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From the editor

Dear Readers

Dear Readers, the third issue of 2015 contains a series of six papers that try to look from different perspectives on issues crucial for educational leadership both in theory and practice.

The first paper have been written by **Grażyna Bartkowiak** from University of Economics in Poznań, Poland, who raises the issue of the organizational commitment of teachers. She describes its components and presents results of research on organizational commitment of teachers with different level of professional development. On such a basis she builds some recommendations for school leaders concerning directions of work with teams of teachers that should take into account the issue of their commitment. It seems that paper is very interesting theoretically but it also gives some important inspirations for practice of educational leadership

The second paper written by **Wiesław Poleszak** and **Grzegorz Kata** from University of Economics and Innovation in Lublin, Poland gives an example of very informative research that raises the issue of correlation between teacher's self-image and the perception of headteacher. Results show that the more constructive self-image is the more positive is the perception of school headteacher. It seems that such result may be very inspiring for those thinking about interpersonal leadership competencies.

Next paper by **Marcin Jewdokimow** from Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University in Warsaw reflects on issue of space

in educational processes in the context of leadership competencies. It discusses the connection between space and learning and points out that reflection on such issue and awareness of its importance should be the core of educational leadership competencies development.

Reflection on recent developments in the area of school evaluation in Spain is the topic of paper presented by **Antonio Portela** from University of Murcia. He focuses on changes affecting evaluation in schools and changes in the position and role of those playing main roles in evaluation processes including especially school leaders.

Laszlo Horvath and **Eva Verderber** from Eötvös Loránd University with **Tibor Barath** from University of Szeged in their paper describe the connection between specific leadership roles in schools as learning organizations seen as complex adaptive systems. Results of research they present give some inspiring thoughts on how to build school as learning organization and what leadership role are most important in this process.

Last paper is an example of doctoral student work. **Maria Słuszko-Ciapińska** from Jagiellonian University in her paper argues that it is necessary to go back to the roots of education and ask the question about its basic values again in order to reformulate our thinking about educational leadership and functioning of schools.

All articles give a lot of stimulating thoughts on understanding educational leadership and issues important for it.

I am sure that this issue of *Contemporary Educational Leadership* will attract all interested in development of theory and practice of educational leadership.

Roman Dorczak
Editor-in-Chief

Organizational commitment among teachers. Opportunity and tasks for educational leaders

Grażyna Bartkowiak

University of Economics, Poznań, Poland

Abstract

The elaboration describes the issue of the organizational commitment of teachers in respect to three components of such commitment: affective, permanent and normative. Its aim is to answer the following questions: What is the level of organizational commitment among teachers in terms of three components that are mentioned above, and is more advanced seniority of teachers a factor accompanied by a higher level of organizational commitment. The application aim of this article is to formulate tasks for an educational leader, as an effect of recognizing the level of organizational commitment of a team of teachers managed by them. The article consists of parts: theoretical, in which the author discusses the issue of identification with profession, organ-

izational identification as factors co-occurring with or contributing to the emergence of attachment to an organization, and then components of such an attachment, as well as empirical presentation of results of own research carried out among 276 teachers with different levels of seniority. As a result of their implementation it turned out that among respondents affective factor shapes commitment to the greatest extent, allowing teachers to pursue their professional goals and values, and that organizational commitment develops together with seniority. The final part of the article is devoted to postulates addressed to educational leaders which are presented to head teachers working with a team of teachers, which inspire reflection and at the same time indicate the direction of feasible actions.

Keywords: organizational commitment, teachers, educational leadership

Introduction

When analyzing the situation of social and, in particular, psychological aspects of human functioning in work situation, the last several years can be considered as a period of increased interest of researchers in the issue of organizational commitment, adjacent to the high popularity of this topic. Increasingly, as can be seen when analyzing source literature, organizational commitment becomes an object of study of different professional groups, these studies, however, have not been carried out among Polish teachers so far.

The subject of the study is an issue of organizational commitment of teachers, as representatives of a profession, which for years has been perceived as being associated with a particularly important mission and specific message in life. Organizational commitment means a peculiar attitude towards our workplace, school, which on the one hand allows for personal development, implementation of our goals and values, and is an opportunity to fulfill oneself through action focused on widely recognized social welfare, and on the other hand it results in the fact that school is seen as a friendly work environment and condition for maintaining balance between personal and professional life. The aim of the

study is to answer the following questions: what is the level of organizational commitment among teachers in terms of its three components: affective, durability and normative, and is longer seniority in profession a factor associated with increased organizational commitment?

Another, application aim of this article is to identify rank of importance of organizational commitment of teachers in broader educational leadership not only as a factor that builds motivation of teachers, but as a condition for the head teacher concerning the management of the school environment. Assuming that the diagnosis of level of commitment among teachers may be a factor conducive to building a relationship between head teachers with teachers, we should consider which actions of a head teacher should be taken to strengthen and develop this commitment. This reasoning, of course, requires approval of the assumption that organizational commitment as a belief determining attitude towards one's place of work is a factor contributing to both professional development (rather than limiting this development), sense of work satisfaction, construction of supporting relationships based on cooperation that trigger positive emotions related to performed work thus increasing quality of life of a teacher. Also, from the point of view of an educational leader and school head teacher strengthening organizational commitment is not a manipulation that is intended to treat teachers instrumentally, it consists of conscious-

ly undertaken and accepted impact, the aim of which the welfare of persons with whom the head teacher works, and this action also fulfils a mission of a school as a teaching and learning community.

The elaboration consists of two parts: theoretical, in which the author discusses the issue of identification with the profession, organizational identification as factors co-occurring with or contributing to the emergence of commitment to an organization, and then the components of such commitment, as well as empirical presenting results of own research carried out among 276 teachers with different levels of seniority. As a result of their implementation it turned out that among respondents affective factor shapes commitment to the greatest extent, allowing teachers to pursue their professional goals and values, and that organizational commitment develops together with seniority.

The final part of the article has been devoted to postulates addressed to educational leaders which are presented to head teachers working with teams of teachers, which inspire reflection and at the same time indicate the direction of feasible actions.

Identification with the profession

In source literature organizational commitment is sometimes considered in a slightly broader context, in conjunction with professional identification and identification with the organization. Professional commitment (although among authors there is no full compliance in

this case) is recognized as the third element or result state of earlier identification with the mentioned factors.

In the literature of organizational behaviors we can find the use of words 'profession', 'career' and 'professionalism' in the same context (Lee et al, 2000; Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993). Lee defines profession as "identifiable, specific work activity in which a person participates in order to earn a living, within a specified period of his or her life" (p.800). The same author emphasizes that the specificity of belonging to a profession requires specific skills, knowledge and specific activity, allowing distinction between one profession and another. Another definition (Van Maanen and Barley, 1984) recognizes profession as an attribute of a group of people who perceive themselves as performing the same type of work. In this understanding, a subjective sense of belonging to a particular group of people becomes important.

Membership in a profession is not synonymous with professionalism. The first of the analyzed concepts is broader; professionalism creates associations related to quality of performed work to a greater extent. (also Blau 2001, Meyer et al, 1993).

Professional career as opposed to profession seems to be a "more ambitious" concept. Authors recognize it as planned pattern of professional activity lasting from the moment of taking up work to retirement (Greenhaus, Callahan, Godshalk, 2000; Greenhouse, 1987; Hall, 1976, Kowalczyk, 2014). In this sense, during

the period of his or her professional career a person can undertake several professions.

Research on professional identification oscillate around two groups of issues: (1) research on identification of individual professional groups (Chrein et al, 2007; Ibarra, 1999, Kreiner et al, 2006a, 2006b Kreiner and others; Loi et al, 2004, Lui, 2003; Prat et al, 2006); (2) research on compatibility between organizational norms and values, and professional values (Gouldner, 1958; Hall, 1968; Loi et al, 2004; Lui et al, 2003; Wallace, 1993.1995). Diversification of identification with profession revealed in such a way becomes the basis for identification with a specific organization and organizational commitment.

Identification with organization

Identification with an organization boils down to the employee's sense of belonging to an organization when the employee expressly declares such belonging (Ashfourth and Mael, 1989; Ashforth and others 2008). The presented approach refers to a wider social perspective of evaluation of our own belonging having its source in social conditions (Tajfel and Turner, 1979) and the criteria for assessing people through the prism of characteristics such as nationality, race, or profession. These threads can also be found in earlier works on organizational identification (Hall, Schneider and Nygren, 1970; O Reilly and Chartman, 1986; Patchen, 1970). The foundation of this position is

the assumption that organizational membership determines relationships with other social groups, leading to assignment of people to specific sub-categories. In this sense organizational membership is associated with "knowledge of an entity on its membership in a particular social group, evaluated in terms of emotions and linked to a certain system of values (Tajfel, 1972, p.292). Organizational membership is associated with categorizing ourselves and others which, on the other hand, can help us better organize our knowledge about the world and social groups (Tajfel, Turner, 1979, 1986). The main motive for determining our membership becomes the construction and desire to improve our self-image through positive social identification (Hogg, Turner, 1985).

Organizational membership is important for employees and entrepreneurs, as it allows an individual to raise self-esteem through belonging to a "collective" and organization by referring to how significant entities specify their membership in it (Hogg, Terry, 2001 Ashforth et al, 2008). However, in the case when we are dealing with a strong identification with an organization, the difference between defining and assigning specific personal characteristics of an organization and its members is blurred (Dutton, Dukerich, Harquail, 1994) to the extent that employees treat success or failure of their company as personal and engage intensely in order to assist the organization in achieving its objectives.

Identification with an organization can

take different forms. Rousseau (1998) distinguished two types of organizational identification: situated organizational identification and deep, structured organizational identification. In the case of situated organizational identification we are dealing with noticing the importance of human belonging to an organization as a “part of larger picture.” This kind of identification is relatively common when a person sees his or her own and common interests with the organization (often speaking as “we” rather than “I”), and their commitment is treated as a personal contribution to this organization (Rousseau, 1998).

Deep, structured organizational identification is progressing much more slowly, and it takes into account organizational membership in one’s own self-esteem (Rousseau, 1998). However, currently there are many organizations that create barriers which prevent such kinds of identification. These include contracts, short-term contracts, geographical distance between place of work of workers in relation to the headquarters of the organization, etc.

According to Tajfel (1982, p.2) organizational identification is a multi-dimensional construction composed of three components: cognitive, evaluation and emotional. The first (cognitive component) is associated with awareness of organizational participation, the second (evaluation component) in relation to system of values is recognized by the individual, and thirdly (emotional component) is characterized by emotional involvement

taking into account previous components.

Thus the cognitive component is by far the most frequently present in literature as a subject of studies and defines the scope of organizational membership through which an employee determines his or her own identity (Ashorth et al, 2008). The evaluation component indicates values that an employee may pursue and introduce through his or her participation in the organization. The emotional component in relation to the organization can have a positive or negative nature (Dutton et al, 1994) and thereby it determines the decision to remain at or leave the organization.

Organizational commitment

The author of the three-dimensional model of organizational commitment is Meyer and Allen (1997). This model is a modification of previously developed recognitions of organizational commitment (Porter, et al, 1974; Becker, 1960; Meyer Allen 1984, Allen Meyer, 1990). It consists of three components: affective, permanent and normative (Baňka and others, 2002, p.66).

The affective component includes employee emotional attachment to work, commitment and identification with the workplace. People who have strong affective commitment to a given organization remain in it because they want it, i.e. work fulfills their aspirations, allows them to implement their values, provides satisfaction, [and] improves the quality of their professional life (Shahidul, 2012, p.394).

Permanent commitment means the awareness of costs associated with leaving the organization. According to Bańka (Bańka and others, 2002, p.66) employees whose principal bond is based on a permanent commitment remain there because they feel that they “must carry it out”. It may be expected that this commitment is a result of a specific calculation and balance of benefits and potential losses, and final decision based on “lesser evil”.

The normative component of commitment is based on a sense of moral obligation to remain in the organization. People with a high level of this component refer to values that define their behavior as an essential theme of their own activities. In other words, they feel that they should carry it out.

There is data that indicates that employees with a certain level of organizational commitment represent diverse organizational behavior that are promotional and negative. Promotional behavior goes beyond basic responsibilities and professional roles (Judge, Heller, Mount, 2002). In contrast, negative behavior comes down to the activity which harms the objectives of the organization, violates organizational norms, or affects the decrease in productivity (Spector, Fox, 2005).

According to Bańka (Bańka and others, 2002, p. 66-67) employees who have a strongly developed affective commitment are more valuable employees than employees with a lower affective commitment. These dependencies are largely confirmed by Shore and Wayne (1993) who indicate

the relationship of affective and normative commitment with civil behavior.

Bańka (ibid) also emphasizes weaker results of work and dysfunctional interpersonal relationships of employees with a high level of permanent commitment.

Organization and area of own studies

Given the characteristics of the “sacred with tradition and high ethos” teaching profession, opportunities to measure organizational commitment, the structure of which, as indicated by the analysis of cited literature does not seem uniform, on the contrary it is composed of components “attracting” to work (affective component), and such, which not only attract but result in the fact that leaving the organization may seem too troublesome, as a result of a final calculation (component of durability and normative component) the following research problem has been formulated: how to shape the level of organizational commitment in terms of its individual components in the case of teachers?

In source literature lately there are elaborations that indicate relationships of organizational commitment with diverse factors ranging from job satisfaction (Hińcza et al, 2015; Shahidul, 2012 Szpitalak, 2010; Wołowska, 2014), workaholism, and, finally, seniority, and for this reason the following research problem has been formulated in the elaboration: does higher level of organizational commitment run in parallel with longer seniority?

The study involved 276 people em-

ployed in an educational environment - mainly in primary schools, secondary schools and upper-secondary schools. In this group there are both teachers of preschool education, initial education in primary schools, secondary schools and high schools as well as school head teachers, employees of centers for teachers, and pedagogical supervision. The Polish modified version of the questionnaire of Meyer and Allen- Scale of Organizational Commitment in the adaptation of A. Bańska R. Bazińska and A. Wołowska (2001) was used as the main research tool.

This scale consists of three subscales containing affective component, permanent commitment and organizational component. Analysis of reliability coefficients, which are separated in the questionnaire of scales, composed of six elements each revealed a relatively high internal compliance. The study was conducted during a conference, implemented in connection with the finalization of the project Educational Leadership.

Results of studies

The results obtained with the use of the previously mentioned questionnaire of Organizational Commitment Scale indicated relatively large differences in the level of organizational commitment both in terms of individual, distinguished components and the overall level of organizational commitment.

Table 1. Results of studies in the Organizational Commitment Scale - affective component.

Points	N	%
21-24 pt.	85	30,80
20-17 pt.	94	34,06
16-13 pt.	52	18,84
12-9 pt.	27	9,78
Below 9pt.	18	6,52
Total number	276	100

Source: own study.

Analysis of the data shows a relatively large percentage (approx. 31%) of people who received the maximum score in the Organizational Commitment Scale in the field of affective component.

Table 2. Results of studies in the Organizational Commitment Scale - component of permanent commitment

Points	N	%
21-24 pt.	8	2,89
20-17 pt.	24	8,69
16-13 pt.	158	57,25
12-9 pt.	39	14,12
Below 9pt.	57	20,65
Total number	276	100

Source: own study.

As shown by the data from the following table, the results obtained by subjects in the field of organizational

sustainability component turned out to be much lower than in the case of aspect of affective organizational commitment.

Table 3. Results of studies in the Organizational Commitment Scale - component of normative commitment

Points	N	%
21-24 pt.	13	4,71
20-17 pt.	98	35,51
16-13 pt.	55	19,93
12-9 pt.	30	10,87
Below 9pt.	79	28,62
Total number	276	100

Source: own study.

As in the case of stability subscale, the results of subjects showed a much lower level of normative commitment compared to the affective component.

Table 4. Results of studies in the Organizational Commitment Scale (in total)

Points	Average seniority	%	%
72-62 pt.	22,74	44	15,84
61-51 pt.	21,48	71	25,72
50-40 pt.	18,66	73	26,45
39-29 pt.	7,19	39	14,13
Below 29 pt.	8,21	59	21,38
Average/total number	17,76	276	100

Source: own study.

Published data shows that teachers participating in the study presented varying levels of organizational commitment, in most cases this level was relatively high (approx.26% of respondents achieved maximum score).

Teachers with longer seniority, as shown by studies, showed greater organizational commitment and the resulting desire to continue working in a place where they are currently working.

The data shows a relatively large and statistically significant difference in the obtained data between the affective component of organizational commitment and other (permanent and normative) components. This situation is encouraging, because we can expect that organizational commitment among teachers is based largely on awareness of the possibility of achieving their goals in life and career, and the value of professional work (Wołowska 2013 p.194). Furthermore, (as shown by the performed informal talks) it can be expected that the relatively high level reached by the subjects in the field of affective component enables them to fulfill themselves at work.

Analysis of statements in terms of component of permanent commitment, which is the result of calculations and consideration of any losses incurred by the same persons concerned, or their families, indicates that they do not treat their current workplace as the only possibility for professional activity, although, according to the author, results should also be confronted with possibilities of work

that exist in a given locality or area for people with specific qualifications. At the same time studies show that they do not feel particularly obliged to accomplish the mission resulting from the ethos of teacher work, i.e. considering potential losses in terms of compliance with his or her own conscience; socially recognized mission of a teacher's work is not a determining factor in organizational commitment.

On the other hand, we need to realize that in this analysis we are faced with evaluating and comparing the importance of individual components of organizational commitment performed only intra-individually. That is why we should be aware of their limitations and of the fact that only a comparison of individual components with research conducted in other more diverse environments could enable a more reliable assessment of the occurred discrepancies.

Summary - implications for educational leaders

The obtained results indicate a different level of organizational commitment among teachers, both in relation to individual components of this commitment, identified in the study in the form of certain subscales, and to the total score of the questionnaire. Also, seniority proved to be a significant differentiating factor in organizational commitment - teachers with longer seniority turned out to be more committed to their jobs than their younger colleagues.

On the one hand the obtained results "break" a stereotype of traditionally understood work of a teacher, whose career, as it turned out, does not have to be related to a specific school, in which his or her professional advancement occurred, (surveyed teachers who were characterized by a high level of affective component change jobs relatively frequently), however on the other hand, a higher level of organizational commitment, characteristic for teachers with longer seniority, indicates their dynamics and the need for greater concern e.g. on the part of a school head teacher or authorities responsible for conducting pedagogical supervision of teachers with shorter seniority. However, regardless of the results, according to the author, a need to pay more attention to younger teachers cannot mean less care from the head teacher for older workers, but this would rather include maintenance of a specific balance and a slightly different kind of attention. Having mature workers focused on younger ones may give rise to a sense of injustice on the part of older ones, lead to frustration of the latter and secondarily contribute to the deterioration of relations in a group of employees.

Moving on to the formulation of concrete postulates for an educational leader we should pay attention to the following activities

- in the recruitment and selection procedure (although in the teaching profession it is not performed as often as in business organizations) to establish criteria using

the already existing patterns of normative component of organizational commitment. This component allows us to verify the degree of sense of social mission, which is so important in the work of a teacher.

- carry out at least 1.5-2 years of research in terms of affective component of organizational commitment, which is important for the sense of job satisfaction. In the case of a decline carry out conversations and dialogue aimed at identification of possible causes and undertaking remedial actions.

- use intellectual capital and preferences of more mature teachers so that they could share their knowledge, educational experience, promote supporting relations in school environment, initiate cooperation in teams of teachers despite the fact that formally they do not function as managers with benefit for the school, pursue one's own career goals.

Presented postulates do not constitute a finite list; certainly every educational leader can complement them with his or her insights, but if at least one of them caused a reflection of the reader and inspired to act the author will consider the purpose of this article to be fulfilled.

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Teachers' perceptions of the principal

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Abstract

This study investigated the relation between personal functioning of teachers and their perceptions of the school principal. It was assumed that teachers with more constructive personal functioning have more positive perception of the principal. The relation between these two factors is described as important for the quality of principal cooperation with teachers and for the school as a learning organisation. The Adjective Check List was administered to 140 teachers from lower secondary school located in different cities. The ACL was used in three versions: “what you are like”, “how you would like to be” and “what your school principal is like”. Based on the results four groups of teachers with different personal functioning was dis-

tinguished. Results indicate that the more constructive teacher's self-image, the more positive perception of principal. The main conclusion for educational leadership is that the perception of principal depends not only on the headmaster work quality, but also on the personal experience and functioning of teachers.

