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Cultures of Educational Leadership: Researching and Theorising Common Issues in Different World Contexts

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Abstract	<p>While the need for leadership is perhaps universal across cultures, the practice of leadership is generally believed to be culturally situated. Different views exist in the leadership literature regarding the extent to which specific leader behaviours are transferable across cultures, leading some researchers to suggest that effective management and leadership processes should normally take account of the cultural and other contexts (Ayman 1993). Linked to this is an assumption that unique cultural features, for example, language, beliefs, values, religion and social organisation, demand that different leadership approaches are taken in different nations (Dorfman et al. 1997). Increasingly however, there has been a rise in recent research on educational leadership that includes a cross-cultural element, acknowledging that in addition to culture-specific tendencies, there may be more universal or broad-based approaches to understanding and practising leadership.</p>
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08 Researching and Theorising Common  
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10 Issues in Different World Contexts  
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14 *Paul Miller*  
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18 INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT  
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21 of leadership is generally believed to be culturally situated. Different views  
22 exist in the leadership literature regarding the extent to which specific leader  
23 behaviours are transferable across cultures, leading some researchers to  
24 suggest that effective management and leadership processes should normally  
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26 this is an assumption that unique cultural features, for example, language,  
27 beliefs, values, religion and social organisation, demand that different leader-  
28 ship approaches are taken in different nations (Dorfman et al. 1997).  
29 Increasingly however, there has been a rise in recent research on educational  
30 leadership that includes a cross-cultural element, acknowledging that in  
31 addition to culture-specific tendencies, there may be more universal or  
32 broad-based approaches to understanding and practising leadership.  
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40 In the first edition of *The Handbook of Leadership* (Stogdill 1974),  
41 cross-cultural leadership received only limited attention. In the second  
42 edition (Stogdill and Bass 1981), a chapter on cross-cultural issues in  
43 leadership was included. In the third edition (Bass 1990), the 1981  
44 chapter was revised and expanded, moving from circa 25 to circa 40  
45 pages. In 2003, Dickson et al. proposed that ‘it would be essentially  
46 impossible to prepare a single chapter that presented an exhaustive  
47 account of the research on cross-cultural issues and leadership’ (p. 730).  
48 Now, in 2016 the intention of this edited volume is to highlight the need  
49 for and relevance of intercultural and cross-cultural research in guiding our  
50 understanding of the practice of educational leadership pertaining to  
51 common in different educational contexts globally.

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52 A starting point for our discussion is the mid- to late 1990s, a  
53 period in which House and Aditya (1997) produced a comprehensive  
54 review of issues pertinent to cross-cultural research in the area of  
55 leadership. This was accompanied by insightful commentaries by  
56 Smith (1997) and Dorfman et al. (1997). This book is not to provide  
57 an update of advances in cross-cultural leadership research. Rather, it is  
58 to highlight the necessity of such research, in a time of increased  
59 globalisation and the continuing narrowing of cultural and other  
60 spaces. We are certainly not the only researchers to undertake inter-  
61 cultural and cross-cultural studies in educational leadership. However,  
62 we are the first to examine educational leadership practices and issues  
63 in the way we have. These will be discussed further in the methodo-  
64 logical approach. In their review in a special issue of *The Leadership*  
65 *Quarterly* on ‘International Leadership’, Peterson and Hunt (1997)  
66 raised concerns about the American bias (and arguably the Anglo-  
67 American bias) in several existing theories of leadership and high-  
68 lighted the importance of scientific approaches to studying leadership.  
69 In producing this book, we do not present a simple collection of  
70 articles. Instead we present empirical research organised and grouped  
71 by related themes, although each chapter can stand on its own, debat-  
72 ing an issue or an element of practice or research in educational  
73 leadership that has been examined across different countries and edu-  
74 cational contexts. In organising our work in this way, it is proposed  
75 this approach is both an innovative and sophisticated way of examining  
76 and incorporating intercultural and cross-cultural issues in educational  
77 leadership.

## CONCEPTUAL ISSUES: INTERCULTURAL AND CROSS-CULTURAL

Intercultural and cross-cultural understanding is about taking an interest in and showing empathy towards people from other groups (Alred et al. 2003, p. 3). Intercultural and cross-cultural understanding was, traditionally, a part of foreign language education, concerned with the ‘foreign’ and ‘the strange’. Over time, however, and with the advance of globalisation, intercultural and cross-cultural education has become an important role in promoting global harmony and global social justice (Besley and Peters 2012). In its White Paper, *Intercultural Dialogue: Living Together as Equals in Dignity*, The Council of Europe (2008) emphasised the need for Europe to more purposefully engage in interculturalism in order to cope with diversity in the age of globalisation (Besley et al. 2011).

Without question, increased interconnectedness is fuelling intercultural awareness and understanding. As Dimmock and Walker (2005) proposed: ‘Understanding what a culture is and why it is so important in determining our relationship with other people are key elements of global citizenship...’ (p. 25). Nevertheless, as Rule (2012, p. 336) asserts, there are a number of obstacles to intercultural understanding, including the imposition of Western languages and a broadly Eurocentric world view. Martin and Griffiths (2012) question whether intercultural understanding is possible within a global context of domination and inequality. Allmen (2011) acknowledges inequality of educational opportunity and cultural exchange by pointing out that ‘Intercultural pedagogy tries to encompass the World by deploying “the other as the supplement of knowledge”’ (p. 35). Sealey and Carter (2004) suggest that individuals can position themselves in intercultural conversations, thus influencing what is heard and how this is translated.

