most donations. ....Currently many NGOs assist in renovating these schools.”

Hence, it can be concluded that most of the principals refrain from receiving donations, especially from the parents, either in order to avoid having problems with the local educational authorities that prohibit any donations coming from the parents if they were related to their children’s enrolment, or to avoid getting the reputation that the school depends on donations and might be under the suspicion of being corrupt. Few mention that they would not mind to receive donations from businesspersons or local community members and others try to accept non-financial donations to avoid any troubles. Nevertheless, the socio-economic status as well as the regional units may play a role in the ability of the vocational schools to acquire additional resources.

However, the principal and his belief-system play an important role. Most of the interviewed principals have negative beliefs about donations; some even clearly state that it is their personality that refuses these donations. Thus, in many cases it can be claimed that it is the principal who plays the pivotal role in whether the school approaches or rejects a certain option of fundraising.

### **Advertisements**

When discussing the idea of advertisements with the interviewed principals, no one claims that she/he uses advertisements as a source of fundraising; in fact they are not aware about whether or not the schools are allowed to advertise for certain entities or goods and services.

## **Additional resources of finance**

Ever since the amendment of law number 223/1988 that allowed foreign assistance in education, the Egyptian educational system benefited from foreign fundraising, especially that coming from the World Bank and the UNESCO. This even had its affects on the educational policies, e.g. the tendency towards education decentralization is a main example for this influence.<sup>1</sup> A principal confirms that his school received foreign financial assistance. He says:

“The European Union programs to improve TVET and the USAID helped us improve our buildings and equipments.”

A second option to raise additional funds in the Egyptian vocational schools is to benefit from the money dedicated to the BOTs for other purposes, given that the school gets the approval of 2/3 the BOT members. A principal illustrates:

“Now we have more autonomy in how to spend the money of the BOT. We can spend a large part of it on other items, provided that we do not use all the money. And this allows us to finance many things.”

However, this money is to be used only in emergencies. A principal comments:

“Yet this money is to be spent only in emergencies when a sudden need emerges.”

A third option that is available to schools is having productive projective that finance the needs of the school. A principal demonstrates:

“We have our productive projects, such as chicken, bakery, food manufacturing. 50% of the revenues go to the EMOE and the rest stays in the school to finance our projects. And even from the money that goes to the EMOE we purchase our new machines.”

A second principal explains:

“We are responsible for printing all the educational books for the all types of schools and the educational phases. Through the returns of printing we get our needed equipments and additional funds.”

A fourth option through which the schools may acquire additional resources is the NGOs. A principal comments:

“A NGO came to us last year and renovated three of our labs. The initiative started when we announced our demand for renovation to the administrate and the directorate, which in turn had contact with this NGO. Thereafter, the NGO came to us and helped us. I was happy that it supported us.”

Even though the NGOs can offer great help to the schools, yet the majority of the principals claim that the NGOs helped them only once. A principal claims:

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<sup>1</sup> Yossuf Khalifa Ghurab (Oct. 2003), op. cit, p. 84.

“The NGOs helped us once before, but not anymore.”

Furthermore, the majority complain that the NGOs mostly await the initiative of the schools. A principal demonstrates:

“The problem is that no one takes the initiative and asks us about our needs.”

A fifth option that many vocational schools in many countries use is savings. However, it is not allowed until now in Egypt. A principal mentions:

“Saving is not allowed and we have to spend the money that we receive before the end of the year.”

A second principal details:

“The option of saving does not take place because we have to define our needs of materials and equipments for the coming 2 years. We also have to add 10% to meet any emergencies that might accrue in these years. Moreover, our balance sheet has to be zero balanced. So we are not allowed to save anything.”

Hence, from above it can be concluded that the Egyptian vocational schools benefit, as their counterparts in Germany, from the foreign assistance that they receive. In emergency cases, the schools may use a proportion of the money dedicated to the BOTs if they get the needed approval. Some of the vocational schools conduct productive projects and from them finance their needs. The NGOs are a further option of fundraising and many schools benefited from them, even though this assistance is disruptive and dependent on their initiative. Furthermore, the vocational schools do not resort to saving, due the rules that force the schools to spend all the money by the end of the year or else lose the surplus.

### **Public transfers**

The vocational schools generally receive additional transfers like: the re-enrolment fees, 10% of the local revenues in the governorates, and the revenue of the education funds in the governorates.<sup>1</sup> In case of shortage of money, the school may ask the directorate or the administrate (based on the amount that is demanded) for additional funds. The latter in turn studies this demand and either accepts it or refuses it. A principal mentions:

“If we need additional funds we resort to the directorate and they may approve or refuse.”

A second principal explains how schools in poor regions are capable of getting more transfers than those in the rich ones. He demonstrates:

“The money assigned to the schools is not that much but we have the wealth factor among the governorates. And accordingly the poorest schools in the poorest regions are the most to be subsidized.”

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<sup>1</sup> Yossuf Khalifa Ghurab (Oct. 2003), op. cit, p. 89.

Only the vocational school that is supported by the EMOMP mentions that they receive transfers from the EMOMP in addition to the budget that comes from the EMOE. Its principal explains:

“We get our financial resources from the training sector of the EMOMP in addition to the students’ fees that we keep as determined by the EMOE.”

Therefore, another principal wishes if the ministry of industry (EMOI) could support the vocational schools either financially or with equipments. He illustrates:

“We wish that the EMOI supports us so that we can be up-to-date and get the machines and equipments that we need. The EMOE is currently overloaded but the MOI will be overloaded only with the machines and the EMOE will focus only on the educational part.”

Thus, from above it can be concluded that public transfers play a big role in financing the vocational schools in Egypt. The schools wish if the relevant ministries such as the EMOMP, EMOI, ministry of agriculture and ministry of commerce could help and support them not just financially but also with the equipments and technical skills to make them up-to-date.

Yet, as mentioned earlier, it can be concluded that the role of the principal is influential in fundraising. She/he may either encourage or hinder fundraising.

