



Led to leadership

The National Leadership Education for School Principals in lower and upper secondary schools in Norway; in an international perspective

Report 1 from Evaluation of the National Leadership Education for School Principals

Ingunn Hybertsen Lysø, Bjørn Stensaker,
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Preface

This is the first of four reports from the follow-up evaluation of the National Leadership Education for School Principals in Norway - an initiative for principals and school leaders in lower and upper secondary school, started by the Directorate for Education and Training. The evaluation is a cooperation between NIFU and NTNU Social Research. The report is written by Ingunn Hybertsen Lysø (NTNU Social Research), Bjørn Stensaker (Project head, NIFU), Per Olaf Aamodt (NIFU), and Kristian Mjøen (NTNU Social Research). The authors thank Dorthe Staunæs from Aarhus University, Per Morten Schiefloe from NTNU/NTNU Social Research, Jannecke Wiers-Jenssen from NIFU, and the Directorate for Education and Training for constructive comments on the report.

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Innhold

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Summary

Improvement of quality in the school system is a high priority on the political agenda, and there is increasing attention to the importance of school leadership. Even though there have been a series of provisions for leader training, White Paper No. 31 (2007 – 2008) “Quality in the School”, established that these programs were loosely coupled to practice and that many school leaders lacked formal leadership education. White Paper No. 31 (2007 – 2008) therefore announced that a national provision for newly appointed and other school principals should be established. The Ministry of Education and Research gave the Directorate for Education and Training the responsibility to define both the requirements and content of this education program, as well as organize a national tender process for institutions that could organize the provisions.

The Directorate for Education and Training also wanted a follow-up evaluation to be implemented in order to highlight the development of the leadership education from 2010 to 2014. After a tender had been conducted, NIFU, in collaboration with NTNU Social Research, was selected to conduct this follow-up evaluation. This first report from the evaluation project aims at developing the theoretical and analytical framework for the follow-up evaluation.

In this report we show that the Norwegian leadership education for school principals has some common characteristics that are relatively typical in terms of the development tendencies of modern school leader education: stronger national control through the establishment of standards and stated goals, a content that emphasizes a close proximity to the school’s core assignments, and modes of work that open for individual development and practice-oriented exercise of leadership. The program is not tied to one single theory of leadership, but draws on empirical research about what leads to effective school leadership more in general. This emphasis is also in accordance with research in the field of school leadership - though the research does not seem to agree much on which theories are best suited with regard to the concrete findings that have been made.

The evaluation task is a comprehensive project based on a broad specter of analytical and empirical approaches. Information about the educational provisions themselves will be collected through descriptions of the provisions and through observation during the plenary workshops. The school leaders will respond to questionnaires at the beginning and end of their program, and in addition case-studies will be conducted at their schools to identify possible changes in practice on the

individual and organizational levels. It is also an aim that the evaluation project will, through reporting and reflection, contribute to developing the programs.

This is the first of four reports from the follow-up evaluation of the National Leadership Education for School Principals conducted by NIFU and NTNU Social Research in the period 2010 – 2014. The report's aim is to place the "Norwegian model for Leadership Education", directed by the Directorate for Education and Training, into an international context. The report presents an overview of international research on leadership in general and school leadership especially, and a description of development tendencies regarding school leader education. With the basis in the goal of the national principal school - that leader development should improve students' learning, there is a specific focus on research that has attempted to say something about this relationship. The aim of this overview is to establish a point of reference for the evaluation based on international theories and practice in school leadership. Based on the theoretical and analytical framework developed in this report, the methodological challenges of measuring effects of the leadership education are discussed. To take into account the complex interplay between school leadership education, leadership practice and the assessment of results, a multidimensional approach with a specific focus on leadership as practice is drawn.

1 Development of the leadership education for school principals

1.1 Introduction

Development of the Norwegian school has been a high political priority over the past decade. In recent years, attention has largely been focused on the importance of school management, and the importance that lower and upper secondary schools all have competent and knowledgeable leadership. This argument is of course found in White Paper No. 31 (2007 - 2008) "Quality in the School" which called for establishing a national leader education for principals. The creation of the leadership education for school principals can be considered an operational extension of key elements of the Knowledge Promotion, where White Paper No. 30 (2003 - 2004) focuses on goals and performance management, empowerment of the profession, responsibility and knowledge-based professional practice.

Both with regard to research, not to mention the OECD report "Improving School Management - Policy and Practice" (2008), it was pointed out that schools that are well-functioning organizations achieve better student results, and that the school management has a significant impact on students' learning and the learning environment. The principal's influence on the school's learning environment is well documented in international research, and Robinson et al. (2008) point especially to the teachers' motivation and working conditions, which in turn is believed to influence the outcome of students' learning

The principal's role as academic and educational leader is especially emphasized in White Paper No. 31. This role can be a challenge in the Norwegian school where there has traditionally been weak traditions of leadership, and where the individual teacher's autonomy remains strong. In many schools there is a tacit agreement that leadership should not interfere too much in the work of teachers.

Meanwhile, more decentralized management and transition to second tier level organization in many municipalities helped to transfer many administrative tasks from the school owner to school management, which could potentially weaken the principal's capacity to exercise academic leadership.

Today the role of the principal is regulated in paragraph 9-1 of the Education Act, which states that every school is to have a responsible academic, educational and administrative leadership hereby represented by principals. The Act does however not determine what the content of the academic, educational and administrative leadership actually is, and how this can best be conducted. White Paper No 31 (2007-2008) notes that in Norway, compared to other countries, there are few national requirements with regard to employment to principal positions.

Until recently, Norwegian principals did not have any extensive formal leader competence, and there has been no national provision for school leader education. There are indeed several Master's degree provisions in education or school management at various educational institutions. It is pointed out in White Paper No. 31 (2007-2008) that some of these programs have a relatively loose connection to practice. The programs are also not tailored for principals, as they do not focus specifically on the development of the leader role. Although some principals have taken supplementary and continuing education in administration and management subjects, the school leader survey from 2005 for example showed that nearly 40 percent had no formal leader education. Preliminary results from a survey in the spring of 2010 indicate that this proportion has fallen to about one in three (Vibe & Sandberg 2010).

With this as a starting point the Ministry of Education and Research notified, in White Paper No. 31 (2007-2008), that a national leadership education would be established for new employees and other principals who lacked such education. It is argued that a change in the leader role in the school requires that the principal has competence and the will to lead, but also that there is an acceptance among the employees that leadership is practiced.

The Ministry of Education and Research had given the Directorate for Education and Training the task of defining the requirements and expectations regarding an educational provision for principals in lower and upper secondary schools, whilst conducting a tender for a national educational provision. It was pointed out that the education should be related to practice, and that it could be part of a more extensive Master's degree program within education or school management. The program should correspond to 30 credits within institutions of higher education, and have duration of 1.5 to 2 year spread out in a series of workshops

After the first tender in 2009 the Directorate for Education and Training gave four communities the task of developing and executing the National Leadership Education for School Principals. After an assessment of whether one should increase the education capacity, a new tender was done in 2010, and a further 2 communities entered. The six provisions from autumn 2010 were established at the following educational institutions:

- University of Oslo (UiO)
- University of Bergen (UiB)
- The Norwegian Business School BI
- The Department of Administrative Research at the Norwegian School of Economics
- University College of Oslo (HiO)
- The Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU)

For the period 2010-2014, the Directorate for Education and Training also desired that a follow-up evaluation of the six education provisions that were developed should be started, with a focus on both the quality of the program and effects over time. After the tender in 2010, NIFU, in cooperation with NTNU Social Research, were given the task to conduct this follow-up evaluation. This report is the first report on the evaluation, and has as its goal to develop a theoretical and analytical frame for the evaluation work.

1.2 Some methodological reflections

At a time when knowledge development occurs rapidly so has the demand increased for overviews of various disciplines and areas of knowledge. The reason for such overviews can be attributed to that both researchers and users of research need to know more about the real meaning of specific theories and discoveries, and why some research contributions are emphasized at the expense of others. A brief description of the basis on which the existing literature is selected and systematized will be given here.

This report is not an attempt to develop an exhaustive overview of the literature and research in the field of school management and school leader development. Both the resources and mandate for the evaluation set limits. At the same time, any evaluation needs a context in which the methods chosen and the findings made can be observed in relation to a point of reference - of an empirical and / or theoretical nature. The following reference points are particularly important in this report:

The first reference point for the selection of literature and research can be traced back to the purpose of the national principal school - which leader development that occurs improves, as the primary objective, the students' learning. It was therefore important to have a specific focus on the literature that has attempted to shed light on this relationship. This also means that a lot of research on school management is excluded. In the overview we have been open to that the focus on student learning is not only related to the principal / school leader. We therefore searched for other organizational factors that may also be significant for students' learning.

The second reference point for the selection of literature is more pragmatic. Limited resources have meant that we have mainly based the knowledge overview on completed summaries of research in the field. Thus, our overview can be considered more as a "meta-overview" based on that we mainly attempt to collate existing overview studies rather than analyze the primary sources directly. This report has therefore largely been based on recent knowledge overviews from Bush & Glover (2003), Huber (2004, 2010), Kezar et al. (2006), Møller & Schratz (2008), Robinson et al. (2009) and Winkler (2010). This is supplemented by other studies (see bibliography for a full list of sources).

A third point of reference in the selection of literature is tied to a desire to pit the "Norwegian model" for leadership education against models in other countries. Here we have chosen to look at general trends and tendencies internationally and more specifically to describe England, Sweden and Denmark. The selection is based on that England has been the leading country in Europe in school leader development, in addition to Scandinavian countries, with which it is natural to draw comparisons.

A consequence of this is that we have to a limited extent referred to or drawn on Norwegian research in this field. The reason is not related to the quality or relevance of the Norwegian research

- but to the fact that many of the active Norwegian researchers in this field are in various ways involved with the providers that are active in the Norwegian leadership education. Norwegian research in this field will be far more important in the later phases of the evaluation - especially where one looks closely at the specific programs that the various providers have designed.

1.3 Topic and thesis statement for the report

In autumn 2012 the six providers of the National Leadership Education for School Principals had started their education provisions. For the first four providers this represented the second class, while for the two last ones it was the first class of participants.

NIFU and NTNU Social Research have started the collection of data on program quality through meeting with the leaders of the six program provisions and observed activities during workshops. The researchers also participated in meetings organized by the Directorate for Education and Training where the program providers meet to report their status and to share experiences. When it comes to quality of results (effects) the research group is underway to collect both qualitative and quantitative data that form the empirical basis for saying something about the effects in terms of changes at the individual, organizational, and system levels over time. The research methods used in the collection and analysis of empirical data will be described more specifically in the subsequent reports.

However, it is too early to say anything about the effects of the National Leadership Education for School Principals in this report and it is primarily intended to provide an overview and a context around the scheme. When we later in the evaluation look at what changes can be linked to participation in leader education, it will, in relation to the interpretation of results, be important to view these in light of international research and practice in this field. On that basis, this first report has the following four questions:

- What are the key theories of leadership and leader education, especially within school management, in an international perspective?
- What are the international tendencies in terms of practice and organization of school leader education?
- What similarities and differences exist between thinking about and organizing the leadership education in Norway, and theory and practice internationally?
- Based on existing knowledge of leader education and the organization of this; what are the appropriate ways of assessing and measuring the effects of leader education in Norway?

Chapter 2 describes some characteristics of the role of Norwegian school leaders in an international perspective, and forms a backdrop to discuss whether the leadership education is adapted to Norwegian school leaders' everyday lives. In Chapter 3, the key theoretical and international perspectives on leadership and leader education, especially within school management, will be discussed. International development tendencies and trends will be described in Chapter 4 to place the leadership education in an international context. In Chapter 5, the goal orientation, organization, content and learning methods of the leadership education are described and then compared to some selected countries. On the basis of the aforementioned perspectives we will in Chapter 6 outline

some methodological challenges, as well as an overall approach to how one can, in an appropriate way, evaluate the results of the leadership education.

2 Norwegian school leaders in an international perspective

A key question in the evaluation is whether the Directorate for Education and Training's program is designed so that it addresses the needs Norwegian principals face in their everyday lives. As a backdrop to this report we describe in this chapter some characteristics of the role of the Norwegian school leaders in an international perspective. The purpose is not to conduct a thorough comparative analysis of school leader role, but to emphasize what is typical of Norwegian school leaders by using empirical data from 22 other countries. The data is from the OECD international study of teaching and learning (TALIS), which was completed in 2008 (OECD 2009 Vibe et al. 2009), and that encompasses teachers and school leaders in junior high schools. The description is supplemented with a great deal of results from the Directorate for Education and Training's surveys of schools and school owners (Vibe & Sandberg 2010, Vibe 2010). These surveys cover the entire education.

In the TALIS survey it is the principal who answers questions in the principal questionnaire. In Norway, and probably in most countries, it will vary from school to school who maintains both what is normally referred to as the educational and administrative leadership. At smaller schools a principal can have both roles without creating problems of any kind. In large schools the educational leadership can be delegated to academic leaders or team leaders, while the principal has a purely administrator role. The concept of distributed leadership (Elmore, 2005, Ottesen & Møller 2006, Green 2008) can be used for various forms of shared leadership, based on relationships between people who take on different leadership functions. This must be taken into account when results are interpreted.

2.1 Characteristics of Norwegian school leaders

The international report from TALIS (OECD 2009) has used partition of the various functions of a school leader, namely leadership of teaching or educational leadership and administrative leadership. These are not two leader tasks that are opposed to each other; they are on the contrary positively correlated empirically speaking. These two dimensions are shown in Figure 6.1, page 142 in the Norwegian TALIS report (Vibe et al. 2009) and reproduced in Figure 1 on the next page. The majority of countries scored either high or low in both dimensions. Norway deviates from this

pattern, and scores above average on the administrative dimension and below average on the educational one. In terms of school leaders in other countries Norwegian school leaders place significantly more emphasis on financial and administrative leadership than being leaders for teaching at the school. We have pointed out that this picture may be somewhat nuanced if we had included leader roles at the school other than the principal, but there is little reason to assume that this would have resulted in a very different position for Norway compared to other countries. Educational and administrative leadership are illustrated in Figure 1.