Keywords: educational leadership, teachers, team-building, self-image

Introduction

The principal and teachers (apart from students and their parents) are the main actors of the school life. Their specific role results from the fact that they create the social climate and organisational culture of the school environment, which are important for the learning process. The two subjects make up the team of

employees. What should consolidate this team is striving to achieve a shared goal resulting from the nature of the institution and needs of the team members. The task of the school professionals is to create the best conditions which would facilitate comprehensive development of the students. The final result of this educational process should be a mature student, adapted to the conditions of living in the contemporary world and able to cope with the challenges this world brings. The challenge which the teaching staff have to face is difficult, because a graduate profile changes together with the changing world, and the students have different educational and developmental needs. Such a state of affairs requires constant development of the teachers. School in particular is predisposed to become a learning organisation.

School as a learning organisation

A learning organisation is an organisation where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new patterns of non-stereotypical thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free and where people are continually learning. A learning organisation is an organisation skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and at modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights (Senge 2012).

According to Kaziemierska, Lachowicz and Piotrowska (2016), the distinctive

features of a learning organisation include:

- learning from mistakes;
- openness to accept feedback about itself;
- continuous training of personnel and implementing scheduled training;
- management-stimulated personnel development;
- delegating powers and decentralisation of decision-making centres;
- taking risk, encouraging to experiment;
- openness to risk-taking, new methods of operation (I will do it in a different way);
- frequent critical reviews of binding operational procedures;
- searching for ways of improving work effectiveness;
- taking decisions based on facts.

In turn, based on the analysis of the concept by P.M. Senge, M. Nowacka-Sahin (2016) has proposed the three main features of a learning organisation (fig. 1):

1. Openness to the opinion of each member of the organisation leading to the creation of the culture of diverse opinions and views.
2. Ability to make use of the experience of all members of the organisation.
3. Open communication between the management and staff which leads to exchange of views and experience (no dividing lines resulting from the organisational structure)

To classify a school as a learning organisation, according to P.M. Senge (2012) it should use the following five key component technologies:

1. systems thinking,
2. personal mastery,
3. mental models,
4. shared vision
5. and team learning.

The model by P.M. Senge perfectly fits in the goals and tasks as well as rules of school functioning. There are several important arguments in favour of this concept:

School is a system consisting of numerous interacting subsystems. Efficient operation of each of the system components generates quality of functioning of the whole system. Consequently, problems which emerge at school should be analysed in the context of an inefficient system. If school problems are systemic in nature, then the main object of impact should be the school environment, i.e. the staff, students and parents.

People make up the school environment, and their efficiency - striving for excellence, sets the limits for the development of the whole organisation. Without continuous development of the school staff, this organisation will not be able to cope with the ongoing problems, challenges and changes taking place in the environment.

Each and every institution (and school above all) should strive to achieve self-fulfilment, which is a state which justifies its existence in a satisfactory

way. To reach this state, avoid frustration, pointless drifting and chaotic procedures, an institution formulates its mission and vision. Hence, the main task of the school personnel is to develop general goals and ways of achieving such goals which will be shared by all the school staff.

Fulfilment of such goals will be supervised by the team of employees with the principal as their leader. Cooperation of this team is the condition for successful implementation of accepted goals and quality of functioning.

Conditions for effective cooperation of the teaching team

In the realities of a Polish school, changes taking place in the teaching team are well reflected with the evolution of terms describing the teaching staff. So, several decades ago, this team was called the “teaching body” (literally), then (about several years ago) a term “teaching circle” (literally) was coined. Now, the term used most often is the “teaching council” (literally). Assuming that the language follows the changing reality, we should notice that these changes reflect the processes taking place in the structure of the group and mutual relations of its members. The terms above are a good reflection of the organisational culture of the teaching staff. In turn, the process of changing the meaning of the cited terms leads to a more rigid structure and minimised relations between members of the

teaching staff. The term “body” used to describe a relation between the elements composing a whole, assumes a dynamic and synchronised whole. The above cannot be used to describe a “council”, which is associated rather with a hardly dynamic object and with limited relations between members of this “council”.

Assuming that the above deliberations are reflected in the reality of work of teaching teams, it would be valuable to identify the key features which a well-functioning team should demonstrate. A well-functioning team:

- Understands its goals and tasks and aims to achieve them,
- Is flexible in adapting its mode of operation to the assumed goals,
- Communication and understanding among its members are on a high level. Individual feelings, opinions and views of all its members are presented in a direct and open way,
- Is able to start and complete the decision-making process. At the same time, it thoroughly analyses the point of view of the minority and ensures that all members participate in taking all crucial decisions,
- Achieves balance between effectiveness of team activities and fulfilment of individual needs,
- Ensures sharing responsibility by all its members. Everybody can come up with their ideas, develop and work on the projects of others, give opinion, check feasibility of potential decisions, and otherwise contribute to achieving goals

assumed by the group and to its proper functioning,

- Has its identity, but does not restrict the independence of its members,
- Makes appropriate use of the skills of its members,
- Is objective in evaluating its functioning, Does not avoid its own problems and is able to modify its activities,
- Keeps balance between heart and head and creatively uses emotions of its members,
- Is aware of the processes taking place within the team.

The features of an efficient team enumerated above coincide with the assumptions of a learning organisation. They are known to the public. Every principal holding the office will agree with them (at least in theory). So why so few teams are able to achieve such a level of functioning? Maybe it is the result of relations between people who make up teams and their mutual perception, following the assumption: your perception of the world affects the way you move around it?

To address these questions, it is necessary to introduce the term of perception of the principal in the context of the studies of the subject matter.

Perception of the principal and functioning of teachers

The mode of perception of the school principal has been the subject of numerous analyses conducted mostly in the

context of evaluating the quality of their work and leadership.

In general, teachers perceive the role of the principal as highly important for the functioning of the school environment, teaching staff and their own participation in it (Newton and others, 1999). In teachers' perception, the principal is the most important person in the school environment. Their power and ability to influence others may be supportive or destructive for the life of the school, students and the staff. The principal's tasks are perceived by teachers as complex, being the source of personal growth and personal satisfaction. On the other hand, the same tasks may be the source of stress, may be highly time-consuming and require high workload, may be difficult and rarely be met with gratitude. The principal is the person who should follow high ethical standards, be an authority, open to others, understanding and supportive. The quality of cooperation between the principal and the staff is decisive for the trust of the colleagues, the school climate, initiatives undertaken, educational achievements and the school image in the community.

In their studies, Hauserman and others (2013) have distinguished two groups of teachers who differed in perceptions of the school principal and assessment of their competences. The first group comprised teachers who perceived the principal as highly engaged in work and actively participating in the school life. In their opinion, the principal's knowledge about the school, i.e. the staff, students, successes

and failures of each class, is very good. In the decision-making process they focus on what is best for the students and staff, they are open to discussion, questions and hold high expectations for their staff. They are available to others, interested in successes and progress in the work of others. The other group in Hauserman's studies (2013) included teachers who perceived their superior is unapproachable, having marginal influence on the real school life and behaviour of others. A principal fulfilling their role in this way does not monitor the work of others, and does not encourage growth of students and teachers. The teachers from this group perceived the principal's cooperation with others as limited to a narrow group of teachers. In their opinion, the principal takes decisions regarding changes in the school environment, however does not participate in their implementation, delegating tasks to subordinate staff. Difference in the quality of work was observed between the two groups of teachers with different perceptions of their principal. The teachers perceiving the principal as engaged, had greater satisfaction from performing their duties, a sense of meaning of their work and were convinced of their effectiveness in performing tasks. They showed greater motivation to work as a team.

The research done by Bayler and Ozcan (2012) confirmed a relationship between the principal's leadership style perceived by teachers and the quality of teachers' work. The teachers who thought that the principal was active and engaged

(transformational leadership) were at the same time more open to self-development. It was accompanied by high motivation to work, involvement in school life and openness to implementing changes. At the same time, the teachers perceived the following principal's characteristics, which they found supportive:

- Communication skills,
- Ability to motivate others to work,
- Adequacy of displayed competences to the requirements for the position,
- Readiness to listen to others and openness to the observations of others,
- Sharing plans and vision of work,
- Support in growth and searching for new working methods,
- Readiness to take risk in the situation of implementing constructive changes in the school.

Similar conclusions were drawn in Kadi's research (2015). Teachers with low involvement and poor motivation to work noticed in the principal the characteristics similar to those which described their own behaviour. They had negative opinions about their superior's work. They observed lack of interest in students and staff, avoiding responsibility, lack of decision-making abilities. They thought that the principal rarely communicated with the team, did not provide feedback about the quality of teachers' work and did little to support staff growth.

It turns out from the surveys presented above that perception of the principal's

role is linked with the quality of teachers' work, which in turn translates into readiness to cooperate with the teaching staff. Direct relation between the two dimensions was the subject of studies conducted by Berebitsky and others (2014). Obtained results showed that the higher support in implementing changes and innovation perceived in principals, the greater teachers' readiness to cooperate. Teachers perceiving principal support also had better assessment of effectiveness of team communication.

High level of satisfaction from the teaching profession is linked with the level of interpersonal skills observed in the principal and the school's organisational climate. As Waruwu points out (2015), greater satisfaction from performed tasks was demonstrated by teachers who thought that their superior was a person actively listening to others, showing empathy and communicating clearly and precisely.

Methods

The purpose of the research described in this article is to establish relation between teachers' perceptions of the school principal and their personal functioning. It was assumed that teachers with a different image of the self (actual self and ideal self) will perceive the principal in the way complementary to their own resources and limitations. Features attributed to the principal should reflect teachers' readiness to cooperate with the teaching staff. The quality of this cooperation is in turn important for functioning of the school

as a learning organisation. The proposed direction of analyses should enable better understanding of the relation between the described factors. According to the data from other surveys it is assumed that teachers whose personal functioning is characterised by features demonstrating effectiveness, resourcefulness and maturity will have similar perceptions about their superior. The following research questions were presented:

1. What are the differences in personal functioning of teachers?
2. Do teachers with different personal functioning have different perceptions of the school principal?
3. Do teachers with more constructive personal functioning have more positive perceptions of the principal?

Participants

A total sample of 140 teachers from lower secondary schools from Elbląg, Gorzyce, Lublin and Ludwin was selected, with 77.9% of respondents being females and 22.1% males. Detailed data has been presented in the table below.

Table 1. Sex and place of work of teachers

Town/city	Sex	
	Women	Men
	%	%
Elbląg	94.4	5.6
Gorzyce	85.1	14.9
Lublin	68.8	31.2
Ludwin	70.4	29.6
Total	77.9	22.1

Source: own study.

Measures

To assess the self-image of teachers and their perceptions of the principal, the Adjective Check List by H.G. Gough and A.B. Heilbrun was used in the Polish adaptation of the Team of the Psychological Test Laboratory of the Polish Psychological Association. The second group is based on Murray’s needs (15). The next one comprises topical scales describing essential aspects of intra and interpersonal behaviours (9). Scales based on Berne’s theory of Transactional Analysis comprise group four (5), and the last group focuses on creativity and intelligence based on Welsh’s Origence-Intellectence concept (4). From the list of 300 adjectives the examinee has to choose those which either best describe themselves or a person being subject to personality assessment.

In the described survey, three versions of the ACL were used: “what you are like”, “how you would like to be” and “what your school principal is like”.

Procedure

Teachers participating in the survey took the test during the meetings of the teaching council at school. It was a group survey, anonymous, and was preceded with the explanation of the purpose, rules and course of the test performance. The meeting was held by a psychologist, i.e. a person authorised to use the test.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the survey performed on 140 teachers underwent cluster analysis in order to distinguish groups of teachers with different personal functioning. Calculations were made with the use of ACL results in the “what you are like” version, using hierarchical cluster analysis with Ward’s method. Obtained results allowed for distinguishing four independent clusters, the size of which has been presented in the table below.

Table 2. Number of teachers in created clusters

	Number	%
Cluster 1	53	37.9
Cluster 2	36	25.7
Cluster 3	22	15.7
Cluster 4	29	20.7
Total	140	100

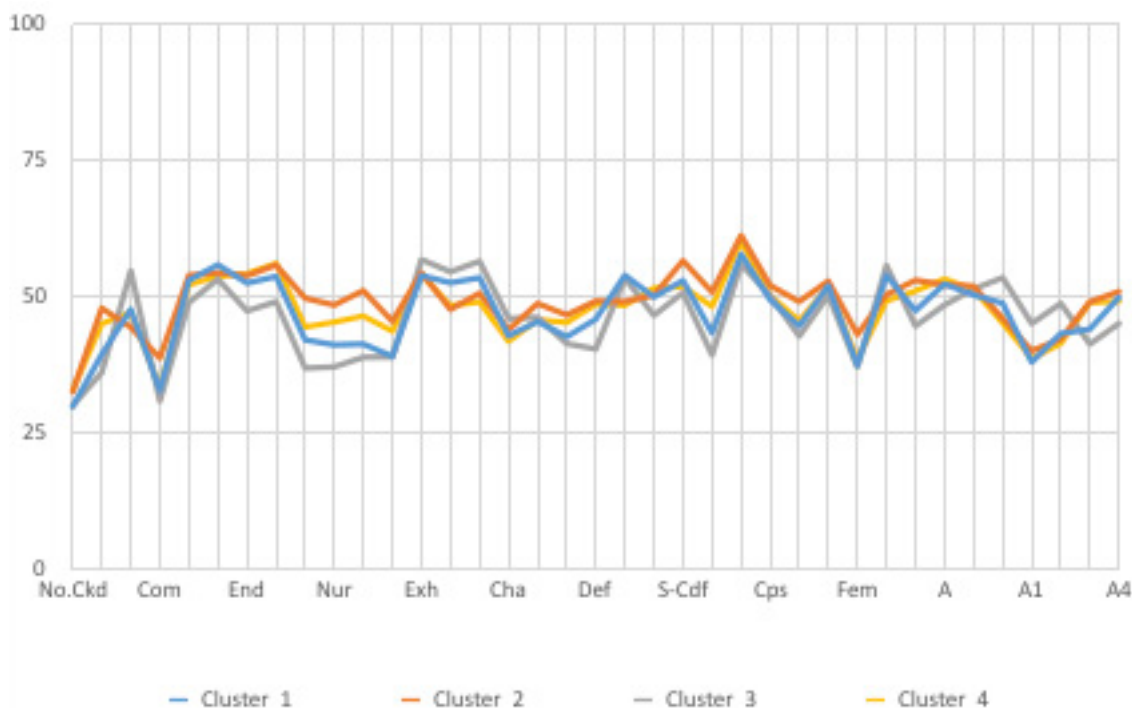
Source: own study.

Further on, the four groups of teachers were compared with relation to the images tested with ACL. One-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post-hoc tests was applied, taking into account different sizes of compared groups and results of homogeneity of variance tests.

As already mentioned in the methodological part, based on the cluster analysis of the actual image, four groups of teachers were distinguished. Chart 1 presents the way in which the examinees from each group perceive the principal. Comparison of the groups indicates numerous differences in principal perception (see table 3). The most critical image of the principal has been presented by teachers from groups three and one, whereas teachers from group three observed a lot of negative features and few positive ones. On the other hand, teachers from group one do not see the principal’s assets, however at the same time do not pay too much attention to their vices.

Respondents from group one perceive the principal as showing little energy and passive (NoCk). They see a person having difficulties establishing interpersonal relations (Int, Nur, Aff, Het). These difficulties result from a high level of self-focus and striving to be the centre of attention plus tendencies to aggressive behaviours (Exh, Aut, Agg). The principal perceived by teachers from group three is critical and has difficulties adapting to the surrounding environment (Padj, CP). It is a person for whom it is difficult to admit defeat and assume minor social roles (Aba, Def).

Chart 1 Principal's image in perceptions of teachers from distinguished groups



Source: own study.

Teachers from group one see few positive features in the principal. At the same time, they cannot see as many negative features as members of group three. In their perception, it is a person efficient in performing tasks. First of all ambitious and working towards set goals (Ach, Iss). Performs tasks in an orderly and persistent manner (End and Ord). In teachers' opinion, is also able to efficiently manage the work of others (Dom). According to teachers from group one, the principal has difficulties functioning, understanding themselves and others and in interpersonal relations (Int, Nur, Fav, Het). This results from excessive self-focus and aggressive behaviours (Aut, Agg). The profile is completed with the

critical attitude towards themselves and the surroundings (CP). In the perception of teachers from group one, the principal has difficulties acknowledging their weaknesses and adapting in personal and professional relations (Aba, P-Adj).

Teachers from the remaining groups (two and four) have positive perception of the principal. In their opinion, the principal is efficient in their operations, persistent and organised in completing their goals and intentions (Ach, Dom, End, Ord). It is a person skilful at establishing and maintaining interpersonal relations (Int, Nur, Fav, Het). In addition, they manage well when performing in front of the group, are confident and strive to fulfil

their life goals (Exh, S-Con, Iss).

Personality prerequisites of teachers in the principal's perception

Further in the article, a description of the actual and ideal image of each of the selected groups will be presented. According to the authors, this will allow for capturing the personality determinants for the perception of the principal by the teachers undergoing the tests. To confirm the differences between individual groups, all groups have been compared one with another (with the use of ANOVA analysis). For clarity purposes, results have been presented in attachments.

Description of examined teachers from cluster 1

Teachers from group one use a small number of adjectives when describing themselves, which may prove they are careful and withdrawn in contacts with the world (chart 2). In relations with others they may exhibit ambivalent attitudes and defensive behaviours (Nck, Com, P-Ad). Their strength is efficient functioning in task-oriented situations, especially in persistence and order in achieving set goals (Ord, End, Dom, Ach).

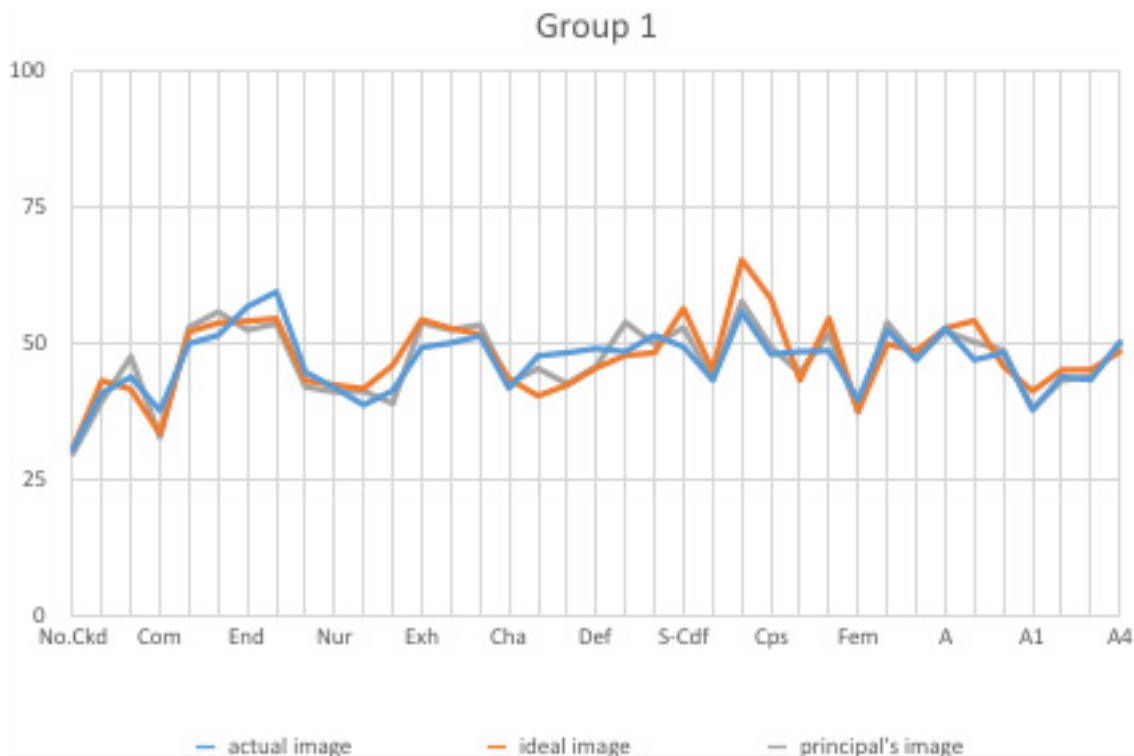
Their weakness are difficulties in interpersonal relations. These difficulties comprise: lower efficiency in understanding

themselves and others, avoiding company of others and tension in relations with other people. They don't feel very attractive in social contacts. They show marginal interest in the needs of others (Int, Nur, Fav, Het). They have a critical attitude towards themselves and the surroundings (CP). Such characteristics make it difficult for them to adapt to new situations and establish satisfactory social relations (P-Ad).