#### **4 Financial decentralization and the role of the school principal**

Due to the high expenses of education in general and of vocational education in particular, the vocational schools are encouraged to look for additional ways of fundraising. Based on that, the principals are expected to find new ways for using the available resources and to take initiatives in raising funds. Few of the interviewed principals express their efforts. A principal declares:

“Given the limited resources that we have, the principal has to act as an entrepreneur and look for ways to use the available resources efficiently and raise additional funds.”

Another principal adds:

“The personality of the principal plays an essential role. He has to have public relations (PR) with the surrounding environment. For example, I established a committee for donations that is responsible for documenting and registering the donations that we receive.”

However, the majority of the interviewed principals are reluctant to exploit the available potentials and options to raise funds in order to avoid giving the impression of living on donations or being corrupt. A principal emphasizes:

“I personally refuse donations and I refuse to get the reputation that I am corrupt.”

An expert even confirms:

“Many principals avoid risks. They associate money with corruption. This means that they deprive their schools from additional possible sources of finance.

Only one principal claims – as mentioned previously - to have the autonomy and courage to raise fund. He resorts this to his previous training.

Thus, it can be concluded that although it is expected from the Egyptian vocational principals to look for new ways of fundraising, yet, they refrain to avoid having any bad reputation, depriving thereby their schools from possible sources of funds.

Therefore, training and simplified as well as transparent procedures may motivate the principals and abolish the association between fundraising and corruption. Furthermore, the existence of a system of accountability may be an assisting factor.

## **5 Financial decentralization and accountability**

Financial decentralization does not indicate the reduction or the elimination of accountability. In fact, the schools in Egypt are accountable to many bodies. These are the administrative prosecution, administrative monitoring apparatus, central auditing apparatus, the directorate of education, and the school inspectors.<sup>1</sup>

The vocational schools do not resent this accountability. On the contrary, most of the interviewed principals perceive accountability as the right of the EMOE to monitor its money and to assure that it is spent on the right purposes. A principal mentions:

“It is the right of the authorities to hold us accountable. They grant us the money and have the right to check if we spent it properly. But we hope that when the inspectors visit us, they do not perceive us in advance as thieves.”

Another adds:

“There are a lot of bureaucratic procedures to avoid corruption. Yet, they are long and complex.”

Few principals even mention that accountability procedures are beneficial. A principal explains:

“We receive financial inspectors, who come and check how we spent the money. They advise us. And if we have pitfalls, we try to solve them before they leave the school.”

Hence, it can be concluded that there are various procedures and entities that hold the vocational schools accountable for how they spend money. And as

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<sup>1</sup> Khaled Atteya Sayed Ahmed Yakoub (2001), op. cit, pp. 57-83.



it is the case in Germany, this accountability is mainly input-oriented. Even though, all of the interviewed principals appreciate these procedures, yet the majority consider them long and complex, while only few perceive them as beneficial.

## **Part Four**

### **Discussion**

Both countries, Germany and Egypt, have free education. The government is the main actor carrying the financial burdens of education. Therefore, both countries started implementing financial decentralization to reduce government spending, encourage fundraising, and increase school discretion.

In both countries, the schools are still not yet empowered to set their own budgets. The school type, number of classes, and number of students mainly assess the budgets in both countries. This is why resource allocation in both countries is still input-oriented. Furthermore, it is the local educational authorities in both countries that set the school budget and the amount of resources allocated to them, following thereby a top-down approach. In addition, the school budgets in both countries are annually set and cannot be extended over longer periods. Despite this, it is interesting to consider that this top-down and input-oriented approach of resource allocation may in reality help reduce - especially in the early phases of financial decentralization - any inequality among the various schools and lessen the shortcomings thereof, since all schools would receive their money based on the same factors and not on their attractiveness.

Following the belief that financial decentralization encourages fundraising and that the schools are the best entities to take decisions regarding their financing, both countries began to take endeavours for providing the schools with more financial discretion over expenditure and revenues.

Considering expenditure decentralization, in Germany, the vocational schools have discretion in their expenditure. They have the ability to transfer money from personnel budget to the budget of teaching and learning materials as well as from one year to the other, according to the principles of mutual coverage and transferability. In Egypt, on the other hand, the vocational schools are allowed to plan their needs of simple renovation, apply and receive money for that. And despite the existence of complex rules for organizing the application for this money and its expenditure, yet the Egyptian vocational schools feel that they have acquired discretion in the way they can spend money on simple renovation and consider this endeavour as an important start. Thus, it can be inducted that Germany is in a more progressive phase in terms of expenditure decentralization than Egypt, where the principles of mutual coverage and transferability are still missing.

With regard to revenue decentralization, it can be concluded that both countries have adopted an incremental approach of financial decentralization. First, both countries started with transferring resources to the schools and allowed them to determine how to spend them (with regard to the budgets of personnel and teaching & learning materials in Germany and the money for simple renovation in Egypt).

Second, both countries encourage the resort to additional sources for fundraising. Therefore, the laws in both countries allow the acquisition of additional revenues through various ways, such as donations and sponsoring. However, most of the principals in the vocational schools of both countries complain that it is the schools that take in most of the cases the initiative to approach fundraisers, making them feel as if they were begging for the needed money. Therefore, in Germany many of the principal do not depend greatly on fundraising, while in Egypt the principals avoid as much as possible the resort to any donations or sponsoring in order to avoid the reputation of being corrupt and dependent on donations. With respect to advertisements, all the interviewed German principals are in principle not against the resort to advertisement, provided that it would not affect their neutrality. However, in Egypt, they are not aware whether they are allowed to advertise, and hence are sceptic about it.

This further sheds light on how the belief-system of the principals may play an influential role in the ability of the schools to acquire or reject sources of fundraising. This can be cured through 1- enhancing the mediating role of the regional units in Egypt (while creating similar structures in Germany) between the vocational schools and the local community members, or 2- encouraging the relevant ministries to contribute to the vocational schools, or 3- training the principals on how to raise funds and change the negative stereotypes about the resort to donations, sponsoring or advertisements.

Moving on to additional sources of revenues, in both countries the vocational schools benefit from the foreign assistance that they receive either in the form of educational models applied in their schools, or in the form of updating their buildings and equipments.

