Teaching principals: Educational restructuring and transformational leadership

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TEACHING PRINCIPALS: EDUCATIONAL RESTRUCTURING AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP


A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of

Master of Education
at the Faculty of Education, Edith Cowan University.

Date of Submission: 18th July, 1997
'It is always through transformation that a new semiotic is created in its own right.'

ABSTRACT

The restructuring of the Education Department of Western Australia (EDWA) since 1987 has seen the devolution and decentralisation of administrative responsibilities from the central education authority to schools. The onset of an era of educational restructuring has significantly changed the work of primary school principals. They have become responsible for the transformation of schools from a bureaucratic form of organisation to ones that are characterised by school based decision-making and management. The new form of organisation is intended to sustain a process of continuous school improvement. As well as managing change there has also been an expectation for principals to provide educational leadership. School decision-making and management appears to have intensified the work of the principal. The schools of EDWA offer a special opportunity to study the way in which principals who have increased responsibility for managing change and establishing school based decision-making and management have responded to the challenge of leadership. In the research literature theories of transformational leadership have been viewed by several researchers and perhaps education authorities as a desirable form of leadership. According to this view transformational leadership may enhance school based decision-making and management during a period of educational restructuring.

This study considers the case of the teaching principal in EDWA primary schools. The focus of the research is to establish the extent to which principals who are successful in managing school improvement during a period of educational restructuring are using transformational leadership practices. Leithwood’s (1994) synthesis of transformational leadership
practices is used to conceptualise the way in which principals attempt to do their work. The qualitative study used a sample of three teaching principals who were reported as being successful in managing change. The study focussed on whether teaching principals had been able to make use of opportunities to demonstrate any or all of the dimensions of transformational leadership.

This research comprised a pilot study followed by the main study. The participants in both studies were selected using a purposive sampling technique to maximise variation. The pilot study involved three teaching principals from country and city schools. Three teaching principals and two teachers from each of their schools in both city and country areas participated in the main study. In each study data were collected using a semi-structured interview schedule. Principals and teachers in the main study were asked the same questions as a means of obtaining data triangulation.

The findings of the study suggested that educational restructuring had compressed the amount of time in which teaching principals had to complete their educational leadership, administrative and teaching work. This resulted from an intensification of the principals' work. The findings indicated that many of the practices in Leithwood's (1994) synthesis of transformational leadership are being used and are relevant to the leadership of teaching principals during an era of restructuring. However, the study found some limitations of the model as it applied to the Western Australian context. These appeared in the dimension of developing a widely shared vision. It was found that in the Western Australian context the operationalisation of developing a widely shared vision in a school was obstructed due to a centralised focus on objectives and outcomes.
DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

(i) incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;

(ii) contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; or

(iii) contain any defamatory material.

Date...10/7/97........
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the contribution which the following people have made towards the completion of this study:

Dr. Michael Harvey, my supervisor, whose direction, advice and encouragement has kept me motivated and on task.

Jennifer Nash for her support and advice.

My children Liam and Zoe who have been very patient and understanding during the period of study.
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ACRONYMS

EDWA - Education Department of Western Australia
ESL - English as a Second Language
MIS - Management Information System
P&C - Parents' and Citizens' Association
PSP - Priority School Program
SSTUWA - State School Teachers' Union of Western Australia
CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview.

Since 1987 the Education Department of Western Australia (EDWA) has introduced a number of reforms through educational restructuring. The onset of this era of restructuring attempted to reverse 93 years of centralised control. The endeavour to devolve responsibility for decision-making and management to schools has changed the work of principals. During the period 1987 to 1992 EDWA principals have been responsible for managing the transformation of school organisation. Since 1993 educational restructuring has focussed on major changes to curriculum and pedagogy and to school accountability processes. Principals were expected to provide leadership for change and educational leadership during an era of system level restructuring. So far there have been few studies of how principals of restructured schools in EDWA are responding to the challenge of leadership.

This study will consider the case of the teaching principal in the government primary school in Western Australia. Leithwood (1994)
proposes that the use of transformational leadership by principals enhances school improvement outcomes.