The ideal image of examined teachers and the image of the principal coincide with the actual image in the majority of examined dimensions. Similarity of the ideal and actual image may point to blocked development tendencies in the subjects. On the other hand, overlapping of the actual image and the principal's image proves the principal perception as similar to the subjects. We can speak of some form of projecting own traits to the principal.

The above mechanisms prove rare discrepancies between the actual image and ideal image and the principal's image (Ord, Het, Exh, Sub, Aba, Def, FC, Iss). Teachers from group one aim to be more independent and individual. They also want freedom of expression and wish to emerge in the perception of others by drawing attention to themselves and their needs.

Chart 2 Actual image, ideal image and the principal's image in perception of teachers from group 1



Source: own study.

Description of examined teachers from cluster 2

Teachers from group two (chart 3) have a constructive and positive image of themselves. They see more positive than negative features in themselves (Fav, Unf). They are characterised by self-confidence and faith in own capacities, which makes them able to set goals for themselves and be persistent in fulfilling them. At the same time, they can be creative and open to new solutions (S-Cdf, Iss, Cps). Moreover, their asset is efficient functioning in task-oriented (Ord, End, Dom,

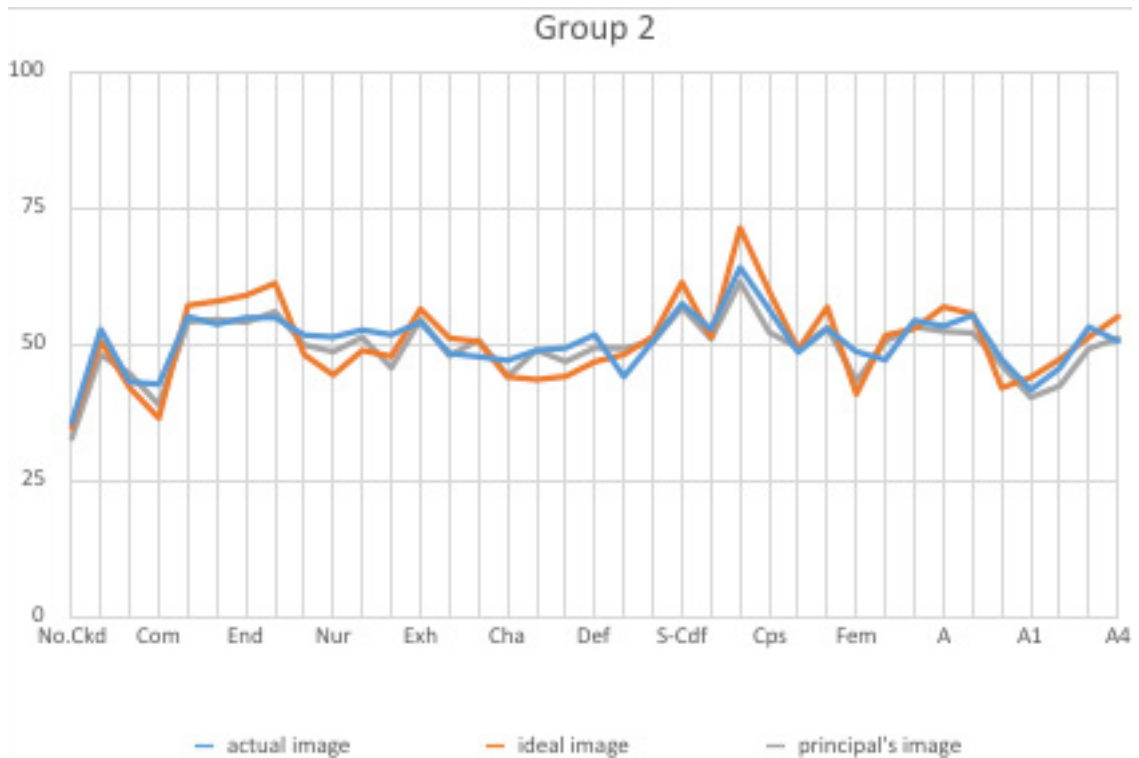
Ach) and interpersonal (Int, Nur, Fav, Het) situations. They like contacts with other people, they easily establish such contacts. They appreciate various forms of activity (Crs, FC). In difficult situations they keep distance and are cautious (No, Com). In their behaviours, they are prudent and toned down. They avoid impulsive reactions. They strongly refer to established rules of ethics.

In their ideal of development, they strive to acquire the ability to efficiently achieve life goals, even at the expense of being liked by others. They want to be resolute and persistent in performing assigned tasks. They want to be driven

by self-discipline and due effort in their undertakings, plus responsibility and efficiency in task performance. (Iss, S-Cds, Ord, End, Dom, Ach). The consequence of their focus on fulfilling individual goals will be poorer functioning in social roles which require dependence (Suc, Aba, Def). Focusing on their individual aspirations, they will draw less attention to the needs of people surrounding them.

In relations, they will exhibit defensive attitudes, cautiousness, tendency to withdraw in interpersonal relations and emotional ambivalence. In addition, they will be cautious in expressing themselves and will strictly observe norms of ethics, even at the expense of suppressing their own emotions (Nur, Com, Fem, No.Ck, A1).

Chart3:Actualimage,idealimageandtheprincipal'simageinperceptionofteachersfromgroup2
Description of examined teachers from cluster 3

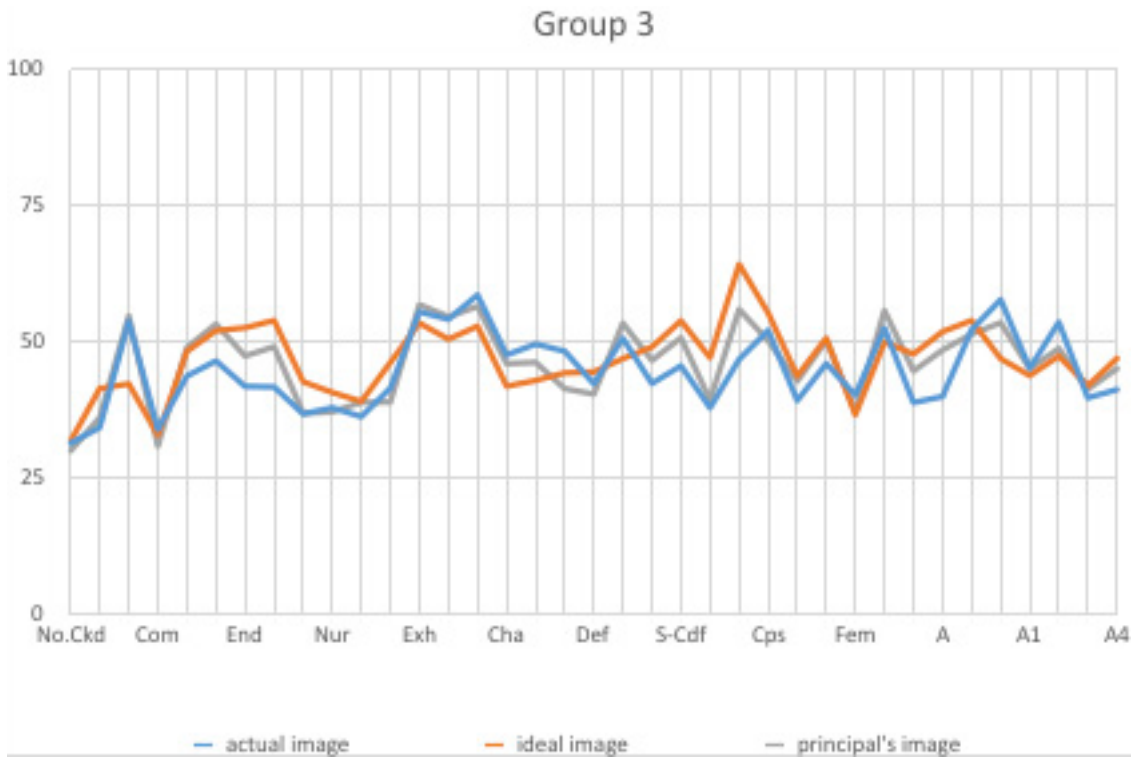


Source: own study.

Teachers from group three (chart 4) describe themselves through negative adjectives. This way of perceiving oneself leads to impulsiveness and defensive attitudes in relations with others. This may be demonstrated with ambivalent attitudes and quarrelsomeness (NoCk, Unf, Com). Difficulties in interpersonal functioning seem to be indicative for such a style of functioning. Subjects from this group are focused on their needs, and in relations with others they exhibit low sensitivity to feelings and distance in relations. Caution in contacts with the surrounding results from doubts as to the intentions of other people. The effect of this is avoiding closer relations with colleagues at work and treating them with suspicion. They apply a narrow range of social roles towards others. They also prefer individualism in action (Nur, Aff, Int, Int, Het, A2). They are also significantly self-centred and show the tendency to use others for their own purposes. They like to be the centre of attention and expect recognition. Self-centred attitude and difficulties under-

standing intentions of others lead to aggressive behaviours. They treat others as rivals. They are able to show aggression violating social norms, in an uncontrolled way which hurts others (Agg, Aut, Exh). Such a way of functioning makes it difficult for them to play subordinate social roles and leads to difficulties in adaptation. They often come into conflict with the environment. They have a pessimistic approach to life, which is the source of stress and tensions in life (P-Adj, Def, S-Cn, S-Cf). They look critically at themselves, so they have problems trusting themselves. Consequently, it leads to defensive attitudes in relations with others. They are unpredictable to the environment, they are perceived as immature and impulsive. To cope with strains of everyday life they close in their own world; in pursuit of satisfaction they escape into the world of dreams and fantasies (NP, A, AC). The teachers from this group see themselves as practically ineffective in performing tasks, especially in terms of persistence and order. They poorly deal with obstacles, they are quickly discouraged and are impatient in awaiting results (End, Ord).

Chart 4 Actual image, ideal image and the principal’s image in perception of teachers from group 3



Source: own study.

The ideal image of development of teachers from group three is focused around high expectations in the area of self-fulfilment and functioning in task-oriented situations. They would like to see both, their own limitations and assets (Fav, Unf). They wish to prove themselves by skilful goal setting and efficient task performance. They aim at self-discipline and maintaining internal order at work. They wish to plan their activities carefully and aim at their completion with

persistence and consistency, avoiding unnecessary distraction. They would like to experience optimism and energy, which would drive others to cooperation (Iss, Ord, End, Dom, Ach). By efficient operation, they would like to get the sense of confidence in themselves and independence in social relations (S-Cd, Suc, Aba, Def). They wish to build self-confidence on task orientation and independence at the expense of good interpersonal relations. They are ready to put their own

interest before the feelings and needs of others (Exh, Aut, Agg, Int, Nur, Aff, Het, Fem).

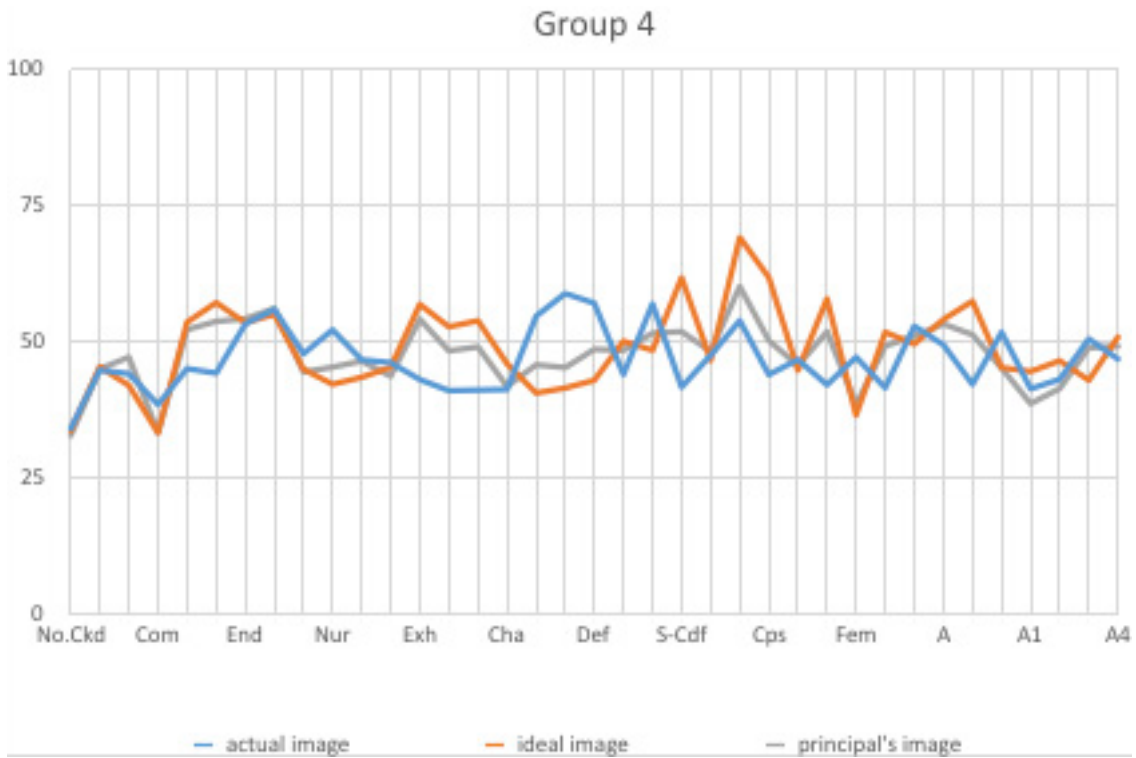
To sum up, two risky tendencies should be noticed in the ideal image of the subjects from group three. The first one is unconstructive expectations regarding their own functioning - aiming at perfectionism in task performance at the expense of good relations with others. The other tendency is a significant discrepancy in selected areas of functioning between the actual and ideal image. This may lead to blocking development tendencies of the subjects, and this in turn may lead to frustration.

Description of examined teachers from cluster 4

When describing themselves, teachers from group four used a limited number of adjectives. However, in describing themselves they see both their strengths and weaknesses. They present themselves as dependent on the environment. It comprises their conviction that others are stronger and more efficient, have good intentions and are ready to help others. That

is why the subjects seek affection and support in others. They admit their helplessness in coping with stress and crisis situations in life to others. They expect their support and help. In addition, in relations with others they easily assume subordinate social roles. They see themselves as less resourceful and modest (Suc, Aba, Def, FC, CP). They often give up themselves and do not take the liberty of spontaneous self-expression. In conflicts they use evasive techniques. They seek safety in what is proven and certain. They avoid risk and confrontation. They are understanding to others and sensitive to the needs and feelings of others (Agg, Aut, Exh). The strength of the teachers from group four is responsibility and emotional maturity. Excessive sense of control sometimes limits their activities. They can set for themselves socially attractive goals and aim at their fulfilment in a consistent, persistent and orderly manner. In work, they show conscientiousness, sense of responsibility and loyalty (S-Cn, Ord, End).

Chart 5 Actual image, ideal image and the principal’s image in perception of teachers from group 4



Source: own study.

In the ideal image of development of teachers from group four we can observe the need to be strong, dynamic and confident. They strive to acquire the skill of efficient goal achievement and performance of assigned tasks. They wish to function well in task-oriented situations, carry out tasks and be determined in pursuit of the goal. They want to act efficiently, with the sense of strength and involvement, and skilfully manage others (Iss,P-Adj, S-Cdf, Dom, Ach, Ord, End). In social relations, they aim to be independent and individual. They also wish to be the centre of attention of others, be able to stand up for their cause and be independent of

expectations of others (Agg, Aut, Exh, Fem). In the majority of dimensions, the direction of expected changes in personal functioning is constructive. However, a significant discrepancy between the actual and ideal image suggests blocked development tendencies. This might turn out to be a hindrance for the subjects to achieve the desired success in work on themselves.

Summary

The purpose of the studies described in this article was to define the relation

between perception of the principal and personality of teachers. Selecting four groups of teachers in the cluster analysis, which differ in their perception of the principal, points to the personality-based perception. A regularity emerges from the research that the more constructive the self-image, the more positive perception of the principal. A similar regularity refers to an ideal image.

Also, specific recommendations for principals result from these studies.

1. They should be aware that their perception does not depend only on the quality of their operation, but is also a derivative of what their subordinates experience.

2. It would be appropriate for principals to realise that the group of teachers they work with is not homogeneous,

3. and this should result in a diversified offer of support for them.

4. In cooperating with teachers, the principal should use various forms of cooperation and communication.

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On learning spaces. Insights into relationship between learning processes and space in the context of educational leadership

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Abstract

The aim of the article is to reflect on the relevance of space in educational, including learning, processes. From the perspective of educational leadership, so strongly focused on learning processes and their effectiveness, it seems to be a vital reflection. Relationship between learning processes and space gradually draws attention of scholars from different disciplines. This attention is being generated by new trends in space design, flow of funds for infrastructure modernization and, within social science and humanities, a spatial turn. However, the very nature of the relationship is still under discussion and depending on a perspective is being understood differently. For in-

stance, it is not clear how redesigning of educational institutions affects learning and social relations within these very institutions and how to study this influence.

The article is divided into two parts: the part one focuses on theoretical issues related to the problem under scrutiny, the part two depicts and discusses methodological problems connected to studying impact of space on educational and learning processes, and its relevance for educational leadership in terms of influence, vision and values.

Keywords:

learning spaces, education, spatial turn

¹ The terms 'headteacher', 'deputy headteacher' and 'headship' will be used when referring to the research conducted in the UK; elsewhere the terms 'principal', 'vice principal' and 'principalship' are used.

Introduction

Relationship between learning processes and space gradually draws attention of scholars from different disciplines. It seems that it may be especially important from the perspective of educational leadership, so strongly focused on learning processes and their effectiveness (McBeath, Dempster, 2009; Mazurkiewicz, 2011). This attention may be understood as a result of at least three factors: (1) transformations of learning spaces resulting from new design modes (for instance, open spaces, shared facilities, places for formal and informal learning, community spaces within educational and cultural institutions, e.g. cultural centers) and new technologies being introduced into learning practices (which affect the very nature of learning but also transform space of educational institutions), (2) funds provided by different institutions (both governmental and non-governmental) for improvements of learning processes by changing physical settings or simply redesigning of learning spaces, (3) the spatial turn in social sciences and humanities, hence, a transdisciplinary recognition of space not as a passive background but as an active component (in terms of semiotics, experience and materiality) of social relations.

Scholars highlight that relevance of space in educational processes is still to be understood, interpreted and evaluated (for instance Boddington, Boys 2011). For instance, it is not clear how rede-

signing of educational institutions affects learning and social relations within these very institutions and how to study this influence.

This paper focuses on theoretical and methodological aspects of relationship between learning processes and space. In the part one, I concentrate on theoretical layer of the issue, while in the second, I recapitulate selected models of evaluation of learning spaces. The third part of the text is devoted to reflections on relevance of space and learning spaces in terms of educational leadership.

Taking space into foreground

Last decades of the XXth century in humanities and social sciences theories are marked by increased interest in space which finally took form of the spatial turn. One of the precursors of the turn was Michel Foucault who in 1967 published an essay “Des Espace Autres” (1984), in which he defined the XIXth century as focused on temporal dimension, where the following century, within which we still inhabit, concentrates on spatial issues, spatial orders, and relations: “The great obsession of the nineteenth century was, as we know, history: with its themes of development and of suspension, of crisis, and cycle, themes of the ever-accumulating past, with its great preponderance of dead men and the menacing glaciation of the world [...] The present epoch will perhaps be above all the epoch of space. We are in the epoch of simultaneity: we are

in the epoch of juxtaposition, the epoch of the near and far, of the side-by-side, of the dispersed. We are at a moment, I believe, when our experience of the world is less that of a long life developing through time than that of a network that connects points and intersects with its own skein” (Foucault 1984, p. 1). Differently speaking, Foucault claims that the increased interest in space has not resulted from theoretical discussions but is deeply rooted in the characteristics of an epoch, of an episteme. For instance, “In the UK, the first decade of the new millennium saw significant public investment in the physical and digital spaces and educational infrastructure of universities, colleges and related environments. In turn this stimulated a growing interest in the re-examination of learning and the spaces in which learning takes place” (Boddington, Boys 2011, p. xi). This observation – according to Foucault – is more general. I refer here to Boddington’s and Boys’ critical reader on learning spaces because the following text touches upon a problem of learning spaces but also because they broader remarks on the status of space today. Investments in public spaces are obvious for European Union which provides great amount of money for infrastructure, meaning space transformations. We see it clearly in the Polish context. But from the theoretical point of view it is not clear how changes of space influence on social relation and culture, and how to assess, to measure, to interpret (referring to different paradigms: evaluation, positivist and

hermeneutic) these spatial transformations. As Boddington and Boys highlight referring to learning spaces but again it may be read as a broader remark: “This has opened up interesting questions, first, about the lack of any theoretical understanding as to how such spaces should be conceived or designed [...] It has also revealed a lack of effective frameworks for on learning and research” (p. xi-xii). Hence, governmental and non-governmental institutions invest in space but how it ‘invests’ back?