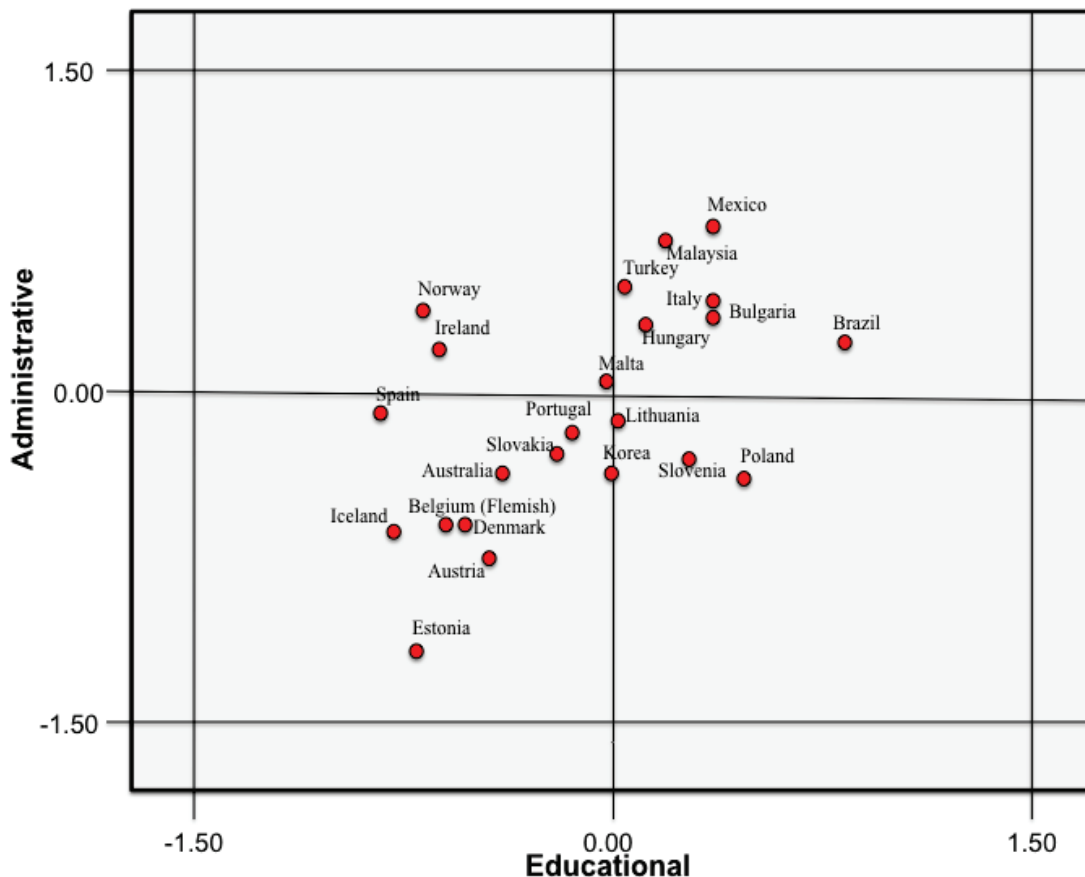


Figure 1 Educational and administrative leadership in 23 countries (Vibe et al. 2009:142)

As mentioned TALIS does not say anything about how leader tasks are divided between the principal and other employees at the school with leader responsibilities. Most schools have more than just one leader, only 18 percent of the elementary and junior high schools and 2 percent of the high schools do not have leaders besides the principal. Most elementary and junior high schools have from one to four leaders, while more than half of the high schools have more than five in leader positions. In primary and junior high schools it is especially positions such as deputy head teacher and after-school leader that are ordinary, but also positions as team leader, assistant principal and/or department head can be found in every fourth to fifth school. At the high schools, three of four schools have an assistant principal and/or department head (Vibe & Sandberg 2010:20-22). We do not know how the leader group distributes the academic/educational and administrative tasks amongst themselves, but it is fairly certain that the degree of academic leadership is underestimated when we just ask the principal about their own tasks.

The roles of school leaders are affected by many different factors, and one must assume that the size of the school is important. Leadership of larger schools implies on the one hand more leader tasks, but on the other hand the leader role can to a greater degree be shared. Of the 23 countries in TALIS Norway had the lowest number of students in school, averaging 311 students, followed by Poland with 318 and Iceland with 360. The average for all TALIS countries was 655. If administrative tasks increase with school size, one would expect the administrative burdens to be smaller in Norway than in many other countries. Figure 5 shows almost the opposite, in that the Norwegian school leaders have a predominantly administrative leader profile compared to most other countries. This may indicate that there are other factors than school size that impact the forms of leadership. In the following, administrative and educational leadership are described.

2.1.1 Administrative leadership

The administrative dimension of leadership is composed of two indexes that can be called responsibility and bureaucratic leadership.

The index "responsibility" is constructed on the basis of the following statements in the questionnaire, and where the alternatives range from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree":

- An important part of my job is to ensure that teaching methods that are prescribed by the central education authorities are explained to new teachers and that more experienced teachers use these methods.
- A major part of my job is to ensure that the staff's teaching skills are steadily improved.
- An important part of my job is to ensure that teachers are held accountable for goal achievement at the school.
- An important part of my job is to present new ideas to parents in a convincing way.

The second index, "bureaucratic" leadership, is constructed by the following statement, where the alternatives range from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree":

- It is important for the school that I see to it that everyone sticks to the rules.
- It is important for the school that I examine whether there are errors and misunderstandings in administrative procedures and reports.
- An important part of my job is to solve problems related to schedules and planning of teaching.
- An important aspect of my job is to create an atmosphere of order at my school.
- I facilitate a solution-oriented atmosphere at this school.

The two dimensions of administrative leadership are shown in Figure 2.

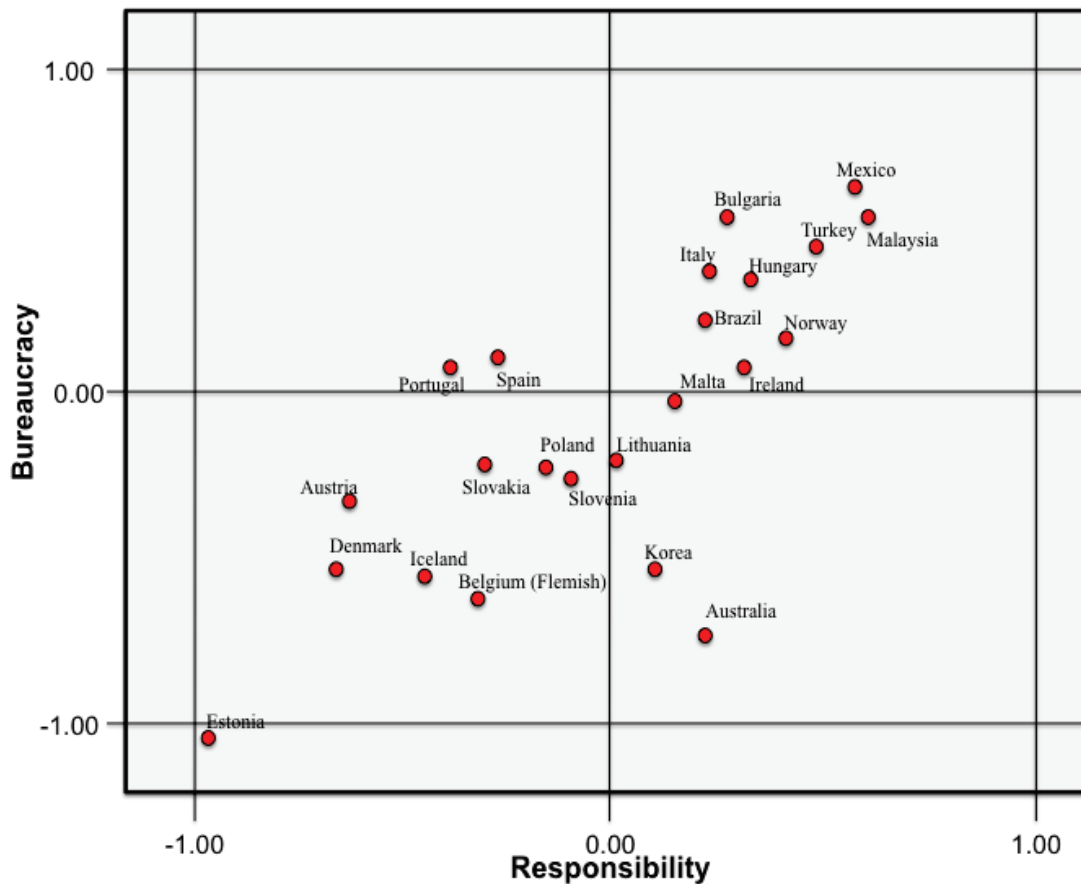


Figure 2 Dimensions in administrative leadership in 23 countries (Vibe et al. 2009:144)

Although the dimension of responsibility is part of administrative leadership, it still has a close relationship with the school's academic activities. Norway apparently scores high on this index. On the bureaucratic index Norway has a score that is above average. Again we see from the figure that the two dimensions are not opposites, but that there is a connection between them. Norway is among the countries that distinguishes itself by relatively high values in both dimensions, but there are other countries where this is even clearer, for example Mexico, Malaysia and Turkey. It is also interesting that Norway falls in the same group as some countries that are quite different from us, while the two other Nordic countries included in the TALIS survey, Iceland and Denmark, are situated in the completely opposite end of the distribution with low scores in both dimensions.

2.1.2 Educational leadership

Leadership of teaching or educational leadership is comprised of the following three indexes: guidance towards the school's goal, leadership of teaching, and managing.

Goal guidance/the school's goal is based on the following statement, with response alternatives ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"

- I make sure that what the teachers receive in terms of academic and professional development is in accordance with the school's teaching objectives

- I make sure that teachers work according to the school's learning objectives
- I use student results to develop the school's goals for learning
- I take exam results into account when making decisions on curriculum development
- I make sure that distribution of responsibilities is clear in terms of coordination of lesson plans
- At this school, we work from goals and/or a strategic plan.

Managing is based on the following statements with response alternatives on a scale from "never" to "very often":

- I observe teaching in the classroom
- I give teachers advice on how they can improve their teaching
- I inspect students' work
- I examine whether what is happening in class is consistent with our goals for learning

The Norwegian results for leadership of teaching is close to the average for all TALIS countries, and we therefore choose to show the relationship between guidance towards the school's goal and management in Figure 3.

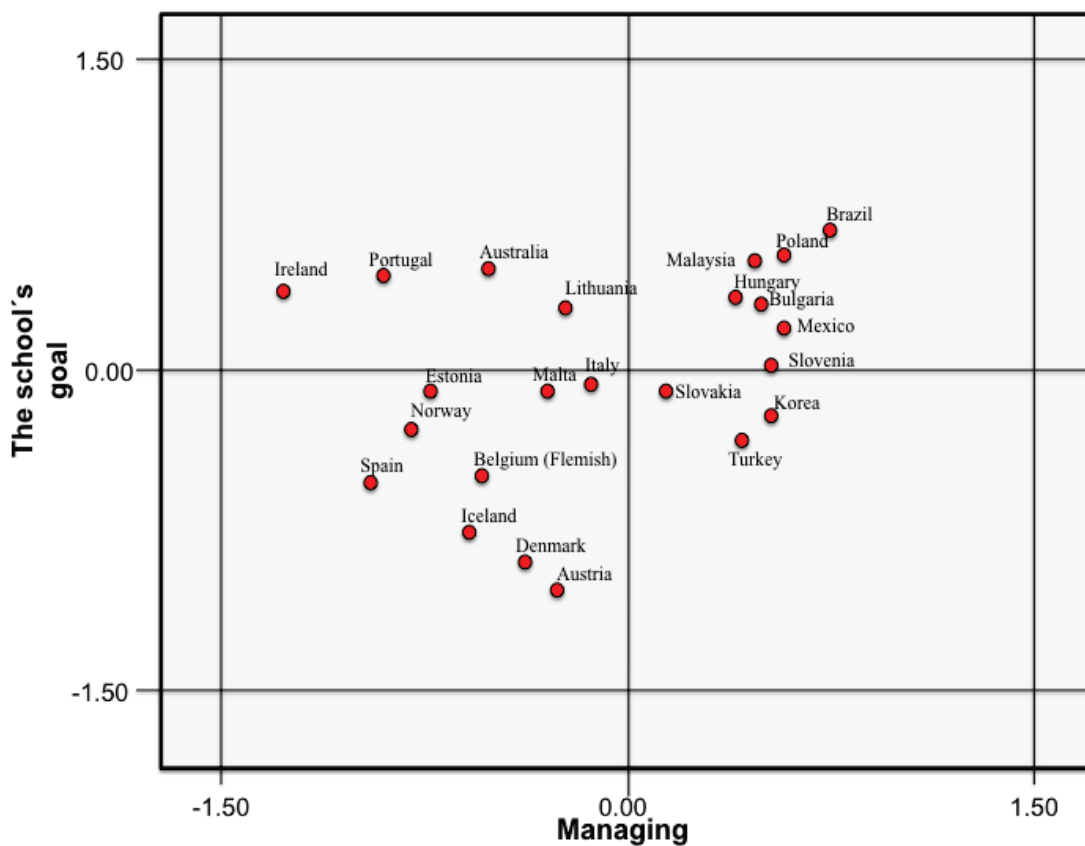


Figure 3 Dimension in educational leadership in 23 countries (Vibe et al. 2009: 148)

Response patterns from the Norwegian school leaders, relative to the other 22 countries in TALIS, give Norway a score well below the average in the managing dimension and slightly below average in the goal dimension. It must be emphasized that these results do not imply that the Norwegian school leaders are not concerned with these tasks, and the results for Norway are only a picture of a position in an international comparison. Such a comparison may contribute to an increased understanding of the leader role in Norway.

In TALIS principals were asked to estimate how they distributed their time between the various tasks. Norwegian school leaders did not particularly stand out in this case, but the results still place Norway in a group of countries that, relatively, uses the minimum of time on teaching-related tasks. A survey of school leaders in lower and upper secondary school education in spring 2010 showed that they estimated spending about 40 percent of their work time on internal administrative tasks, 13 percent on externally representing the school and 12 percent on responding to inquiries from municipal, county or state educational management. They spent only 16 percent of the time on facilitating teaching, classroom observation and follow-up and supervision of teachers and 10 percent on their own teaching. There were relatively small differences between school leaders in lower and upper secondary schools, but school leaders in high schools spent almost no time teaching (Vibe & Sandberg 2010). The principals were also asked about the balance between administrative and educational duties. Approximately 60 percent responded that there was an emphasis on administrative leadership, while one third said that there was, on average, a balance (Vibe 2010).

2.2 Ideals and realities in the school leader role

Norwegian school leaders' workdays are mainly characterized by administrative tasks, even though some of the administrative tasks cannot be distinguished from the educational leadership. This is especially true for the variation of leadership that we have called "guidance in relation to the school's goal" But is there any reason to believe that school leaders have become school leaders because they want to administrate, or that they have been hired because of general administrative competence? Today there are requirements for educational competence and experience in order to become a principal. According to TALIS two-thirds of the principals in junior high schools had more than ten years of experience as teachers. In that case it would be surprising if teaching-related tasks and ultimately student learning were not the school leaders' main objectives in their jobs.