### *Intercultural, Cross-Cultural, Culture*

There is some confusion in the available literature concerning the meaning of the terms cross-cultural and intercultural. As a result, it is important to clarify how these feature in this important work. Cross-cultural connotes a comparison or contrast between two or more cultural groups (Lustig and Koester 1993). On the other hand, intercultural means ‘equitable exchange and dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples based on a mutual understanding and respect and the equal dignity of all cultures is the essential prerequisite for constructing social cohesion, reconciliation among peoples

118 and peace among nations' (United Nations 2005). In other words, inter-  
119 cultural refers to what happens when people from two (or more) culturally  
120 different groups come together, interact and communicate (Lustig and  
121 Koester 1993). Both terms, intercultural and cross-cultural, are important  
122 to our work in this book.

123 Culture is a contested term. Hofstede (1991) defined culture as 'the  
124 collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the member of  
125 one group or category of people from another' (p. 5). Spencer-Oatey  
126 (2000) extends this notion by suggesting: 'Culture is a fuzzy set of  
127 attitudes, beliefs, behavioural norms, and basic assumptions and values  
128 that are shared by a group of people, and that influence each member's  
129 behaviour and his/her interpretations of the "meaning" of other people's  
130 behaviour' (p. 4). These definitions position culture as both a product and  
131 a process, which are important notions in this book.

## 132 133 INTERCULTURAL AND CROSS-CULTURAL RESEARCH IN 134 EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP 135

136 Intercultural and cross-cultural research is not as straightforward as one may  
137 think. As noted by Gill (2011) and Earley (2013), leadership is a contested  
138 term with no universally agreed definition. As discussed previously, 'culture'  
139 is also a contested term with different shades of meanings. Dickson et al.  
140 (2003) argue that the term 'leadership' presents 'no clear understanding of  
141 the boundaries of the construct...' (p. 732). In adding intercultural and  
142 cross-cultural dimensions to the mix in educational leadership research, far  
143 from simplifying matters, this makes identifying a precise definition a more  
144 complex and confusing one. Without a workable framework that helps to  
145 narrow and guide intercultural and cross-cultural research in educational  
146 leadership therefore, it is possible for research in this area to be fragmented  
147 and incoherent. In *Cultures' Consequences* (1980), Hofstede argues for such  
148 a framework and proposes that cultural differences are primarily about  
149 shared values or about values believed to be preferred by some in certain  
150 cases, although not all, in all cases. Hofstede also argues that in cross-  
151 cultural research, three fundamental questions are to be considered: 'What  
152 are we comparing? Are nations suitable units for this comparison? Are the  
153 phenomena we look at functionally equivalent?' These are important ques-  
154 tions that align with the aims, methodology and design of this book.

155 Graen et al. (1997) assert that the focus of cross-cultural research is on  
156 comparability. They argue, 'Emics are things that are unique to a culture,

157 whereas etics are things that are universal to all cultures. Emics are by definition  
158 not comparable across cultures. One task of cross-cultural researchers, hence, is  
159 to identify emics and etics' (p. 162). By design, this book is about examining  
160 intercultural and cross-cultural leadership through both emics and etics  
161 perspectives.

162 Despite the growing importance and appeal of intercultural and cross-  
163 cultural research, only 'few researchers and educators rely on empirical  
164 cross cultural and intercultural research to interpret their observations'  
165 (Dahl 2003, p. 1). A commonly acknowledged example of a large research  
166 project on cross-cultural issues in leadership is the Global Leadership and  
167 Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project (House et al.  
168 2004). In their project, covering 60 countries and over 180 researchers,  
169 House et al. examined the relationship between leadership, societal culture  
170 and organisational culture. Crucially, what we attempted to do and indeed  
171 have been successful in doing with this work, *Cultures of Educational*  
172 *Leadership*, has never before been done in the field of educational leader-  
173 ship. That is, whereas the GLOBE Project focused on leadership in  
174 organisations, the focus of our work in this book is on educational  
175 leadership.

176 Before this book however, other researchers have undertaken work in  
177 educational leadership that has been described as 'international' or 'com-  
178 parative' or both. In doing so, such works have broadened the scope of  
179 research in educational leadership from the usual developed countries in  
180 the English-speaking world to countries in the developing world, and in  
181 doing so 'other voices' have entered into the debates and literature pro-  
182 viding possibilities for more inclusive evaluation of issues to be under-  
183 taken. For example in 2012, the *Journal of the University College of the*  
184 *Cayman Islands* carried a special issue on *The Changing Nature of*  
185 *Educational Leadership: Caribbean and International Perspectives*. In its  
186 editorial, Miller (2012) positions the special issue as contributing to our  
187 understanding of educational leadership within, across and beyond the  
188 Caribbean region. This special issue was followed by *School Leadership in*  
189 *the Caribbean: Perceptions, Practices and Paradigms* (Miller 2013), which  
190 provides multiple insights of school leadership and practices within,  
191 between and among English-speaking Caribbean countries. Practices are  
192 examined through lens of religious, cultural, social and historical founda-  
193 tions adding useful dimensions to our study and understanding of school  
194 leadership practice. In *Multidimensional Perspectives on Principal*  
195 *Leadership Effectiveness*, Beycioglu and Pashiardis (2014) provide crucial

196 exploration of challenges faced by principals, as well as the impact of new  
 197 managerial tactics being employed by education ministries/departments  
 198 in multiple contexts. In *Building Cultural Community through Global*  
 AQ3 199 *Educational Leadership*, Harris and Mixon (2014) underline how globa-  
 200 lisation can impact educational leadership and practice. In the main, they  
 201 highlighted the role of a global leader in the education setting in a time of  
 202 complexity in tackling social, political, economic and especially social  
 203 justice issues. A main limitation of all these works however is that chapters,  
 204 except in a small number of cases, tend to focus on a single country,  
 205 thereby limiting opportunities for deep cross-cultural analysis based  
 206 upon a common methodological frame.