The spatial turn is devoted to assess, measure and interpret this influence. Shortly speaking, it introduces concepts that treat space not as a passive background but as an active one. For instance, in sociological theories the focus is on how subjects influence, change, and use physical objects and space. Objects and space are understood as passive, meaning they are being analyzed as something produced, fabricated, shaped, created, as vehicles of meanings ascribed to them by subjects. The revers aspect – how they influence individuals is neglected. This is a reducing perspective because both individuals and objects influence each others the individuals affect the things but also things affect the individuals, by constituting an important component of dynamic relation.

How to take space into foreground? How to take space into consideration and show how it affects individuals’ and groups’ actions? We may present at least three approaches to this problem. How-

ever space is vogue concept because it is something more than objects – rather their constellation of objects which operates on the level of materiality and on the level of meanings ascribed to it and decoded by humans. Space as a foreground factor may be understood in at least three different ways.

Semiotic approach aims at reading space – space is understood as meaningful, hence, space and objects within it have meanings. Questions: what space means? How these meanings influence social relations and learning processes? For instance, how students understand school (as “our” or “their”) affect how they act within in (engaging more or less in school activities). This is Roland Barthes (2009) who developed semiotics as a study of signs.

Perception or phenomenological approach – space is understood as something being perceived, experienced by individuals. Questions: how space is being perceived? How these perceptions influence social relations and learning processes? For instance, how students perceive school (as “safe” or “unsafe”) affect how they act within in (engaging more or less in school activities). This approach is founded on phenomenology which underlines that interacting with the world is mediated through the senses, not just the mind (ascribing meaning is taking place through mind engagements as in semiotics). According to Maurice Merleau-Ponty the physical body connects the world by motional and perceptive

interactions with objects – humans are anchored in the world by their flesh not only by their minds. Space and objects are being incorporated or embodied: “to be a body is to be connected with some world; at the beginning our body is not in the space but with the space instead” (Merleau-Ponty, 2001, p. 169). Because the whole process takes place besides consciousness (it is about body not mind) it provides methodological challenges on how to study these processes. We cannot simply ask individuals about this dimension of their social activity because large parts of it are beyond consciousness. This does not mean that it cannot be articulated – yes, it can. It is why such methods as participant observation and other ethnographic methods (including a photo-elicitation interview) are helpful here. Another problem is related to the very nature of experience, since “different individuals’ experience of embodiment within particular settings, and their perception and response of the same settings may differ considerably, reflecting differences in age, gender, personality, physical characteristics and cultural and social experience” (Melhiush, 2011, p. 23).

Material approach aims at understanding space as active in social relations in terms of its material features, not meanings and experiences. For instance, Bruno Latour talks about nonhuman actors who shape everyday practices similar to human actors. Within his text from 1992 “Where are the missing masses?” he provides an example of a hinge

(a mechanism that closes door) - a small object which do a lot of work. Because of a hinge you don't have to force people to close door which means that you do not have to spend time, money and energy to keep the door closed (closed because of cultural or security reasons). Invention of a hinge may be understood as a delegation of work and discipline on this very object. Differently speaking, a hinge does its work in terms of culture (keeping private space private), security (limiting access), and in terms of economy (you don't have to watch to keep the door closed). According to Latour both human and nonhuman actors contribute to how the social reality is constructed and how it works. Linking it with learning, one may say that learning is shaped not only by attitudes, cultural (including gender) patterns or economic determinants but also material conditions. Place where one study and objects which are present in this very place influence learning practices and its outcomes.

Space + learning = learning spaces

Recognizing relevance of space in reference to learning may be understood as taking into consideration of what space means, how it is experience and how it affects individuals and groups because of its very materiality. It means that learning is to be treated as embodied and situated practice which takes place in physical settings to which groups and individuals

ascribe meanings and which they experience. Hence, different scholars, for instance Boddington and Boys, propose to talk about learning space in order to highlight this bodily and spatial dimension of learning. As they state: "learning spaces are not so much a matter of aesthetics or innovative design, as about the processes of learning, teaching and research and the ways in which relationships between these are categorized, organized and connected (that is, in what is 'named' and identified and what is not; what is revealed, what is kept together and what is disaggregated and dispersed) both conceptually and materially" (p. xii-xiii). And this is embedded in growing number of publications. As Boddington and Boys recapitulate, "In educational theory, learning spaces are increasingly understood as moments of transition between different states of learning, with many boundaries and thresholds to be negotiated (Meyer and Land, 2006; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Many essays therefore explore how students (and staff) can both be supported in their learning journeys and enabled to take risks; and how both conceptual and material space is implicated in that process" (p. xx).

Although scholars agree that space matters, question on influence of physical space on learning is an aspect neglected by theories of learning (Blight, Pearshouse 2011: 3). It is not obvious how to study it, and – what is even more complex – how to evaluate its influence on learning processes.

Evaluating learning spaces

Broad investments into learning spaces in European Union, including Poland, raise questions on influence of modernized spaces on learning processes. Brett Blight and Ian Pearshouse (2011) provide typology of learning space evaluations which I will recapitulate here. According to them there are five types of evaluation of learning space.

Demand model and satisfaction model may be linked with perception or phenomenology approach introduced above. Demand model focused on “quantitative analysis of conventional space metrics (occupant density, booking statistics), or financial income (external bookings, internal market calculations), etc.” (ibidem, p. 6), which may be operationalized to questions of “what size of estate is affordable, whether resources deployed in support of under-consumed space should be re-directed, and the opportunity costs of supporting inefficient spaces” (ibidem, s. 7) (SMG, 2006, p. 3), while satisfaction model is about “collecting data about the experiences and satisfaction of space users” (Blight, Pearshouse 2011, p. 6). Brand model aims at “evaluating spaces’ contribution to institutional image, as projected to entities including media, external partners, prospective and current students and staff, etc.

” (ibidem, p. 6). Hence, it is a type of semiotics approach to space. Outcomes model elaborates material layer of space – it evaluates “changes in learning outcomes” (Blight, Pearshouse 2011, p. 6), so how learning spaces in terms of their physical fabric affect learning outcomes. Blight and Pearshouse claim that this model is difficult because it is very complicated to isolate material characteristics of space from meanings and experiences, yet researchers seek to evaluate this layer. “Brooks isolates the effects of space by controlling (keeping constant) confounding factors such as time of day, course materials, assignments, instructor behaviour, and so on and is thus able to demonstrate a statistically significant difference between the predicted and actually achieved grades of different groups of students whose teaching occurred in two classrooms with different designs” (ibidem, p. 8).

Blight and Pearshouse present three more models but it is hard to link them with the three approaches to space, since they refer to selected elements of the approaches. Scenario provision model examines “space provision (technology, configuration, size, etc.), in light of judgments about the activities which need to be supported” (Blight, Pearshouse 2011, p. 6). This model “usually involves in practice is making judgments about which activities (scenarios) a space needs to sup-

² There is slippage in the terms used - vice or assistant principal or deputy headteacher are used variously to describe the role of the next most senior leader after the principal or headteacher.

port and ensuring that the space, its contents (furniture, technology) and its basic infrastructure are appropriate for such activities – and, in some cases, keeping logs of the activities which occur in the room over time” (ibidem, p. 10). Activity support model touches upon activities taking place in a selected space, conducting studies usually by the use of observation-based methods. “This often involves mapping back to physical and cultural affordances (for example the configurations of students, teachers and machines within space, or how the social identities of the actors within the space are understood by those present), as opposed to Scenario Provision LS·e, which establishes activity checklists from design assumptions and maps these forward to occupancy. Such a mapping would ideally constitute a dialogue between design and evaluation through time” (ibidem, p. 10-11). Last but not least, spatial ecology model focuses on “examining configurations of, and relationships between, the variety of spaces available” (ibidem, p. 6).

Space, learning spaces and educational leadership

Spatial context of learning is relevant for educational leadership because it raises awareness of this usually neglected layer of learning processes. Theoretically speaking, spatial layer may play a relevant role in both planning and conducting leadership actions. If space is understood not only as a background or a scene on which

actions take place, then it may be actively used to reach leadership goals. According to Bush (2011) defining educational leadership one has to take into account three dimensions: influence, vision and values. Influence stands for influencing on others, it is intentional (Dorczak 2014, p. 8). Of course, space is a vital element of influence. By managing space once influence may be both boosted or decreased. If the spatial dimension is not reflected in leadership goals and actions, it may act as an obstacle. For instance, if people experience space as, for instance, harsh or unpleasant then an encouraging narrative of a leader is in a contradiction with it, and space will decrease influence of a leader. As for the vision “educational research also shows that having a clear vision and being able to achieve it is very high on the list of expectations towards school heads expressed by teachers, parents and others involved in school life (Dempster, Logan, 1998)” (Dorczak 2014, p. 9). A vision may be communicated by the use of space (for instance, by the use of posters, etc.) but also space as such may communicate something different than a vision delivers. The same is with values which also may be mirrored in space – space may be a medium of communicating values but is values presented by a leader lay in contradiction to the one communicated by space then individuals will see this very contradiction.

Below I provide exemplary questions that might be helpful for an educational leader who wants to take space seriously

in his/her work (answering to them may be based on observation which is easy and almost costless):

-/ where learning and leadership actions take place? What can you say about this place in terms of meanings it provide, experiences it evoke and materiality that shapes it?

-/ what meanings this particular space provides?

-/ how you as a leader feel in this particular space? What can you say about experiencing of this particular space by other individuals?

-/ whether physical conditions support or block activities important for leadership and learning?

Collecting answers for these questions do not need a study to be conducted. If time and money budgets allow for this more complex studies may be carried out, which base on evaluation models presented above.

Conclusions

Within this article I was seeking to highlight the importance of space on educational and learning processes. This very reflection results from increased both practical engagements in learning spaces (design and funds) and theoretical insights into the topic (spatial turn). According to the spatial turn and theories on which it bases introduces concepts that treat space not as a passive background but as an active one. Semiotic approach aims at reading space – space is under-

stood as meaningful, hence, space and objects within it have meanings. In perception or phenomenological approach space is understood as something being perceived, experienced by individuals. In material approach space is treated as an active in social relations in terms of its material features, not meanings and experiences. Recognizing relevance of space in reference to learning means taking into consideration space's meanings in the process of learning, its experiencing by individuals who learn, and reflecting on social dimension of material setting in which learning processes take place. Yet, studying space in the context of learning is challenging and developed methods are still ahead. Brett Blight and Ian Pearshouse (2011) summed up methods of learning space's evaluation – it is a complex toolkit for scholars interested in space and learning issues, and also for educational leadership's researchers and leaders, since it highlight a spatial dimension of leadership as an social activity in terms of influence, vision and values. Space may be a helpful means of increasing educational influence, and communicating both vision and values connected with it. However, if one not reflects upon it, it may decrease influence and hinder communication by, for instance, providing an alternative or contradictory message. Yet, this issue here is only introduced – it is to be treated as an invitation for other scholars to elaborate upon it.

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School evaluation in Spain: missing leadership?

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Abstract

In spite of national differences, greater accountability combined with increased decentralisation and autonomy (particularly by using high-stakes assessments) is becoming widespread and likely to lead to a reconfiguration of the roles of school leaders. The focus of this article is focused on changes affecting evaluation of Spanish schools and, subsequently, those in a position to play a major role in school evaluation, including school leaders. In addition to an overview of school evaluation in Spain and the the roles of school bodies and leaders in it, the projected use of high-stakes exit assessments in schools as reflected in national regulation is presented and analysed. The article

concludes with a discussion of the implications of this trend supposedly leading to alignment with the prevailing policy environment. In particular, it is highlighted that schools are increasingly considered as targeted objects to be managed and, accordingly, the managerial role of school leaders is likely to be emphasised, while school evaluation as such is losing importance as an ongoing joint process to promote shared improvements.

Keywords: School evaluation, accountability, school leadership, Spanish education system.

Introduction

In Spain, school evaluation is not neatly differentiated from other forms of evaluation involving schools. Rather, there are

a number of realms susceptible of being associated with it. In addition to ‘school evaluation’ itself, schools need to be involved in ‘evaluation of teaching practice’, ‘evaluation for diagnostics’, ‘inspection’ processes or ‘evaluation of the school system’. These domains of evaluation are not well defined in every case and, thus, their boundaries are often blurred. This situation coalesces with evaluation being infused with an overarching sense which embraces virtually every relevant aspect of education. Our 2006 Education Act (Ley Orgánica 2/2006, de 3 de mayo, de Educación) states: “The evaluation will cover all education areas governed by this Law and will apply to the learning processes and results of students, teacher performance, education processes, management, the performance of schools, inspection and the Education Administrations themselves” (article 141).

An illustrative instance is provided by the so-called ‘individualised assessments’ (LOE as amended by LOMCE, Preamble and article 144; see below). They are clearly a case of use of large-scale student testing proving to be particularly relevant in our education policy (e.g. Olmedo, 2013). Although its primary focus is student attainment of key competencies and objectives (e.g. LOE as amended by LOMCE, Preamble, VIII), this statutory assessment pursues a number of interrelated, yet heterogeneous, wide-ranging goals: in its original formulation, it aimed “to provide infor-

mation about the situation of the students, the teaching institution and the education system itself, encouraging the adoption of relevant measures to overcome possible shortcomings” (LOE, Preamble); after amendments, it, yet more ambitiously, aims to ensure required standards of learning, to standardise academic qualifications, to better inform students’ choice of educational pathways and other decisions to be made by parents, schools and education authorities, and to improve student learning, school management, education policies and the quality of the education system overall (LOE as amended by LOMCE, Preamble, VIII). It will be ultimately used to hold the education system accountable for its accomplishments and functioning to the Parliament (LOE, Preamble and article 147.1). Moreover, a number of institutions and constituencies are to be involved: design is under the jurisdiction of national authorities, implementation conforming this national framework falls to regional authorities, and additional stakeholders (including inspectors, school leaders, teachers, non-teaching staff, parents and students themselves) are to participate through a number of intermingled ways which are often ambiguous (although it is clear that teachers are responsible for administering and scoring tests) (LOE as amended by LOMCE, article 144).

Nevertheless, school evaluation is still a distinct and acknowledged domain of evaluation, although its boundaries and

relevance are blurred and changing and it usually combines with other assessments and evaluations, sometimes in a piecemeal fashion. This article is focused on these changes affecting Spanish schools and, subsequently, those in a position to play a major role in school evaluation, including school leaders. Setting aside this introduction, it starts with an overview of school evaluation in Spain, including a brief account of recent rearrangements and a more detailed one of its major traditional approaches: a) an external evaluation based on supervisory inspections and b) an internal evaluation based on school self-evaluation. The roles of school bodies and leaders in these evaluative processes are then presented in the second section. The third one deals with the latest trend aiming to align the Spanish education system with what it is believed to be part of a broader global agenda (Sahlberg, 2004): the so-called ‘individualised assessments’. These are not school evaluation per se but are likely to significantly affect schools, their evaluation and the role to be played by school leaders and stakeholders. The article concludes with a discussion of the implications of the preceding analysis.

Recent scholarship and empirical research on these issues are rather scarce and, thus, the article will be primarily based on the analysis of legal documents. In addition, the nation-wide decentralisation of our education system is an additional reason for limiting the scope of the

article to school evaluation in the Spanish education system taken as a whole (not to its developments in regions), although privately-owned and privately-funded schools (‘centros privados no concertados’, or ‘non-chartered private schools’) will be excluded because they are not subject to the provisions regarding school structure relevant to schools expected to need to meet the public interest in the provision of education: i.e. publicly-owned and publicly-funded schools (‘centros públicos’, or ‘public schools’), and privately-owned and publicly-funded schools (‘centros privados concertados’, or ‘chartered private schools’).

1. School evaluation in Spain: an overview

Particularly since the 1990s, the relevance of education quality has been increasingly emphasised in education policy in Spain. For instance, improvement of education quality is, since 1990, among the major goals of reforms launched in this country (e.g. 1990 General Organisation of the Education System Act, Preamble, and LOE as amended by LOMCE, Preamble). Moreover, according Engel and Rutkowski (2014) successive reforms “suggest a growing attention to the production of evidence for quality education” (p. 774) and “the focus on providing evidence for educational quality features more strongly over time” (p. 775). Evaluation has been considered to be a crucial means not only to capture that evidence

but also to use the evidence captured for improvement of quality. Accordingly, evaluation has been conferred the status of major ‘factor’ leading to education quality in Spain and is a ‘principle’ informing the education system in 1990 and 25 years later (1990 General Organisation of the Education System Act, article 55, and LOE, articles 1 and 2.2). In turn, a subsequent need to devise effective devices for assessment and evaluation (and their use) emerged and has remained unchanged. School evaluation might be considered to be a device (or, rather, a cluster of devices) among others.

Note that school evaluation has been primarily considered to be an instrument for evaluating the education system. According to Tiana (2002, 2014), a professor of History of Education who held senior positions in the Ministry of Education, the main focus of education reforms has been evaluating the education system, and school evaluation not has been pivotal over time, albeit never absent and sometimes gaining more significance. The 1995 Participation, Evaluation and Governance in Schools Act gave prominence to school evaluation and, especially, school-based evaluation, whilst emphasising the complementary nature of the internal and external evaluation of schools (article 29). In addition, a participative and democratic approach was adopted at least formally. A change of Government after the 1996 general election and previous political circumstances however contributed

to the failure of the implementation of this reform (Tiana, 2002, p. 178). Some initiatives informed by the ‘total quality management’ philosophy followed but the use of student achievement data to evaluate and improve the education system (and, thus, schools) through the promotion of heterogeneous purposes has been of increasing importance over time (see below). An alignment with demands from an international agenda backed by supranational actors has happened along the way (e.g. Engel & Rutkowski, 2014).

The Spanish school system continues to differentiate, at least implicitly, between two approaches to school evaluation: external and internal evaluation. For years, schools have been regularly inspected (an action traditionally associated with external evaluation) and have conducted regular self-evaluations (an action traditionally associated with internal evaluation) (Faubert, 2009).

However, both are not even explicitly mentioned in our current national legal framework on education. Moreover, school evaluation as such is barely mentioned in it. The only article particularly devoted to school evaluation in our 2006 Law on Education states:

1. Within the framework of their competences, the Education Administrations [education authorities] can define and execute plans for the evaluation of schools (...).
2. At the same time, the Education Administrations will support and facilitate

self-evaluation by schools (article 145).

According to this provision, school evaluation is not limited to school self-evaluation and, thus, can include external evaluation. Interestingly, both are under the purview of education authorities. On the one hand, as education authorities “can define and execute” their own school evaluation plans, they would not be, in a strict sense, statutorily obliged to include external evaluation, although it is common include it among their areas of responsibility. On the other hand, schools need to self-evaluate and education authorities are obliged to ‘support’ and ‘facilitate’ this process. The scope of both forms of evaluation is also determined by education authorities, although it nonetheless embraces processes and results (see Faubert, 2009).

Internal evaluation has been virtually conflated with school self-evaluation. There is no common statutory framework and each education authority is responsible for devising its own one. According to the national profile for Spain included in the European Commission’s report *Assuring quality in education: policies and approaches to school evaluation in Europe*, internal evaluation “is intended to be a thorough analysis of school achievements and failings, with a view to rectifying any deficiencies identified” (p. 92). An outline is provided in that report (pp. 92-94) but similarities between regions often combines with significant

differences to produce a variety of approaches which, in turn, has accommodated a variety of particular projects, which are sometimes loosely coupled.