The approaches to leadership will be examined in the study to determine whether the principals are using transformational leadership practices in their work.

1.1 Background to the Study.

Around 40 per cent of the 770 schools in the Western Australian government school system are administered by teaching principals. The schools range in size from just seven students enrolled at Mount Hampton primary school in the eastern wheatbelt to 296 students enrolled at Carlisle primary school in the inner city of Perth (Education Department of Western Australia, 1994a). These schools vary in location from Rawlinna in the south eastern part of Western Australia to Oombulgurri in the Kimberley. The number of teachers in these primary schools varies from a solitary teaching principal to up to 25 teaching staff including the principal and deputy principal.

Typically the schools with teaching principals have high staff turnover rates. In rural areas the teachers are usually inexperienced as they tend to be on their first appointment. Historically many of these schools have been used by aspiring educators as a short term appointment to enable career advancement in a more desirable appointment. Principals in these small schools, especially in the more remote areas are likely to be in their first position as a principal. This allows a large number of younger teaching principals to obtain a 'taste' of administration before moving on to larger
schools in more 'desirable' locations which have more staff and administrative responsibility.

On the career ladder these schools represent the lowest entry point to administrative positions. Administrative responsibilities in these small schools were very explicit and narrow due to the majority of the strategic decisions regarding resourcing and staffing being made by the central education office. Principals were given minimal responsibility for the administration of school funds as these were invariably tied into a formula relating to student numbers and specific pre-determined budget cost centres. It was not unusual for a small primary school to receive up to ten individual cheques at the commencement of a school year all designated for centrally determined cost centres, and all emanating from the one finance section in the EDWA's central office. Staffing was rigidly allotted according to a formula also based on student enrolment numbers. As a result of this formula driven resourcing principals had little flexibility in these areas of their administrative roles.

The first signs of the system level attempt to move toward greater school based decision-making and management in the Western Australian State education system commenced in 1979. Directors and Superintendents of education were each responsible for one of EDWA's 13 regions. They were instructed by a policy statement from the central office to 'bring educational decision making closer to the point of application in schools and to allow principals, teachers and the general community to gain a closer and more immediate contact with educational decision making at the local level' (Ministerial Independent Assessment Group on Devolution, 1994, p. 5). There was no co-ordinated approach across the state and it appeared that...
each region was left to its own devices with no apparent targets and accountability.

The first phase of restructuring occurred during the 1980s when a series of reports were released which initiated and shaped the face of education in Western Australia for the next decade. The first of these was the Beazley report (Committee of Inquiry into Education in Western Australia, 1984). This was the first report to recommend community involvement and participation in the management of schools. The report detailed the difference between the terms 'involvement' and 'participation' and set the scene for a first phase of devolution of responsibility from the central education office to the school site by recommending that school decision-making groups be formed. The concept of 'accountability' was applied to principals and teachers. The formation of these groups would make schools 'more accountable to the communities they serve' (p. 263).

In 1986 the state government released a White Paper, 'Managing Change in the Public Sector: A Statement of the Government's Position'. The White Paper outlined a number of reforms along corporate management lines which the government believed were necessary to achieve greater efficiency and effectiveness in the public sector including EDWA. The impact of the White Paper was immediate and far reaching. During 1987 the Minister for Education released the report 'Better Schools in Western Australia: A Programme for Improvement.' This report outlined the restructuring of the whole government education system through a process of devolution. A new corporatist form of administration and school organisation complete with timelines was presented. EDWA became the Ministry of Education and a corporate management style executive was implemented. The report detailed new decentralised responsibilities for principals in financial
management, school planning, and school decision-making. Two major emphases emerged from this report; reporting school performance to parents, and self-determining and self-managing schools which are still recurrent themes in the mid 1990s.

The advent of the 'Better Schools' reforms by the Ministry of Education had additional implications for teaching principals. Firstly they were faced with longer periods of employment in small schools. This was mainly due to the population of Western Australia stabilising during the 1980s which resulted in fewer schools being built, especially in the metropolitan area of Perth. The sudden drop in the number of new schools impacted upon the total of promotional opportunities which were available for principals, especially those serving in isolated country towns who were expecting to receive the historically accelerated promotion to larger schools in more desirable locations. The decrease in mobility between schools resulted in principals spending more time than before in the role of a teaching principal.