207 Nevertheless, in *Educational Leadership: Culture & Diversity*, a pre-  
 208 cursor to these works, Dimmock and Walker (2005) provide a thorough  
 209 treatment and an integrated analysis of the importance of understanding  
 210 culture, leadership and their interaction in different contexts through  
 211 comparative accounts of Anglo-American and Asian schooling systems.  
 212 They also highlight cultural differences between societies, leadership prac-  
 213 tices associated with multicultural schools and cultural and contextual  
 214 factors influencing teaching and learning. Things also moved further  
 215 forward with the publication of *Exploring School Leadership in England*  
 216 *& the Caribbean: New Insights from a Comparative Approach* (Miller  
 217 2016), which used a common methodological frame between the coun-  
 218 tries involved in the study, and in *Successful School Leadership:*  
 219 *International Perspectives*, (Pashiardis and Johannson 2016), which pre-  
 220 sents chapter analysis based on regions of the world examined. A limita-  
 221 tion of Miller's work is that, despite focusing on common issues between  
 222 very different countries and educational systems, its coverage only extends  
 223 to two countries—England and Jamaica. A limitation of Pashiardis and  
 224 Johannson's work, on the other hand, is that although chapters are  
 225 nominally based on regions, some chapters include only one or two  
 226 countries, though not all.

227 This book, *Cultures of Educational Leadership*, therefore goes furthest in  
 228 providing a comprehensive evaluation of issues related to educational leader-  
 229 ship in different parts of the world in an integrated manner in that each chapter:

- 231 • Uses a single method/approach to gather data per chapter regardless
- 232 of the number of countries included in that chapter
- 233 • Includes a minimum of three countries per chapter, one of which
- 234 must be a developing country



- Includes a mix of developed and developing countries per chapter
- Includes countries from at least two continents per chapter
- Includes countries from the six world continents

Our work is in 11 chapters, representing 6 continents and includes 18 countries and 35 contributors. This book is intended to provide an authentic, critical insight into the social construction and practice of educational leadership in multiple contexts since, as we have come to agree, the practice and enactment of leadership is culturally and contextually situated. This idea is illustrated by Bordas (2007), who argues that ‘Only by becoming aware of how society is structured to perpetuate the dominance of some groups and to limit access to others, will leaders be able to create a framework for the just and equal society in which diversity can flourish’ (p. 112).

## CULTURES OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Globalisation has led to the narrowing of physical and cultural spaces, the result of which has been the creation of multicultural societies and communities, providing opportunities for bidirectional and multi-directional sharing of knowledge, values and understandings. Notwithstanding, as countries and regions collaborate and cooperate, our understanding of national and regional cultures, cultural spaces and cultural practices is arguably not as developed as one might expect, and our attitudes are sometimes premised on differences and not on similarities. Some studies, although providing ‘authority’ through their ‘global’ and ‘international’ labels, have only included countries from the developed world in their analyses, and in many others, where developing countries have been included, these countries are often typecast as problematic and in need of assistance to raise them up to standard. Research conducted in this way sustains negative tension between the intellectual needs of developing countries and Western intellectual hegemony, where developing countries are treated as intellectual dumping grounds for international ideas (Bristol 2012). This book is therefore a simultaneous attempt to re-balance and balance current discourses in educational leadership through a global integrated issues-based research approach.

Globalisation is a rapid, highly interactive phenomenon that has simultaneously reset and surpassed the boundaries of economics and is actively setting new challenges within all aspects of life, including in education.

274 Increasingly, educational institutions in both developed and developing  
275 countries are expected to account for and respond to the impacts of this  
276 phenomenon that has frustrated scientific precision (Croucher 2004).  
277 Furthermore, as global interconnectedness intensifies, educational institu-  
278 tions, from nursery to university, are tasked with equipping learners to live  
279 and work in a much narrower world economy. Because of this, education  
280 itself and schooling can no longer be seen as the preserve of a nation but as  
281 an international tool for individual and social transformation (Bristol  
282 2012). Similarly, educational leadership can no longer be seen as deliver-  
283 ing outcomes for a nation state but rather for a globalised economy,  
284 although in the process one might expect the exercise of leadership to  
285 increase a nation's competitiveness. Educational leadership therefore may  
286 be thought of as both a lock and a key, to be used to secure and safeguard  
287 and to release and reassure.

288 But globalisation is not about to disappear and should therefore be  
289 seen as an important element in any debate on intercultural and cross-  
290 cultural research in educational leadership. As Miller puts it, 'Faced with  
291 external factors such as the recent economic meltdown, globalisation and  
292 changing borderland narratives and shifts in government policy, educa-  
293 tion institutions the world over are being forced to "do education  
294 differently"'. This shift is as much about the leadership of policymakers  
295 in education departments and ministries as it is about the practice of  
296 leadership by school leaders and teachers at all levels' (2012, p. 10).  
297 Miller's observations bring to light three important things. First, globa-  
298 lisation has had and continues to have an impact on the policy, practice  
299 and research of educational leadership in countries all over the world.  
300 Second, educational leadership (policy, practice) must respond to  
301 changes in the environment with new, different and innovative practices  
302 and ideas. Third, ongoing environmental changes to life and work pro-  
303 vide opportunities for researchers to engage in integrated issues-based  
304 inquiry. It is these underpinnings that lay the foundation for this book—  
305 the main content of which is summarised next, based upon the two  
306 dominant themes of chapters received.