This impression is confirmed by a question to school leaders in autumn 2010. In the following statement "Because of the volume of work I have to be much more administrator than I want to be" 43 percent strongly agreed and 34 percent somewhat agreed. Only 12 percent fully or partially disagreed with this statement. It is quite possible that such a response pattern largely reflects the fact that they maintain a somewhat idealized image of the principal role, but the responses indicate that there at least is a significant gap between the roles school leaders want to have and the roles they actually have. This is still an important finding, which also forms the basis for the leader development that principals should undergo.

A school leader's contribution to develop quality is to work through the teachers. The most important actions are to contribute to teachers' competence development through formal and informal measures, through supervision and support, and by creating a culture for academic

development. All such measures in a school will, in a sense, stumble at the traditionally individualistic teacher role with a high degree of autonomy.

The Norwegian school leaders are clearly aware that they have a responsibility to develop the teaching staff's qualifications, but this general responsibility is only to a limited extent followed-up on in that school leaders actively watch their teachers' competence development or help to inform them about potential opportunities (Vibe et al. 2009:64). Also, an important reason why Norwegian teachers have not participated as much as possible in competence development is the difficulty in fitting it into daily teaching. Lack of support from one's employer may also play a role. Norwegian teachers' activity in professional development is relatively moderate, while at the same time there is a desire for more. There may therefore appear to be some structural obstacles in the way, which is largely the responsibility of leadership to reduce. We have pointed out that the Norwegian school leaders score close to average with regard to academic and educational leadership. Norwegian principals distinguished themselves in that they to a small extent observe teaching in the classroom, and teachers in Norway also believe that they, to a moderate extent, receive advice from the principal about how they can improve their teaching.

A central topic in TALIS is assessment and feedback, and specifically what teachers get from this. The scope of this assessment among Norwegian teachers is around average. Teachers report that they were generally positive about the usefulness of feedback, and that the assessments they receive are fair. The findings show that the assessment and feedback to Norwegian teachers contain, to a small extent, few specific suggestions for improvement of the work. Teachers in Norway also have relatively low confidence in the principal's opportunity to assess the quality of the work, and they think to a large extent that poorly executed work by a teacher is tolerated. This is a clear sign of a poorly developed culture to correct poor teacher work (Vibe et al. 2009, pp. 168-189).

2.3 Political context

Regarding the political context we will first highlight the principals' autonomy compared with the countries in TALIS. Afterwards the relationship with school owners will be briefly described.

A school leader's tasks are significantly tied to the relationship to the school's governing authorities, and not least with the degree of autonomy. In TALIS, the principals were asked about decisions in a number of areas, both academic and administrative, and who had an active role of principal, teachers, local school authorities, local government authorities (county governor in Norway) or national authorities. We limit ourselves to what the principals said about his/her own role. The 23 nations in TALIS come from all parts of the world and have large differences in their model of governance. On all these issues, there is great variation between countries, and there is little point in comparing Norway with all countries. In table 1 we therefore compare Norway with the average for all TALIS countries as an indicator of the degree of autonomy for school leaders.

Table 1 Principal's role in different types of decisions (Vibe et al. 2009)

Principal has an active role in decisions about	Norway	Average in 23 countries
Employing teachers	92.4	56.7
Firing teachers	67.9	51.3
Deciding the teachers' starting salaries	16.1	18.0
Bestemme lærernes lønnsøkninger	27.9	18.0
Setting up the school budget	79.4	58.2
Decide budget distribution	96.2	67.4
Determine criteria for conduct and behavior	85.3	61.4
Determine assessment system	62.6	46.2
Approve admission of students	67.9	66.8
Decide on school books	73.5	22.1
Decide the content of subjects	39.9	20.7
Decide which subjects the school will offer	54.1	45.2
Distribute funds for teachers' competence development	67.4	44.2

The Norwegian school leaders have a greater role in decisions in almost all the specified areas and in some select areas the differences are very large. The only two areas where there is no difference are in determining teachers' starting salaries, where the Norwegian principals, not surprisingly, indicate a rather limited influence, and to approve the admission of students. In no area is the Norwegian principal's role in decisions lower than the average. Practically all Norwegian principals believe they have an active role in hiring teachers and allocating budgets, and they have a much greater than average influence on determining textbooks.

We should be careful in concluding anything from these answers concerning workloads and not least from administrative duties. It does not have to be more inconvenient to have an active role and great influence if the decisions are made by a higher authority. But the figures that indicate a school leader's role in Norway, compared to all the other countries, entail great responsibility and considerable autonomy.

Since the responsibility for basic education is given to municipalities and counties, it is natural that we find considerable variation in the management of schools and how closely the school owners follow-up the schools. The range of variation is naturally greatest between municipalities, and it is especially the smaller municipalities that have a limited technical and administrative capacity, while they also can be characterized by close and tight relationships. Seen from the school leader's point of view, the school owner could both represent rules and requirements, but also provide academic and administrative support. Close follow-up may on the one hand involve a strain on the principal, but at the same time also support and assist more than in the cases where school owners adopt a more distant role.

Vibe and Sandberg (2010:31-34) have highlighted what academic support school leaders believe that they get from their school owners. They find that they often experience the need for support in administrative and financial matters than in academic and educational matters. Approximately two out of three believe that they rarely need support in academic and educational matters, and 20 to 30 percent experience it quite often. There is no significant difference between the two school levels. About half believe that they "quite often" need advice and support in financial and administrative questions. The leaders of the smallest schools express a somewhat more frequent need than in the larger schools. Most also believe that there are certain individuals or units with school owners that they can turn to, and this is particularly true in financial and academic issues. The principals are very satisfied with the support they receive from the school owners in financial and administrative issues, but they are considerably more divided with regard to academic and educational matters. While 62 percent felt that the support in financial and administrative questions was very good or good, the corresponding figure was only 35 percent in academic and educational matters. While there was no difference in financial and administrative support by size of municipality, the findings showed significant differences in views on support in academic and educational matters. It was especially the smallest schools that stood out negatively. In municipalities with up to 4 schools 39 percent responded that they did not have or had poor support in academic and educational matters, while the corresponding proportion was 19 percent in municipalities where there were at least 20 elementary schools.

The description of the central characteristics of the role of the Norwegian school leaders forms a backdrop to discuss whether the leadership education is adapted to Norwegian school leaders' daily lives. In the following key theoretical perspectives and international practices in school management will be discussed, and an interesting question is whether the leadership education is 'modern' in relation to this.

3 Theoretical perspectives on (school) leadership

This chapter will go through a number of central theories and perspectives on school management to establish a frame for the field of leadership and development characteristics. The choice of literature and research is done on the basis of the focus on the relationship between school management and students' learning results. This is to be regarded as a "meta-overview" where existing knowledge-overviews are compared.

3.1 A framing of the field of leadership and central development characteristics

Providing a more theoretical overview of the thinking behind leader education cannot be done without taking a starting point in the different perspectives that exist on leadership more generally. Although it is not this report's aim to provide an exhaustive overview of the leadership field, it is important to emphasize that leadership research in general is a very dynamic and diverse research field where a lot of development can be traced over time, but where there is also no consensus on what the key terms and most important dimensions are - both for defining and understanding leadership.

Bass (2008: xxvi), who is behind one of the most important manuals on the leadership field, has pointed out that in the period between the release of the third and the fourth edition of his Manual (1990-2008) research on and around leadership increased by one hundred percent in the United States alone, and where one also could note an increase in the number of leadership consultants by around three hundred percent. In the said period leadership research also expanded as a discipline and currently includes - besides the pure organizational and leadership researchers - many contributions from political scientists, sociologists, social anthropologists and historians. This disciplinary diversity has also contributed to research including new themes - ethics, globalization, technology, minorities, gender, etc. There is therefore a wide range of definitions of leadership, and Yukl (1989:253) argues that "the numerous definitions of leadership that have been proposed appear to have little else in common" than that leadership is about creating influence.

In his handbook Bass (2008) also tried to systematize research on leadership, but it is a characteristic of the book that it to a small extent attempts to create a meta-theoretical framework for leadership

research. The book is primarily organized around a number of themes, such as "power and leadership", "autocratic versus democratic leadership", " leadership of groups and teams," etc.

Kezar et al. (2006:16), however, can be said to have tried to create a more overarching framework for research on leadership, where they divide this research into four basic paradigms: positivist, constructivist, critical and postmodern. A variety of theories and perspectives can be placed within the aforementioned paradigms.

- Positivist - characterized by a belief in the possibility of uncovering general characteristics of leadership and leadership behavior. Within this paradigm one finds among others the theories that there are special characteristics of "good" leaders ("trait theories"), theories about what effective leadership behavior is, theories on situation dependent leadership, as well as theories on power and influence.
- Constructivist - characterized by a rejection of the possibility of revealing general truths about leaders and leadership, where research attempts to understand how leaders relate to and act in relation to their own organization. Within this paradigm one finds among others the theories on cultural and symbolic aspects of leadership, as well as so-called cognitive leadership theories that seek to understand the thinking and behavior of leaders.
- Critical - characterized by a belief that leadership research should uncover tacit knowledge and different preconceptions about leaders and leadership. The research has often focused on power, gender and minorities.
- Postmodern - share the constructivist skepticism about the existence of general truths, but where one also believes that language and texts are important sources for an understanding and readout of how a situation can be understood. This is not a widely used paradigm within leadership research, but different types of chaos and complexity theories can be connected to this way of thinking.

The breakdown above may be useful in several ways: First, it can be read as a kind of chronological development of leadership research - however, in that the new paradigms outlined extend rather than replace the earlier paradigms. While the positivist leadership theories completely dominated the field in the period after the Second World War, we see that the constructivist, critical and postmodern theories have later surfaced- but without the positivist research disappearing. Secondly, these paradigms assist both researchers and practitioners in establishing a common framework to discuss leadership. Just because leadership research is so fragmented and dynamic it may be helpful to have a tool to connect the new knowledge and true concept of reality.

At the same time however, the division into four paradigms can be criticized for being too schematic and too structured, where it can be argued that certain leadership theories can transcend the various paradigms that have been drawn up. Recent thinking in leadership research emphasizes as well that perhaps one should establish a different kind of understanding of the characteristics of modern research on leadership. Winkler (2010:5-6) for example refers to recent leadership research often being characterized by:

1. A focus on leadership that is process-oriented, and interactional. Leadership is described as a social situation where a number of different actors try to influence and be influenced by the interaction that takes place.

2. An emphasis on leadership where the leader's subjective perception of the limits and possibilities of leadership is given considerable weight. The leadership's latitude is affected by social, cultural and historical guidelines, and where possibilities for action are often seen as limited.
3. A view of the leadership environment as multifaceted, complex and dynamic. This description of the environment suggests that leadership is largely dependent on context, and that this can create ambivalent signals and contribute to paradoxical situations where leadership does not appear to be easy.
4. A change from partly normative models of leader behavior to greater emphasis on explaining why leaders act the way they do, and where the limitations of leadership are also clarified.

The four characteristics listed above can be said to be significant both for leadership research more generally, and for research on school management. Not least, it seems the social relationships and environments that provide the framework for the exercise of leadership are important variables in current research. It is claimed that in addition to many leadership studies lacking an account of the interactive dynamics of leadership, they lack a deeper examination of leadership practices and the meaning we attach to practice (Alvesson & Spicer 2011).

3.2 Research on leadership - Some common traits and dominant theories

As mentioned above, research on school management is in line with leadership research more generally in terms of the emphasis on the social and contextual dimensions of leadership. At the same time, research on school management differs from other leadership research when it comes to measuring the effects of leadership. Within leadership research more generally, the dependent variable - what good leadership leads to - can well be related to many different variables, including innovation, profit, improved reputation of the business, revenue growth, etc. Although there is no consensus on how school management should be measured, there is a strong tendency that one increasingly seems to agree that school efficiency is the most appropriate target, and where this often is determined through that students learn and what students learn in school (Robinson et al., 2009; Leithwood et al. 2010).

There are a great number of studies that have shown an association between school management and school efficiency (see e.g Austin & Reynolds, 1990, Portin & Shen 1998), where one can find correlations between school efficiency and specific social relations between the leader and employees. The school principal as "leader" (Goldring 1990), as an educational leader (Fullan 1991), and as an agent for change (Leithwood 1994) has been highlighted. The terms above suggest that there may exist different types of social relationships between leaders and employees, which in turn can be linked to different assumptions about what the most important factors are to positively contribute to increased learning for students.

International research on school management today seems to have a strong focus on four theories (see also Bush & Glover 2003, Robinson et al. 2008). These are presented briefly below.

3.2.1 Transactional leadership

The social relationship that is emphasized strongest in theories of transactional leadership is how a leader and his employees can develop a good barter - of both material and intangible goods. For leadership this theory is about understanding how different reward mechanisms work for teachers, and make use of the reward mechanisms that get teachers to perform in accordance with the established objectives (Winkler 2010:42). In many ways, the essence of this theory is somewhat similar to that found in positivist leadership theories. A leader must - to identify relevant reward mechanisms - have an overview of the business, must be able to manage reward mechanisms, and manage how and to what extent a reward system can be implemented.

From thinking about transactional leadership it follows that it is difficult to distinguish between leadership and management - where good leadership is subject to certain administrative routines and procedures. For the leader it is thus important to identify knowledge of the practices and procedures that "work" and support these. Recently conducted research that can be said to fit into this theory has been done by Leithwood et al. (2010:674) which has for instance pointed out that important procedures to improve student learning is tied to:

- Whether the teachers give students immediate and informal feedback on their results
- Interactive learning processes with teacher and student
- Good social relations between teacher and student
- Management of the social environment in the classroom

These procedures, however, are more concerned with educational conditions than organizational conditions. On the other hand, there is also research that has identified factors that appear to have less impact than those mentioned above, and it is perhaps therefore that leaders should prioritize that learning should take place in one-to-one form between teacher-student (Leithwood et al. 2010:674).

3.2.2 Transformational leadership

It can be argued that while transactional leadership considers the social relationship between a leader and a teacher through instrumental factors, transformational leadership is a theory that takes its starting point in that rational knowledge is not sufficient to achieve the desired results, and where it is also important that a leader be able to create trust, admiration, loyalty and respect from his employees and where this in turn creates a climate for organizational change and student learning (Robinson et al. 2009). The theories of transformational leadership are relatively widely used in recent school research, and can be seen as an attempt to build some sort of bridge between positivist leadership thinking and a more constructivist paradigm through the theory emphasizing how leaders can build and develop more pervasive social relations, and how an organization achieves its goals through a leader creating coalitions between the individual aspirations of the employees and the goals of the organization. Thus, the interpretation and understanding of the organization and his own employees are important attributes of a leader, but where the leader actions that happen in the aftermath of such a process are often reminiscent of notions of the leader as a "hero" or

"charismatic" agent of change where it is the personal characteristics that are the most central (Winkler 2010:45).