As for saving, most of the principals in the Egyptian vocational schools do not resort to it, since the money they get barely covers their needs. In addition, their budgets have to be zero-balanced and all the money has to be spent by the end of the year or else they will lose the surplus. In Germany, despite the schools are ensured that they can save for future needs (getting only 10% cuts), yet all the interviewed principals announce that they do not save, since the

amounts they receive are completely spent on their needs. Many of them demonstrate that they cannot guarantee stability in the rules governing saving.

Furthermore, the vocational principals in Egypt mention that they: receive in exceptional cases support from the NGOs, have discretion over the school fees and the money devoted to the BOTs, and depend on their productive projects. One school even receives assistance and support from one of the ministries. These are options that are not used in Germany, a matter that makes Egypt in terms of revenue decentralization and benefiting from the variety of the available resources be in a progressive phase. Nevertheless, this assumption is not considering the amount of money raised through these options.

However, due to the limited resources available to the vocational schools in both countries, the interviewed principals wish to have more financial support from the local community. In Egypt, the vocational principals even wish that the parents through the BOTs could participate more in the decision-making process as well as in the initiatives to approach the local community for fundraising.

In all the previous phases, it can be claimed that the principals play an influential role in fundraising. In Germany, almost all the interviewed principals claim that they are the ones who take the initiative to approach the external world as well as motivate the teachers and the department heads to seize new funds and efficiently deploy the available resources. In Egypt, it can be claimed that the majority of the principals prohibit their school members from receiving any donations or sponsoring in order to avoid any bad reputation. Therefore, this can clearly present how the principals may encourage or hinder fundraising based upon their belief-system of how they look at fundraising. Therefore, - like many interviewed principals announce – principals' training is essential in order to show them the possible options and procedures available for fundraising and expenditure. In addition, a school culture, motivating the vocational schools to be open to external relations, may be required.

Due to the challenge of limited resources, Dubs (1994), the OECD (2001) and Pechlaner& Hammann (2007) - as mentioned before - advocate entrepreneurial leadership for: taking risks, exploiting opportunities, initiating contact with stakeholders and involving them in decision making, and encouraging new ideas for fundraising. Regarding the interviewed principals in the German vocational schools, many of them clearly state that it is through their personal initiatives and efforts that their school is able to raise funds. Few, also in Egypt, even explicitly mention that they have to act as entrepreneurs and have public relations to find additional sources of finance. However, fewer mention that the

teachers and the heads of the departments play a role in fundraising. This all indicates that even though not all the interviewed German and Egyptian principals raise funds, yet those who are the most to raise funds, are those who take initiatives, innovate, and look for creative ways of fundraising. Hence, it can be concluded that the principals who are successful in fundraising are those who adopt an entrepreneurial leadership model. This in turn is also witnessed in the case of Egypt, where only a few announce that they take the initiative, look for new ways of fundraising, and do not fear taking any risks. Those few are the ones who adopt entrepreneurial leadership and are able to raise funds for their vocational schools. While the rest in both countries refrain from looking for new ways of fundraising, depriving thereby their schools from possible additional resources. Thus, it can be concluded that financial decentralization encourages the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership.

Finally, a clear and simple system of accountability is very critical for the success of financial decentralization. All the interviewed principals in both countries understand the importance of being held accountable and perceive it as the right of the local educational authorities to monitor how the schools allocate the money. Yet, the majority opposes the long and complex procedures. Therefore, simplifying the system of accountability is advocated. In addition, the focus of accountability should not be merely input-oriented, focusing on how the money is spent; rather, it should also be process- and output-oriented, determining how efficiently and effectively the money is being deployed. Finally, training may also play here an important role in helping the principals understand the different procedures of accountability.

## **Summary**

Financial decentralization enables the schools to manage freely their own budget (expenditure discretion) and to use other means such as loans and donations for fundraising (revenue discretion). Here, it is preferable if an incremental approach was adopted (see model 3). As a first step, decentralization of expenditure using the principle of mutual coverage and transferability, as it is the case in Germany, may be encouraged.

Later revenue decentralization may be introduced, encouraging the principals to raise funds. Through training, the principals may acquire new skills of how to approach the local community and raise funds. The principals may learn to act as entrepreneurs; i.e. taking risks, exploiting available opportunities, in-

volving stakeholders in decision making, and encouraging new ideas. Based on that, the schools' ability to raise local funds will increase.