### 307 308 *Social Justice, Gender, Intersectionality* 309

310 The theme of empowerment and social justice is quite dominant throughout  
311 the book—acknowledging its importance for countries and individuals,  
312 although simultaneously underlining the struggles and (structural) imbalances

313 inherent in all societies. In their chapter on *Social Justice Perspective on Women*  
314 *in Educational Leadership in Scotland, England, New Zealand, Jamaica*,  
315 Torrance et al. (this volume) propose, 'In truth, we still know very little  
316 about women in educational leadership as a social justice issue within any  
317 individual country's context and far less across countries and continents.'  
318 Walrond (2009) argues that research within minority, and arguably minori-  
319 tised communities, helps to give voice to others previously silenced. This  
320 chapter did not seek to highlight victimisation among women school leaders,  
321 but rather for their experiences and perceptions to be acknowledged and  
322 documented. As Murakami et al. proposed, 'There is no silver bullet or a  
323 one size fits all approach,' although what is noticeable from the stories of  
324 women school leaders in the chapter by Torrance et al. (this volume) is that 'At  
325 the core of these women's vulnerable selves is an articulated dynamism and  
326 energy that expertly toggles between the social, scientific, and political'  
327 (Murakami et al., this volume), underlining Blackmore's (2009) point that  
328 'The challenge for any transnational dialogue is understanding the new global  
329 terrain beyond national borders' (p. 4) and Hall's (1993) suggestion that 'we  
330 all write and speak from a particular place and time, from a history and culture,  
331 which is specific' (p. 222).

332 It is of note that the study by Torrance et al. included interviewing  
333 school leaders in environments where women make up the majority of the  
334 teaching profession and in some cases both teaching and leadership roles  
335 (as in the case of Jamaica). This is important, since, to date, studies on  
336 women in leadership and minority-related issues of identity and alienation  
337 have tended to be located in developed countries, in particular the United  
338 Kingdom, the United States and Canada. Nevertheless, as the authors  
339 have acknowledged, the emerging findings from their chapter reflect the  
340 view of Bogotch (2014, p. 62) that 'Social justice as an educational  
341 practice is inclusive of all members of the world's population regardless  
342 of governmental structures, cultures, or ideologies, and it accounts for  
343 innumerable contingencies of life-influencing individual outcomes or  
344 unpredictable consequences of our actions'.

345 In their study on *Educational Leadership among Women of Colour in*  
346 *United States, Canada, New Zealand*, Murakami et al. (this volume)  
347 highlight how important these issues are by drawing on positive attributes  
348 from the particular ethnic, cultural, linguistic and, sometimes, national  
349 identities of women leaders advancing social justice (Santamaría and Jean-  
350 Marie 2014) to explore the meaning of social justice leadership for women  
351 of colour, recognising their role in challenging hegemonic practices and in

352 forging new paths through their research. The activist approach taken by  
 353 Murakami et al. is consistent with the view that recognising [and challeng-  
 354 ing] the relationship between leadership and cultural and contextual  
 355 influences can lead to improvements in practice (Dimmock and Walker  
 356 2005). Such improvements are sometimes delayed or restricted and may  
 357 be due to several reasons. For example, in 1997 Motzafi-Haller argued  
 358 that the experiences of women and people of colour were considered less  
 359 authentic and unscientific in attempts to theorise issues of difference.  
 360 Showing some movement in this area, Murakami et al. (this volume)  
 361 instead propose:

363 In this chapter, women leaders of color in different contexts reimagine a new  
 364 leadership discourse toward social, political and scientific rejuvenation and  
 365 reclamation. Scholars do this by looking inward and outward simultaneously  
 366 taking the position that their realization and manifestation of leadership  
 367 practice is irreconcilably intertwined with their social, political, and scientific  
 368 identities. The authors' individual and collective critical stances are on the  
 369 cutting edge of scholarship in educational leadership arguably pushing  
 370 beyond what is known and currently practiced in the field.

371 Moorosi et al. (this volume) disrupt the geographical imbalance on  
 372 research on social justice and intersectionality issues by including South  
 373 Africa in their chapter on race, gender and leadership in South Africa, the  
 374 United States and the United Kingdom. They found that the women had  
 375 more in common around early family support, their socialisation towards  
 376 dreaming and a desire to give back to students 'like them', to be over-  
 377 whelming drivers and levers in their professional lives. Like Torrance et al.,  
 378 Moorosi et al. have been 'struck by the similarities between diverse coun-  
 379 tries' (Torrance et al., this volume) in the experiences of the school  
 380 leaders. In producing the evaluation in the way they have, Moorosi et al.  
 381 foregrounded Norberg et al.'s (2014) conclusions that 'social justice  
 382 leadership in practice, despite the national context, offers more common-  
 383 alities than differences' (p. 101). Furthermore, as Moorosi et al. (this  
 384 volume) put it 'By crossing boundaries, including breaking out of the  
 385 powerful structures of inequalities such as poverty, racism and sexism, to  
 386 succeed in education and by breaking out of the powerful discriminatory  
 387 attitudes in education to succeed in educational leadership, these women  
 388 demonstrated their exercise of agency.' This is an important finding for  
 389 women everywhere who have faced racial, gendered and/or other  
 390

391 discrimination, opening up possibilities for further research on intersec-  
 392 tionality and educational leadership in different cultural and country con-  
 393 texts. As the authors also propose, the success of these women school  
 394 leaders should not be seen as ‘colluding with the mainstream’ but instead  
 395 as ‘collectively opening up transformative possibilities for their commu-  
 396 nity’ by ‘the power of education to transform and change the hegemonic  
 397 discourse’ (Mirza 1997, p. 276).