According to the theory of transformational leadership key processes for a leader are; that one provides individual follow-up for teachers, the leader encourages teachers to greater creativity and innovation, that one motivates staff and creates high expectations, and that a leader develops a vision for the school that employees believe in and join, and which provide the basis for trust and respect (Robinson et al., 2009:85). Leithwood et al. (2010:676-677) and Rowe (1995:68), among others, have shown that these "cultural factors" seem to have a major impact on student learning:

- Teachers' job satisfaction, pride and morale
- Teachers' views on colleagues and their expertise and interest in school
- Whether teachers take responsibility for student learning

Other recent studies have similarly shown that the more a principal is in demand by the teachers in terms of advice and guidance, and the closer relationships a principal has to his teachers, the more prepared teachers are to initiate and implement changes in their own school (Moolenaar et al. 2010:624).

3.2.3 Educational leadership

While theories on transformational leadership strongly emphasize the cultural and symbolic dimensions in terms of the interaction between leadership and employees, the theories of pedagogic ("instructional") leadership are strongly tied to that leadership must be based on knowledge and have specialized expertise in the area where it will be used (Bush & Glover, 2003). It is not enough just to be a leader with cultural capital - you must be academically qualified so as to be able to have discussions on an equal footing, and understand the challenges that teachers face in their everyday lives (Robinson et al., 2009:206). In this theory, the social relationships between leaders and employees are primarily knowledge- and academic-based and are thus strongly related to positivist theories on leadership.

It is therefore not particularly surprising that the core theories on educational leadership are related to the ability that a leader has in establishing academic goals for the school, to monitor and actively participate in learning activities at the classroom level, and to provide academic feedback to teachers about their teaching and conduct systematic competence development of teachers (Robinson et al., 2009:88).

Hattie (2009) and Leithwood et al. (2010) believe there is scientific evidence to suggest that the following academic dimensions are significant to students' learning:

- Teachers' participation in academic development activities
- Teachers' time is devoted to teaching and learning activities
- Evaluation of teaching and learning, including feedback to teachers
- Academic aspirations and academic level

It has been claimed that educational leadership can be difficult to implement the higher the level of education you are at. This is based on the idea that the academic level at for example high school means that a principal will have greater difficulty in functioning as an academically competent interlocutor for a teacher, than is the case for a principal in elementary school and junior high school, and especially at the lowest grades. Research seems to indicate that educational leadership has positive significance no matter what school level you examine (Heck & Marcoulides 1990:247).

3.2.4 Distributed leadership

A final theory approach, which relatively recently seems to have been embraced with some interest by school leader research, is thoughts related to distributed (participatory) leadership. This is a collection of theories where the focus is again on the interaction between leaders and employees, but where the starting point is that thoughts on leadership have been too focused on the person, where leadership is primarily about the responsibilities that an organization, a group or a unit have together to make decisions and implement them in practice. Distributed leadership can thus be said to be a theoretical approach that has many points in common with the more critical and post-modern leadership thinking where, among others, democratic and collegial ideals are strong (Bush & Glover 2003:18).

The arguments for distributed leadership are often academic and knowledge-based and where the assumptions are that in a world that is changing rapidly and where new knowledge arises and is quickly demanded, the school must be organized in such a way that the employees have sufficient autonomy to be able to make many decisions on their own, alternatively in small groups. Within distributed leadership thinking, leadership is not necessarily tied to a formal position leadership (Robinson et al. 2009:67). This approach requires a greater focus on the school as an organization, and Waters et al. (2003) show in a meta-analysis that research which documents that well-functioning organizations, with what they call balanced leadership, achieve better results in their work with students.

How to define distributed leadership is widely discussed in the literature. In an article that attempts to summarize the research in this field suggests, distributed leadership is often used as an umbrella term for many different forms of delegation and project organization (Harris et al. 2007:338). Often, however, thoughts of collegiality and "leadership without leaders" will be characteristic of the social relationships that are considered central (Bush & Grover 2003:17).

Since this theoretical approach is relatively new in school research, there is currently little research that shows any link between distributed leadership and students' learning. At the same time, there exists research that points out that distributed leadership can have several positive contributions to school development more generally (Harris et al. 2007:340):

- Distributed leadership contributes to an increased focus on organizational development and change in school
- More autonomous teachers have a positive impact on efficiency and motivation among students
- Distributed leadership contributes to a stronger focus on academics, expertise, and that this in turn has a positive impact on skills development more generally

In a comment tied to the value of distributed leadership as a theoretical approach in the school management field, Harris et al. (2007:343) say that there seem to be many conditions attached to this theoretical approach. Firstly, the delegation of leadership responsibility must necessarily be given to those who have knowledge and who have decision-making authority in relation to a field of knowledge. Questions arise related to the relationship between responsibility and authority. Secondly, that even distributed leadership requires some kind of coordination – initially in a systematic manner.

3.3 Research on school management - some reflections and paradoxes

The brief review of the research on school management provides a picture of a field of research where there is a lot of activity, but where it is difficult to develop a more comprehensive picture of the status of the research. This is due to the fact that many of the theories that exist in the field are relatively weakly developed in a conceptual sense. The effect of this is that both verification and falsification of hypotheses are difficult, and that some of the findings made could be interpreted along different theoretical perspectives. In a summary of research in this field, Robinson et al. (2008:658) also write that more "integrated" forms of leadership, for example, where elements of theories on educational leadership combined with elements from the theory of transformational leadership are the best predictors of student learning. It is further pointed out that "... in general, abstract leadership theories provide poor guides to specific leadership practices that have greater impact on student outcomes. "

Recent empirical studies on school leaders can easily illustrate this point. When for example, Sammons et al. (2011:95-96) found that "teachers' collaborative environment" and "that principals develop teachers" are important factors that positively affect student learning, it nevertheless presents a challenge to identify the cause of this. The question is whether this could be because principals have knowledge about "what works" (transactional leadership), because the principals get "credit" for the collaborative climate (transformational leadership), the principals are good educational communicators and knowledge developers (educational leadership), or whether it is the teachers who have received sufficient autonomy to be able to be the driving forces of this development themselves (distributed leadership)?

Jacobson (2011) has similarly shown that setting up goals for student learning, developing teachers' skills and adapting the organization to the learning objectives, are some of the key factors that have a positive impact on student learning. At the same time he acknowledges that such factors are highly dependent on conditions that the principals and school leaders have little control of - including demographic and personal characteristics of the students, the governing structure the school is subjected to, as well as various socio-economic and familial conditions (Jacobson 2011:41). Thus, it is perhaps not surprising that current theories that seek to explain the relationship between school management and student learning assumes that "successful school principalship is an interactive, reciprocal and evolving process involving many players which is influenced by - and in turn influences - the context in which it occurs "(Mulford & Silins 2011:61-62).

Thus it can be claimed that there are two paradoxes in school management research. Firstly, it is a paradox that principals and school leaders often have the most control of factors that relatively mean the least for student learning, while they have the least control of the factors that matter most

for student learning (Leithwood et al 2010:671). Secondly, it is a paradox that while there is a relatively large amount of theories on school management, it seems this diversity is contrasted by empirical research, which to a far greater extent narrows what the conditions for "good" school management in practice are (see e.g Leithwood et al. 2008:27-28, Robinson 2009:39):

- The fact that almost all good school leaders have a virtually identical repertoire when it comes to exercising leadership in practice - not least through a strong focus on setting academic goals
- The fact that good school leaders adapt the exercise of leadership to the specific context in which it is exercised, and that this is conditional for organization and added resources
- The fact that good school management has a positive impact on the motivation of teachers, their morale and working conditions - where this occurs through participation in the planning and design of teaching and learning
- The fact that good school management means that teachers have relatively high autonomy - but where school leaders are actively involved in evaluation and feedback processes

In other words, it can be claimed that the school leader research knows what works, but has more difficulty explaining this in theory. The closest we seem to get is that "the closer educational leaders get to the core business of teaching and learning, the more likely they are to have a positive impact on students outcomes" (Robinson et al 2008:664). But while proximity to learning and teaching is important, the aforementioned insights do not bring us much closer to an understanding of how such proximity is achieved.

The latter point leads us from focusing on theory, knowledge and specific models, to a recognition that the field of practice is essential in understanding how leadership specifically can be conducted in schools. Maybe theory and knowledge cannot abstract everything? Perhaps it is the case that there exists a tacit knowledge about leadership and the exercise of leadership that must be practiced rather than theorized? Perhaps it is the case that the search for "the one best way", which was Frederick Taylor's big dream, is not useful when the context of school management and the challenges faced by school leaders in everyday life are very diverse? These are questions that not least have great relevance to how one is educated, developed and trained to become good school leader.

3.4 Leadership research' orientation towards practice

Leadership research' search for what is commonly called "best practices" leadership has a long history. Researchers in organization and leadership have for decades focused on the development and testing of management theory without particular emphasis on the implications for practice (Morhman & Lawler 2011). This more positivist leadership view has long dominated the research field, but many researchers as a result of the issues referred to above, acknowledged that if one theorizes about leadership, it also requires that you gain a better understanding of how leadership is exercised in practice - and that this practice-orientation is difficult to understand as the "one best way". Rather, it is the case that different leaders can use various means to achieve what they want, and the descriptions of how they do this must be open and inclusive. Alvesson and Spicer (2011) for example show that one can use very different metaphors to organize the thinking around the

complex and ambiguous phenomena such as leadership. Based on studies by Hatch et al. (2006) and Western (2008), many metaphors can be used about leadership, including leader as educator, architect, commander, chaplain and therapist - where these metaphors give completely different understandings of how the practice of leadership is exercised. Through our acknowledgement that the practice field is essential in understanding how good leadership is specifically exercised in schools, we use the metaphor of the leader as practitioner, bringing the focus over to so-called practice-based knowledge.

In recent decades, the so-called practice-based studies of learning and knowledge in organizations increased dramatically in scope (see e.g Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger 1998; Schatzki 2002; Nicolini et al. 2003; Gherardi 2009). This practice shift of events can be seen as a recognition of multiple forms of knowledge as "knowing how" (Ryle, 1949), tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1966, Nonaka, 1995), and knowledge-in-action (Schön, 1983). In relation to leadership, recognition of different forms of knowledge may also be a response to the difficulties of theoretical differentiation between various leadership tasks, and what Burgoyne and Reynold (1997) describe as the boundless character of leadership.

In his latest book "Managing" Mintzberg (2009) argues that leadership is neither a science nor a profession, but a practice that is learned through experience, and is rooted in the context where leadership takes place. Leadership as practice is therefore a matter of how science, craft and art work together, as illustrated in Figure 4.

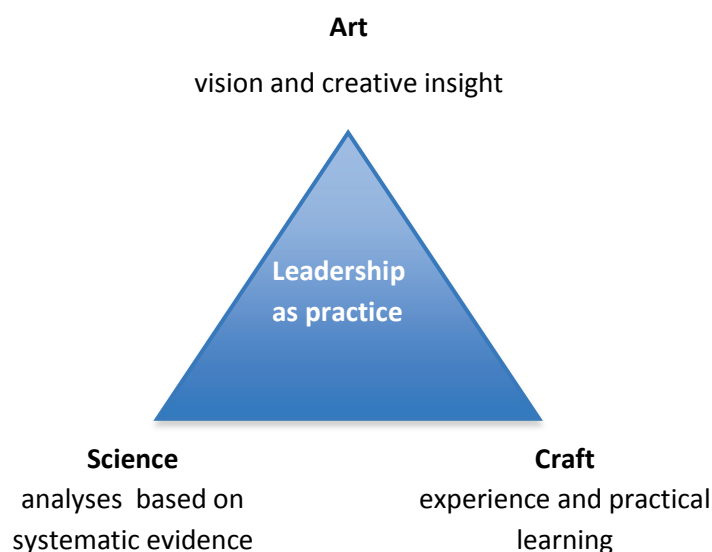


Figure 4 Leadership as Practice (Mintzberg 2009)

Based on a more practical approach to learning leadership, the most important thing is to understand that learning takes place in the leadership programs in connection to leadership in practice (Watson & Harris 1999; Hill 2003; Mintzberg 2004a, 2009). When it comes to developing leaders in programs, Mintzberg (2009: 228) advocated what he calls natural development where:

- Leaders cannot be created in a classroom
- Leadership is learned on the job, promoted by a range of experiences and challenges
- Development programs can help leaders make sense of their experiences, through reflecting on the personal and with colleagues
- To bring learning back to the organization should be part of this development, to influence the organization
- Leadership should also be about organizational development, where teams of leaders are expected to drive changes in the organization

Is this practice-orientation also a development tendency and key characteristic of the school leader education that is happening internationally?

4 School leader education in an international perspective

The purpose of this chapter is to point to the development tendencies one can see in international school leader education. Concrete examples are given on how many selected countries think when it comes to shaping school leader education. The chapter illustrates the practice shift in international school leader education, and sums up by describing central characteristics of the international school leader education as it concerns goal orientation, organization, content and forms of learning.

4.1 Development tendencies in international school leader education

In line with the school leader research' orientation towards practice, the school leader programs have more generally - whether they are full-time programs or workshop-based, centralized or decentralized, mandatory or voluntary - realized the fact that you have to establish a stronger link between theory and practice in the education (Bush & Glover 2003; Lumby et al. 2009).

Over time the leadership programs appear to generally have gone through a development from being very theoretically founded to becoming more operational and grounded in practice with a focus on creating development and change in the leader in relation to own organization based on experiential learning (Reynolds & Vince 2007). This reflects leadership research' moving from having a strong belief in finding a universal formula for leadership, to an understanding of leadership as a diverse, relational and complex phenomenon, independent of the situations and contexts (Lumby et al., 2009; Huber, 2010; Winkler 2010).

Whether these trends necessarily produce greater effects on students' learning, however, is another question. Studies conducted by Bush et al. (2006) have indicated that the staff at the schools that have had leaders who have completed a more practice-oriented leadership development, experienced a greater degree of participation in decision-making processes, increased focus on learning, and also changes in the organization of school life (see also Bush 2009).

At the same time this development shows that there also seems to be a relatively close relationship between changes in school management research, education in school management and the field of

practice. As such, the approach to practice (and experience) does not mean that the knowledge-based reflection around this is not emphasized. Rather, it seems to be that the current practice-orientation has created theoretical innovation and inspiration, and that there is a reciprocal relationship between theory development, development of leadership and the exercise of leadership in practice, as illustrated in Figure 5.