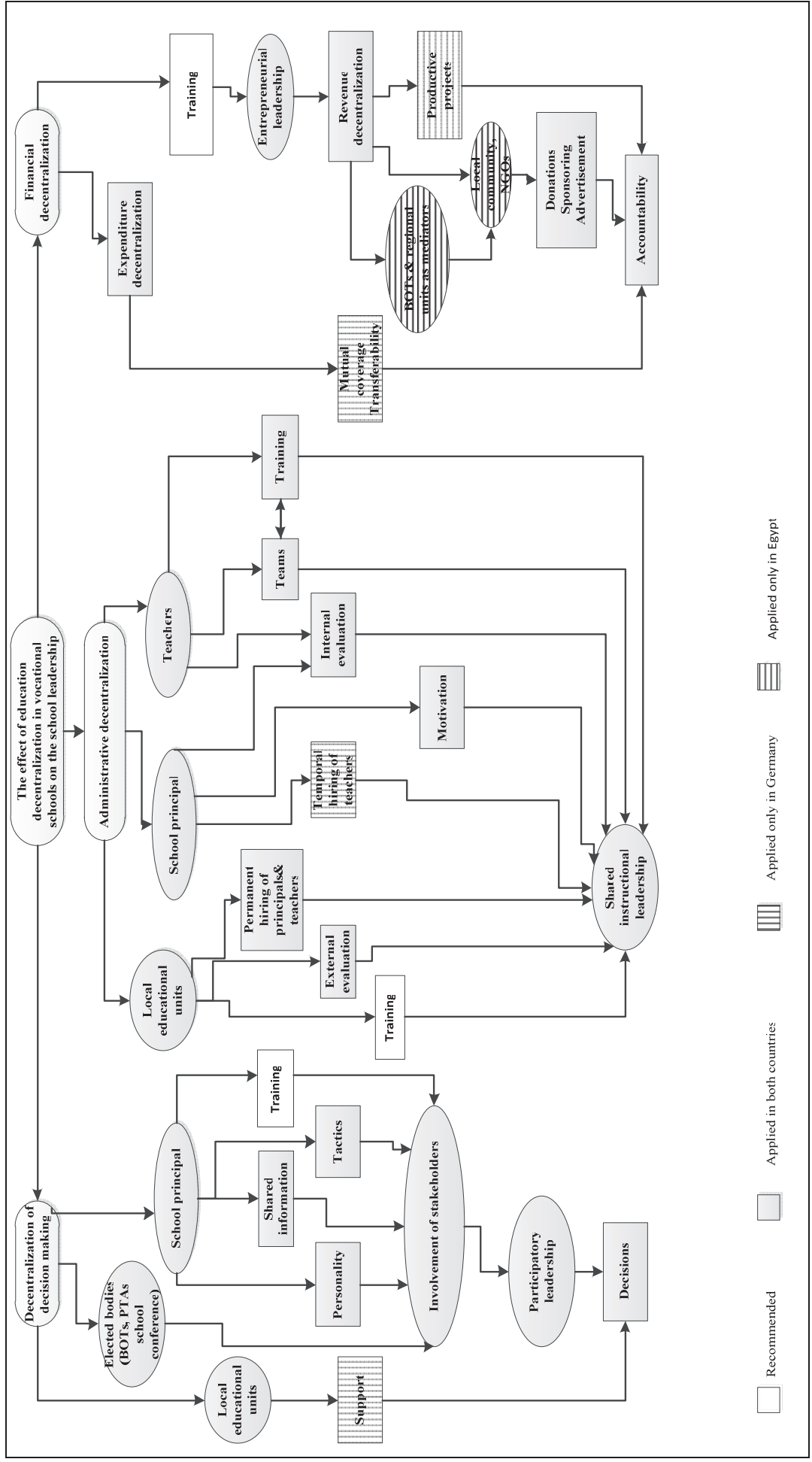
Moreover, a mediator, like a semi-independent entity, may be established to facilitate the contact between the vocational schools and the local community members. A further aspect of revenue decentralization may include the ability of schools to conduct productive projects to ensure the sustainability of funds.

In addition, a simplified system of accountability focusing on inputs, processes and outputs will allow the local educational authorities to monitor how the schools raise and spend the available resources without diverting away from their essential role of being an educational and non-profit seeking entity.

Finally, since in both countries, those principals who take the initiative and look for creative ways for additional financial resources are those who raise funds; hence, financial decentralization encourages the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership.

### **Recommendations**

- Introducing the principles of mutual coverage and transferability in Egypt and changing the auditing system to facilitate their implementation.
- Enhancing the role of the regional units in Egypt and creating similar structures in Germany in order to mediate and coordinate possible opportunities of fundraising.
- Training the principals on financial management in a simplified way, suitable to their qualifications as teachers in the first place.
- Facilitating the financial procedures and simplifying accountability procedures with the emphasis on inputs, processes, and outputs.
- Changing the school culture to allow the opening of the vocational schools towards the local community.



Model 3: Financial decentralization and school leadership (incl. decentralization of decision-making & administrative decentralization); presented by the author)





## **Chapter Seven**

### **Conclusion, Limitations and Recommendations**

So far, the study has discussed in separate chapters how the different types of education decentralization affect school leadership in the German and Egyptian vocational schools. The following sections present a conclusion for the entire study, trying thereby to highlight how the three different types of education decentralization may be connected together as well as the study limitations and recommendations for a successful implementation of education decentralization.

#### **1 Conclusion**

In the previous chapters, this qualitative study aimed at exploring the effect of education decentralization on school leadership in the German and Egyptian vocational schools. It demonstrated how education decentralization is defined as the transfer of some of the political, administrative, and/or financial authorities and responsibilities from the central government to the local governments, local units or the schools themselves. Based upon the functional classification, the study illustrated that education decentralization can be divided into three main types: decentralization of decision-making, administrative decentralization, and financial decentralization. However, transferring various authorities to the local units and the schools will entail a change on the role of the school leadership.

School leadership is the process of influencing a school member or a group towards achieving a common goal while taking into account each situation. Hence, the study also revealed the different leadership approaches and how school leadership - following the situational/contingency approach - may play various roles and perform a different function in different situations to achieve the school goals. This is why different school leadership models - as instructional, transformational, charismatic, transactional, distributed, participatory and entrepreneurial leadership - may be adopted at different situations.

Various countries started to implement education decentralization in the hope of achieving various advantages, such as relieving the central government from the financial burdens by allowing the schools to raise funds, reducing the unit-costs by responding to the divergent local needs, achieving a sense of commitment and ownership to the decisions taken by involving the various stakeholders in the decision-making process, and representing the interests of the marginalized groups.

In Germany, the recent attempts of decentralizing its educational system and increasing school autonomy and self-dependency can be traced back to the suggestions of the education commission of Lower Saxony in 1995 and later to the reforms of 2006, which reorganized the authorities of the federal government, while granting the *Länder* more authorities and autonomy in funding and shaping education. Moreover, school autonomy became a major aspect of achieving education decentralization, and the schools including the vocational schools have acquired more autonomy in terms of the teaching environment, personnel management, financial management and school buildings and furnishing.

In Egypt, the recent attempts of education decentralization can be traced back also to the 1990s and the 2000s with the creation of the local community schools, the Mubarak-Kohl project for the vocational school with the dual-systems, the decentralization experiments in Alexandria and Quenna that were later extended to the other governorates, the national educational standards, the committee for decentralization and popular participation and the institution of quality assurance and accreditation. All empowered the school boards in the decision-making process and encouraged community participation in the school life.

Aiming at exploring how education decentralization affects the school leadership in the German and Egyptian vocational schools, this main research question was divided into three minor research questions: 1- To which extent does decentralization of decision-making encourage the adoption of participatory leadership? 2- To which extent does administrative decentralization encourage the adoption of instructional leadership? And 3- To which extent does financial decentralization encourage the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership?