398 In their chapter, Showunmi and Kaparou (this volume) also highlight  
 399 intersectional and social justice issues in Pakistan, England and Malaysia in  
 400 relation to ethnicity, culture, gender and class among school leaders.  
 401 Issues such as role stereotyping and discrimination, debated by the AQ6  
 402 authors, conclude that issues of intersectionality presented in the chapter  
 403 only appear to surface-level treatment from those responsible for making AQ7  
 404 change. This important finding simultaneously widens the debate on  
 405 social justice and intersectionality and underlines the fact that ‘[I]n the  
 406 field of educational leadership, intersectionality approaches have not gen-  
 407 erated either ideas or drive for policy or behaviour change’ (Lumby 2014,  
 408 p. 20). Shields (2003, p. 8) argues, ‘commitment and good intentions are AQ8  
 409 not enough’ and where such exists, these must be matched by activism  
 410 described by Murakami et al. (this volume) as ‘social, political and scien-  
 411 tific’, or put another way: people, leverage and research.

412 García-Carmona et al. (this volume) intensify the debate on women in  
 413 leadership; social justice and leadership; race and leadership; and leadership  
 414 and intersectionality in their chapter on gender and leadership through a  
 415 secondary analysis of Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)  
 416 data for Brazil, Singapore and Spain. Citing a plethora of literature on aspects  
 417 of leadership practice, the authors argue that ‘there are very few studies aimed  
 418 at helping our understanding of school leadership at a multiple country level’.  
 419 Such recognition not only affirms the need for cross-cultural and intercultural  
 420 research in educational leadership, but underlines the important role this book  
 421 has in bridging the gap in literature and research design, thereby adding to the  
 422 field. From their detailed analysis across three countries, the authors argue that  
 423 although there were differences in the experiences of school leaders within and  
 424 across the countries, there were many more similarities. For example, ‘women  
 425 show a tendency to leader in schools through a distributed leadership which is  
 426 a disadvantage if we consider that they should master both instructional and  
 427 distributed leadership styles’ (García-Carmona et al., this volume) and ‘suc-  
 428 cessful school leaders must master both the leading and the learning environ-  
 429 ments and they must navigate and shape the school-level context in order to

430 reform the teaching and learning context. For that reason, it should be  
431 considered a necessity for training in both distributed and instructional leader-  
432 ship for principals before to occupy their positions.’ As observed by Torrance  
433 et al. (this volume), ‘It is hoped these case studies provide potential for a cross-  
434 phase comparison (primary and secondary contexts) as well as a cross-national  
435 comparison of contexts, influences, possibilities and challenges’ of the kind  
436 that situates sound leadership at the heart of successful educational systems  
437 (Miller 2012) whether exercised by male or female.

### 438 439 *Policy, Whole School Development and Sustainability*

441 As we know, the practice and enactment of school leadership is individually,  
442 culturally and contextually bound. Nevertheless, global discourses and debates  
443 within and outside education can have a direct impact on the practice of school  
444 leaders in every corner of the globe. From performativity to benchmark  
445 standards, and accountability to high-stakes testing—these and other factors  
446 are having a significant impact on what goes on inside schools, and both  
447 developing and developed countries appear to be caught up in the race to  
448 driving up performance and achievement standards. In their chapter on *Policy*  
449 *Leadership, School Improvement and Staff Development in England, Tanzania*  
450 *and South Africa*, Middlewood et al. (this volume) summarise:  
451

452  
453 In developed countries, where a market-led school choice model operates,  
454 schools have inevitably become dislocated from their own communities and  
455 in many less developed countries, issues of lack of resources, vast distances  
456 and historical divisions hinder opportunities for much national cohesion.  
457 Effective change, we suggest, is most likely to happen when a number of  
458 schools work or operate within networks or partnerships of various kinds,  
459 where they can together devise their own system(s) for innovation and  
460 development in learning and teaching.

461  
462 These important observations confirm two important issues. First, a market-  
463 led model of schooling is affecting schools in the developing world, albeit in  
464 different ways. Second, to remain relevant for the times we live in, schools in  
465 both the developed and developing world must engage in innovative teach-  
466 ing and learning, and collaborative partnership arrangements that extend  
467 current opportunities for those who work and study in them.  
468

469 Meaningful change that engages with and embraces diversity of cul-  
470 tures, peoples and regions is easier said than achieved. Nevertheless, and  
471 being mindful of the apparent dilemma, the authors suggest:

472  
473 With research evidence over a period of years indicating that cross-nation  
474 practice was erroneously based on the concept of successfully transposing  
475 lessons from one culture to another, especially western culture onto eastern  
476 culture, (Stephens, 2012) ideas are needed for practice which can have  
477 positive effects in a range of countries. It is necessary therefore to seek  
478 ideas about practices which are universal to the way people operate, and at  
479 the same time applicable to contexts in countries which may have widely  
480 different geographical, political and resource issues.