Secondly, the onset of school based decision-making and management transformed the nature of the work of the school administrator. A feature of this phase for principals has been the significant intensification of work and resultant need for changed leadership practices. The advent of the school based decision-making and management form of school brought with it many new responsibilities with which principals had little or no previous experience. These included managing the financial resources of the school, human resource management and development, corporate planning processes and policy development which were previously the responsibility of the central authority. Principals were instructed to commence new initiatives in being more responsive to the general school community, have detailed strategic plans, and develop more democratic decision-making
processes involving greater participation of parents and teachers in the school organisation. Further to this principals were made aware that the accountability process would be more exacting for them not only centrally but from their school community as well, and there were major curriculum changes from syllabus driven to outcome based frameworks.

During 1990 all principals' positions were broadbanded into four levels and it appeared that teaching principals, especially those of schools with less than 100 enrolled students (Level 3) were disadvantaged to the greatest degree in the restructuring. Previous to this principals had their own promotional and salary scale. With the introduction of broadbanding principals of Level 3 schools found themselves on the same salary scale as deputy principals and senior assistants (senior teachers). This caused much resentment for two major reasons. The first was that most principals had completed terms of country service often in isolated communities whereas many of the deputy principals and the majority of the senior assistants had not. EDWA was promoting a line management philosophy in its organisational structure and teaching principals felt that as line managers they should not have been broadbanded 'down' to a level with deputy principals and senior assistants who had no such line management responsibility.

The second reason was that the principals now had to compete for promotion with a much larger pool of applicants in the Level 3 category. Reduced opportunities for career progression was further complicated when all promotions were changed to merit based appointments. No longer could principals 'wait their turn' where they were promoted on seniority. They had to compete for a very small number of positions often in undesirable locations.
The main focus of the 'Better Schools' (1987) report was directed towards devolving and decentralising central office responsibilities to schools. A Review of Education and Training (Vickery, 1993) was commissioned by the Minister for Education in 1993. This review was critical of the fact that the recent restructuring of education had failed to highlight student learning. In the review Vickery (1993) emphasised that 'all reforms must enhance the quality of teaching and the learning outcomes of students' (p. 27). The review was the first to link improving student learning outcomes with educational restructuring in Western Australia.

In late 1993 the Minister for Education released the discussion document 'Devolution: The Next Phase.' This document marked the second phase of restructuring in the Western Australian government school system and was significant in that it outlined the link between the process of devolution and improvement in student learning. Black (1993) the Chief Executive Officer of the Ministry of Education was of a view that:

"devolution of authority to schools is a system's way of improving the learning of students. Schools can improve the performance of their students if they have the flexibility and authority to do so. Following the publication of the Better Schools report, many school staff were unconvinced of the need to embark on a program of devolution. The proposals for change were perceived as relating to management concerns rather than a desire to improve the quality of education that students were receiving. Consequently, it is important that in considering next steps in devolution we are absolutely clear about how such changes will enhance student learning." (p. 1)

It is clear however that the Ministry of Education used devolution as a generic term to also include decentralisation as it detailed how schools
would determine the expenditure of their school grant, introduce performance management procedures and determine staffing profiles amongst similar measures. The document also made clear the increased accountability for schools both centrally and to their local communities, and the emphasis on line management from the classroom teacher through to the Minister for Education.

A draft version of 'Devolution: The Next Phase' (EDWA, 1993) was leaked to the media early in 1993 and the State School Teachers' Union of Western Australia called on its members to strike as a result of the secrecy of the document and its content. The strike was averted when the discussion document was released.

As a result of strong reaction from teachers and their Union the Minister for Education established a committee to examine the implementation of further devolution in the government school system. The Independent Assessment Group on Devolution was formed under the Chair of Dr. Nathan Hoffman. Amongst its terms of reference were: promoting community discussion on devolution in education, reporting on the existing state of devolution in government schools and making recommendations on future developments in devolution.