For answering these minor research questions, qualitative analysis was seen appropriate to this study in order to explore the opinions and interpretations of the school principals. Therefore, structured interviews were conducted with 30 school principals (15 school principals in Bremen and Lower Saxony and 15 vocational school principals in Cairo and Giza) as the primary source of information to achieve triangulation of data sources. The interview questions were formulated around the three types (categories) of education decentralization (political, administrative, and financial decentralization) that were concluded from literature review. This was done with the aim of structuring the interviews. On the other hand, in order to explore the leadership model that was adopted, the interviewed principals were asked about their role in the three types of education

decentralization. This was done without mentioning any particular aspects of the leadership models to prevent directing the answers towards any possible or preferable response and to allow the principals to express freely their opinions, based on what is known as "openness of methodology". Thereafter, the collected data was transcribed using standard orthography that focuses on the thematic content, since this study does not require the emphasis on spoken language and sounds. The transcriptions were then subject to structural content analysis, according to which they were divided first into three main categories resembling the three types of education decentralization. Thus, all the statements related to financial decentralization were sorted in the category named financial decentralization. The same happened also with two other types. Afterwards, the responses in every category were read thoroughly. If it was possible to integrate some of the statements in one sub-category, then these were integrated in this sub-category depending on the thematic criterion to represent the various aspects of each type of education decentralization (e.g. the sub-categories: expenditure decentralization and revenue decentralization in financial decentralization). Furthermore, if some of the statements diverted and it was possible to integrate them in a new sub-category, then a new sub-category was created for them. This happened for example with the sub-category "productive projects" in Egypt. Not all school principals in Egypt mentioned that they have productive projects. Yet, since the study does not seek to present the best-practices but highlights different options for application, hence a sub-category with the name productive projects was created. The same also happened with mutual coverage and transferability. Afterwards, the responses in every main category were analyzed again to induct the leadership characteristics that are applied or adopted. These were then compared with the main characteristics of the leadership models that are mentioned in literature in order to identify the leadership model that is being used. Thereafter, a matrix was developed to present the connections between the types of education decentralization (main categories) and the leadership models that are applied or adopted in these categories. Hence, the approach of analytical induction was used. During the entire analysis, the comparison of cases was used to compare the obtained data from the interviews in the German vocational schools with those gathered from the Egyptian vocational schools, presenting thereby the model that the study concluded in chapter six.

Chapter 4 of this study handled the first minor question. Decentralization of decision-making is the transfer of decision-making authority from the center to the grassroots (stakeholders) in order to achieve improved accountability and

responsiveness. It involves the creation of elected councils to represent the various interests of the stakeholders and to take collective decisions related to planning. Thus, three main aspects (categories) appeared here: 1- the existence of elected bodies to ensure 2- the involvement of stakeholders in 3- the decision-making process (planning the goals and objectives). On the other hand, participatory leadership encourages as joint decision-making or at least shared influence in decision-making process and hence seeks to create a positive environment for the participation of the various stakeholders.

The empirical analysis (summarized in model 1) revealed that in both countries, initiatives for implementing decentralization of decision-making were taken. Of these initiatives was empowering the school conferences in Germany and BOTs in Egypt to take various decisions regarding the annual goals and objectives in the German vocational schools or the implementation of decisions coming from the educational directorates and administrates in the Egyptian vocational schools. And even though the BOTs in Egypt are considered by the Egyptian principals as symbolic - despite being empowered by the laws (see part 2 in chapter 2) to take decisions related to the entire school strategy, budget and fundraising - their creation was considered as an initial step towards decentralization of decision-making.

Moreover, the interviewed school principals confirmed that the various stakeholders like the teachers, parents, students, NGOs and enterprises are encouraged to participate in the decision-making process, even though the stakeholders do not exploit this opportunity. This is why the majority of the interviewed principals in both countries stressed that it is they - as the school principals - who approach and try to involve the stakeholders by using their personality traits, tactics or the shared information, reflecting thereby the adoption of a participatory leadership in decision-making.

In terms of planning the school goals and objectives, the German vocational schools are in a more progressive phase than their Egyptian counterparts are. The German vocational schools are able to set their goals and objectives, and define their programs, whereas the Egyptian vocational schools can only plan how there are going to implement the plans and objectives coming from the local educational authorities. Nevertheless, all the interviewed principals demonstrated that the school decisions have to abide by the rules and regulations as well as the available resources. This is why there is constant contact with the local educational authorities. In Germany, the majority of the interviewed principals considered the relationship with the local educational authorities to be

supportive and on equal basis except in the cases of emergency, clearly defined rules and shortage of resources. Whereas the majority of the interviewed principals in Egypt considered this relationship as hierarchical; subordinating the schools to the local educational authorities.

As for the role of the school principals, the interviewed principals in both countries emphasized the role of the school principal. They are the responsible persons for the actions in the school and for the compliance to the rules and regulations. Nevertheless, they have only the ability to motivate the teachers and the stakeholders to participate in the school life. This is why they stressed that they use their personality traits, shared information and tactics to have good relationships with the local educational authorities, involve the stakeholders in the decision-making, and guide the decision-making processes.

Finally, since the vocational school principals in both countries take the decisions (regarding the annual goals and objectives in the German vocational schools and the implementation of decisions coming from the educational directorates and administrates in the Egyptian vocational schools) in a shared way - whether in the school conferences in Germany, the BOTs in Egypt, or in cooperation with the department heads and the local educational authorities - and encourage the involvement of the stakeholders, it can be inducted that decentralization of decision-making encourages the adoption of participatory leadership.

Chapter 5 discussed the second minor question. Administrative decentralization is the transfer of some of the administrative authorities such as personnel selection, evaluation, training, and compensation to the local levels to improve service delivery. Accordingly, the schools may acquire more discretion in four aspects (categories): 1- teacher and principal selection, 2- evaluation, 3- training, and 4- team building. On the other hand, instructional leadership is the principal's role in providing direction, resources, and support to the teachers and students for the improvement of teaching and learning in the school.