Figure 5 Interaction between leadership in practice, leadership research and leader education

It should however be emphasized that the relationship between research (theory), leadership development and the field of practice has not always been closely linked to international school leader education. As shown below, there is still a wide variation in the ways one seeks to connect these elements, and the emphasis they are given in various educational programs.

School management was for a long time based on a more or less expressed assumption that good teachers can become effective leaders without specific school leader development. While formal training in school management, with the exception of the United States, was for a long time a scarce commodity, it has in recent years recognized the need for specific preparation for school leaders (Bush & Jackson, 2002). As school leaders are given greater responsibility for ensuring the quality of schools, the development of school management has become one of the central concerns of policy in the field of education in a number of countries (Huber 2004, 2010).

Through a comparative study of the possibilities and models for school leader development, Huber (2004) points to that the apparent international consensus on the important role of school leaders and their development is not necessarily reflected in practice. In some countries, discussions about school leader development are mainly a theoretical exercise, while in other countries one has achieved significant development opportunities for school leaders. The study shows a wide variety of approaches and models for school leader development.

Huber's studies are based on research, analyses, contrasting, comparisons and discussions on programs for school leader development in 15 countries in Europe (Denmark, Sweden, England and Wales, France, the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, South-Tyrol/Italy), Asia (Singapore, Hong Kong / China), Oceania (New South Wales, Australia and New Zealand), and North America (Canada, the USA). The studies show a range of different varieties in the practical organization of school leader development. Many countries already have a long tradition of various school leader programs, while others are only on the starting line.

Despite the differences between cultural and institutional traditions in the various countries, some common tendencies, trends and patterns are identified (Huber 2004, 2010). While some tendencies and trends are about different levels of emphasis, Huber (2010) points to that other differences are significant. These development tendencies are listed in Table 2.

Table 2 Tendencies, trends and pattern in the development of school leaders (Huber 2010:228)

Tendencies, trends and patterns
Central organization, quality assurance in accordance with national standards and certification, and decentralized program provisions that meet local and regional needs
New forms of cooperation and partnerships where various actors (also more and more representatives from the profession) are involved in the development, implementation, supervision and evaluation of the programs
Increased combining of theoretical and practical aspects of school management, partly as a result of new forms of cooperation and partnerships
More focus on school leader development/- education as preparation and qualification in addition to more traditional induction programs
Extensive and comprehensive programs with more time for development and reflection, with a set of different activities (also time for individual studies, documentation of the process and internship) that are supported by a theoretical framework
From standardized programs of quality and development to programs with several different phases and modules at different stages in a career
From training for a specific role to more focus on personal development and professional learning with a focus on self-leadership and visions
From leaders as experts in administration to a shift towards leaders as experts in communication, cooperation and collegial learning
From administration and maintenance to leadership, change and continuous improvement
Connect leader development to qualification of team and development of capacity for leadership of schools
From knowledge acquisition to knowledge development or knowledge creation with the thought of becoming proactive in complex environments
Orientation towards experience-based learning and practical application through case and mutual reflections
Use of new learning methods in conjunction with the more traditional courses; interactive seminars, and real experiments and problem-based learning in the workplace
Adjustment of the program from more general and content-based goals, to more explicit goals and purposes that can be classified from their focus
New leadership paradigms; educational leadership, visionary leadership, transformational leadership
Orientation towards the school's core activity

In summary, this indicates a stronger state management and control together with needs for adjustment. We see a greater degree of professionalism based on increased recognition of school management and specific educational program for school leaders. Trends also suggest educational design that balances research and experience-based knowledge. An understanding of schools as organizations with distributed leadership, and recognition of the complexity and constant changes in the leadership of schools, is also the basis for the development tendencies.

It appears that it is in the countries with the longest practical experience with school management development and research on school management where the differences are greatest. Through a more theoretical analysis Huber (2004) finds that most programs had explicitly formulated goals, while others refer more to the vision, guidelines and frameworks. Some providers described their programs rather tautologically - qualifying school leaders for their leadership tasks, while others had a more pragmatic focus with regard to preparation for specific tasks. Others started with descriptions of a vision for the school or leadership in general or a more specific leadership concept - from which the objectives of the programs were derived. Some countries looked specifically into the educational, political and social situation in the country, while others emphasized the moral aspects of leadership in a broader sense.

Based on the analyses of the various program providers' focus, Huber (2004) differentiates the programs' goal orientation as follows:

- Function-oriented: the demands by the state government are considered
- Task-oriented: starting from a fairly pragmatic preparation for the various tasks of school management
- Competence-oriented: the goal of developing each participant's competence
- School development-oriented: focus on the development of the individual school
- Cognitive-oriented: to change or develop mental concepts of participants
- Vision-oriented: the construction of vision of leadership, a leadership concept, or a vision for the school
- Value-oriented: distinct orientation towards values

In his analysis Huber (2004) found that it is almost impossible to classify the range of programs in relation to a single criterion when most programs contained more of the aforementioned orientations. For example, the Canadian program providers combined task, competence- and value-orientation. Among the programs that were based on a specific leadership concept or image of the profession, Huber (2004) found providers both from the Netherlands, New Zealand and the United States. The orientation towards a specific leadership concept or a vision for the school was identified in Denmark, the USA and England. Leadership concepts are varied and could be described as educational, transformational, integrated or democratic leadership.

Huber (2004) argues that the programs of the study followed Rosenbusch's (1997) demand that the core tasks of the school be the starting point. This is based on the principle that the students' learning is the core task, and that the school itself must be a model for what it teaches and communicates. The question then becomes how the school organization must be designed to create

the best conditions so that the whole school can develop a meaningful educational environment. Accordingly, the school's primary goal is not just a means to guide school leaders' decisions, but also a criterion for reflective exploration in their thinking and actions (Huber 2010). A number of programs for school management development had also increasingly focused on the links between leadership development and school improvement. Leader competence is thus considered as one of several components in building leader capacity in schools.

Huber (2010) summarizes his recent study by showing two new mega trends for the education of school leaders:

1) Creation of key institutions that take care of training and development design, quality assurance and overall organization through the setting of standards and accreditation procedures for program providers.

2) Combination of macro-and micro-didactics in the implementation and execution of training and development programs, with a focus on creating learning settings with mutual interaction between theory and experience. The macro-didactics means the definition of the target group (s) and different temporal and structural conditions, and micro-didactics refers to curriculum content, teaching strategies, learning methods.

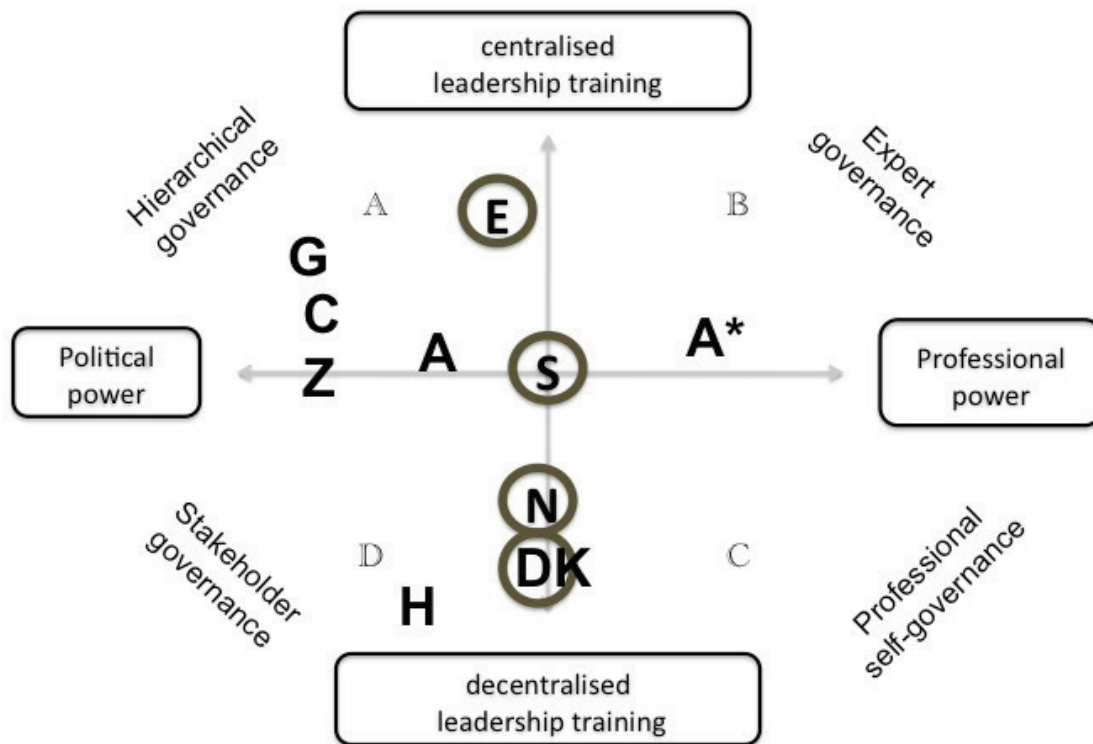
In a review of school management development in Europe in light of historical and socio-cultural contexts, Møller and Schratz (2008) argue that the dominant English language discourses on school management greatly influence development globally. A description of four cases (England, Scandinavia, German speaking countries and Eastern Europe) confirms that school management is still context-bound across countries in terms of how effective school management is defined, and how school management can best be developed and supported (cf. Huber 2010). It appears that, unlike the United States and Canada, professionalization, in terms of formal education in school management in university programs, has rarely been a component of school leaders' socialization in Europe. Møller and Schratz (2008) assume that future perspectives will be influenced by increased political control, while the formal qualification requirements and certification are heading towards increased professionalization.

4.2 School leader education in selected countries

The studies by Huber (2004, 2010) and Møller and Schratz (2008) show that there are variations in practice and organization of school leader development across the country, at the same time as one sees some common tendencies, trends and paradigm shifts that indicate increased consensus. In order to identify some similarities and differences between thinking about and organizing leadership education in Norway and international practices, we will look into the practice of three countries, England, Sweden and Denmark. England is chosen because it has long been the leading country in Europe regarding school leader development and research on school management. Sweden and Denmark are selected on the basis of relatively equal social traits - although different in terms of tradition and practice of school leader development.

Initially we will render a model that is presented in Møller and Schratz (2008), which is founded on Maritz's (2000:38) cognitive maps of four quadrants based on the two polarized axes. The model illustrates the political versus professional power over education along the horizontal axis, and the

central versus local control along the vertical axis. Countries are referred to with their national letter code. This is illustrated in Figure 6:



*Leadership Academy

Figure 6 Four models for the managing of school leader development (Møller & Schratz 2008)

Based on the figure we will focus on four countries: N = Norway, E = England, S = Sweden, DK = Denmark. For information about the other countries that are plotted in the figure we refer to Møller and Schratz (2008). The figure shows similarities in terms of the four countries' rank between political and professional power over leader development, but differences in the location on the centralized versus decentralized control axis.

Møller and Schratz (2008) emphasize that Scandinavia is particularly interesting based on the feature of the welfare state, party-based collaboration models, a long tradition of expressing democratic political ideals and democratic leadership in schools in combination with teachers' individual autonomy. It is argued that these conditions may have seemed like barriers against a strong hierarchical leadership model in Scandinavia (Sejerstad 1997, in Møller & Schratz 2008). Some general similarities when it comes to school management are: partly competition between schools, but not public ranking, and partly professional control (Møller & Schratz 2008). When it comes to school management, the Scandinavian countries have historically been characterized by being what Weick (1990) refers to as a loosely coupled system - in other words, a management system where different actors and decision levels operate relatively independently.

Looking at the tradition and practices of school leader training we can, in spite of relatively similar social traits, identify some differences between Sweden and Denmark. Sweden with its "Rektorsutbildning" (principal training) has a centralized organization, but with decentralized implementation. Although the state has been involved in school leader development since the 60's in Sweden, the nationally funded education programs have existed since around 1976, but have been modified several times. In 2010 a mandatory program that gives credits (10x3 at advanced level) was established at six universities. The program is a preparation for the school leader role, has a duration of 3 years (a basic course and a supplementary course), and at least 10 percent of the principal's working time is used on the education during this period.

The developing trend is increased government regulation and control of the leadership education, exemplified by a resource group of school leaders and an evaluation where the prerequisites of the participating leaders are also considered. Content-related changes in the program go from having previously focused on school development and school management, to a stronger focus on legal competence within education, exercising authority and goals, as well as goal management. As with most other European countries Sweden also uses standards and guidelines in their perspective on school leader development (Huber 2010).

Unlike Sweden, Denmark has no centrally organized school leader education that is formalized from a common framework, but there are a number of voluntary provisions. There is no certified education or particular level of government supported programs for school leaders. Universities, vocational colleges and private companies offer different types of courses for newly appointed leaders and general graduate educations for government employed leaders, and this is managed and supported by the municipalities. In Denmark, in 2006, a code of leadership was established and was later developed into a standard framework for school leaders' work, but this has so far not been implemented as part of an evaluation system (Møller & Schratz 2008). It also appears that the national authorities are planning a diploma course in leadership for school leaders, something that leans towards more centralized control. In their approach Denmark (like the Netherlands) differs entirely from other European countries with their entrepreneurial perspective on school leader development (Huber 2010).

England has been the leading country in Europe in school leader development, and over the last 40 years several ministries and institutions indicating a gradually stronger state control have increasingly been established. An example of increased state coordination is the establishment of the National Development Centre for School Management Training. In 1997, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) established the first national qualification requirements for aspiring leaders, the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), and the state decided that this program should not be connected to the university programs (Møller & Schratz 2008). The National College for School Management (NCSL) was formed in 2000 with the aim to provide a national focus on school leader development and empirical research.

NCSL has a high status in both the UK and internationally and is constantly expanding its focus and scope (Zhang & Bundrett 2011). It appears that NCSL has a "monopoly" on NPQH and covers 47 percent of the nation's school leaders (Møller & Schratz 2008). The program is provided by a number of regional training centers that combine assessment and training with a competence-based and standards-driven perspective (Huber, 2010). NCSL offers various programs for leaders in different phases; future leaders, newly appointed leaders, but also experienced leaders who want to brush up

their knowledge and update their skills (Møller & Schratz 2008). It is claimed that the national standards provide strong constraints on the type of school principals one desires (Møller & Schratz 2008) and that the models for transformational leadership and distributed leadership are used prescriptively to promote students' learning outcomes (Zhang & Brundrett 2011). The emphasis is on practice and learning through reflection, but the programs have largely been influenced by "best practices" thinking. This has recently been changed to "next practices" in order to be forward looking and promote innovation in schools (Møller & Schratz 2008).