On the other hand, external evaluation has been attributed, to a significant extent, to a set of Inspectorates, which virtually operate as branches of education authorities (see LOE, articles 152 and 154). Therefore, it may be asserted that “schools are evaluated through inspections attached to the higher educational authorities” (Faubert, 2009, p. 13). However, ‘evaluation’ itself is barely present the terms used in the national delineation of minimum duties of Inspectorates and inspectors (see LOE, articles 152 and 154). Inspections are usually focused on schools and are even expected to have a positive effect on them: according to inspectors themselves, schools are the main “object” of inspection and, moreover, even the “pillar” of it (Secadura, 2014, p. 18). But, according to Secadura (2014), an inspector at Madrid, most of relevant responsibilities are still connected with supervision, this being understood to be examining and checking the performance of schools and teachers in order to control them (that is, to ensure that they perform as expected - often as revealed by compliance with regulations), whilst taking for granted that they are under the authority of the supervising agents. Inspectorates are statutorily responsible for monitoring and ensuring “that schools comply with the laws, regulations and other provisions

in force that affect the education system” (LOE, article 151) and this has been traditionally among their major concerns (Penzer, 2011, p. 22). In this context, evaluation is not entirely absent from inspection but is rather dependent on and even subsumed under supervision and control.

2. The role of schools and school leaders in school evaluation

Throughout Spain, there is a legal obligation for every publicly-funded school to have two decision-making bodies, whose responsibilities include participation in evaluation: a school council and a teacher assembly. Participation of the school community in school management and control is channelled through the former one and participation of teaching staff in school governance (educational

aspects) is channelled through the latter one. For most of the time since 1985, the school council was a school governing body in every publicly-funded school but the latest amendments removed this status and lessened its responsibilities in school governance. The teacher assembly is one of the two school governing bodies in public schools. In the case of chartered schools, it is ultimately up to the school owners to decide whether this body is a governing one or not.

In both types of publicly-funded schools, both bodies to a large extent share a number evaluation-related responsibilities, which are somewhat ambiguously formulated (LOE as amended by LOMCE, articles 127 and 129 and 1985 Right to Education Act as amended by LOMCE, article 57):

	Public Schools	Chartered Schools
School Council	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Evaluates school development plans as a whole. - Analyses and evaluates the running of the school, changes in student achievement and results of internal and external evaluations in which the school is involved. - Produces proposals and reports on the functioning of the school and improvements in the quality of school management, as well as on other related aspects. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Evaluates and reports on the annual school development plan. -Participates in evaluating the running of the school in its administrative and educational aspects.
Teacher Assembly	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Evaluates school development plans in their educational aspects. - Analyses and evaluates the running of the school, changes in student achievement and results of internal and external evaluations in which the school is involved. 	

Source: own study.

The management team is the other governing body in public schools although national regulation on it is very scant. It needs to include at least a headteacher, a head of academic issues and an academic secretary. On the other hand, chartered schools just need to include at least a headteacher. Non-chartered private schools have full autonomy on management and leadership issues.

In publicly-funded schools, the official role of school leaders in school evaluation is quite limited. In the case of chartered schools, there is even no prescribed responsibility, this meaning that it is ultimately up to the schools owners to decide on the headteacher's involvement in evaluation. In the case of public schools, among headteachers' responsibilities is "encouraging the internal evaluation of the school and collaborating with external evaluations and teacher evaluations" (LOE, article 132).

3. Our 'new' trend: high-stakes exit assessments in Spanish schools

As anticipated above, there has been also an increasing interest in using hard evidence on student learning progress in Spain. In addition to incorporation of standards and intended learning outcomes in the curricula (LOE as amended by LOMCE, article 6), our country has adopted what are currently called 'individ-

ualised assessments' (see above). Interestingly, the statute itself refers to them as "one of the measures geared most directly to improve the quality of the education system" (LOE as amended by LOMCE, Preamble, VIII). According to a prominent scholar in Spain, these assessments are "at the core" of the most recent reform (Bolívar, 2013). Regulation of them is much more centralised and detailed than in the case of inspection and, to a larger extent, school self-evaluation. For instance, Spain is -according to the OECD- among the countries where reporting of school evaluation is less common (2013a, p. 81). Relevant national regulation is scant. The exception are however those 'individualised assessments', especially in secondary education (nonetheless in need of further specification). Of course, these assessments are not school evaluation per se but are expected to significantly affect schools and their evaluation.

Several of its features are highlighted:

- a) It is primarily focused on the achievements of individual students: as stated above, its primary focus is student attainment of key competencies and objectives.
- b) Assessments need to be equivalent to those used by international agencies, especially the OECD (LOE as amended by LOMCE, Preamble, VIII). In the case of secondary education, standardised testing is required (LOE as amended by LOMCE, article 144).
- c) Most of these assessments are clearly terminal: students are required to be as-

sessed at the middle and end of primary education and at the end of lower and upper secondary education (LOE as amended by LOMCE, articles 20.3, 21, 29 and 36 bis).
 d) Assimilation to a census-based (not sample-based) assessment is deliberately sought (LOE as amended by LOMCE, preamble, V). However, not every student at specific grade or age levels will participate: setting aside that some types and levels of education are excluded (e.g. vocational education at regular schools), all students enrolled in primary education are expected to participate but only students enrolled in secondary education having passed a number of specific subjects in lower secondary ed-

ucation and all subjects in upper secondary education are allowed to participate.
 e) Assessment is external: as anticipated above, a common framework (including assessment criteria) is arranged by national authorities, its implementation falls to regional authorities and administration and marking are responsibilities of external teachers (LOE as amended by LOMCE, articles 20.3, 21, 29, 36 bis and 144).

Purposes and consequences deserve special attention. When information is available, these assessments are clearly summative (LOE as amended by LOMCE, articles 20.3, 21.3, 29, 31, 36bis and 37):

Mid of Primary Education	...
End of Primary Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Assessment result is expressed in the form of a grade (among several ones). - Parents (or guardians) receive a report including the grade obtained by each student.
End of lower Secondary Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Assessment result is expressed in the form of a mark (i.e. a score from 0 to 10). - Both the test mark and the average of marks obtained in all subjects taken throughout the stage are aggregated to produce a final mark (weights are 30% and 70%, respectively, and at least 5 points in the test are nonetheless needed to complete the stage and obtain the certificate).
End of upper Secondary Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Assessment result is expressed in the form of a mark (i.e. a score from 0 to 10). - Both the test mark and the average of marks obtained in all subjects taken throughout the stage are aggregated to produce a final mark (weights are 40% and 60%, respectively, and at least 5 points in the test are nonetheless needed to complete the stage and obtain the certificate).

Source: own study.

Although terminal assessments are usually associated with summative assessment, ‘formative’ and ‘diagnostic’ purposes –in the words used in the statute (LOE as amended by LOMCE, Preamble, VIII)– are espoused. Our national legislation does not provide a explicit definition of them, but it is implied that assessments aims to inform and improve learning (and teaching and schools providing it) whilst attempting to identify needs and even problems affecting progress in order to deal with them (see OECD, 2013a for a delineation of both notions). However, there are additional purposes: for instance, it also aims to provide a summarisation of students’ achievements that have taken place at the end of certain stages, ensure that academic qualifications comply with common standards or, in general, monitor the performance of the education system altogether (see above). With regard to the consequences of school evaluation, national regulation is scant too, although some common patterns have been identified (European Commission/ EACEA/Eurydice, 2015).

Interestingly, a change introduced by the amendment of our 2006 Education Act in 2013 is however that education authorities are required to use indicators common to all regions (and all schools within them) in their evaluations and make evaluation results public to stakeholders in accordance with a regulatory framework set by national Government, “with socioeconomic and sociocultural contextual factors being taken into consideration” (LOE as amended by LOMCE, articles 120.3 and 147.2). The publication of school results (namely, data on performance on such indicators) is explicitly required – for two times (LOE as amended by LOMCE, articles 120.3 and 147.2). Moreover, the statute state that all publicly-funded schools need to be accountable for their results (LOE as amended by LOMCE, article 120.3).

This is in line with the somewhat more detailed regulation of ‘individualised assessments’. In a few words, the more advanced the assessment required, the more defined and serious its consequences for students and schools (LOE as amended by LOMCE, articles 20.2, 20.3, 21.3, 29, 31, 32.2, 36bis, 37, 41, 120.3 and 144):

	Consequences for students	Consequences for schools
Mid of Primary Education	Assessment “results” taken into account in grade repetition decisions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - “If assessment is unfavourable, the teaching team must adopt the most appropriate measures (including regular and/or special ones).” - In the case of public schools getting lower results than expected according standards, education authorities ‘may’ set programmes for improvement.
End of Primary Education	Assessment “results” taken into account in grade repetition decisions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The report produced is used to ‘inform’ and ‘guide’ students themselves, parents (or guardians), teaching teams and schools. - In the case of public schools getting lower results than expected according standards, education authorities ‘may’ set programmes for improvement.
End of lower Secondary Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If positive, exam mark determines completion (leading to a certificate) and future educational route (vocational or academic one). - Unlimited number of opportunities to resit the exam available to failing students or those that, having passed the exam, are interested in a higher mark (at least two ones per school year). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In the case of public schools getting lower results than expected according standards, education authorities ‘may’ set programmes for improvement. - “Equitable comparisons” available.
End of upper Secondary Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If positive, exam mark determines completion (leading to a certificate) and future educational options. - Unlimited number of opportunities to resit the exam available to failing students or those that, having passed the exam, are interested in a higher mark (at least two ones per school year). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In the case of public schools getting lower results than expected according standards, education authorities ‘may’ set programmes for improvement. - “Equitable comparisons” available.

Source: own study.

Individualised assessments’ may thus be considered to be high-stakes assessments, particularly when used in secondary education: a) reported results lead to defined and definite decisions; b) these decisions are referred to consequences; c) importantly (see above), consequences adopt the form of sanctions (namely,

rewards and penalties); d) these consequences are significant (that is, they matter to a variety to stakeholders) and, therefore, e) are usually public. Interestingly, high-stakes assesment would be being used also as formative assesment despite 1) the application of stakes to formative assessments is likely to change the nature

of assessment to summative (and “this change may render [even] a high-quality formative assessment into a poor-quality summative one”) (Heywood, 2015, p. 120) and, moreover, 2) the OCDE itself (2013a) warns of the risks of using a specific assessment for purposes different to that or those that it served originally or for many purposes (p. 160).

4. Concluding thoughts

A prominent scholar in Spain (Pérez Gómez, 2014) has recently linked the aforementioned trend to what Sahlberg (2011, 2015) has called ‘Global Education Reform Movement’ (GERM), which includes as one of its central features the adoption of hard evidence-based accountability; namely, holding teachers and schools accountable for students’ achievement through external tests. As a consequence of this trend, student measured achievement is closely tied to the processes of evaluating, inspecting, and even rewarding or punishing schools and teachers. According to Sahlberg himself (2015, p. 146), the problem with such a kind of accountability “is not that students, teachers, and schools are held accountable per se, but rather the way accountability mechanisms affect teachers’ work and students’ studying in school”. However, these ‘mechanisms’ do not lack support from research (e.g. Hanushek & Woessman, 2011, 2014) and the ‘individualised assessments’ adopted in Spain draw on this research (INEE, 2014). The

OECD’s report ‘Teachers for the 21st century: using evaluation to improve teaching’ (2013b), which also argues for evidence-based accountability, highlights that use of student results as an evaluation instrument is likely to be particularly relevant for whole-school evaluations (more than for individual teacher appraisals). Nonetheless, it is not clear that such hard evidence on student achievement will be used to evaluate either schools or teachers in Spain as testing is primarily used to assess student progress toward key competencies and objectives, the scope ultimately targeted by these assessments extends to the school system and, above all, details on how to evaluate schools (and teachers) through such assessments are virtually absent.

Rather, the expectation would be as follows. The performance of a education system has been considered to be affected by the incentives that actors face; namely, rewards (and penalties): “if the actors in the education process are rewarded (...) for producing better student achievement, and if they are penalized for not producing high achievement, then achievement is likely to improve” (Hanushek, 2013, p. 134). In turn, the incentives to produce such results and the process leading to them would be “created by the institutions of the education system — the rules and regulations that explicitly or implicitly set rewards and penalties for the people involved in the education process” (Hanushek, 2013, p. 134). In this context,

“schools matter for student outcomes, but not so much in terms of traditional inputs” but “through teacher quality and institutional structures that determine incentives” (Hanushek & Woessman, 2011, p. 159, 2014, pp. 171-172). In particular, a number of ‘institutional policies’ have been found to be associated with higher achievement levels: competition, combination of accountability measures (e.g. external exit exams) and school autonomy (especially in process and personnel decisions), and public financing (see Hanushek, 2013; Hanushek & Woessman, 2011, 2014). Taking into account that, in Spain, a) school choice and, thus, competition are limited (although particularly the latter one is often latent and nonetheless increasing), and b) most of schools are publicly-funded (although funding has decreased), efforts to improve the performance of the education system might have turned out to rely more on combining autonomy and accountability. Moreover, as schools -particularly public ones- undergo severe restrictions in making decisions on staff (and other significant issues such as curriculum or financial ones), accountability through terminal standardised assessments signalling performance emerges as a critical (and not too costly) mechanism of governance (Klein, 2013).

As mentioned above, schools matter in this context, but school evaluation as such does not matter significantly in it. School self-evaluation is decaying – as two Spanish experts hold (González &

Escudero, 2013). In addition, school inspection is also being displaced in favour of agencies specialised in assessment and evaluation which design and implement student testing – as inspectors themselves have highlighted (Secadura, 2011, 2012). In contrast, school leaders are seemingly expected to play an important role in the new scenario. ‘Individualised assessments’ are among the ‘pivotal principles’ of the latest reform wave but the ‘strengthening’ of school management and leadership is also among them (LOE as amended by LOMCE, Preamble, VI and VII). As evaluation (see section 1), school management and leadership has been also conferred the status of major ‘factor’ leading to education quality (LOE, articles 1 and 2.2) and, specifically, the headteacher is expected to be accorded a significant (yet limited) extent of autonomy in order to undertake actions leading to quality education (LOE as amended by LOMCE, article 122 bis). However, school leaders (like other school bodies) are not even mentioned when the national basic regulation articulates ‘individualised assessments’, although the terms used are significantly more detailed than when other forms of evaluation affecting schools are considered. They and, in particular, headteachers are rather expected to lead a number of actions regulated outside schools by education authorities and, above all, manage their implementation in schools in order to increase results as reflected by those ‘individualised assessments’. In this vein, they will be primari-

ly playing a managerial role which would be instrumentally key in putting in place a stringent accountability regime (understood as a set of mechanisms and ‘rules of play’ aiming to ensure accountability). Moreover, the role of the headteacher is thus strengthened to render him/her (and, along the way, the school) more accountable to external stakeholders (in the first instance, to education authorities). In this context, schools are likely to be considered to be “bases for management” and “targets for change” rather than “centers for decision making and renewal” (Sirotnik & Clark, 1988), and school leaders themselves might significantly contribute to.

This is not different from what has been conceptualised as a form of school-based management: “principal control” (Wohlstetter & Odden, 1992) or “administrative control” (Murphy & Beck, 1995) (see also Leithwood & Menzies, 1998). According to this approach to school decision-making, the headteacher assume substantial authority over resources (i.e. budgets and staff) and, accordingly, exercise substantial control. School autonomy is, in this view, largely conflated with headteacher autonomy. Interestingly, authority and control are invested in the headteacher in combination with the incentive to make the best use of resources by increasing accountability to external authorities and other stakeholders, this supposedly resulting in higher efficiency when serving students (Leithwood & Menzies, 1998).

Although focused on the Spanish context and in need of further exploration when this policy is being developed and implemented, the issues explored here might be relevant for other education systems and it might worth considering them in analysing global agendas. In spite of national differences (e.g. Hangartner & Svaton, 2013; Møller & Skedsmo, 2013; Keddie, 2015; Serpieri, Grimaldi & Vatrella, 2015), combinations of increased autonomy and greater accountability are proving to be and likely to lead to redefine the role of school leaders and have impact on them (e.g. McGhee & Nelson, 2005). The Spanish education system is not an exception in this regard but the singularities (and commonalities) linked with this particular context presented here can shed light on the phenomenon.

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Managing the Complex Adaptive Learning Organization

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Abstract

The aim of our paper is to highlight the connections between specific leadership roles and learning organization behaviour in the context of educational institutions as complex adaptive systems.

According to Keshavarz et al. (2010) schools can be considered as social complex adaptive systems as they show the characteristics of nested systems, continuous change and adaptation, distributed control, emergent changes and unpredictability. This implies that the organization comprises of diverse, rule-based agents who are located in a multi-level network and their behaviour include interactive learning and knowledge sharing. From these characteristics emerges the concept

of learning organization (Senge, 1990) which is an adaptive, self-organizing entity (Segall, 2003), able to manage knowledge (Garvin, 1993) with the appropriate cultural aspects (vision, values, behaviour) supporting the learning environment, processes supporting learning and development and structural aspects enabling the support of learning activities (Armstrong and Foley, 2003) in order to continuously learn, develop and adapt to the ever changing environment (Ali, 2012).

A key question is how can these organizations perform dancing at the edge of chaos? In earlier researches the concept of distributed leadership showed positive contribution towards improved school performance (Elmore, 2004; Fullan, 2006; Spillane, 2006) and organization-

al learning (Silins, Zarins and Mulford, 2002; Mulford, Silins and Leithwood, 2004). Distributed leadership connects with the notion of distributed control aspect of complex adaptive system and it utilizes the approach of organizational learning theory, distributed cognition and complexity science (Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009). Distributed leadership can be interpreted as “practice distributed over leaders, followers and their situation and incorporates the activities of multiple groups of individuals” (Spillane et al., 2001, p.20).

Our one year research aim was the examination of organizational behaviour and development of learning organizations in the Hungarian public education selecting 82 high-performing institutions from the South-Great Plain Region. Based on literature review, expert workshops and initial organizational diagnosis we proposed a model for schools as learning organization which was empirically tested and validated. With 62 participants on the questionnaire for leaders and 1192 participants on the questionnaire for teachers we managed to connect institutional, leadership and individual characteristics to identify main aspects of learning organization behaviour and its positive correlation with organizational learning and competitiveness. Based on the competing values framework (Quin & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Quinn et al., 1996; Cameron & Quinn, 2011) we also analysed the connection between learning organizational behaviour and different

leadership roles and we found that mainly the facilitator and coordinator roles supports best all the aspects of learning organization behaviour. This implies an internal focus and an unpredictability between flexibility and control which also supports the complex adaptive system and distributed leadership approach.

Introduction

Our paper examines schools as complex adaptive organizations and explores the possibilities of leadership that can thrive in that environment. First we will discuss the concepts of complex adaptive systems and learning organizations and in the second part of the introduction we will explore school leadership from the distributive leadership paradigm, connecting it with the competing values framework. Applying this theoretical framework we introduce our research which aim was to assess Hungarian schools as learning organizations. We will discover the different relations of learning organizational behaviour to different leadership styles and draw conclusions for the practice.

1. Schools as complex adaptive learning organizations

Kurtz and Snowden (2003) introduced in their framework simple, complex, complicated and chaotic systems based on the predictability of cause and effect relationships, while Axelrod and Cohen (2000) differentiated between adaptive and non-adaptive systems. Organizations can

be considered as social complex adaptive systems (Morel & Ramanujam, 1999; MacLean & MacIntosh, 2003; McMillan, 2004) and according to the broad literature review of Keshavarz et. al. (2010, p.1468) they “comprises a population of diverse rules-based agents, located in multi-level and interconnected systems in a network shape.” Complex adaptive systems have the following key characteristics (Anderson, 1999):

- agents with schemata
- self-organizing networks sustained by importing energy
- coevolution to the edge of chaos
- system evolution based on recombination

Agents, as members of an organizations are not strictly bounded by the rules of the system (rules can be ignored by behavioural change and individuals can change without the change of the system), instead they are symbol-processing actors sharing a common social order which is a knowledge structure, organized from the information of the environment (Boulding, 1956). These actor can utilize recipes for routine tasks, but if there is a complex, uncertain task to solve, they can only resolve to blueprints (Simon, 1996), which in social psychology are called schemata (Rumelhart, 1984). According to Gell-Mann (1994) complex adaptive organizations condenses environmental regularities into many, internally competing schemata. It is clear that the work of a teacher is not easily described, what happens in the black box of the classroom

is complex system on its own. Schemata can be considered mental models (Senge, 1990), which are deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations that influence how the individuals understand the world around them. In order to work efficiently with the different, internally competing schemata, members of the organizations should engage in common sense-making which is best supported by the shared vision (Senge, 1990) aspect of the learning organization.