The empirical analysis (see in model 2) demonstrated that in the German vocational schools temporal hiring of teaching staff is devolved to the school principals while permanent recruitment is de-concentrated, since the local educational authorities may veto the selection decisions of the school principals. While in Egypt, teacher selection is delegated from the governors to the educational local authorities (directorates). The principals have no authority over teacher selection. In addition, the German vocational schools are represented in the selection committee for selecting the school principal, whereas the Egyptian vocational schools are not represented at all. Thus, the local educational authori-

ties in both countries have an influential role in selecting the teachers and principals, rather than having merely an advisory role. Moreover, the interviewed principals in both countries claimed to have faced difficulties in dealing with inefficient teachers. Yet, the majority of the German principals favour motivating the teachers rather than firing them or using financial incentives. In Egypt, the majority of the interviewed principals also refuses financial incentives, however, wish if they could deploy sanctioning mechanism that may be even extended to teacher removal.

Moving on to evaluation, the vocational schools in both countries are subject to internal and external evaluation. Internal evaluation is devolved to the German vocational schools, taking the forms of pupils' feedback, peer review, teams, and the responsible teacher for QM. It applies the competency-based model and is either input-oriented as is the case with pupils' feedback and peer review, or is output-oriented as is the case with the teams and the responsible teacher for QM. In Egypt, internal evaluation is also devolved and takes the forms of principal's and prime teachers' evaluation. It also applies the competency-based model, but is only input-oriented. External evaluation in the German vocational schools on the other hand, adopts the "management by objectives" model and the competency-based model, as the schools set annual goals and objectives and the external evaluators evaluate the progress in achieving these goals and objectives. Thus, the majority of the interviewed principals perceive external evaluation as advisory. In Egypt, external evaluation takes the form of inspection focusing on the inputs, adopting thereby merely the competency-based model. This is why the majority of the interviewed principals perceive external evaluation as inspection, rather than advisory.

Teams are built in the vocational schools of both countries, even though the interviewed principals in both countries mention that they also have teachers working as single warriors and that the teams are not equally affective.

Training in Bremen is compulsory and in Lower Saxony voluntary, while it is compulsory for promotion in Egypt. In the German vocational schools, the training courses can be selected by the teacher himself, in cooperation with the school principal, by the teams, or by the responsible teacher for training in the school, adopting thereby the bottom-up approach. The training courses can be also taken individually or collectively, inside or outside the school, and be offered by educational institutions or private enterprises. In Egypt, the training courses are mainly planned by the central authorities and provided by the local educational authorities, following thereby a top-down approach. Moreover, a

training unit inside the school may determine the training needs, organize the courses, and enable the teachers who got external training to train the rest in the school, following thereby a bottom-cross approach that is across the colleagues.

As for the role of the school principals, in the German vocational schools, the school principal is empowered to select the temporal teaching staff and has an influential role in teacher selection for permanent recruitment. In Egypt, the principals do not have any role in teacher selection. In addition, they and their German counterparts feel hindered when having to deal with inefficient teachers, as they neither have incentives to motivate them nor sanctioning mechanisms to penalize them. As for evaluation, even though in Germany the principals by the law are able to evaluate teacher performance, yet they rely on pupils' feedback, peer review, teams and a responsible teacher for QM in addition to the external evaluators. On the other hand, the Egyptian principals play the dominant role in internal evaluation and may visit class to document their evaluation and provide advice. Thus, the German vocational principals adopt instructional leadership in terms of teacher selection and evaluation in its broader view (i.e. including all the activities that improve student achievement), while the Egyptian principals adopt instructional leadership in terms of internal evaluation in its narrow sense (i.e. paying class visits and focusing on teacher performance). With regard to teams and training, the interviewed principals in both countries claim to encourage and facilitate them, adopting thereby shared instructional leadership that encourages collegiality, experimentation, and teamwork.

Finally, since 1- the German vocational school principals share the authority of teachers selection whether with the local educational units (in terms of permanent selection) and the heads of the departments (in terms of temporal selection), 2- motivate in both countries the teachers, 3- play in Egypt a leading role in internal evaluation and share it with the colleagues (through peer review in Germany and the evaluation of prime teachers in Egypt), and 4- encourage team-building and training, it can be inducted that administrative decentralization leads to the adoption of instructional leadership. Yet, it is more likely to be shared instructional leadership, as the school principals, in addition to taking the necessary measures to improve the educational process, seek the ideas and expertise of the colleagues when it comes to temporal hiring, evaluation and team-building, and facilitate teacher training in a way that would improve teaching and student achievement.

Chapter 6 was devoted to the third minor question (see model 3). Financial decentralization enables the schools to manage freely their own budget and

to use other means such as loans and donations for fundraising. Therefore, it involves two main aspects: 1- expenditure decentralization and 2- revenue decentralization. On the other hand, entrepreneurial leadership entails personality characteristics such as leading initiatives, taking risks, behaving autonomously, exploiting business opportunities, and combating fierce challenge and competition.

The empirical analysis (see in model 3) illustrated that the vocational schools in both countries are still not yet empowered to set their own annual budgets. These are set according to the school type, number of classes, and number of students (input-oriented). Moreover, it is the local educational authorities in both countries that set the school budgets, following thereby a top-down approach. However, both countries began to take endeavours for implementing financial decentralization.

Concerning expenditure decentralization, the German vocational schools have the ability to transfer money from the personnel budget to the budget of teaching and learning materials as well as from one year to the other, according to the principles of mutual coverage and transferability. On the other hand, the Egyptian vocational schools are allowed to plan, apply and receive money for their needs of simple renovation. Despite the existence of complex rules for organizing the application for this money and its expenditure, yet the Egyptian vocational principals considered this as an important start.

As for revenue decentralization, both countries encourage the resort to additional sources for fundraising such as donations, sponsoring and foreign assistance via school development projects. Generally, advertisement is allowed in the German vocational schools, yet is not widely used to protect school neutrality. On the other hand, the Egyptian vocational schools are not aware whether they are allowed to advertise or not. In addition, saving is allowed in the German vocational schools yet not allowed in the Egyptian vocational schools. Yet, the latter are able to initiate productive projects, resort to the NGOs, use the school fees, and in emergency cases a proportion of the money devoted to the BOTs as additional sources of revenues.