If Huber's (2004) differentiation of goals according to the criteria is used, one can also identify differences. England has a clear orientation towards function through that the state's requirements are taken into account, but also to a great extent competence- and vision-oriented with national standards and vision of leadership. It is also argued that there is an element of what Huber (2004) describes as a cognitive orientation in relation to the increased focus on promoting the measurement of students' learning.

While Sweden was earlier more oriented towards school development, it can today be characterized as function-oriented with clear demands from the state authorities. In addition, the program bears the mark of being task- and competence-oriented with a focus on preparation for the various tasks of school management in combination with explicit competence goals. Denmark's code of leadership as a standard framework for school leaders' work suggests an orientation around vision in combination with the more traditional task orientation. With its focus on democratic and reflective school leader style rooted in a highly decentralized education system (Huber 2004), Denmark may well be said to have a clear value orientation. The increased state intervention is, however, in the direction of function orientation. Based on the perspective of entrepreneurship that is particular for Denmark, one can argue for an extension of Huber's list of goal orientations to also include practice orientation (defined here as an explicit focus on leadership as practice based on the interaction between science, craft, and art - cf. Mintzberg 2009).

The various countries' orientations around the school's core activities (Rosenbusch 1997) may also be used to compare countries. Denmark can also be said to have a focus on this in the sense of always starting with the core tasks of the school, and on the principle that the school itself must be a model of what it teaches and communicates. Conditions such as collective knowledge development and processes for organizational learning are key criteria if the programs for leader development/education can be described from this orientation.

4.3 The shift in practice in international (school) leader education

As shown above, leadership development in general - and school leader education in particular - have gone through a development that nowadays focuses on the integration of theory and practice as a mutual learning process. Thus leader development has in many ways ended up where it started: Pre-modern leader training consisted precisely of mainly practice-based methods such as "trial and error" and "on-the-job learning" and to transfer the accumulated skills and abilities from one generation to another (Raelin 2007). On the basis of this Raelin (2007) claimed that leadership was a-theoretically and without an established research base, until the scientific view of leadership left its mark on program design and structure of leader education. The perspective of the leader as a "practical scientist" (Kolb 1984) based on a technical rationality was long the dominant factor in

leader education / development - training in the second half of the twentieth century until Schön (1983) focused on that leadership cannot be reduced to techniques and tools, but is a craft rooted in practice ("reflective practitioner").

Although you may question how much of a difference there is in a practical scientist and a reflective practitioner, it seems these two concepts are central to the discussion of how research-based and experience-based knowledge is balanced in leadership development programs. If you have a view of the leader as a "practical scientist", privilege is given to theoretical knowledge. Through considering the leader as a "reflective practitioner", Schön (1983) seeks to reverse the privilege of theoretical knowledge, and argues that leaders learn leadership through long and varied experience through the analyses of practical problems. Leadership is thus not only about solving problems, but about knowing how the "problem establishment" influences the local definition of how the problems are to be solved. Therefore, the leaders' knowledge is intimately connected to experiences, expertise, local "know-how", and tacit knowledge (Schön 1983). When it comes to the design of leader programs, this perspective is said to be widespread through numerous forms of experience and action-based learning (Marsick & O'Neil 1999; Blackler & Kennedy 2004; Gosling & Mintzberg 2006; Raelin & Coghlan 2006; Cho & Egan 2010). Generally, we can identify a great interest to develop reflective practitioners (Schön 1983) and the ability of reflectivity (Cunliffe 2009).

In his critique of how typical programs within Master of Business and Administration (MBA) are designed and organized, Mintzberg (2004) advocated the importance of expanding the understanding of practice and experience as the starting point for leader training. Not least, Mintzberg (2009) argued that leaders use science as a knowledge source in the face of experiences for the development of practice. Practice orientation in other words means that science no longer has a place in the development of tomorrow's leaders. Other authors have advocated a similar extension of what the purpose of leadership development should be. In particular, one can see a shift from leadership development and - education to leadership learning (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009; Vince & Elkjær 2009). It is no longer that leadership development is considered point-by-point "training" but as a continuous process that must be rooted in the organization the leader is a part of, but also through relationships with external stakeholders (Mintzberg 2009).

The argument can best be described in that modern leader development has gone from a strong belief in knowledge acquisition and knowledge exercise, to a stronger emphasis on collective knowledge development where this takes place in the interaction between a leader and the organization he is in charge of. The distinction between knowledge acquisition and knowledge practice is inspired by Cook and Brown's (1999) discussion on "Epistemology of possession" versus "Epistemology of practice", while knowledge development is the summary of perspectives in leadership that goes in the direction of "Epistemology of social evolution" and based on theories about organizational learning (Argyris & Schön 1996) and "organizational sensemaking" (Weick 1995). These three perspectives on knowledge are reflected in the differing views on learning, and different views on the relationship between knowledge and practice. This is due to different perspectives on what a leader is, which has implications for how one thinks that the learning of leadership occurs. This is summarized in Table 3

Table 3 Three perspectives on knowledge and leader development (Lysø, 2010b)

Perspectives	Knowledge acquisition	Knowledge exercise	Knowledge development
What is learning?	Acquisition of knowledge through cognitive internalization	Reflection on practice through participation in cooperative practice	Development of practice through collective sensemaking and action processes
What is knowledge?	That which is known and can be made explicit, a thing that can be owned	That which is tacit and intuitive, an action that is performed	That which happens socially and through dialogue, locally constructed
What is the relationship between knowledge and practice?	New knowledge leads to better practice	New knowledge is based on reflexive practice	New local knowledge is practice-based and developed locally
What is a leader?	Practical scientist	Reflected practitioner	Actor for social change
How is leadership learned?	Acquire scientific knowledge of leadership to improve individual capacity	Reflection on practice and learning through experience with practical problem solving	Collective construction and solution of practical problems to develop new local knowledge
How to design activities for the learning of leadership?	Normative descriptions of how things should be done in practice based on predefined problems	Descriptions of practice through reflection based on existing problems that are discovered	Local, transformational change processes based on collectively constructed problem and solution
What are the potential results of the activities?	Replenishment of knowledge for later use to improve the organization	Increased awareness of practice knowledge and the ability to reflect	Organizational learning, local changes and innovation

If one looks at the table above in relation to the newest theories within school leader research then both transformational leadership, educational leadership and distributed leadership seem to be useful agents to stimulate the collective learning processes outlined above. Given that these theories are not always conceptualized equally well, we will therefore, to conclude, attempt - based on our literature review - to give a brief overview of central characteristics of the school leader education program internationally.

4.4 International school leader education - some central characteristics

We will summarize the key characteristics through saying something about goal orientation, organization, content and forms of learning. This section will be used as a structure for analyzing the National Leadership Education for School Principals in the next chapter.

The programs' **goal orientation** seems to vary from more or less explicit goals and intentions, and several programs have multiple orientations (Huber 2004). The tendency of state intervention creates a relatively strong functional orientation, while national standards indicate a competence orientation. There are also hints of vision-orientation through explicit leadership concepts or vision

for the school. A recent trend is the practice orientation and more focus on the development of the school as an organization in terms of the capacity for leadership to handle continuous change.

Regarding the **organization** of such programs, the trend seems to be towards more centralized programs - at least when it comes to establishing national standards for, recruitment to, and quality assurance of the programs. In terms of who offers such programs there appears to be two relevant solutions: either that at the national level one creates a separate body that has leader development as its purpose and also is a provider of programs for leader development, or that one has a decentralized organization of the leader education itself at accredited institutions of higher education. This does not mean however that they have sole responsibility for the education, as this is often organized so that partners with differing and often specialized competence participate in different areas of the leader development.

In relation to the **content** of leader development, research seems to show the importance that leaders learn to establish vision, objectives and expectations, that one masters to use resources strategically in relation to said vision and goals, that a lot of time is spent on planning, coordination and evaluation of teaching and student learning, that you work a lot with teachers' learning and competence development, and that the leader must contribute to create a good learning environment. The trend is also towards new leadership paradigms focusing on change and continuous improvement, development of the leader team and the capacity for leadership of schools, as well as a more explicit link to the school's core activity. At the same time it seems like a development trend that the content of a leader development program, and the forms of learning that are used, are eventually integrated more closely (see below).

If one looks at the **forms of learning** used in the programs, there seems to be a tendency for personal development and training of reflection on practical leadership exercise (role-play, dialogues, group tasks), often in combination with a specific project that participants are to implement in their own organizations (active and work-related learning). The latter feature can also be seen as an indicator of the "individualization" which seems to have a growing popularity - the leader development is based on the needs that the principal himself has. For the many programs that have newly appointed school leaders as the target group, the emphasis on practical forms of learning is seen as a way to prepare the leaders for the "culture shock" that they will face them in their new everyday lives.

5 The National Leadership Education for School Principals

So which similarities and differences are there between the thinking about and organizing of the leadership education in Norway and theory and practice internationally? This is made clear on the basis of the Directorate for Education and Training's own descriptions of the leadership education. To what degree does it take into consideration the situation and practice that Norwegian principals meet in their daily lives?

5.1 The basis and thinking from a national perspective.

White Paper No. 31 "Quality in Education" (2007-2008) shows that the Ministry of Education and Research wanted to create a school leader education for principals in lower and upper secondary schools. In connection with the development of the national education the Directorate shows that a broad process has been conducted in which all key stakeholders have been involved in defining the requirements and expectations of the education provision. The Directorate for Education and Training states that actors are united behind this leadership endeavor and that there is considerable agreement on the key issues surrounding school management: about the principal's role, about leadership functions and leadership challenges, the need for competence, working conditions etc.

The Directorate for Education and Training writes on its website that the work to describe competence requirements for school leaders has been knowledge-based, meaning that they are based on available research on school management. This is supplemented by knowledge of leadership and organization from other sectors more generally than from the education sector.

The national leader development provision shall:

- Be a response to the challenges schools face
- Be a provision to all newly appointed principals in elementary and junior high school education in Norway
- Be guided and goal-oriented

- Be needs-oriented
- Have a practical aim

The national provision shall be an addition to, not instead of, other provisions for school leaders for leader development/education. What the formal requirements for competence, in terms of recruitment, will be is still up to the school owners to decide. On the basis of this it seems that the leadership education has a clear function and competence-orientation, but also tends towards cognitive-orientation through a clear focus on attitudes.

5.1.1 Goal-orientation

When it concerns the goal of the education the Directorate for Education and Training noted "confidence in leadership" as the most important challenge. This means courage and strength to lead, personal and academic strength to take a stand, and to take the lead through a development of an identity as leader. The reason for this is that the education sector, compared to other sectors, has a weak tradition of leadership. The following view on leadership is the foundation for the leadership education, as the Directorate for Education and Training describes it on its website:

☒ Leadership means taking responsibility in order to achieve good results. A leader is also responsible that the results are obtained in a good way, that employees have a good and stimulating work environment, and that the unit is equipped to achieve good results in the future as well. A leader is by definition responsible for everything that happens within his/her own unit, and in that sense has an employer role. In addition to being responsible for their own unit, all leaders share responsibility for the organization as a whole. Having responsibility does not mean that the leader must do everything himself. Leadership is exercised primarily through others. The leader is delegating tasks and authority, but the responsibility cannot be delegated. This does not mean that employees are not liable. But it means that the leader can never be relieved of his responsibilities. Leadership is exercised by many, and not only by those in leadership positions performing leader tasks and responsible for leadership functions. But the formal responsibility for results is linked to specific individuals in formal leader positions.

In the context of education, it is important to both always have an individual perspective and an organizational perspective. Leader development is intended to help school leaders better exercise leadership in everyday life. The training will help the principals to take responsibility for both leadership and management, and to make academic leadership, personnel leadership and administration into an integrated whole.

A school is an organization of knowledge, with great demands of professionalism. Academic questions are given great attention at all levels. A principal's ability to lead learning processes will be crucial. In such a situation it is important to be both a good leader and a sufficiently skilled professional so that you can make your own professional assessments and rely on professionals internally and externally. It will often be the case that the teacher has greater academic competence than the principal in some areas. This requires, among other things, that the principal has sufficient legitimacy. This places demands on both leaders and employees.

It has been proven that it is often difficult to lead a knowledge organization than other types of organizations, in part because knowledge workers tend to be independent, powerful, and competent and primarily academically oriented. This places great demands on the leadership of a school.

The public sector is characterized by having a "complex bottom line", and leaders in the public sector work to achieve goals that can be contradictory. Leaders in the public sector must often balance the various considerations against each other. This is about the realization of politically defined goals, realization of legislation including implementation of the curriculum, consideration of users, openness and transparency in decision-making processes, predictability, academic judgment, equal treatment and cost effectiveness in using public funds. A leader in a public body is required to achieve results within the limits that the elected officials have ratified. Furthermore, it is necessary that the work be performed in accordance with laws and regulations and central norms, values and principles in our society.

Training must be closely connected to the school owner. It is the school's responsibility, both formally and actually, to make sure you always have enough good principals. This initiative from the state is to help provide school owners with resources, competence and help to ensure good and relevant competence development for school leaders. The state wants first and foremost to provide support and assistance to school owners. It will be critical that leader development does not undermine municipal ownership responsibilities, and that state and municipalities work well together.

To compare the Directorate for Education and Training's thoughts about the design of the National Leadership Education for School Principals with international practice, the education's organization, content and forms of learning are described in detail.

5.1.2 Organizing

The leadership education is not a mandatory requirement for school leaders, but the main target group is the newly appointed principals and other school leaders without formal leader education. The program is subject to central control in that the Directorate for Education and Training has established national standards through the competence model for school management, governing recruitment to, and quality assurance of the programs. The education is however not mandatory, neither for newly appointed nor experienced principals. The education itself is funded by the state, while school owners pay for travel and accommodation in connection with the workshops.

The development and implementation of the educational program in accordance with national standards is decentralized to six institutions of higher education, which have been providers of the program through competitive tenders. The providers consist of six responsible educational institutions that all have partners with specialized competence who participate in different areas of leader development. Table 4 below provides a list of providers and their partners from the higher education sector and the consultant-/competence environment.