481  
482 This is an important observation aimed at inviting voices previously  
483 ‘silent’, ‘uninvited’ or ‘disempowered’ to contribute to debates and a  
484 field of knowledge that needs to be inclusive in order to be relevant and  
485 in which being relevant means to be inclusive.

486 School principals across the world are, more and more, being required  
487 to lead successful schools—usually measured in terms of students’ out-  
488 comes. In their chapter, Abawi et al. (this volume) discuss the importance  
489 and process of leadership in high-achieving contexts in Brazil, Malta and  
490 Australia through a research-based framework. Although the importance  
491 of leadership is not in doubt, the process of leadership is less straightfor-  
492 ward, that is, ‘how to do leadership’. Torrance and Humes (2015) allude  
493 to this difficulty in positioning school leadership as ‘embedded both  
494 horizontally and vertically... within a distributed perspective’ (p. 793).  
495 From his work on high-performing principals, Hutton (2011) asserts that  
496 effective principals often navigate conundrums brought about by factors in  
497 a school’s external environment and those in a school’s internal environ-  
498 ment. These conundrums, however, are important in shaping, and perhaps  
499 in determining, the kind of leadership exercised by principals and received  
500 by their publics. Hutton further proposes that it is the degree and intensity  
501 to which the internal and external factors intersect that will determine the  
502 quality of leadership success.

503 Hutton’s observation extends the notion of successful leadership as a  
504 practice driven by ‘outcomes’ for students, but a practice that is fraught  
505 with external and internal challenges, which, in the process of negotiating  
506 outcomes for students, principals sharpen the quality of leadership they  
507

508 provide. Holden describes this improvement in leadership quality as ‘a  
 509 personal sense of personal agency, empowerment’ emanating from a  
 510 principal’s ‘conscious and deliberate interaction with the culture of the  
 school’ (2002, p. 12). As Sirotnik and Clark (1988) underline:

512  
 513 [T]he schools that make a difference are those that extend the leadership to  
 514 include others that focus not only on academic issues but also address the  
 515 affective domain. Rather than merely following prescription or the dictates  
 516 of central authorities, quality change and quality improvement depends on  
 517 the inner potential of school staff—on the ‘heads, hands and hearts’ of  
 518 educators who work in schools. (p. 660)

519  
 520 As Miller and Hutton (2014) argue, school leadership is ‘situated’ within  
 521 an individual but emerges from how they engage with and manage,  
 522 negotiate and navigate factors in a school’s internal and external environ-  
 523 ments. Nevertheless, by focusing on ‘heads, hands, and hearts’ (Sirotnik  
 524 and Clark 1988, p. 660), school leaders are making the point that capacity  
 525 exists at different levels within their school organisation and making use of  
 526 this capacity has potential to enhance individual and organisational  
 527 growth.

528 Without question, teachers play an important role in the success of  
 529 schools. In his economic-motor model of schooling, Miller (2016) char-  
 530 characterised teachers as ‘mechanics’ (p. 144), ‘providing students, through  
 531 their skills, knowledge and experience the knowledge and skills they need  
 532 to function effectively and independently in society’ (Miller 2016). Yet,  
 533 the needs of teachers, in particular those newly qualified, can be over-  
 534 looked as schools press forward to achieving goals for students.  
 535 Nevertheless, where systems are in place to support their professional  
 536 development, teachers are more likely to grow and to thrive. As one  
 537 teacher in the study by Majocha et al. puts it: ‘Communicating and sharing  
 538 what I am struggling with helps me analyze the problems I am facing and  
 539 develop different methods to deal with old problems we have in public  
 540 teaching context’ (in this volume). In their study of teacher development  
 541 in Brazil, Canada, Pakistan and South Africa, Majocha et al. highlight that  
 542 investment in people development is not only smart human resources  
 543 management but smart public policy (Miller 2016). As Clutterbuck  
 544 (1992) states, ‘A mentor is a more experienced individual, willing to  
 545 share his/her knowledge with someone less experienced in a relationship  
 546 of mutual trust’ (p. 12).



547 The idea of mentoring and coaching for and among teachers is not new  
548 and its benefits are well documented. Kram (1985) notes that mentoring  
549 is about the career progression as well as the psycho-social development of  
550 individuals. From the case studies presented, Majocha et al. note:

551  
552 The commonality shared by all the participants from Brazil, Canada, South  
553 Africa, and Pakistan is that their more experienced colleagues are supportive  
554 and encouraging during their first years of teaching. When novice teachers  
555 are struggling, they go to their colleagues to seek support for their teaching  
556 strategies to overcome student learning. Therefore, in order for them to  
557 learn well among their colleagues, there is an availability of collaborative  
558 dialogue which will make their individual learning accessible and personal  
559 through their supportive colleagues.

560  
561 Increasing individual, team and, ultimately, organisational capacity  
562 (Mitchell and Sackney 2009) appeared to have been an important out-  
563 come for both mentors and newly qualified teachers. The overriding  
564 argument by Majocha et al. however was that ‘when novice teachers are  
565 supported through professional learning communities, and there are  
566 opportunities for dialogue with colleagues within their school districts,  
567 the ultimate winners are the students. The students gain in achievement  
568 when their teachers gain confidence and efficacy’. The implications for  
569 teacher development vis-à-vis staff mentoring and staff involvement in  
570 communities of practice and in learning communities are quite clear, be  
571 they local and/or international communities.