The Hoffman (1995) report in effect became the policy framework for the restructuring of EDWA schools. The 25 recommendations of the report provoked an outcry from teachers and principals throughout the government school system. The more contentious recommendations included transfer by merit of principals, local selection of principals, a performance management system for both teachers and principals, principals to determine staffing profiles for their schools, and increased
powers for school decision-making groups in the areas of staff selection and school operations.

In 1995 the Western Australian government commenced the introduction of workplace reforms which were outlined in the documents 'Devolution: The Next Phase' and the 'Hoffman Report' to enhance more flexible patterns of work organisation in schools. Principals commenced negotiating a Workplace Agreement with their employers and the State government which may radically change the nature of the work they are now doing. In an effort to devolve more responsibility to schools EDWA linked a series of pay increases with a trade-off for increased responsibilities and workload for principals. Amongst many of the reforms proposed, principals may be required to undertake selection of school-based staff, accept limited tenure appointments, and lose up to three weeks of their annual leave entitlements. In proposing this Workplace Agreement to principals and in line with current policies of redesigning patterns of work organisation to improve efficiency and effectiveness the EDWA (1995a) pay offer to school administrators stated:

> Essential to this commitment is the Department's obligation to evaluate constantly its performance and undertake whatever changes are necessary to maintain a sound and efficient system and to establish initiatives that take into account the changing needs of students and the changing nature of society. (p. 1)

As a result of the government's reform agenda unprecedented industrial action rocked the education system during 1995 as the State School Teachers' Union and Administrators' Associations negotiated on behalf of their members significant salary increases. Administrators were offered up
to a 20 per cent increase in salary for a collective workplace agreement and
teachers were offered a 15 per cent increase through an enterprise bargaining
agreement. The EDWA (1995a) Collective Workplace Agreement for school
administrators clearly indicated that a salary increase was dependent on
implementing further devolved practices in schools. One of the objectives
of the Agreement stated:

The government school system of the future will provide schools with
more autonomy to manage their own affairs; will enable schools to focus
on meeting the needs of their particular students and communities; and
will encourage stronger commitment by staff to their school. (p. 17)

A major part of the offer to both principals and teachers concerned the
implementation of many of the recommendations of the Hoffman Report
(1995). Of note was that the majority of these were decentralised rather than
devolved practices. Principals in particular had a torrid time during the
industrial action which included rolling strikes, docking of salaries and the
serving of disciplinary notices to staff who refused to work. Many had a staff
who were divided on several issues. They had to spend a considerable time
as arbitrators and conciliators when industrial action hit their schools.

Although EDWA had predominantly utilised a corporate managerialist
form of school based decision-making and management it is apparent that
from mid 1994 there were signs that a market view approach was beginning
to emerge. The EDWA 1995 - 1997 Strategic Plan bore the logo of 'Customer
Focus' on the front cover which drew much criticism from schools state
wide because the term was so foreign in the education system. EDWA
(1994b) stated that 'the Customer Focus logo signals to the community the
Education Department's commitment to a service culture that focuses on
what it will do for its customers' (p. 1). It was notable that a much less
significant version of the logo was placed in a very inconspicuous place on
the back cover of the EDWA 1996 - 1998 Strategic Plan.

In mid 1995 EDWA strengthened its market view approach to devolution by
forming a Customer Service Project. Amongst the principles of 'good
service' the project was advertising were 'choice and consultation' and
'value for money' which seem to be symptomatic of a move in this
direction.

The restructuring initiatives of devolution and decentralisation were thrust
onto teaching principals with little support provided during the transition
from the employing authority. Eight years after the onset of 'Better Schools'
the rate of change and increased responsibility has moved into a phase
where the focus is quality assurance. This development has been clearly
signalled by EDWA in the workplace agreement pay offer to principals, and
the Ministerial Independent Assessment Group on Devolution (Hoffman
Report, 1994).