Table 4 Providers of the leadership education 2010

Responsible institution of education	Partners from the university and university college sector	Partners from the consultant/competence environment
University of Oslo (UiO), Department of Teacher Education and School Research	Research and competence network for IT in education (ITU), Department of Education Research (UiO), Department of Political Science UiO)	Juridiske Kurs of Konferanser AS (consulting firm),
University of Bergen (UiB), The Faculty of Psychology	University and University College Nett West, Sogn and Fjordane University College, Bergen University College, Stord/Haugesund University College, Norwegian Teacher Academy.	PricewaterhouseCoopers AS
Norwegian Business School (BI),	Department of Social Economics (NTNU), University of Stockholm (Department of Education), Uppsala University (Centre for Educational Management)	Læringslaben AS, Ledelse og organisasjon og Vekst AS
The Administrative Research Institute (AFF) at the Norwegian School of Economics (NHH)		Læringslaben AS
University College of Oslo, Faculty of Education and International Studies (LUI)	University College of Hedmark (HH), University College of Akershus (HiAk), Karlstad University (KaU)	The IMTEC Foundation
Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU), Program for Teacher Education (PLU)	Department of Education (NTNU), University of Tromsø, University of Nordland, University Colleges of Nord-Trøndelag, Sør-Trøndelag and Volda	Bedriftskompetanse (Tromsø), FAVEO prosjektledelse AS (Trondheim)

5.1.3 Content

Content-wise the leadership education is built on a set of competence requirements for principals that the Directorate for Education and Training has developed together with the important actors in the sector and leading academic environments on leadership. The provisions are to encompass these competence requirements within a frame of 30 credits. The course has to be able to integrate with a master's education in school management if one so desires.

The competence requirements are describes in a competence model for school leaders in the document "Competence for a principal - expectations and requirements" (18.12.2008). This document was included in official documents for the tender advertisement for the National Leadership Education for School Principals, and is guiding for the content of the program. The model is shown in Figure 7.

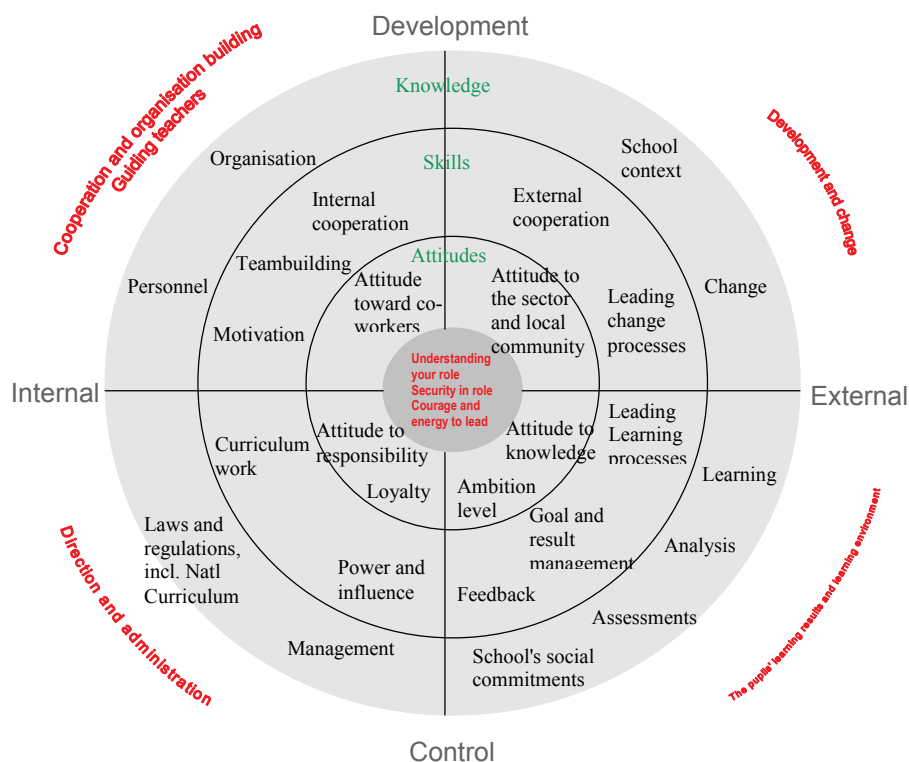


Figure 7 Competence model for school leaders (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2008)

The competence requirements are illustrated in the model above and divided into four main areas, which will all be covered in the education

- The students' learning results and learning environment
- Managing and administration
- Cooperation and organization building, supervision of personnel

- Development and change

For each of the four areas we have described the expectations and demands when it comes to the individual principal's knowledge (what the principal should know, be familiar with, and understand), skills (what a principal should be able to do, master) and attitudes (what a principal should stand for, identify with, commit to, signal). The categorization of competence such as knowledge, skills and attitudes is relatively traditional and is also the basis for the competence development strategy ("Competence for development" - Strategy for competence development in elementary and junior high school 2005-2008 UFD 20054)

The Directorate for Education and Training indicates that the model reflects a description of leadership functions or leadership tasks. This is based on the idea that there are certain basic leadership functions that must be addressed in all organizations, regardless of sector, size, character etc. The Directorate for Education and Training argues that most theories on leadership converge to something along the lines of the model presented. Such thinking leans towards a more general and universal understanding of leadership.

Further, the Directorate for Education and Training emphasizes that the competence requirements for a principal that are described are to be regarded as "ideal requirements". Consideration is made that no individual person can be good at all of this in practice, although it is described that the leader role contains all of this. Leadership is considered as a whole function and an integrative function, and leader responsibility is in principle all encompassing. The principal must ensure that everything is taken care of, but there will be more people who contribute to this safeguarding.

The competence areas that are connected to a fifth described as "confidence in the leader role" in the center of the model. This involves a focus on understanding your role and the courage and strength to lead, which may indicate a centering on leadership. At the same time the focus is on change and continuous improvement, development of the leader team and the capacity for leadership of the school as an organization, as well as a more explicit link to the school's core task - students' learning. The model can be said to interfere with the school's core tasks with organizational issues in a way that makes it somewhat unclear what the ends and means are.

5.1.4 Forms of learning

The Directorate for Education and Training has a clear definition of what it understands by leadership, and has described what kind of competence school leaders should have, but has also left it to the various providers to determine how these skills shall be developed by the program participants. It is emphasized, however, that school leaders need what we call leader education (the learning of knowledge), leader training (training of skills), and leader development (shaping of attitudes).

Based on the competence model the Directorate for Education and Training emphasizes that all leaders should adapt their leadership to their own personality, their own strengths and weaknesses, their own situation etc. It is not desirable to only have one image of an "ideal leader". When it comes to training and development, it appears that this must be adapted to local needs in the school and the individual leader's needs. Considerations should also be made that not everything can be developed because many situations concern personal qualities and characteristics. The leader

education should concentrate on what one can do something about. When it comes to forms of learning, there is special emphasis on including skills training in the education with the idea of creating awareness of their own leader role and the development of confidence in the exercise of leadership.

The Directorate for Education and Training says that key modes of work should be: seminars/workshops, lectures, literature studies, group work, supervision, training in various skills (including the use of case studies), work with a theoretical assignment and exam. In addition to skills training, training in academic writing for the development of analytical thinking and reflection level is also emphasized. The education facilitates forms of learning that makes sure that meaning is created from experience by reflecting on it individually and with colleagues (Mintzberg 2009). The focus of the exercise of leadership indicates an "Individualization" from the leader's own needs; while in the education there is a focus on practice-based learning through development projects based on the school's needs.

If the leadership education's content and forms of learning are seen in context, it can be considered a combination of the two lower dimensions of Mintzberg's (2009) model (Figure 4); leadership as a science (analyses based on systematic evidence) and as a craft (experience and practical learning).

Based on different views on knowledge and leader development (Table 3), the perspective on what a leader (principal) is could be described as both a "practical scientist" and "reflected practitioner" when the combining of theory and practice is emphasized. If one considers the leader as a "social agent for change" then Mintzberg's (2009) question on how leader development includes forms of learning that bring learning back to the organization, to create change and development, becomes relevant. Through analyzing the underlying perspectives on content and forms of learning in the leadership education there will be some indications of possible effects that can be expected from a school leaders' participation in the program.

5.2 The leadership education and international practice

Although there have existed various provisions for the development and education of school leaders in Norway, the National Leadership Education for School Principals is the first major endeavor in formal leader training for lower and upper secondary schools. Compared with the countries of Huber's (2004) international study, however, Norway is off to a slow start in organizing such training.

Several researchers have identified common tendencies and trends suggesting an increasing consensus in international practice (Huber, 2004; 2010) where English-speaking countries such as England influence global practice (Møller & Schratz, 2008). Huber (2004) points out that the countries with the longest experience in school leader development show development tendencies and trends indicating a paradigm shift. This is especially the case when it comes to content and forms of learning, which seem to be in line with the shift in practice in general within leadership and leader development.

Møller and Schratz's (2008) assumption that future perspectives on the development and education of school leaders will be influenced by increased political control and increased professionalization also applies to the Norwegian leadership education. Generally Norway follows international trends for school leader development. To identify similarities and differences between thinking about and

organizing leadership education in Norway, the education is compared with the three European countries as previously described. If we take Møller and Schratz's (2008) model for the management of school leader development (Figure 6) as a starting point, we see that both Norway, Sweden, Denmark and England balance at the center of the axis between political and professional power, while the centralized - decentralized axis find themselves at various levels.

Internationally, there is a general tendency for increased management and control through quality assurance and national standards. England has stronger centralized management than Sweden and Norway, which have a central organization with decentralized providers of school leader development programs with defined competence requirements. Denmark has a lesser degree of centralized management, but seems to evolve in the direction of more state management through the code of leadership and standard framework for school leaders' work. The tendencies of the various countries are briefly outlined in Table 5.

Table 5 The leadership education in Norway in relation to Sweden, Denmark, and England

	Goal orientation	Organization	Content and forms of learning
Norway	Function orientation, competence orientation, organization orientation	Central organization with decentralized program providers	Competence areas, focus on core tasks, connection of experience based and theoretical knowledge
Sweden	Function orientation, competence orientation, organization orientation	Central organization with decentralized program providers	Focus on competence in school law, goal and result management
Denmark	Task orientation, vision orientation, organization-orientation, to a larger degree of function orientation	Decentralized orientation, but with a tendency towards a more central organization	Focus on reflected practice, focus on core tasks, entrepreneur perspective
England	Function orientation, competence orientation, vision orientation	Strong central management and organization with a "monopoly" on national standards for qualification	Focus on "best practice" and "next practice, but also on reflection on experience, measurement of student results

In terms of content, Norway and Sweden have a somewhat different focus where Sweden in recent years has placed more emphasis on school law competence in addition to goal and result management. The education in Norway is, in addition to the more traditional focus on management and administration, more focused on change and development, organization, education and the school's core tasks. With the Norwegian program provision's focus on knowledge, skills and attitudes, it can be said that the content and the forms of learning that are used are relatively closely integrated. This indicates a didactic and educational thinking where goals, content and forms of

learning are seen in context. Set against the backdrop of the TALIS study that suggested that Norwegian schools had a generally poorly developed "learning culture", this then seems to be a very relevant emphasis. At the same time, one can also argue that the great responsibility and the considerable autonomy that Norwegian principals seem to have, might imply a greater emphasis on school law competence such as in Sweden. On the other hand, it can be argued that the emphasis on the school as an organization and development of the organization as one finds in Norway, can to a certain extent be said to compensate for this.

If one is to briefly attempt to summarize how the Norwegian leadership education can be described in terms of international trends and the everyday lives of Norwegian principals, the main impression is that the program is very modern and contemporary. The Norwegian program does not seem to be tied to a particular leadership theory, but seems to draw on the empirical research on what creates effective school leaders. Pragmatism rather than principles seem to govern the Norwegian thinking on the principal training. That one is modern and contemporary, may also have contributed to the Norwegian education having a too large and broad focus - there are very many themes, elements, and many areas of competence to be included, and to be acquired in a relatively short time. Whether this is actually the case cannot, however, be answered in this report.

The focus on practice also seems to be a very appropriate emphasis in the Norwegian program. An interesting contrast between being theoretically and conceptually "modern" on the one hand and relevant on the other could however be formulated here: Is the evidence-based knowledge that characterizes school leader research in general and the programs particularly relevant to the daily lives of the principals? We know that the practitioners of these various programs are aimed at representing a diversity of individuals, schools and school communities, from large and professional organizations to small schools where the principal is combining the roles of being the leader, the teacher and the janitor. How do you pick and disseminate knowledge that is important in relation to the daily lives of the participants in the programs? Does one solve the problems that participants are actually struggling with in daily life, or are providers more concerned with the dissemination of general and evidence-based knowledge as is reflected in modern research? These are also issues that cannot be answered in this report, but will be important to include in future evaluations.

For the evaluation, however, this means that you also have to view the leadership education in light of the ongoing research on school management, not to mention how school leaders' daily lives change and how the school develops during the evaluation period. This would therefore represent important contextual elements for evaluation in the coming years - and is as mentioned an important motive for the preparation of this report.

6 School leader education, exercise of leadership and result assessment - a complex interaction

In this report, we have attempted to place the Norwegian leadership education, organized by the Directorate for Education and Training, in a broader international context. Our ambition has been to establish an (broad strokes) overview of international research on school management, thereby creating a reference point in terms of what international practice regarding school leader education is, and how the Norwegian leadership education can be placed in relation to this.

In summary, we can say that the leadership education has characteristics that are fairly typical of the modern school leader education: stronger national management through the establishment of standards and stated goals, a content that emphasizes the school's core tasks and forms of learning that gives leeway for individual development and practical exercise of leadership.

The emphasis seems to be consistent with research in the field of school management - but without research seeming to create a considerable agreement about which theories are appropriate in relation to the specific findings. From this, one can argue that there almost exists a "market" for leader theories where the battle for attention may contribute to an excessive emphasis on the theory's impact potential - without sufficient empirical basis. There seems to be a growing recognition that much research and evaluation activities have been too concerned with too simple models and explanations on leadership and the exercise of leadership. As Huber & Muijs (2010:71) have recently pointed out, one can in the research see an:

"...overreliance on dualistic models in the field, which invite prescription through their identification of one set of practices as good and another set as bad ...Classification is a necessity for science to progress, but a more refined understanding of the contextual and situational leadership and management may be more illuminating and less prone to simplistic prescriptions".

In the evaluation of the Norwegian leadership education we have, as a consequence, decided to adopt a broader perspective on leadership and leadership development in which we, among other things, draw on the reflections on leadership that Henry Mintzberg (2004a, 2009) has conceptualized through his view on leadership as a mixture of art, craft and science. However, this leads to the fact that in relation to the leader theories that have been reviewed and the research that exists in the

field, the theoretical point of view Mintzberg has is not as clear-cut as that of other researchers in this field (see below).