572 Intercultural and cross-cultural learning are examined through Miller and  
573 Potter’s (in this volume) account of whole school learning across borders.  
574 Highlighting how bidirectional flows of students and staff can contribute to  
575 individual, team and organisational development (Mitchell and Sackney  
576 2009), the confluence of human, social and decisional capitals (Hargreaves  
577 and Fullan 2012, p. 88) is examined. This sense of professional community  
578 underpins their work with a view that working together is ultimately better  
579 for the whole since this provides opportunities for cross-fertilisation of skills  
580 and knowledge to take place. Dimmock (2012) argues for ‘A new concep-  
581 tualisation of educational leadership for the twenty-first century’ (p. 18),  
582 where leadership is ‘aimed at marshalling resources in ways that maximise  
583 capacity’ (Dimmock 2012). This view of organisational development is one  
584 that is inclusive and that suggests that capacity and capital can be increased  
585 through partnership. Conway et al. sustain the narrative on whole school

586 development by an examination of stories from school leaders in Australia,  
 587 South Africa and Canada. Turning to a well-ventilated debate about whether  
 588 leaders are born or made, the authors appropriately remind us that ‘the  
 589 complexity of leadership is far more than adhering to predetermined frame-  
 590 works and standards’. The professional development of school leaders mat-  
 591 ters, perhaps more so in cultures of performativity. While Miller and Hutton  
 592 (2014) remind us that effective school leadership is ‘situated’ within an  
 593 individual, Addison (2009) reminds us of a game in which principals  
 594 appeared to have been seduced, ‘a game in which market-based economic  
 595 imperatives have become central to both their professional success and  
 596 professional leadership’ (p. 335). Principals have been described extensively  
 597 as ‘drivers’ and as such they have huge responsibility to learners, their families  
 598 and a nation’s education system. In his economic-motor model of schooling,  
 599 Miller (2016) argues, ‘principals are the “drivers” of government policy at  
 600 the operational level, and they do so in relation to their school’s context,  
 601 their vision for the school, the resources available to the school and in  
 602 relation to where the school is currently “at”’ (p. 143).

603 The importance of policy, context, personal values and resources is all  
 604 important to how a principal will (be able to) lead. In foregrounding the  
 605 peculiarities of context and through the stories of principals in multiple  
 606 contexts, Conway et al. confirm:

608 The greatest value in this relatively small study has been the richness of the  
 609 principals’ voices. Each principal generously shared their perspectives and  
 610 provided opportunity for valuable conclusions within the parameters of this  
 611 chapter. Of significance is the interpretation of the principals’ roles in  
 612 relation to the context categorised as structural, relational, and cultural. In  
 613 conclusion, there is evidence to suggest that two specific factors contribute  
 614 to the way in which the individual principal perceives the role of school  
 615 leadership—the nature of the context, and the relationship between the  
 616 system and the school (in this volume). The implications for successful  
 617 school leadership are clear when one considers the changing nature of  
 618 school leadership in response to local and global performativity pressures.

619 Fullan (2004) argues that ‘Nothing beats learning in context’ (p. 16)—  
 620 which is an important consideration for organising cross-border collabora-  
 621 tions aimed at capacity building. Fullan’s point is further elaborated by  
 622 Wilkins (2013) that transformational leaders create infrastructure for capa-  
 623 city building that connects homes, workplaces and civic spaces through the

625 school networks—a realisation borne out by Miller and Potter in their  
626 chapter on study tours between England, Jamaica, Albania and Malawi.  
627 They argue, ‘The objectives of the study tours have been achieved. There  
628 has been a narrowing of the gap between peoples and places and there has  
629 been a cultural introduction (and immersion) for participants, not obtain-  
630 able from textbooks.’ Dimmock (2012) argues that ‘one is able to arrive at a  
631 fuller and more holistic understanding of leadership and schooling by pla-  
632 cing them in the larger social context of which they are a part’ (p. 202). This  
633 point was amplified by Miller and Potter’s overarching conclusion that ‘*The*  
634 *greatest value in this study has been the richness of the participant’s voices.*  
635 *Of significance is the participant’s understanding that through their capacity*  
636 *building tours to other countries, their contextualised (situated; original)*  
637 *knowledge has been de-contextualised (disrupted; altered based on the*  
638 *introduction of new information) and as a result, attitudes and actions are*  
639 *set to be re-contextualised.’ These findings reflect important personal and*  
640 *cross-cultural shifts for staff and students who’ve simultaneously experienced*  
641 *a ‘contextualised’ and ‘de-contextualised’ educational experience that will*  
642 *go some way in preparing them to more successfully and competently*  
643 *function in an increasingly global environment.*

## 644 CROSS-CULTURAL RESEARCH AND THEORY BUILDING

647 Through our examination of the range of issues presented in this book from  
648 national, cultural, intercultural, international and cross-cultural perspec-  
649 tives, one cannot escape the similarities between developed and developing  
650 country contexts and Western and non-Western countries. While more  
651 Western countries are represented in the book, the inclusion of countries  
652 from the six world continents and the treatment given to non-Western  
653 countries, particularly smaller developing countries, represent a significant  
654 move towards narrowing the gap in studies in educational leadership.  
655 Although Western countries in this book tend to produce practices that  
656 are largely similar, the findings from non-Western countries have added new  
657 and useful insights into the practice and research of educational leadership.  
658 Nevertheless, there were several issues that appeared equally between and  
659 among all countries. For example, social justice issues, in particular female  
660 participation in leadership, especially among black, Asian and minority  
661 ethnic women, are an area of concern and research interest for developed  
662 and developing countries alike. Similarly, whole school development, in  
663 particular teacher and principal development, remains an area of focus for

664 all countries. Furthermore, the enthusiasm and ‘drive’ among principals in  
 665 navigating internal and external factors in the forms of cultural, relational  
 666 and structural challenges to better enable them to ‘best’ serve their publics is  
 667 a matter for practice and research in both developed and developing coun-  
 668 tries. Other issues that emerged include leadership approaches among  
 669 women, in particular distributed and instructional leadership, and whether  
 670 or how these approaches influence attainment among students. The use of  
 671 cross-border experiential learning to engage individuals, groups and schools  
 672 in cross-cultural and intercultural learning for both staff and students is a  
 673 matter for policy, research and practice.