Moving on to the role of the school principals, it can be concluded that the school principals play an influential role in fundraising. In Germany, almost all the interviewed principals claim that they are the ones who take the initiative to approach the external world as well as motivate the teachers and the department heads to seize new funds and efficiently deploy the available resources. In Egypt, the majority of the school principals prohibit their school members from



receiving any donations or sponsoring in order to avoid acquiring any bad reputation. This demonstrated how the school principals might encourage or hinder fundraising based upon their belief-system of how they perceive fundraising.

Moreover, all the interviewed school principals in both countries accept the existence of a system of accountability and understand its importance. However, they demand a system of accountability with simplified and transparent procedures that may encourage fundraising.

Finally, even though not all the interviewed German and Egyptian principals raise funds. Yet, those who are the most to raise funds, are those who take initiatives, innovate, and look for creative ways of fundraising and vice versa. Hence, it can be concluded that the financial decentralization encourages the adoption of entrepreneurial leadership.

## **2 Connecting the types of education decentralization**

In the above sections, the effect of the different types of education decentralization on school leadership in the German and Egyptian vocational schools was explored. Moreover, it is possible to induct possible connections between the three types of education decentralization as follows:

### **The connection between decentralization of decision-making and administrative decentralization**

This connection can take place through various ways. One way can be through the nature of the relationship with the local educational authorities on one side and teacher selection as well as evaluation on the other side. When the principals and teachers feel that the local educational authorities do consider their opinions when selecting the (permanent) teachers, then they will more likely to feel that the local educational authorities support them and deal with them on equal basis. This can also be witnessed with evaluation. When the school principals feel that the local educational authorities are supporting them, they consider external evaluation as advisory. Furthermore, when external evaluation becomes advisory, helping the schools to achieve their goals and objectives, and not just looking for mistakes then the schools feel that the local educational authorities support them.

A second connection can be achieved through stakeholder involvement and evaluation. Chapter 5 demonstrated how the German vocational schools involve stakeholders like the peers or the pupils in evaluation and how in the Egyptian vocational schools the prime teachers evaluate teacher performance.

Hence, it can be also expected that progressive phases of decentralization of human resources may encourage the involvement of other stakeholders such as the parents and enterprises in evaluation. By doing so, the stakeholders will have a better understanding about what the schools are doing and what they need.

A third connection can be attained through training and stakeholder involvement. When the teachers and principals receive training on interpersonal and managerial skills they become open to the idea of stakeholder involvement and get acquainted with various tactics for enhancing this involvement.

A final connection can be achieved through stakeholder involvement and teams. The more the stakeholders are involved in the school, the more teachers and the principals become engaged with the stakeholders. This may reduce the single warrior mentality that many interviewed school principals claimed their schools to have suffered from and enhance thereby the effectiveness of the school teams. Also, this connection can work in the opposite way. The more work is done by teamwork, the easier it becomes for the teachers to involve the other stakeholders like other teachers, parents, pupils and local community members in their work without necessarily considering this as an interference in their work.

### **The connection between decentralization of decision-making and financial decentralization**

This connection can take place through the nature of the relationship with the local educational authorities and fundraising. When the school principals feel that the local educational authorities are supporting them and not waiting for mistakes, they may be encouraged to take the initiative and look for creative ways of fundraising.

A second connection can happen through stakeholder involvement and fundraising. The more the stakeholders, especially NGOs and local community members, are involved in the school life the higher the possibility that the stakeholders offer the schools various alternatives for fundraising.

A final connection can also be achieved through stakeholder involvement and accountability. When the stakeholders are involved in the decision-making process, they may develop an understanding for the problems that the schools are facing as well as feel "ownership" towards the taken decisions and hence, may hold the schools accountable for the ways they raise and spend funds.

## **The connection between administrative decentralization and financial decentralization**

This connection can be found through evaluation and financial management. Evaluation that focuses on outputs (the progress in goal implementation) and processes (how goals are implemented) next to the inputs (number of students, teaching hours and materials, attendance...etc) may foster effective allocation of financial resources by defining priorities and projects or programs in need of resources, as well as judging whether the financial resources were deployed efficiently and effectively.

A second connection can be achieved through training and financial management. When the teachers receive training on interpersonal and managerial skills then this may help them allocate the financial resources more efficiently as well as approach the stakeholders and detect various possibilities and rights for fundraising.

A final connection can be attained through teams and fundraising. Chapter 5 showed that when teams are built around certain projects or objectives they become effective. Hence, a team that focuses on raising additional funds for the school may be helpful in raising funds and allocating the financial resources efficiently.

From all the above, the connection between the three types of education decentralization can be summarized as follows: Decisions (taken by the various stakeholders) require financial and human resources to be implemented. Stakeholders may help the human resources find the needed financial resources to implement the decisions. Nevertheless, financial resources without the competent human resources may not lead to effective decision-making and implementation.

Literature revealed that the various countries might adopt different paths (whether simultaneously or incrementally) when implementing education decentralization (see chapter 1, part 1). Hence, there is no best way for implementing education decentralization and no generalizations can be drawn, a matter that sheds light on the study limitations.

### **3 Study limitations**

As mentioned before, this study aimed at exploring the effect of education decentralization on school leadership in the German and Egyptian vocational school. It did not by any mean intend to reach at the best practices or draw any generalizations, since chapter 1 has revealed that various countries adopted different paths when implementing education decentralization; whether with differ-

ent mixtures of decentralization and centralization, adopting the three types simultaneously or incrementally, or adopting them only in the educational sector or as a part of a larger plan of decentralizing the various governmental sectors. Thus, further studies may be required to highlight how education decentralization can be further implemented.