Self-organization is an emergent characteristics, it's a natural consequence of interactions between agents (Anderson, 1999). Complex adaptive organizations draw energy from outside, therefore they must be an open system because in a closed system, according to the second law of thermodynamics, systems degenerate to an equilibrium state with maximum disorder (Prigogine & Stengers, 1984). This emphasizes the utilization of social network analysis to understand the pattern of connections among agents (Anderson, 1999). In a learning organization emphasize from the learning of the individual moved to the learning of teams: the interaction of individual members of the organization which creates the processes of learning. Without transparent and interconnected teams, an organization cannot sustain itself (team learning, (Senge, 1990)).

Adaptation emerges from the adaptive efforts of individual improving their own payoffs, but in a changing landscape where every other individual behaves in

such a way making it an interdependent and a co-evolution process (Anderson, 1999). All complex adaptive systems evolve to the edge of chaos because they can out-compete systems that do not (Kauffman, 1995) only if they can manage to balance between flexibility and stability (Weick, 1979). If individual payoffs motivates local behaviour which is interdependent of other individual actions, this system is competitive only if the individual actors themselves have high proficiency (personal mastery (Senge, 1990)). This constructive competition, with the different feedback loops and reflexions should lead to the continuous improvement of actors.

Complex adaptive systems contain other complex adaptive systems and every aspect of them: agents, schemata, connections, functions can change over time. By accepting that these elements can evolve we accept that feedback loops, causal relations in a system can change as well by allowing local behaviour to generate global characteristics. Complex adaptive systems can evolve by introducing new agents or schemata or by generation of novelty by recombination of elements already present in the system (Anderson, 1999). To cope with these dynamic dimensions we must apply systems thinking principals in order to be able to see full patterns clearer (Senge, 1990).

In conclusion learning organization is an adaptive, self-organizing entity (Segall, 2003), able to manage knowledge (Garvin, 1993) with the appropriate cultural aspects (vision, values, behaviour) supporting the learning environment, processes supporting learning and development and structural aspects enabling the support of learning activities (Armstrong & Foley, 2003) in order to continuously learn, develop and adapt to the ever changing environment (Ali, 2012). From this definition it is clear how the learning organization in itself is a complex adaptive system.

In our previous research (Baráth et. al., 2015) we validated a model for schools as learning organizations which we would use in this research as well to explore the relation of different aspects of learning organizational behaviour to leadership styles. In our model (Figure 1.) we identified two interconnected core behaviours of learning schools (continuous professional development (CPD); teaching and learning). One angle of the model (responsibility and trust, leadership that supports learning) supports mainly CPD and the other angle (partnership in learning, differentiated learning) mainly supports teaching and learning. In our paper we will deal with leadership that supports learning in schools.

Figure 1: Validated model of schools as learning organizations



Source: own elaboration

2. Leadership and management of educational institutions

When we would like to define leadership, nowadays we imagine a leadership team, rather than a heroic leader or a charismatic principal. Literature emphasizes that it is better not to describe the leadership as one person or one formal position, because leadership involves an array of individuals with various tools and structures (Spillane, 2005, p.143.).

As Timperley (2005) cited instead of „the model of a single ‘heroic’ leader standing atop a hierarchy, bending the school community to his or her purposes” (Camburn et al. 2003, p.348), recent researches emphasise leadership as a key function and key role, which does not appear at the top of the organization, but can be delegated

to coordinate and motivate the participants where it is needed. According to the OECD study, the distributed leadership is the new way of thinking about leadership (Halász, 2010. p. 19-20).

Robinson, Hohepa and Lloyd (2015) highlighted that the school staff’s contribution to the development and evaluation of the core business of the institution was insignificant if the principal was considered a single, heroic leader. However, Spillane (2005) argues this view is problematic, because school principals do not lead the school on their own, a leader can be anyone based on tasks, not position and the focus is on “what” is being done instead of “how”, thus the understanding becomes difficult in different contexts.

The school leadership role is more and

more complex and stronger, thus the principals' responsibility is getting wider from the financial planning through the curriculum development to the cooperation with stakeholders. In addition the environment in which the school operates is also becoming more and more complex. Even though these global changings, the decision making authority of head-teachers is decreasing in Hungary because of the centralizing aspiration of education policy. From the budget to the curriculum is centrally determined thus principals' management role becomes limited. The effect of these differences requires to change leadership roles and to confirm pedagogical leadership because the quality of schooling shows strong relation with the capacity of school leadership being able to improve the learning environment, other ways to increase the learning possibilities and make it more intensive. Adapting to these changes, the view of leadership needs to be altered but in different ways. School leadership always depends on particular contexts, i.e. the interplay of systemic, organizational and personal factors (Bush & Glover, 2003; Louis et al., 2010). School leaders influence their environment, and the context determines the best way for doing this (Leithwood et al. 2004; Louis et al. 2010). However, „traditional leadership and management approaches are well able to resolve technical problems” but nowadays when there is no immediate solution to the problems, requiring a different kind of leadership appears (Pont, Nusche, Hopkins, 2008, p.26). That is the reason why we can consider schools, according to Keshavarz et al. (2010), as social complex adaptive systems.

Leadership influence

The role of leadership is more focused on the teaching-learning development and increasing school efficiency (Mulford, 2003, 2008; Leithwood et al. 2004; Radinger, 2014) although these researches about the leaders' practices and routines are limited (Radinger, 2014). The role of the principal in schools is challenging and complex (Holmes, 2013). Leadership might have a transformational impact on student learning outcomes (Nettles and Herrington, 2007; Fullan, 2010), even if mainly indirectly through the influence of teachers (Radinger, 2014, p. 378). However, understanding the complexity of the principals' role is still challenging (Robinson, 2010).

The indirect affect of leaderships to the students' learning outcomes is determined for more complex organizational factors, such as:

- Organizational culture, which supports the learning by setting adequate targets;
- Organizational learning, which is the sum of the learning of the whole organizations and the knowledge of the staff
- Pursuit of the better organizational operation and the quality of the learning and continuous developing (Armstrong & Foley, 2003; Halász, 2007).

Another important aspect is that the influence of leadership is not just indirect but reciprocal (multidirectional) i.e. circumstances and organizational factors that positively influence learning can reinforce leadership that influences learning in a positive way (Halász, 2007).

Basically there are two types of approaches: one of them writes about the individual leader level of the school leadership (e.g. Korthagen, 2005; Williams, 2008;

Polizzi & Frick, 2012), and the other describes the collective level (f.e. Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001; Mulford & Silins, 2002; Spillane, 2005). According to both approaches school leaders have a key role in the core business of the school (Mulford & Silins, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2004; Mulford, 2006; Polizzi & Frick, 2012). There is a fundamental difference between these approaches: the individual level approach tries to define the effective leaders' skills, knowledge and attitudes, the collective level rather concentrates on the process and practice.

We must not forget that, the aforementioned individual leader approach does not ignore the context of the leadership or the leaders connecting to the wider community, they just focus on the personal level of effectiveness and "viewing leadership practise as a produce of a leader's knowledge and skills" (Spillane, 2005, p.144). As Spillane (2005, p.143) notes they "dwell mostly on what leaders do, rather than how and why they do it".

Distributed leadership model

In earlier researches the concept of distributed leadership showed positive contribution towards improved school performance (Elmore, 2004; Fullan, 2006; Spillane, 2006) and organizational learning (Silins, Zarins & Mulford, 2002; Mulford, Silins & Leithwood, 2004). The distributed leadership (DL) model is a continuously changing theory based on the dialogue between the theoretical ideas and the evidence of the researches (Spillane, 2005). The starting point of DL is understanding the leadership practice in context of a complex organization in a continuously changing environment.

The model is based on Distributed Cognition and Activity Theory, though also influenced by Wenger's Communities of Practice model. Besides that distributed leadership connects with the notion of distributed control aspect of complex adaptive systems and it utilizes the approach of organizational learning theory and complexity science (Leithwood, Mascall & Strauss, 2009).

The concept of DL bears many similarities to notions such as 'shared', 'collective', 'collaborative', 'emergent', 'co-' and 'participative' leadership and has some common theoretical and practical origins (Bolden, 2011), but this does not mean that all forms are equal and/or equivalent (Leithwood et al. 2006).

So what does taking a distributed perspective on school leadership exactly mean? In taking a distributed perspective, attention turns to social approach and 'situated leadership practice' from the individual leaders' actions and characteristic (Spillane, 2006). Leadership practice is not defined as a product of a leaders' knowledge or skills, it is defined as the interactions of school leaders, followers, and their situation (Spillane, 2005). It is important to note that the relation between leader and follower is dynamic: a person might be a follower in one situation and a leader in another, and as the leader effects the followers, the followers have an effect on the leader. This aspect is the leader-plus, which means any member of the school can take on leadership responsibilities (Spillane, 2006; Spillane & Diamond, 2007).

Distributed perspective on the leadership does not mean the responsibility is shared just between the formal leadership team

(i.e. three to seven formally designated persons as Camburn, Rowan and Taylor [2003] note), but it means leadership can be distributed amongst all organizational members. Thus the decisions are enacted by the entire professional community, and governed by the interaction of individuals (Gronn, 2000; Spillane, 2006), rather than by a limited number of people at the top of the hierarchy (Copland, 2003; Elmore, 2000; Lashway, 2003). The essence of this distributed perspective on decision making process is the community approach. As mentioned above, the distributed model is linked to Wenger's (1998) Community of Practice theory, which emphasizes the fundamental processes of learning within communities as "involving forms of mutual engagement; understanding and tuning [their] enterprise; and developing [their] repertoire, styles and discourses" (Wenger, 1998, p.95). The key links between them are the power of the community, the collective commitment and the sharing of responsibilities and knowledge.

Studies have shown that distributed leadership has a positive effect on the climate, morale, workload, creativity, quality, and values of those within the organization (Camburn, 2003; Hobby, Arrowsmith, 2004; Harris, 2005; Mayrowetz, 2008), thus the teachers' organizational commitment is growing (Harris, 2005). Leadership becomes more doable (Harris & Spillane, 2008) and the responsibilities become more manageable (Harris & Spillane, 2008), because more and more members are involved in the school leading (Oswald, 1997; Smith & Piele, 1997). But as Harris (2004) notes, leaders must share at least one part of the responsibility

in a knowledge-intense organization, like schools, because they are not able to control whole complex tasks.

Different models of DL

DL can be defined by shared responsibilities, collective leadership, pooled expertise, development of different 'power' relationships, and tasks that are 'stretched-over' leadership, organizational structures, and positions (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001; Spillane, 2003; Harris, 2003, 2004; Arrowsmith, 2004). Bennett et al. (2003, p. 7) assembled 3 common aspects from the different descriptions of DL:

1. 'Leadership is an emergent property of a group or network of interacting individuals'
2. 'There is openness to the boundaries of leadership'
3. 'Varieties of expertise are distributed across the many, not the few.'

From this point on, however, the characterization of DL shows more divergence than similarity.

While some of the researches portray DL as an extension of the leadership function, others describe it as a process, which has multiple people responsible, rather than having only one principal or other person with formal functions (Arrowsmith, 2004).

Leithwood and Jantzi's (2004) define DL as one of the components of the transformational leadership. Spillane et al. (2004), on the other hand, hardly considers leadership in schools as distributed.

As Harris (2003) notes DL is a collective leadership form to develop teachers' expertise by working together, thus the skills and talents of all members of the school staff are combined so that the expertise of

the school community can be pooled in specific areas. This definition shows a lot of similarities with the Communities of Practice and Continuing Professional Development models, which focus on improving the students' learning outcomes by the members' expertise or passion for a topic (Wenger, 2002) and by the culture of co-operation, results-oriented approach, setting measurable goals, and facilitative leadership (DuFour, 2004; DuFour et al. 2010).

The "Teacher as Trainer" model is based on this approach and it can train the staff through professional development activities to improve the collective knowledge of the community and to improve the teachers' continuing professional development. This model is based on the view that everybody is an expert of a specific area and knowledge-sharing is a key function as in a learning organization. Linked to this, the mentoring model is another way to support the personal development within the organization. However, Kennedy (2005, p.243) indicates that „this model can support either a transmission view of professional development, where teachers are initiated into the status quo by their more experienced colleagues, or a transformative view where the relationship provides a supportive but challenging forum for both intellectual and affective interrogation of practice". Because of this, one of the most critical aspects is whether or not there is training, supporting and assessment system of mentors in the organization.

Others describe DL as being a "practice that is stretched over the school's social and situational contexts" (Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001). Fur-

thermore, distributed leadership should be defined as the interaction of multiple leaders (Camburn et al. 2003, Harris, 2004; Spillane et al. 2004).

Summarizing of these definitions, DL widens the role, task and responsibility of leadership by building leadership capacity with the followings: trust in the expertise of individuals, ensuring autonomy, collaboration, acceptance of change, provision of professional development, facilitation, mentoring, collective decision making, communities of practice, networking and encouraging reflective practise.

This description has many components in many levels because the model of DL has complex leadership definition. For the better understanding of effective organizations we link this leadership approach with Competing Values Framework to understand connecting leadership style and organizational culture.

Competing Values Framework

The CVF theory describes the core indicators of effective organizations and it is useful for recognising the organizational quality, approaches of organizational design, stages of life cycle development, leadership roles, human resources management and management skills (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The framework was developed initially from research, and integrated many of the dimensions proposed by various authors by Quinn and Rorhbaugh (1983). The organizational culture includes several coherent components, therefore it is impossible to diagnose and assess all of the relevant factors. Quinn and Rorhbaugh determined the main criteria to judge whether an organ-

ization is being effective or not; the key factors of organizational effectiveness and those indicators which help people to award organization to be effective (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

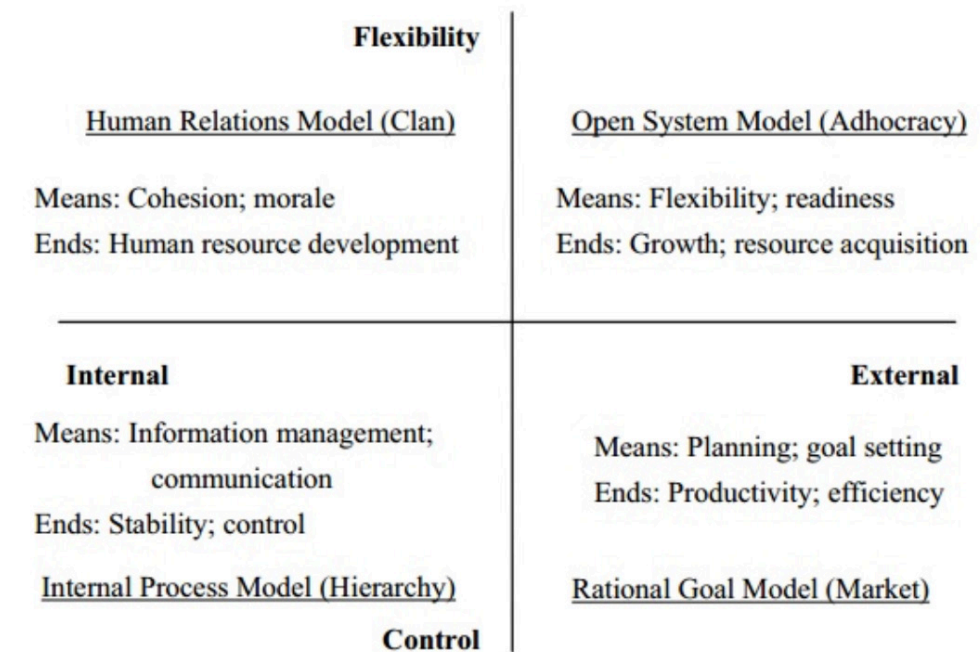
The organizational effectiveness – depending on goals, intentions and resources – might be focused on different values. The theory derives three value dimensions. The first dimension is related to organizational focus from an internal, micro emphasis on well-being and development of people in the organization towards an external, macro emphasis on the well-being and development of the organization itself (internal-external). The second dimension describes organizations by how it is related to changing, and organizational structures which have two termini from stability based on con-

trol to flexibility. The third dimension is those processes and tools which help to reach goals and to validate basic values of the organization (means-ends).

The theory integrated the third dimension into the first and second one and established the CVF which classified four models to describe the different set of effectiveness criteria. The four models are also called four organizational culture types, such as human relations model - Clan, open system model - Adhocracy, rational goal model - Market, and internal process model - Hierarchy (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983, p. 371).

What is notable about these four core values is that they represent opposite or competing assumptions. Each continuum highlights a core value that is opposite of the value on the other end of the contin-

Figure 2: Competing values framework – organizational culture

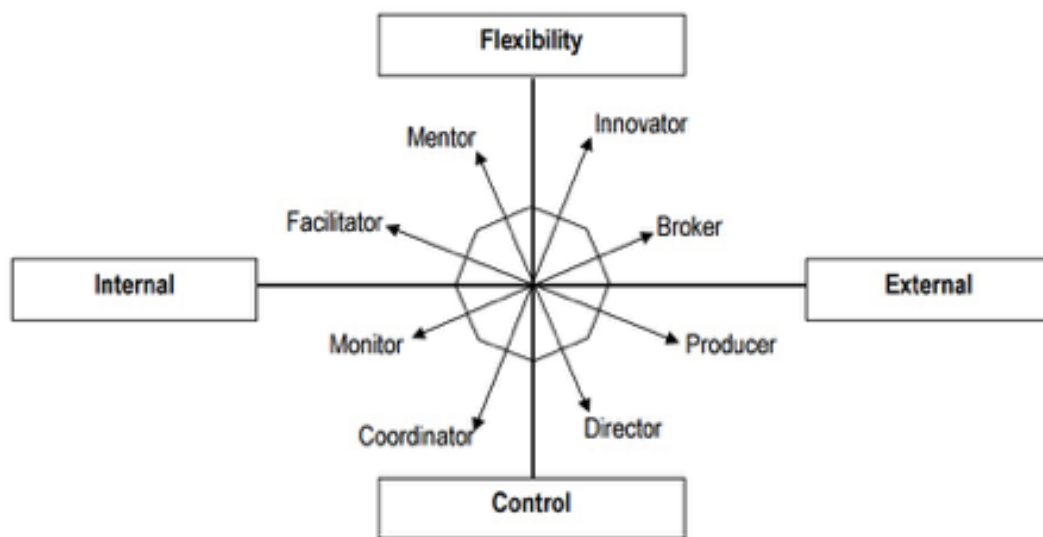


Source: Adapted by Yu (2009, p. 42.) from Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983, p. 369)

uum—flexibility versus stability, internal versus external (Cameron & Quinn, 2011, p. 369).

Competing values in leadership roles
 The competing values framework (CVF) offers a method to analyse the master managers’ skills (Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Quinn, 1984, 1988; Quinn, Sendelbach & Spreitzer, 1991; Quinn, Spreitzer

& Hart, 1992) and to explain the various managerial roles essential for personal effectiveness in complex environment (Quinn et al. 1990; Quinn, 1988; Denison et al. 1995; Cameron and Quinn, 2006, 2011). CVF examines leadership in the same framework like the organizational effectiveness by eight categories.



Source: Kinghorn (2007, p. 527)

“In each quadrant, two defined roles describe the behaviours that a leader in those roles might exhibit. Each role has an opposite or competing role from the exact opposite quadrant. Effective use of these behaviours suggests individual leader competencies and perception of the effectiveness of the leader” (Hart and Quinn, 1993; Hooijberg, 1996 cited Kinghorn, Black and Oliver, 2007, p.528).

The complementary roles of CVF are Mentor, Facilitator (human relations model; clan); Producer and Director

(Competitor) (rational goal model; market); Monitor and Coordinator (internal process model; hierarchy) and Innovator and Broker (Visionary) (open systems model; adhocracy).

We can’t distinguish between these competing roles because one or the other is not clearly better or worse than the other. Effective leaders are balanced in all skills. As Kinghorn quoted “The Master Manager role is the leader that utilizes all behaviours within the correct context” (Quinn, 1988; Hooijberg & Quinn, 1992; Hooijberg, 1996 cited Kinghorn, 2007,

p.528).

The question arises: which culture type can support distributed leadership and learning organizations? Distributed leadership model might be consistent with clan culture, because both of them is based on participative leadership and sharing information. Agreement, inhesion, teamwork and cooperation might be consequences of the DL in clan culture. We might say Clan culture does not exist without distributed leadership. But DL might appear in Adhocracy culture type too, because teamwork and less control describe this culture. The most important task of leaders is to motivate and inspire teachers in this culture. DL might not characterize by Hierarchy and Market types, because of the importance of control of these cultures. As we see, the point is flexibility and control dimensions, internal and external dimensions are less emphasized. DL will most likely appear in the flexibility and internal quadrant and less in the control and external quadrant.