674 In returning to the debate about cultural specifics and cultural universal  
 675 aspects of leadership, one is reminded of Bond and Smith’s (1996) exposi-  
 676 tion that ‘*The search* for universals and an emphasis upon indigenous  
 677 culture-specifics are often cast as contradictory enterprises that exemplify  
 678 contrasting etic and emic approaches. Yet these concepts are no more  
 679 separable than nature and nurture’ (p. 226). The result of our examination  
 680 provides that similarities and differences between and among cultures can  
 681 be sensibly incorporated into appropriate theoretical frameworks, thereby  
 682 adding to our understanding of the specific cultures being studied.  
 683 Furthermore, it is possible that through hybrid research designs (Earley  
 684 and Singh 1995), such as the approach used in this book, there is oppor-  
 685 tunity for meaningful cross-cultural comparisons to be made and for  
 686 cultural differences and variations to be more appropriately understood.

## 687 688 CONCLUSIONS

689 Samoff (1999) highlights the global diffusion of Western ideas, highlight-  
 690 ing assumptions about how knowledge should be ordered from the  
 691 Western core to Southern periphery, with the ‘core’ maintaining its  
 692 authority and leaving the periphery to mimic discourses and practices  
 693 established by the core. Knowledge organised along these lines reinforces  
 694 the continuance of powerful social forces along Anglo-American elitist  
 695 lines and ignores calls from the United Nations (2005) for ‘equitable  
 696 exchange and dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples based  
 697 on a mutual understanding and respect and the equal dignity of all  
 698 cultures...’.

700 In this postcolonial era, cultural domination as well as knowledge  
 701 domination are as problematic as economic domination, and every  
 702 attempt should be made to promote activism through research and policy

703 which can lead to ‘social cohesion, reconciliation among peoples and  
 704 peace among nations’ (United Nations 2005) through our work. Within  
 705 and among developing and developed countries, globalisation continues  
 706 to present opportunities for intercultural and cross-cultural collaboration  
 707 where our research will be a tool for attempting to dismantle hegemonic  
 708 discourses and for promoting global inclusion and mutual understanding.  
 709 Intercultural and cross-cultural research in educational leadership is sig-  
 710 nificant to our achieving an informed understanding of each other, no  
 711 matter where in the world we live, work or go to school. Cross-cultural  
 712 and intercultural research promotes [global] citizenship and the ability  
 713 within, between and among individuals to collaborate with people who are  
 714 different from themselves and who live and work in different cultural  
 715 contexts and spaces. In this edited volume, we have started a conversation  
 716 that through our research we hope will go some way to promoting mutual  
 717 understanding of each other and a sense of global citizenship—in terms of  
 718 both our research design and our findings. Put differently, our research  
 719 provides a ‘conceptual framework for transcending the nation or the  
 720 barriers of ethnic, religious or racial difference to include all within a global  
 721 community’ (Jefferess 2012, p. 29). Furthermore, in researching and  
 722 theorising educational leadership through an intercultural and cross-cul-  
 723 tural approach, we affirm our commitment to global interdependence in  
 724 terms of learning with, learning from, learning through and learning about  
 725 each other.

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## Chapter 1

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Number	Query
AQ1	I think there's a word missing here after "common". Could you please check and revise?
AQ2	We have shortened the recto page running head as "CULTURES OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP: RESEARCHING AND..." to fit in a page width. Please confirm if this is fine.
AQ3	The reference "Harris & Mixon (2015)" has been changed to "Harris & Mixon (2014)" as per the references list. Please check if this is OK.
AQ4	Please confirm if the captured extract text (Quoted text) are fine throughout the chapter.
AQ5	Editorial style dictates that italics should be reserved for emphasis only and that too used on only the most imp. words (as against, complete paragraphs or sentences). Of course, you can chose not to follow this. I have un-italicized relevant text in this chapter for your review. If you chose to follow this style, we will remove italics from other chapters too. Please let us know.
AQ6	okay to change "with" to "by" here?
AQ7	Is this correct as written, "appear to"? Or is there a verb missing here?
AQ8	The reference "Shields 2004," has been changed to "Shields 2003" as per the references list. Please check if this is OK.
AQ9	The year for "Sirotnik and Clark, 1998" has been changed to 1988 to match the entry in the references list. Please provide revisions if this is incorrect.
AQ10	The reference "Wilkins (2013)" is cited in the text but is not listed in the references list. Please either delete in-text citation or provide full reference details.
AQ11	Please provide the publisher location for "Beycioglu & Pashiardis, 2014".
AQ12	Please provide the accessed date for "Council of Europe 2008".
AQ13	Please provide the publisher location for "Harris & Mixon, 2014".
AQ14	Please provide the volume number for "Holden 2002".
AQ15	Please provide the publisher location for "Miller & Hutton, 2014".
AQ16	Please provide the initial for "Pashiardis".

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