In addition, the study focused on the vocational schools in Bremen, Lower Saxony, Cairo, and Giza that based on chapter 2, witnessed decentralization attempts. The study also used the qualitative analysis to explore the opinions of the school principals, who are considered the best to explain how school leadership is affected by education decentralization. Thus, further research studying the effect of education decentralization in other countries and in general education schools as well as using the quantitative approach may verify the findings that this study has reached. Moreover, studying the opinions of other stakeholders like teachers or parents may also be further recommended to verify the findings of this study.

Finally, the connection between the three types of education decentralization was not subject of this study. Hence, further studies aiming at investigating the effect of associating the three types of education decentralization may be also recommended.

So far, this section has highlighted the study limitations and presented few recommendations that may overcome these limitations in future research. The next section presents future recommendations for a successful implementation of education decentralization.

#### **4 Recommendations**

By studying the effect of each type of education decentralization on school leadership in the German and Egyptian vocational school, the study was able to reach at various recommendations (for more detail see the end of chapter 4, chapter 5 and chapter 6). However, these recommendations can be summarized as below:

First, for a successful implementation of education decentralization, the goals and objectives of education decentralization have to be clear to the school principals, teachers and the stakeholders. When the principals, teachers and other stakeholders understand the objectives behind education decentralization, they become aware of their responsibilities and authorities. Hence, this will encourage them to take the initiatives and exploit the opportunities that they have. An example of this is fundraising. When the principals understand that financial

decentralization encourages the schools to raise funds without being condemned of being corrupt, they will not oppose donations and sponsoring, as it is the case with the majority of the interviewed German and Egyptian principals (see chapter 6).

Second, a real support and a strong will to implement education decentralization should exist. Various interviewed principals in both countries complained that they acquired additional authorities, yet the local educational authorities continue working according to the old ways. This makes them feel overloaded and hindered. Thus, for the successful implementation of education decentralization, the local educational authorities must be willing to give up part of their authorities and support the schools in their endeavors to achieve school autonomy. This in turn will relieve the school principals from unnecessary bureaucratic overloads and enable them to benefit from the authorities that they acquired.

Third, stakeholder involvement whether in decision-making, evaluation, or fundraising should be perceived as beneficial for the successful implementation of education decentralization. The stakeholders may present various interests, evaluate the schools from an angle that might be overseen by the schools, and may offer the schools opportunities of fundraising.

Fourth, training is essential for the successful implementation of education decentralization. When the school principals and teachers receive training on interpersonal and managerial skills next to their subject-related training, they become able to realize the importance of stakeholder involvement, evaluation, teamwork and looking for new ways of fundraising.

Fifth, establishing intermediary entities, such as the regional units in Egypt, that mediate the relationship between the schools and stakeholders (like enterprises, donors and sponsors) may balance and strengthen this relationship as well as enhance fundraising without being afraid that the schools will lose their neutrality or be condemned of being corrupt. This may have positive effects on the implementation of education decentralization.

Sixth, recruiting a managerial director, who would be responsible for the administrative and financial affairs, could relieve the school principals from various responsibilities and enable them to focus on the educational and pedagogic affairs, especially since the school principals are essentially teachers and not educated managers. This will in turn have positive effects on the implementation of education decentralization.

Finally, a system of evaluation that focuses on inputs, processes, and outputs is essential for the successful implementation of education decentralization. When evaluation focuses on inputs, the needed human and financial resources for implementing the school objectives can be identified. Moreover, when evaluation focuses also on processes and how the school objectives are implemented, the needs for training and teamwork may become obvious. Last, when evaluation focuses on outputs, it becomes possible to determine whether or not the human and financial resources were deployed efficiently, providing thereby an important feedback for future planning and implementation of school goal and objectives.

From the above, the following research questions may be suggested for future research:

- To which extent can the local educational authorities enhance or impede the implementation of education decentralization?
- What is the effect of stakeholder involvement on the implementation of education decentralization?
- How can training as well as input-, process-, and out-based evaluation enhance the implementation of education decentralization?
- To which extent can intermediary entities - such as the regional units in Egypt - enhance the implementation of education decentralization?
- How can the existence of a managerial director - who would take over the administrative and financial affairs - in the school enhance the implementation of education decentralization?

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## Appendix

### Interview questions

#### **I. Entscheidungsbefugnisse**

- Haben die Gesetze oder Reforme mehr Befugnisse zu den Schulen /Schulleitung gegeben? Wenn ja, welche??
- Wer trifft die wichtigsten Entscheidungen in der Schule?
- Wie betrachten Sie die Beziehung mit der Schulbehörde?
- Wie stark sind die Beziehungen mit den anderen Akteuren? Unternehmen- NGOs- lokale Gemeinschaft? Warum?
- Wünschen Sie weitere Änderungen?

#### **II. Administrative Befugnisse**

- *Personal Management*: Welche Befugnisse hat die Schule auf:
  - a) Rekrutierung und Entlassung
  - b) Training
  - c) Inspektion und Evaluation - Rechenschaft
  - d) Anreize
  - e) Wünschen Sie weitere Änderungen?
- *Organisation*: in wiefern kann die Schule die alltägliche Operation bestimmen:
  - a) Wünschen Sie weitere Änderungen?
- *Lehren*: können die Schulen selbst ihre Curricula und Textbücher feststellen?
- \_\_\_\_\_ Lehrmateriale?
- Arbeiten die LehrerInnen in Teams? Ist das gut oder schlecht?
- Wünschen Sie weitere Änderungen?

#### **III. Finanzielle Befugnisse**

- Wie erhalten Sie das Schulbudget? Block Grants?
- Sind die anderen möglichen Gelegenheiten für Geldaufbringung erlaubt?
- Kann die Schule selbst ihr Budget vorbereiten und durchführen? Sind Hindernisse vorhanden?
- Können sie für langfristige Investitionen sparen?
- Wie wird das ganze von den Behörden überwacht?
- Wünschen Sie weitere Änderungen?

Wie stark ist die Rolle von:

- Kultusministerien/Ministerium für Bildung? Eltern?
- Schulbehörden? Schülern?
- Schulleitung?
- LehrerInnen? Schulkonferenzen?

**Ist das deutsche/ägyptische System dezentralisiert? In Bewegung zur Dezentralisierung? Was ist ihre Meinung (dafür oder dagegen)?**