Methods

Our study builds upon the database gathered by the Hungarian-Netherlands School of Educational Management. From June 2015 to September 2015 we distributed electronic surveys to principals, deputy-principals and teachers. The three different kind of questionnaires were linked together through the individual schools educational ID. The questionnaire for principals included the following question groups:

- General questions
- Questions regarding the operation of the institution
- Leadership styles and be-

haviour

- Competitiveness indicators and ideal school questions

The questionnaire for individual teachers revolved around the following question groups:

- General questions
- Individual operation
- Institutional operation and

behaviour of the leader

- Competitiveness indicators and ideal school questions

The deputy-principal questionnaire was a mixture of the elements from the principal and teacher questionnaire.

In the questionnaire we had the opportunity to test the validity of a learning organizational model (164 items) and we included the leadership style questionnaire from the Competing Values Framework along with several contextual questions regarding organizational learning, innovativeness and pedagogical practice of teachers.

The sample from the teacher questionnaire consists of 1406 responses from which due to the length of our questionnaire only 400-500 responses could be utilized after excluding cases with missing values. The sample mainly consists of the South Greater Plain Region schools which is the main jurisdiction of the Hungarian Netherlands School for Educational Management.

In our previous research we explored the different dimensions of the learning organizational behaviour scale and explored its validity and reliability (Baráth et. al., 2015). In the following section we would concentrate on the leadership dimension and its influence on learning organizational behaviour.

We will discover which leadership style and culture fits with the complex adaptive learning organization and how do the different leadership styles influence the different dimensions of the learning organizational behaviour. We will explore the connection between learning organizational behaviour and the necessity of distributive leadership which

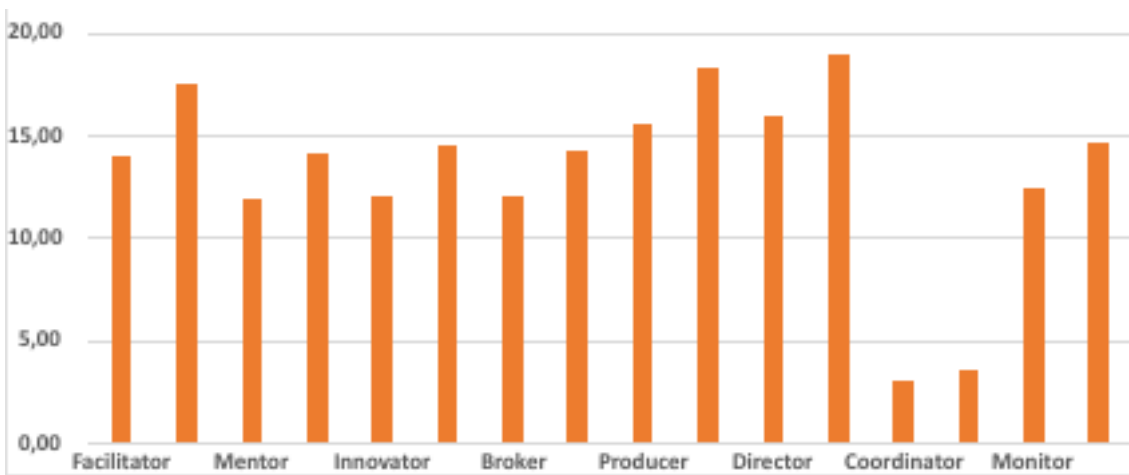
can be interpreted from our data.

Results

1. Leadership styles and culture in the complex adaptive learning organization
 In order to answer the question what leadership style characterizes the Hungarian public education institution which is operating as a learning organization, we could divide the sample along the Learn-

ing Organizational Behaviour scale to a high profile organization and a low profile organization. If we compare the different leadership roles among these categories then we have the following figure (Figure 4.).

Figure 4: Different management roles in schools that exhibits low and high values of learning organizational behaviour



Source: own elaboration

Both type of organizations are high on the Director and the Producer roles which belongs to the External-Control quadrant of the framework, also we can identify a high value in the Facilitator role as well, which is in the Internal-Flexibility quadrant. The Director role behaviours consist of designing and organizing work including delegation and envisioning the future, and keeping the tasks and goals consistent and clear. The Producer role behaviours consist of managing time and stress, and concerning with the productivity and focusing on results. These leaders are task-oriented and work-focused, their

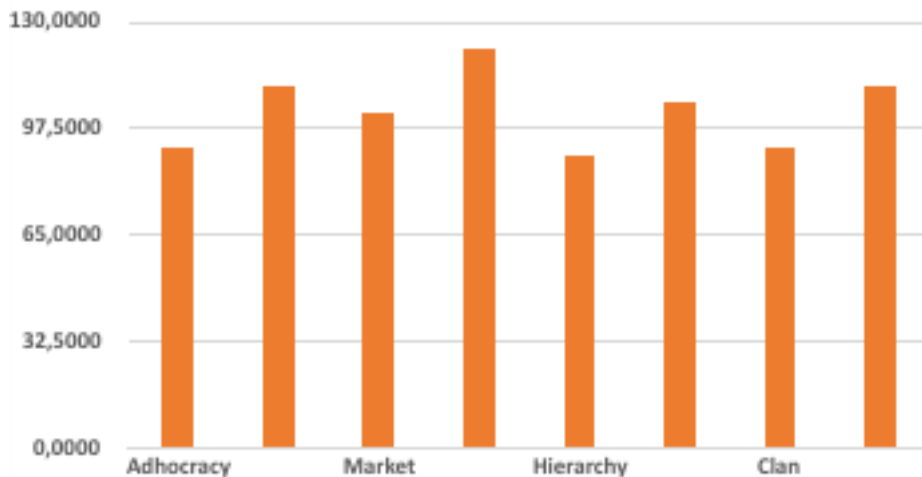
influence are based on intensity and rationality. These leaders are energized by competitive situations, winning is an important goal (Quinn et al., 1996; Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Quinn 2006). The Facilitator role behaviours consist of building effective teams, facilitating participative decision-making, problem-solving and managing conflict, seeking consensus (Quinn et al., 1996; Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Quinn 2006). The Coordinator role is insignificant, which is in the Internal-Control quadrant. The Coordinator role behaviours consist of organizing of the work structure,

schedules, giving assignments, managing projects and designing work processes across functional areas and their influence are based on these. These leaders are dependable and reliable (Quinn et al., 1996; Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Quinn 2006). The organizations which have a high value in the Learning Organizational Behaviour scale are prone to higher values in the leadership style scales. If we examine the difference between the two

groups along the means of the leadership style scales we find that all difference are significant[1].

Calculating the different culture scales (adhocracy, market, hierarchy, clan) we found out that the market culture is the more dominant and the difference between low and high profile institutions are significant as we mentioned before. This can be seen in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Organizational culture of schools that exhibits low and high values of learning organizational behaviour

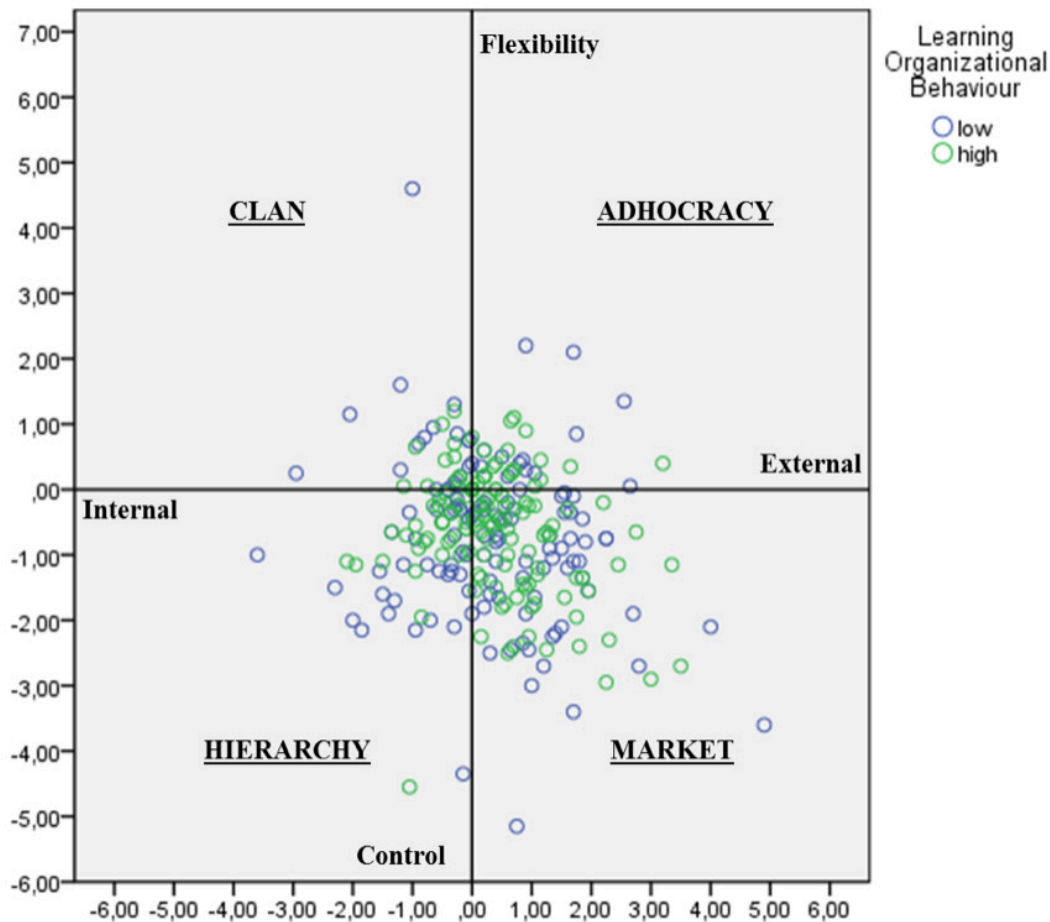


Source: own elaboration

The market culture is a results-oriented workplace which focuses on the transactions with the environment outside the organization instead of the internal management. The organizational goal is to earn profits through market competition. As Yu (2009, p. 38) cited this concept originates from Ouchi’s (1979, 1984) study on the market control system. The key aspect of this culture type is an emphasis on winning, competition and market leader-

ship which are important because the success is defined in terms of market share and penetration (Cameron and Quinn, 2011 p. 39-41). Figure 6. illustrates further that organizations that can be characterized as learning organizations are on the middle of the coordinate-system meaning that they are promoting more or less a balanced approach to all leadership styles, while organizations which are low on learning organizational behaviour are

Figure 6: Dispersion of schools in the CVF



Source: own elaboration

more scattered around the extremes.

2. Leadership styles influencing learning organizational behaviour

To understand the deeper relations between the different leadership roles and the different dimensions of learning or-

ganizational behaviour we can look at Table 1 which summarizes the correlations between these variables.

Table 1: Correlations of learning organizational behaviour dimensions and leadership roles

Correlations								
		LOB	RT	PL	CPD	TL	DT	LSL
FA	r	0,708**	0,604**	0,519**	0,598**	0,554**	0,483**	0,822**
	p	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	N	414	439	425	438	430	435	436
ME	r	0,519**	0,413**	0,319**	0,439**	0,412**	0,338**	0,709**
	p	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	N	414	439	425	438	430	435	436
IN	r	0,669**	0,619**	0,490**	0,551**	0,548**	0,476**	0,721**
	p	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	N	415	440	426	439	430	435	437
BR	r	0,623**	0,571**	0,475**	0,482**	0,515**	0,467**	0,629**
	p	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	N	376	396	385	395	390	394	393
PR	r	0,684**	0,628**	0,489**	0,584**	0,579**	0,490**	0,687**
	p	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	N	407	429	418	428	423	425	426
DI	r	0,651**	0,592**	0,443**	0,557**	0,564**	0,500**	0,646**
	p	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	N	408	430	419	429	423	427	427
CO	r	0,661**	0,557**	0,474**	0,550**	0,585**	0,490**	0,696**
	p	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	N	394	414	403	413	407	411	411
MO	r	0,635**	0,562**	0,453**	0,521**	0,589**	0,490**	0,631**
	p	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	N	396	418	406	417	410	414	415

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). r: pearson correlation; p: Sig. (2-tailed); N: number of cases FA: facilitator; ME: mentor; IN: innovator; BR: broker; PR: producer; DI: director; CO: coordinator; MO: monitor; LOB: learning organizational behaviour; RT: responsibility and trust; PL: partnership in learning; CPD: continuous professional development; TL: teaching and learning; DT: differentiated teaching; LSL: leadership supporting learning

Source: own study.

Altogether the Facilitator role has the highest correlation ($r=0,708$; $p<0,001$) with the learning organizational behaviour. The Facilitator role belongs to the human relations model and the clan culture and it mainly means that the leader is strong in building teams, using participative decision making and managing conflict. The clan culture has similarity to a family-type organization, because it is full of shared values and common goals, cohesion, participation and an emphasis on empowerment and employee involvement. Quinn and Rorhbaugh contend that (cited Yu, 2009, p. 38) the clan culture is just the organizational culture defined by Wilkins and Ouchi (1983, p.472-474), which can be developed under certain conditions such as a relatively long history and stable membership, absence of institutional alternatives, thick interactions among members, etc. Cameron and Quinn argue that clan-type firms are more like extended families than economic entities, instead of hierarchical structure they work as semi-autonomous work teams, they ensure empowering work environment and facilitate employee participation, commitment, and loyalty (Cameron and Quinn, 2011, p-41-43).

3. Distributive leadership for complex adaptive learning organizations

In connection with the description of DL and CASs we can assume that all the dimensions of the CVF must be necessary to be present in order to develop a fully functional learning organization. Our data so far highlights that in our sample, organizations with higher scores on the learning organizational behaviour scale are somewhat balanced but initially focusing on the external-control domain which can be interpreted as a natural adaptation process to the special Hungarian socio-economic and legal environment.

In order to consider our measurement scale valid through the lens of CVF and complexity theory we should look at how much

of the learning organizational behaviour scale variance can be described by the variance of the leadership style scales. A linear regression analysis on the learning organizational behaviour as dependent variable, the variance of leadership style scales interpret 55,4% of the variance of the learning organizational behaviour scale, out of which only two styles were significant ($p<0,001$): the Facilitator and the Producer. They are on the opposite side of the framework representing the flexibility-internal and the control-external domains as well. As we can see learning organizational behaviour is best interpreted by the combining of the dimensions of the CVF which strengthens our view that a distributed leadership model for learning organizations is necessary.

Discussion

In our paper we searched for the connection of DL and CVF in a LO. The facilitator leadership role is one of the most important aspect of leading a learning organization according to our research which supports the relevancy of the DL approach as facilitating participative decision making and problem solving is a core element of the concept. We can make clear connections with complexity theory as well. Considering organizations a population of diverse rules-based agents, located in multi-level and interconnected systems in a network shape, we can argue that this definition is congruent with the assumptions of DL.

The DL approach requires leaders to fulfil multiple roles in an organization which stems from the dynamic relations of leaders and followers. According to theory, those leaders can be successful who can balance between several leadership roles and able to adapt to the given situation or task. Our data can underpin this theoretical assumption as competing (facilitator and director) leadership roles had the highest impact on learning organizational behaviour. In order to thrive in a complex

adaptive system, leaders have to take into consideration that their followers are diverse, symbol-processing agents, loosely bounded by the rules of the system who might not respond well to direct control, therefore a more human-centered approach and facilitation is needed. On the other hand, leaders must regulate and exert a certain level of control on the system (or at least the framework of the system), especially in the Hungarian context to be able to regulate the coevolution process to the edge of chaos. Hungarian school leaders are expected a great deal of administrative tasks and have to obey a set of strict rules which naturally results in the emergence of the director role.

The Hungarian public education system is in transition currently to an overly centralized model with a very unstable financial and legal background. The relatively new (2012) centralized institutional maintenance centre (Klebelberg Institutional Maintenance Centre) often struggles with financing the basic operation of schools. This process leads to the deprecation of leader autonomy. In this unstable environment it is natural that the role of leaders shifted to the management of every-day tasks and brought on the necessity of controlling functions. This could be a logical explanation of the emergence of the director role which means the designing and organizing of work and to the producer role as well (task oriented, work-focused). What we can experience in this situation is the constant flux of the system and the interrelationship of the external and internal environment: how the internal environment reacts to the external changes in an evolution process.

The decreased autonomy of school leaders are hand in hand with the decrease of autonomy of teachers. DL approach would assume a high level of autonomy and expect leaders to empower their followers, but the current legislative background in Hungary offers very little opportunities as there are centralized regulations from budget to the curriculum,

including a state monopoly of the textbook industry. From this perspective it is logical that the system employs a market-culture, where the external-control quadrant could thrive, which means a results-oriented organization where the main concern is getting the job done. This focus can lead to different results. If the leadership focuses on the quality of learning and teaching than the market model (increasing the competitiveness of the school reaching higher performance, etc.) serves to provide better learning possibilities for the students. If the leadership focuses on adapting the organization to the external expectations ensuring to be always in line with the centrally defined issues, than the school becomes more and more bureaucratic, politically influenced organization

For leadership to be effective in this context, we should take into consideration the suggestions of Snowden and Boone (2007), who identifies the temptation to fall back into command-and-control mode is typical in a complex environment and as we saw in the Hungarian context, the external environment is strengthening this process. Leaders who are trying to build on previous examples are prone to looking for facts rather than allowing patterns to emerge. Also, the Hungarian environment forces leaders to produce fast results, which is also a typical danger signal of complex systems. In order to avoid these pitfalls, leaders should be patient and allow time for reflection and should encourage interactions in the organization. This would help the process of self-organization where the leader role is facilitating the common sense-making process. To do so, leaders must accept disequilibrium and favour discussion, conflict and controversy in order to increase flexibility in a rather strict environment for the sake of allowing experiments and novelty to rise. Leaders must focus on the manipulation of language and symbols which are rather soft aspects of management (Olmedo, 2012).

These implications and context gives rise to the notion of a more profession-oriented (pedagogical) leadership which „invests in capacity building by developing social and academic capital for students and intellectual and professional capital for teachers” (Sergiovanni, 1998, p.38). Jäppinen (2012) combines this approach with DL, creating distributed pedagogical leadership (DPL) which is a fluid, mutable and synergetic practice. The three background elements of DPL are distributed leadership, leaderful practices and managing without leadership. DPL creates an environment where shared cognition and understanding, synergy creation and jointly agreed actions are in place, which means that teachers collaboratively lead teaching and learning activities by jointly agreed goals and means. This approach would support the complexity background of our investigation as well, as it accepts and deals with agents' schemata (shared cognition) and allows for self-organization and by focusing on pedagogical/professional aspects it could elude the pitfalls of complex systems and the negative environment.

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Schools as an answer for the blanks in the student's development - the invitation to redefine the core values in education

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to return to the roots of education and redefine its' core values. Based on Fielding's and Dorczak's theories I'm strongly convinced that today's apparent success of Polish educational system in fact somehow is not the best opportunity for full and deep student's development. There is strong need to return to the primary ideas of education and to redefine the values which became the basis of today's education.

In my article the path for this reflection pursues through the Fielding's theory, which distinguishes two different ways of thinking about education. One, in which the basis of education are strongly grounded on market perspective called High Performance Schooling, and another called Person

Centred Education, which - in contrast to a market-led perspective- could lead us to the democratic fellowship, fulfilling life and finally to the better world.

I compared the theoretical part of my article with the Polish school reality through the short research.

In the final results of my work I proved that there is absolutely no need for complete resignation from one of mentioned perspective. In the same time we can't skip any of them as well. However we should be particularly careful with glorifying High Performance Schooling –the situation which takes place in today's educational reality. There is great need for finding proper balance between both of these perspectives. What is more, taking both of them into account, simultaneously not forgetting about core values and primary ideas of education, probably we can mul-

tiply educational success in many diversities surfaces, what is proven in my article.

Keywords: education, development, values in education, students

Introduction

As long as in Polish schools one can still find desks with the inscription „if bored, add a carriage” together with a drawing of a long train snaking next to it, as well as lessons ended 5 mins. Early with the statement “OK, go, you’ll never be anybody, anyway”, than discussion on education and its organization seems to be still relevant.

Frequently undertaken, this discussion has resulted in the Polish education system being, according to PISA studies, one of the best in the world, but it hasn’t found a cure for the increasing number of train drawings and 40-minute lessons. Is it worth caring about it, since we are doing so well? Or are we really doing so well, seeing that the train drawings are getting ever longer and there are still classes where both students and teachers eagerly wait for the bell to ring.