A major concern is that the teaching principal has had to deal with these
initiatives which have impacted on their work and leadership practices in
many different ways. It has been perceived by many principals that there has
been little rational planning for the implementation of many of the
initiatives by EDWA. Also there was a view that EDWA showed little
concern regarding the impact the initiatives were having on the teaching
principal's time and workload. Until recently teaching principals have been
asked by their employer to implement change at the same rate as their non-
teaching colleagues with little appropriate professional development and
support in the important areas of managing change and leadership. EDWA
is currently negotiating with principals to complete their professional development obligations out of school hours in their own time. This is likely to exacerbate the situation even more as principals are likely to need increased and more specialised professional development as the nature of their work changes and intensifies.

Educational restructuring depends upon the capacity of the principal to lead and manage profound school level change. The principal has the responsibility to initiate, cultivate, develop and change the school from a bureaucratic to a corporative managerialist mode of organisation. In leadership theory Leithwood's (1992) perspective of transformational leadership has appeal. Leithwood suggests that the use of transformational leadership gives rise to an appropriate range of practice which will enhance school administration during educational restructuring. The range of practice includes developing and maintaining a collaborative school culture, fostering teacher development and improving group problem-solving.

Transformational leadership theory was first proposed as a serious leadership option by Burns (1978) and further extended by Bass (1985). Both considered the theory in non-educational contexts. It has only recently been considered in educational contexts and the basis of the research has mainly been limited to North America. The Quality Assurance Directorate of EDWA (1994d) listed in a school review framework that transformational leadership may be a practice that one would expect to observe in schools undergoing educational restructuring.
1.2 Purpose of the Study.

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether a selected group of EDWA teaching principals who had demonstrated the capacity to lead educational restructuring at the school level were using some or all of the transformational leadership practices (see Leithwood, 1994). Specifically the study attempts to assess the extent to which the principals make use of the opportunities to demonstrate transformational leadership in the pursuit of school improvement outcomes. The study explores the six dimensions of transformational leadership as proposed by Leithwood (1994) and whether the teaching principals are using each of the dimensions during a period of educational restructuring.

EDWA has devolved many responsibilities such as financial management, strategic planning, performance management of staff, demonstrating accountability, and policy formulation to the school level since the introduction of 'Better Schools' in 1987. A changing relationship has developed between the teaching principals' three major areas of responsibility due to educational restructuring. Teaching principals are now using school based decision-making and management as new form of administration. They are also providing leadership for school level change as well as educational leadership, and they are teaching. The balance and form of the three roles appears to be unclear due to the intensification of the principals' work. The restructuring of the education system has placed more importance on leadership skills such as goal setting, facilitation of learning programs and decision-making structures, collaboration, delegation, team management and problem-solving. Numerous studies have examined this changing role for principals and the resulting implications for their work.

The use of transformational leadership practices is viewed as an effective style of leadership during restructuring. Leithwood (1992) contends that by providing incentives for teachers to attempt improvement of their practice the management of change will be made less difficult. He maintains that transformational leaders should have three main goals, the first of which is helping staff members to develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; the second is fostering teacher development, and the third is helping them to solve problems together more effectively.

Transformational leadership involves empowering other staff in the organisation to become leaders. Fullan (1992a) and Hargreaves (1994a) also support teacher participation in collaborative leadership during restructuring because it involves the whole staff working together to press for and support improvements.

This study will describe how teaching principals who have been identified as highly competent administrators and successful in obtaining school improvement outcomes have made use of opportunities to develop transformational leadership practice and theory. The Leithwood (1994) synthesis of transformational leadership will enable identification of the various dimensions of transformational leadership that may be used by teaching principals in EDWA primary schools.

Teaching principals have often been neglected in leadership studies although they make up a significant proportion of all primary school principals (approximately 66 per cent in the Western Australian government school system). If transformational leadership is a key element
in the management of change during an era of educational restructuring then this study has potential to show how teaching principals can demonstrate this practice.