6.1 Mintzberg - a multi-dimensional approach to leader development

In relation to the specific leader theories that exist, one can argue that Mintzberg's theoretical approach is very eclectic. It is difficult, not to mention impossible, to place Mintzberg in relation to existing theories on transactional leadership, transformational leadership, educational leadership or distributed leadership. Mintzberg's approach could possibly be seen as a kind of meta-perspective on leadership. However, it is not difficult to recognize elements from these theories in the basic assumptions that Mintzberg operates with (2009:222-223):

- Leaders are not effective, it is about interaction between person and environment
- Leaders are not effective in general
- Leadership is not a profession that can lead everything
- To assess leadership effectiveness, one must also consider the effectiveness of the unit or organization
- A leader can only be considered effective to the extent that he / she has helped to make the unit more effective
- Leadership effectiveness is always relative, not only in relation to the situation, but also in relation to other people in that same position
- Leadership effectiveness must be assessed for wider influence, beyond the unit and organization

In many ways the statements above fit well into modern leadership research precisely because they emphasize relationships, relativity and reflectivity (see Winkler 2010). The claims above clearly show that for Mintzberg leadership is about understanding and interacting with the environment, to assess the specific social situation that suggests that leadership is required, and that the focus of leadership should be on the effectiveness of the organization in general. The focus is on practice, and leadership for Mintzberg is about developing good judgment when (research-based) knowledge is exercised, and how visions and goals are established (Mintzberg, 2009: 9):

"It is time to recognize that managing is neither a science nor a profession, it is a practice, learned primarily through experience, and rooted in context."

From this we see that leader development must also have an organizational perspective attached to it; leader development is not about developing leaders, it is about developing organizations on the whole ("through communityship"). For those who evaluate leadership development programs, this means, in simple terms, that it is not enough to assess the effects of leader training in relation to the leaders alone. One should also consider whether the organizations developed as a result of this process.

This perspective without a doubt creates challenges in relation to an evaluation, and in the next section we outline how, in our evaluation, we have attempted to establish an overarching methodological platform that takes into account the abovementioned arguments.

6.2 Evaluation of the effects of the school leader education

Initially, there is reason to emphasize that there exist many special challenges for the evaluations which both have a formative and a summative purpose. The evaluation of the leadership education is a follow-up evaluation where the data collection has already started, and where the final evaluation report will be ready in 2014.

It is also a key objective of the evaluation that findings and analyses that are produced along the way can form the basis to change the program, the content and the focus. Thus it can be argued that the evaluation could easily become an integral part of the National Leadership Education for School Principals, and where this can both lead to methodological problems when it comes to identifying the effects of the program, but also that a (too) strong formative connection can help to construct a "school reality" that can exaggerate the importance of the program. The danger is that you might create unintentional perceptions of success without the Norwegian schools becoming better for it. At the same time it seems that some of the strength of the principal program is precisely that there is a willingness to open up to experiences and knowledge from various areas. Given the knowledge and experiences that the evaluation will eventually contribute with, it can also be argued that there are strong reasons to integrate this knowledge with the development of the program.

For researchers conducting the evaluation, a major challenge is to balance the ambition of developing theoretical knowledge of practical importance for the Directorate and school owners who are the customers, and program providers as suppliers of the principal program. At the same time, in the evaluation, one must also be open to that the participants' practical knowledge may have significant theoretical implications (Shotter 2009). This suggests that the evaluation should exercise methodological flexibility that enables the incorporation of new knowledge during the process (Patton 2011). This is attempted to be conducted in the evaluation by:

- The fact that a selection of the leaders are "followed home" to the schools they lead, and where one attempts to identify the processes of change in these schools over time
- That in the evaluation one does not only has a focus on the objectives (and the expected effects of the program) as outlined by the Directorate for Education and Training, but also seeks to uncover effects that go beyond these

Overall, there is no easy solution to directly measure the effect between investment in such measures and the unit's results. It is for example not possible to point to a simple causal relationship between school management and a better school. To the extent we have attempted to summarize research findings across studies shows that it is impossible to establish a consensus on the relationship between leadership and student learning. One can to some extent isolate individual factors and not least look at the correlation (see our review of the research in this field), but given that both "leadership", "school" and "student learning" are highly complex sizes, it is almost impossible to construct a model where we can keep track of all significant variables. This of course does not mean that evaluation is impossible.

The dominant tendencies in terms of evaluation methodology of the effects of this type of leadership program have often used Kirkpatrick's (1998) different levels of evaluation, which focuses on positive reactions, cognitive learning, behavioral change, and the results of the unit. In terms of research on educational programs within school management, a relatively large amount of research has looked at individual effects. However, it is relatively rare that there be systematic studies of how leader development programs in schools contribute to development on the unit/organizational level (however some exceptions exist, see e.g Biggs et al. 2006).

At the same time, we have seen in Chapter 3 that if one takes into account the daily lives of Norwegian school leaders, then perhaps the biggest challenge is that the cultural conditions for close dialogue about teaching and learning seems quite absent in the school. Even though it is important that the leaders themselves benefit from the leader training, this must be seen in relation to effects on both the organizational and system levels.

An important starting point for our evaluation is that a good leader education occurs where the leaders' ongoing learning and development are closely connected to the organization's learning processes and shared knowledge development. Based on the recognition that leaders can learn much from other leaders' experiences (Blackler & Kennedy 2004; Mintzberg 2004a, 2009), learning processes in leader education are here defined as common reflections and sharing of experiences. This can be conceptualized as constructing leader identity, creating meaning about practice, and to acquire leader language (Lysø 2010a). This is illustrated in Figure 8.

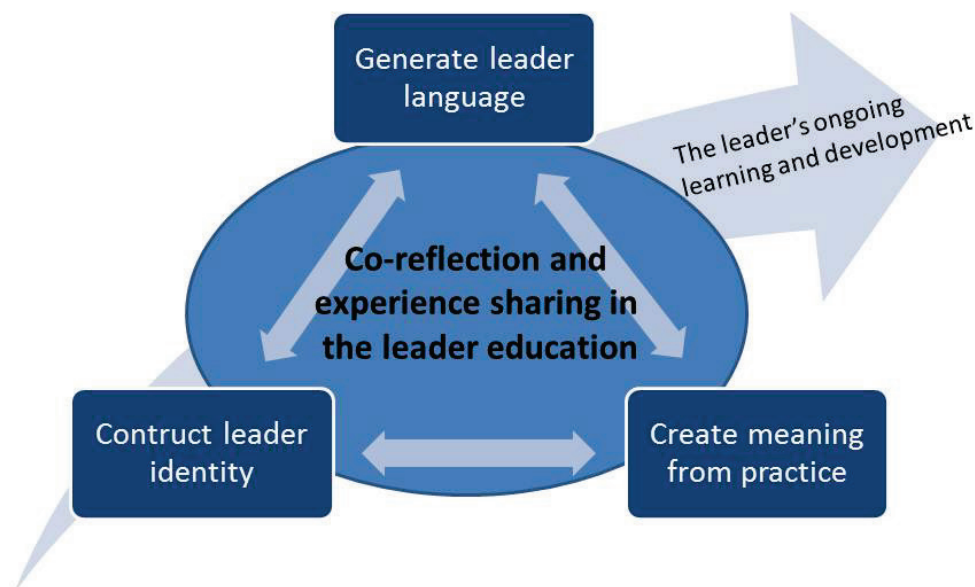


Figure 8 Co-reflection and experience sharing in the leader education (Lysø 2010a)

These are by far not new thoughts as such, but a combination of Schön's (1983) theory of becoming a reflected practitioner in conjunction with Wenger's (1998) social theory on learning as a construction of meaning and identity, with emphasis on "learning trajectories". Gosling and Mintzberg's (2006) focus on experience-based reflection in the development of leaders is also emphasized. In such a perspective theoretical knowledge of leadership will have a descriptive and discursive function in the learning- and reflection processes (Hay 2006; Cunliffe 2009)

The emphasis on practice that seems to be important to Mintzberg and the Norwegian leadership education must therefore be combined with a theoretical basis. Theoretical knowledge is used by leaders to understand and interpret practice, but is also part of developing a common leader language that is central to one's own (and common) identity development. The learning community of leaders who attend the program, the theoretical and experiential-based knowledge contribute to the development of a linguistic repertoire and creates meaning for practice.

This approach is supported by recent research on the effects of leader development/education that use more constructivist and interpretive perspectives (Hay 2006; Sturdy et al. 2006; Berglund et al. 2008; Nicholson & Carroll, 2009; Carroll & Levy, 2010; Zhang & Brundrett 2011). The aforementioned studies emphasize learning through reflection on experience, but also show that participation in leader development /education helps to develop leader identity and to master the general leader language. This is largely about understanding oneself as a leader in relation to one's surroundings, more than directly creating organizational change. The studies take into account the participants' perspectives and try to understand what impact leader development / education has on the leaders.

In light of recent research on the effects of leader development/education and the characteristics of leadership in recent leadership research, we believe it is useful to understand the effects of the school leader education as a transference of knowledge back to practice in the traditional sense. If we take Winkler's (2010) description of the characteristics of recent leadership research into consideration (leadership as process-oriented, and interactional, where the leader's subjective perception of the limits and possibilities of leadership is given considerable weight, that the surroundings of leadership are multifaceted, complex and dynamic, and where greater emphasis is placed on explaining why leaders act the way they do through descriptive models), there is a need for an approach that takes into account that program-effects cannot always be predefined. Not least, it can be argued that if the purpose of leader education is also to stimulate creativity and innovation in the Norwegian school, this must also mean that one must be open to other types of effects. As Watkins et al. (2011) state:

"As executive leadership development programs become more informal and experiential, traditional evaluation models of learning transference based on fixed objectives do not capture emerging program outcomes. What is needed is a more robust approach for increasingly complex environments that looks at open objectives and changes that have occurred impact both the individual and the organization".

Although the Directorate for Education and Training has specified concrete goals for the leadership education, we believe that an evaluation of this should also look for effects that go beyond what these goals imply. Precisely because the Norwegian leadership education has so strongly emphasized the forms of teaching and the interaction between participants and providers, it seems highly

relevant to be able to give an assessment of whether such a learning process can provide both the program provision and participants something extra - at different levels, see Figure 9

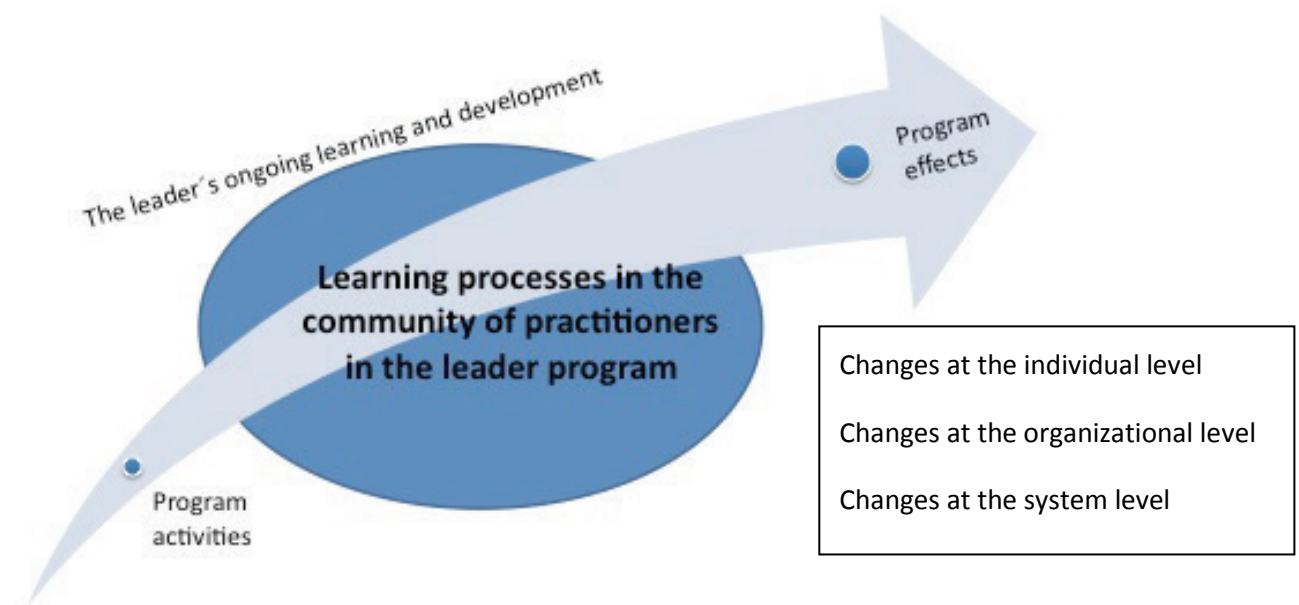


Figure 9 Leader education: Program effects as change at various levels (Lysø 2010a)

To highlight the unintended effects of the leader program on the organizational and system levels are, however, even more challenging than doing this on an individual level. The many and various forces of change that schools are exposed to will, not least of all, - besides the leadership education - create complications for a traditional measuring of effects. The fact that the evaluation will collect data at different times, and be able to compare schools, however, creates greater credibility. Meanwhile, the time frame for the evaluation is hardly adequately long to be able to identify more far-reaching effects. In addition to the effects that could be directly seen by comparing different time periods and schools, the evaluation will also take advantage of a tool that can help to say something about the potential for development that a given school may have.

The tool that will be applied here is a quantitative questionnaire that maps the climate for organizational learning in a given school (Watkins & Marsick 1999). This tool is developed based on research by Argyris and Schön (1996) which, over time, has documented that a good organizational learning culture helps to create good conditions for applying individual learning from leader programs in the organization.

The key dimensions that will be mapped through this tool are (see Watkins & Marsick 1999):

- (1) Openness across boundaries, including an emphasis on environmental scanning, collaboration, and competitor benchmarking;
- (2) Resilience or the adaptability of people and systems to respond to change;
- (3) Knowledge/expertise creation and sharing; and
- (4) A culture, systems and structures that capture learning and reward innovation.

The interesting thing about this perspective is that the dimensions one seeks to map are largely consistent with the attitudes, actions and structures that the school leader research also has indicated are important for creating good learning outcomes for students. In this way, the evaluation will hopefully also contribute to research on how the Norwegian school can be developed.

6.3 Summary

This report is the first of four reports from the follow-up evaluation of the National Leadership Education for School Principals conducted by NIFU and NTNU Social Research during the period 2010-2014. The report places the "Norwegian model for leadership education", organized by the Directorate for Education and Training, in an international context - both practically and theoretically. There is no consensus in the research about what promotes good school management, and there is a tendency that the theories are blurry concerning the means and the ends. This is also to some extent reflected in the model of competence requirements for school leaders as the basis for the leadership education. The leadership education follows development trends of modern school leader education, is not based on any particular theory, and draws on the empirical research on what promotes good school management.

The report forms the theoretical and analytical frame for future evaluation work, and points to some methodological challenges of measuring the effects of the leadership education. This approach provides the overall platform for the evaluation, where the challenge is to balance the ambition of developing theoretical knowledge of practical importance for the Directorate and school owners as customer of the leader education, and for those providers who are suppliers of the program. The research methods used in the various data collections and the analyses of these will be described more specifically in connection with the presentation of the findings in the subsequent reports.

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