Motivated by the above observations, in this essay I would like to give some thought to basic principles underlying education. Not convinced by the above-mentioned ranking successes, I would like to base the first part of my studies on Fielding’s and Dorczak’s theories. Both of them suggest a return to the roots of education, a definition of its prime values and a reflective approach to educational leadership as a tool of managing in education. In the second part, I would like to compare the conclusions

drawn with the reality around us, and finally confront them with an opinion poll taken among of upper grades of Cracow secondary school.

Urgent need for retuning the roots of education

In one of his texts, Dorczak mentions the fact of multiple education reforms, which have miraculously led the Polish education system to the very heights of European rankings, noticing simultaneously that its least reformed area is actually its management. The conviction that it is necessary to introduce management staff and school administration, which arise in early nineties remain unchanged to date (Dorczak, 2015b). Can this situation explain these surprising successes, despite the simultaneous overall aversion to education by many students and teachers?

The above situation could be compared to that of boat, in which so much attention has been paid to safety regulations, that the need for navigation has been completely omitted. The boat, provided with the best possible equipment results in the destination being completely forgotten.

The problem created by the lack of a “philosophical compass” in the context of education is tackled in a text by Fielding (Fielding, 2006a, p.349). In a following text, he emphasizes that a new chapter of democracy has begun – not only that within a particular country, but also that among nations, who are an inspiration to one another (Fielding, 2012). Education must become an answer to arising questions, ideas, possibilities and threats (Fielding, 2012; Mazurkiewicz, 2011).

The success of the Polish education system in the form of high PISA results may be treated as illusory as the creation of a boat with guaranteed total safety, but navigating blindly without a set destination and without any adjustment to changing winds (OECD, 2014).

The defining and achievement of a real educational success, shown by mutual teacher's and student's satisfaction, would be possible only after a certain reflection of concepts, enabling us to perceive education's real objectives. According to Dorczak, a return to the basic sense of education is a must. He points out that it is impossible – though tried for years – to directly transpose the rules of management theory to education. Even the concept of leadership, which distances itself from the hard aspects of management, is regarded by him as being insufficient for educational purposes. He calls for the creation of a new theory of educational leadership – one that would take into account all aspects specific to education (Dorczak, 2015a; Dorczak, 2012).

It seems that such an in-depth analysis of the education process, a redefinition of its aims, as well as a return to the base of the sense of education with an attempt to interpret it in the context of present reality, plus a subsequent creation of an education leadership theory, taking into account all the specificity of education, would be the only means of achieving real success. The tasks of returning to the roots, interpreting the sense of education in today's context and showing alternative ways of understanding education are attempted by Fielding, whose texts present the concept

of two ways of thinking about education and comparing them. One of them, High Performance Schooling, is directed by market needs, the other, Person Centred Education, concentrates on creating a democratic community (Fielding, 2011). I will try to describe them briefly, in order to relate them to Polish reality on the base of my research.

Two ways of thinking about education

Describing both approaches, Fielding remarks the apparent difficulty in differentiating them at first view. While the two approaches may initially seem to be similar, in reality they have different principles, points of reference and aims, due to which they lead to radically different effects (Fielding, 2006a). This makes their profound understanding and deciphering all the more necessary.

The reason for the misunderstanding and seeming similarity is that in both approaches the student, and thus his achievements and the student voice, are apparently of key importance. However, the reasons, for the emphasis on the student, his achievements and his voice are completely different (Fielding, 2011; Fielding, 2006b). Using a similar set of terms, the approaches seem to be alike, which is why one is liable to miss fundamentally different basics, causing radically different school practice. (Fielding, 2011; Fielding, 2006a).

According to Fielding, student voice is currently at the crossroads and in need of a choice of direction. (Fielding, 2011)

The main differences between High Performance Schooling and Person-Centered Education

High Performance Schooling perspective means, according to Fielding, understand education in the context of market needs. School becomes a tool enabling the student's subsequent establishment in the work market. The individual is, in a certain sense, a client of the school, which should equip him with the necessary skills. This approach can be considered from both the individual and collective perspectives.

In the individual perspective, the basic indicator underlying the education process is the question about the kind of work the student wishes to obtain thanks to his education. Individual ambition is thus the decisive factor (Fielding, 2011).

In the collective perspective, on the other hand, the basic question will be how we can learn from each other to achieve better outcomes (Fielding, 2011).

To sum up, the basic idea of High Performance Schooling is answering market needs, from both the individual perspective (seeking the way of obtaining the best possible employment) as well as the collective one- to develop the most effective schools achieving the best results.

The Person Centred approach is an alternative to the above way of thinking. Aimed at creating a democratic community rather than answering market needs- this approach can also be considered from an individual and a group perspective. However, in this case the author replaces the term "individual" by "personal" and "collective" by "communal" (Fielding, 2011, p.9-10) This may reflect the transfer

of emphasis from "functional relations" to "personal relations", as more widely described in one of the cited text (Fielding, 2006a, p.351; Fielding, 2006b).

In High Performance Schooling the idea of a community as a group has been replaced by a set of individuals. Individuals can interact with one another and influence the system in order to increase effectiveness. One can say that a person as such doesn't count, but only the achievement of a result.

Personal is used for the sake of the functional.

Exactly the opposite situation would be found in Person Centred Education, which assumes the existence of a community and turns towards a person as such. Here functional relations are used for the sake of the personal.

The basic determinant in the personal perspective is the question, what kind of person would the individual like to become, while personal development becomes the conditioning factor. Seen from the communal perspective of this approach, the key issue is how to build an inclusive, creative society. The conditioning factor is then common responsibility for a better future (Fielding, 2011).

As can easily be seen, the two approaches lead us to entirely different perspectives. Though both take student voice into account and put the emphasis on students' achievements, these terms are defined very differently in the two approaches, due to which they lead to completely different outcomes. Educational success means therefore something else in each of the two approaches.

The idea behind High Performance Learning is to meet market needs. School's

task is to enable the individual to enter market reality in the most effective way and to make students as attractive as possible to future employers. The students, on the other hand, expects that the school will professionally impart him skills and knowledge, resulting in achievements permitting him to position himself in the market. According to Fielding, the result of this interpretation of education (serving and fulfilling market needs) has been that High Performance Schooling is dominated by the important role of results. These are checked using measurable criteria and highly standardized tests. Good results permit individuals to arrive at higher positions in the job market (the goal of education from the individual perspective is achieved), giving educational institutions a confirmation of their activity, popularity among future clients and prestige (Fielding, 2006a).

Here, however, one can risk two disquieting observations resulting from this approach. One of them concerns the organization of the education process and its basic assumption, the other relates directly to the student as a person in the course of development.

As described by Ball, this approach leads to a sort of role inversion. Despite ostensibly being aimed at the individual, it is not the school which works for students, but, paradoxically, the students serves the school. Bal states that the school is not interested in the student as a person, but only as a supplier of high marks (thus lifting the school in rankings) (Fielding, 2006a).

Moreover the student is subordinated to the market. The child's development and the realization of its potential take

second place to the acquisition of skills useful in the market. Natural interests and the forming of a responsible human being are less important than answering market needs. In this approach the student is a key value in education only insofar as it is his education which pennits us to fulfill market needs.

High Performance Schooling puts the student at the center of attention only because he and his education will strengthen the market. He and his achievements will permit the school to realize its potential as a prestige institution, which in turn will draw others to build their position at this particular institution. Similarly, student voice will be significant only if by listening to it the school becomes more accountable and a more effective learning institution (Fielding, 2011). Students' achievements are defined as high test result and acquired measurable skills and knowledge. Non-measurable achievements or those not valued in the market, are not taken into account.

One can risk the statement, that despite being theoretically placed at the center of education, the student is in reality a more catalyst for overriding market ideas.

According to Dorczak, this approach is unfortunately the dominating one in the present thinking on education. Both authors suggest that Person Centred Education an approach which really places the student as a person at the center of education and takes upon itself his holistic development as a Human Being, is in some ways an alternative to the dominant High Performance Schooling.

This problem is metaphorically described by Dorczak. While acknowledging that the formation of educational

leadership is a kind of return to the roots, he compares the actually dominant model of education leadership to Ancient Greece, saying that it is more like Sparta than Athens (Dorczak, 2015a).

The danger of the overwhelming predominance of market-led orientation

The search for the most effective way of enabling young individuals to prove themselves in the job market, the concentration on obtaining crucial skills and knowledge and the fascination with benefits flowing from acquired prestigious positions all mean that somewhere on the way sight has been lost of the original primary element of education: the child. While the student is still ostensibly at the center of education, in reality he is merely a tool used to achieve entirely different goals. Continuing the thought of Dorczak and Fielding in this text I would like to point out the necessity of returning the student to the center of education as its key value.

I would like to mention two consequences of such an action.

Firstly, placing the student, as a person, at the center of the education process means paying attention to his natural needs, opinions and desires. The school would not impose its rule of a strict hierarchy of skills and knowledge based on market needs.

It is the student's natural interests, talents and expectations which would dictate the dynamic of the education process. Putting the child in the center we must ask what

it expects.

Moreover, when listening to the child, the school should go a step further and reflect upon the student's chosen path, seeking together with him an answer to the question, why he made this choice.

I am writing about this because I fear that in many cases the market approach described above may not only dominate in schools, but also be deeply rooted in Young People's way of thinking. Seeking to establish themselves in the market and obtain the best possible education, they support the idea of High Performance Schooling, which, while instrumentalizing students also opens the path to a career. The need to adapt to present-day reality, the desire for prestigious positions and fear for one's future and assurance of material needs have brought a change in students' way of thinking, causing the question "who would I like to be?" to be replaced by "Who do I need to be to cope with the future?". Natural interests, dreams and talents are becoming secondary to those which may be useful when entering the market and establishing one's social position. Seeking to assure his good start in the job market, the student silently agrees to his own instrumentalization by the school, implicit in High Performance Schooling. This allows him to achieve success while being, more or less consciously, threatened instrumentally by the surrounding reality. Sacrificing his natural desires in order to satisfy market needs, the student assures his future safety while agreeing to be a kind of tiny

component of a great machine. Position in society is more essential than realizing oneself.

Is reality so pessimistic? I hope to try to answer this question through my research.

Students' conscious decisions as a crucial challenge for schools

One way or another, I believe that that school should on the one hand listen to the child's natural voice, but also keep a hand on the pulse, in order to avert students' complacency and provoke them to reflect on their chosen path. The key element is, I believe, that students must be conscious of the decision they are taking.

If a young person wishes to fulfill market needs and attain a significant social position and material gains, even if this means abandoning, partly or wholly, his natural interests, than the school should give him the possibility. However the school's key task must be to provoke reflection in the student about the choices he is making: are they compatible with his opinions and needs, do they give him a chance of a happy and fulfilled life, or are they merely an attempt to gain social acceptance while "losing" oneself.

The school's basic role should thus be to install awareness. Young people should be free to choose the path they see as the most sensible for themselves. Whether it satisfies social expectations and fulfills market needs, or completely the opposite, the school should respect this student's choice and help him form his life project.

Protecting students' conscious decision seems to be the school's key role. Instilling awareness in young people will save them from an overwhelming feeling

15 – 20 years later, when they look back and sadly contemplate that having attained everything they could, they did not in reality live their own lives – they had become an answer to somebody else's project and they had lost their individuality and real selves while becoming small cogs in a big machine.

What, in your opinion, school should give to everybody?" – The research among students

The research which I carried out seems to confirm the thesis mentioned above.

For the purpose of my research, I formulated the following question: "Some people use to consider that school should serve students, allowing them to realize themselves and meet their individual needs. How would you interpret this statement? What, in your opinion, school should give to everybody?"

I asked 50 students attending the 1st grade of one of Cracow's colleges to answer the above-mentioned question.

I have divided the answers which I received into two groups corresponding to Fielding's theory. I present the results in the tables below. Due to my observations, it was possible to remark both ways of thinking among students' answers – one which corresponds to the High Performance Perspective described by Fielding, and another following the Person Centred Learning perspective.

In their answers, some of the students were following the market-led perspective. It could be noticed that some of the respondents were focused on high marks and good results, which would bring them to high positions in the market place or in

future education. All of these people expect an approach to education consistent with High Performance Schooling. To il-

lustrate this situation the answers of this group are presented in the table below.

Table 1 Students' answers corresponding with High Performance Schooling
Source: own findings

TYPE OF PERSPECTIVE	STUDENT'S ANSWERS
High Performance Schooling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The knowledge which I've acquired during the lessons (not studying by myself at home) should be sufficient for passing all tests. • Safety, a place for studying, educational aids, efficient equipment for students' use • School should teach(provide us with) the things which are going to be useful in our future, and skills which are going to be used by us in adulthood • Knowledge – certainly teaching should be corrected / practical knowledge/ the teachers should be replaced with more qualified ones/ grants / food for everybody (e.g. apples) • Knowledge/grants/ lack of stress/ qualified teachers / respect for everybody • Possibility of suitable work afterwards • In my opinion school should ensure the possibility of a job, even if it wasn't related to the class profile • It should prepare us for passing final exams with satisfactory marks, without studying a lot at home • School should offer preparation for future life and work • It should provide students with suitable formation, thanks to which they will find future jobs or continue studying

Source: own study.

However, there was a wide range of answers corresponding to the Person-Centred Learning perspective. Their answers are shown in the table below.

Table 2 Students' answers corresponding with Person Centred Learning

TYPE OF PERSPECTIVE	STUDENT'S ANSWERS
Person centered Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding, motivation and support in achieving goals • School should adapt its activities to groups of students with similar needs • School should give the opportunity for the self-realization and freedom in expressing views • Primarily schools should give students a widely-understood satisfaction. The evaluation system works incorrectly- benefits from good marks are vague whilst punishments (in school as well as in our own estimation) are very strong. All of the typical teenager's stress is based on the quantity of the tests planned for a particular week. School is based on fear and a disastrous evaluation system, which needs to be modernized • School should give the opportunity to develop students' hobbies and passions, for example there should be additional activities devoted to literature (ex. fantasy) (...) They could take place in the library after the lessons. If the topic could turned out to be uninteresting, the aim of the additional activities could be changed • School should give diverse skills e.g. the ability of public speaking, (...) opportunity for developing students' hobbies and passions through additional activities. • School should give safety and new ways for developing • It should deliver knowledge. Thanks to that, our nation could develop and flourish. It should give the opportunity for development, primarily students' minds and logical thinking, but also artistic and physical skills. It should give support and motivation to learn. • I think that school should be more flexible (especially when students are older). It should support students' strengths, not only try to teach students useless skills. • School should give the opportunity for development to all students (at least it should try to achieve this goal) • School should give the opportunity to develop students' interests. It should give the information about courses and run a wide range of workshops. It should give students the opportunity to realize themselves

Person centered Learning

- The opportunity to develop and realize students' interests. It should encourage to learn, not only punish for failures
- School should give the opportunity for development. It should transfer knowledge and real-life experience. It should teach not only what is in books but also prepare for life. School should give the opportunity to develop students' passions and interests
- School should give the opportunity for developing. Organizing workshops and assisting in developing individual's possibilities
- School should give the opportunity for developing. Every student has a right to develop particular skills and school should, enable this
- School should give chances for developing student's talents.
- There should be opportunity for developing in someone's particular direction, chosen by himself.
- School should give opportunities for every student's personal development. Instead of working in 30-person groups, there should be small groups focusing on particular aspects for development
- I think that schools should give the opportunity for development adapted to the student's particular needs.

Source: own study.

It is particularly interesting that there are almost two times more students who emphasize individual development, individual goals and space for developing particular passions, hobbies and talents.

There are two conclusions which can be drawn from this situation.

Firstly, there is a strong supposition that the school's program is overly crammed with the aspects which conform with High-Performance Schooling requirements. This situation results in

students' deep need for expressing their uniqueness and fulfilling their individual passions, wishes and their own idea for their development.

Secondly, we should take into account that my research was made among 1st grade students. It could be that at the age of sixteen, just starting their education in secondary school, teenagers are still able to think about their personal development more than about strict market demands. It seems that they can still value

“themselves” (their ideas, passions, way of thinking) beyond the imposed market rules, and the High Performance Schooling perspective resulting from them. It maybe that this situation could change for students attending higher classes.

Summarizing my research I was able to distinguish two more groups of answers.

In the first of these groups, the students were focusing on everyday problems, which affect their school reality and which, in their opinion, should be solved. Even though this is not directly linked to the aim of my research, I am obligated to present those results as well, in order to give the full results of my research.

Respondents pointed out the following problems:

- stress/compulsion/unjust marks/

grades (7persons)

- impractical knowledge (5 persons)
- safety (3persons)
- low level of education and incompetent teachers (2 persons)
- unexplained material (2 persons)
- inequality in access to education (1 person)
- the need for learning at home instead of acquiring knowledge during lessons (1person)
- poorly equipped schools (1 person)
- friendships (1 person)

The last group of students’ answers should attract our attention. Some respondents, in their statements, had ideas in conformity with both perspectives (High Performance Schooling and Person Centered Education). The results are presented in the table below.

Table 3 Students’ answers corresponding with both of the perspectives

TYPE OF PERSPECTIVE	STUDENT’S ANSWERS
BOTH PERSPECTIVES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It should teach useful things, which are helpful in future life • Support in achieving goals, motivation and understanding. Educational aids • School should provide the knowledge, respect, justice and it should educate • Schools should ensure for everybody the possibility to understand the core curriculum. It should arouse interest and motivate to learn. It should teach, bring values to students’ lives, increase respect, teach how to live with others. Simply, people who are part of school should share their interests, knowledge, experience, culture and advice with each other • School should primarily provide access to knowledge but also support. Every student who has a problem, should be able to talk freely with the his tutor. School should also give a sense of safety and space for developing hobbies

Person centered
Learning

- I think that schools should give the opportunity for development by organizing special hours/additional lessons/courses, and private lessons (run by school)
- I think that school should bring us to the good starting point for the future life. It should prepare us for adulthood, bring us up and give chances for spreading wings and gathering knowledge
- Primarily it should give practical knowledge (...) More opportunities for diverse development
- School should give grants to the best students and it should teach how to live – not only useless things
- School should prepare students for independent life in the future and help in realizing their passions, hobbies and developing useful skills
- Schools should give the opportunity to study in many different, diverse fields, it should teach things which are useful for the future
- School should give practical knowledge, opportunity for realizing passions. Teach ability of working in groups. It should prepare for future work, learning how to find our good and bad sides
- Schools should have an individual attitude to each student and give knowledge

Source: own study.

As can be seen, around 25% of respondents mentioned in their opinions aspects corresponding to both High Performance Schooling perspective, as well as those based on the Person-Centred Learning perspective.

This situation seems to be very positive. As was mentioned in the theoretical part, there is absolutely no need for complete resignation from either one of the two perspectives, described by Fielding. However, we should be particularly careful with glorifying High Performance Schooling –the situation which is preponderant in today's educational reality. There is a great need for finding proper

balance between both of these perspectives.

As can be noticed from my research, a wide range of first grade students still look for the possibility for personal development in schools and a space for developing their passions or finding their own way of living. School absolutely shouldn't have the right to marginalize those needs and focus on market-led orientation at the expense of personal perspective and individual searching of the way for finding fulfilling life.

However for those who look for skills, which will bring them to the best position in the market place, schools should also

be an answer.

It means that schools nowadays are standing before a great challenge of how to become an answer for all blanks in the student's development.

Conclusions

School should be the answer for all (often invisible) blanks in today's world. It could be say that school should fill the blanks – it should supply what is missing.

Following this way of thinking we can deduce schools' duties in the light of three blanks – three gaps, which should be filled by schools.

First, as an absolute priority, school should support students' conscious decisions and shouldn't allow them to be subject to the temptation of becoming an answer to social expectations and social pressure. The awareness of the choices (even if they are in line with the market-led perspective) can give students the chance to undertake their own, thought-out life, which is not somebody else's project.

Secondly, the school's duty is to transfer knowledge and teach a wide variety of skills, including those which will help young people to find a position in the market place. If someone decides that his life is to be an answer to market needs, the school should provide him with the opportunity to achieve full education and obtain a high quality of teaching, enabling him to achieve the best position in the market.

Finally, school should acquaint students with a variety of passions and interests. It should encourage students to develop their own natural potential, but also to discover completely new fields for development. The passions – those marginalized by surrounding reality, by a focus on the market-led perspective, by a preference for the career and by strict High Performance Schooling rules – should find in school the space for being developed.

How are students otherwise to make well-informed decisions in a world so dominated by market-led orientation that it leaves little if any possibility to seek other solutions?

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