1.3 Statement of the Research Problem.

Since the advent of restructuring in the State education systems it appears that the work of principals has intensified (see Bennett, 1994; Duignan, 1987; Evetts, 1994; Nadebaum, 1991). Researchers with a conservative ideology have identified administration and leadership as the two major roles for principals about which administrators define their work (see Caldwell, 1993; Dimmock & Hattie, 1994; Duignan, 1987). There is a division among the researchers as to which of these roles has become more important than the other as a result of educational restructuring. One view is that devolution and decentralisation has greatly expanded the administrative demands on the principal (see Knight, 1990; MacPherson, 1991; Sullivan, 1994; Watkins, 1992). These authors recognise 'managerialism' as being the new form of administrative practice. Another view is that the reforms have impacted most on the educational leadership role of the principal (see Leithwood, 1992; Murphy, 1991; Murphy & Hallinger, 1992). These authors suggest that principals have had to redesign their work away from transactional to that of transformational leadership. This change in leadership is due to accountability for new administrative and organisational arrangements required by educational restructuring. A feature of the new accountability processes adopted by EDWA focuses on participatory decision-making in the areas of planning goals and priorities involving teachers and parents. Transformational leadership practices have potential to empower teachers in these processes.
In addition to administration and leadership teaching principals have an additional role, that of pedagogy. This additional role further intensifies their work practices as they do not usually have any administrative support such as deputy principals to assist them with their work. Research concerning the work of the teaching principal during educational restructuring has been minimal. There has been no indication as to whether teaching principals have redesigned their work or are in fact implementing transformational leadership practices. The literature has tended to acknowledge the increased workload of the teaching principal (see Bell & Morrison, 1988; Dean, 1988; Dunning, 1993). There is a need to find out how teaching principals are endeavouring to provide leadership during an era of restructuring as they also manage increased demands for administration.

There appears to be a gap in the existing body of knowledge concerning the extent to which teaching principals are able to utilise transformational leadership practices in an era of continuing devolution and decentralisation, and whether the responsibility of an extra role, that of teaching, impedes or actually increases the possibilities of utilising this form of leadership.

1.4 The Research Questions.

The study is of a qualitative nature. Little is known about teaching principals and how they provide leadership. There is a need for research which explores the leadership practice of teaching principals during an era of educational restructuring. This study will consider a small number of teaching principals to find out whether they are using the six dimensions of transformational leadership as proposed by Leithwood (1994). The major
research questions will centre upon assessing the extent to which teaching principals in Western Australian government primary schools during an era of educational restructuring have developed leadership practices which include the various dimensions of transformational leadership. Specifically the study will focus upon the following questions:

(i) To what extent are teaching principals who are successful in managing school improvement practising each of the dimensions of transformational leadership?

(ii) What phenomena are impinging upon the capacity of the teaching principals to practise effective transformational leadership?

(iii) What phenomena are enhancing the capacity of the teaching principals to practise effective transformational leadership?

1.5 Significance of the Study.

The theory of transformational leadership was first developed by Burns (1978) who examined existing notions of charismatic and heroic styles of leadership particularly in military settings. Bass (1985) further developed the theory and applied it to a management context. Bass’ theory differed from Burns in regard to the motivation of the followers. Bass placed
enhancement of organisational needs before that of the individual and was therefore more concerned with developing quality management.

The study of transformational leadership practices in educational settings has only a short history. The main studies have occurred in North America. Leithwood (1993) who has reworked Bass was only able to identify 27 empirical and case studies other than his own and reported that of these 18 had occurred in the previous five years. The bulk of the studies were unpublished dissertations which explored Bass' (1985) formulation of transformational leadership rather than his own.

In arguing the case for more directed research Leithwood (1993) states:

The nature of change is a non-trivial variable in leadership research, whereas it often seems to be ignored or treated simply as background. Different types of change call for different types of leadership, or at least different behavioral expressions of the same type of leadership. What is needed are greater efforts to develop classifications of educational change that are meaningfully related to variations in the effectiveness of different models or perspectives on school leadership. (p. 41)

Lincoln (1989) also supports further research and argues that there is a need for more case studies and ethnographies in transformational leadership so that the critical empowerment issues of transformational leadership can be examined more closely.

This study assesses the linkage of the use of transformational leadership by teaching principals in primary schools to administration practice during a period of educational restructuring. So far the focus of studies of this type
have centred upon the leadership of non-teaching principals, including Leithwood's (1993) study. As the teaching principal has the added responsibility of pedagogy there may be factors which impinge upon or even enhance the ability of these principals in utilising transformational leadership practices. There appears to be minimal knowledge as to whether teaching principals are utilising such practices in their work and whether transformational leadership is an effective form of educational leadership for teaching principals. The study provides information which is relevant to teaching principals in other education systems who are undergoing administrative decentralisation in relation to their work practices. It may well provide clearer guidelines as to the leadership training requirements of teaching principals as the process of devolution and decentralisation continues to evolve.

This study attempts to contribute to knowledge of whether teaching principals are utilising transformational leadership practices in an era of educational restructuring. Currently there is little evidence of how teaching principals are practising educational leadership. Although transformational leadership is a fashionable theoretical perspective, little is known about if or how this form of leadership is being used in small schools by teaching principals, especially in the Australian context.

1.6 The Structure of the Thesis.

Chapter two provides a review of the literature in the areas of educational restructuring, the changing principalship, and transformational leadership. The conceptual framework and methodology of the pilot and main studies is discussed in chapter three. The data analysis of the first research question
is presented in chapter four. Chapters five and six present the data analysis of the second and third research questions respectively. The three data analysis chapters specifically examine the six dimensions of transformational leadership as proposed by Leithwood (1994). Chapter seven presents a discussion of the findings in relation to the research questions and chapter eight examines the implications of the study and provides suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER 2.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction.

This chapter reviews the literature which is relevant to the three areas covered by this study. The first section investigates the nature of educational restructuring particularly the areas of devolution and decentralisation. A number of examples from the various education systems are used to illustrate the different forms of devolution and decentralisation. The second section addresses how the principalship has changed since 1970. The changing economic and industrial factors in Australia, particularly in Western Australia since 1987 when the educational restructuring agenda was implemented are discussed. The third section examines theories of transformational leadership, the origins of the concept in the military, political and business spheres through to the development of the theory in educational organisations.

2.1 Educational Restructuring.

Educational restructuring in many education systems has been occurring on an international scale for over two decades. Since the early 1980s there has been an international trend toward school based decision-making and management. Countries are reforming their education systems in a number
of ways and for different reasons. Dale and Ozga (1993) suggest that extensive reforms to the education system in New Zealand during the 1980s were connected with 'a radical reform of state-market relations and public administration' (p. 85). Regional structures and support services to schools have been dismantled. In England and Wales administrative control of schools has been devolved to School Boards while policy decisions have been recentralised. In the United States the state governments have recentralised through restructuring by taking away power from the school districts.

In Australia, particularly in Victoria and Western Australia reform has been the result of political and economic ideologies rather than social insistence. Piper (1992) with reference to the Australian context contends that 'the impetus for change has been political and managerial rather than educational, and that educators have been largely by-passed in the decision-making process' (p. 139). Dudley and Vidovich (1995) who investigated Commonwealth schools' policy concur with this view and suggest that the principles of economic rationalism have been the driving force behind the educational policy changes and restructuring agendas. In support of Piper’s view they suggest that:

*The legitimate 'key players' since 1987 have been increasingly restricted to government (both Commonwealth and State), business and industry, and the trade union movement. In addition, education policy seemed to be under the tight control of the minister and narrowly focussed on the 'national economic objectives' of efficiency, productivity and enhanced international competitiveness. (p. 187)*
Seddon (1994a) is also critical of the rationale for the reform initiatives in Australia and is of the view that:

*Australia is unusual in adopting a narrow, one-eyed, economic focus in educational reform. In this approach the problem of education is framed as a simple and spurious polarity of state versus market. The problem is defined as too much state. And 'the' solution put up is decentralisation.*

(p. 3)

Seddon criticises the way that the educational reforms in Australia have copied those happening in other countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America. She stresses the need for the reforms to be based upon educational provision that focus on the development of the democracy of education in the twenty first century. These views of economic and political motivations have been confirmed in most Western countries undergoing the restructuring of their education bureaucracies (Chapman, 1990; Murphy, 1991; Harris, 1993; Sullivan, 1994). It appears that recently policy makers may be shifting the focus of restructuring in order to improve student learning outcomes via increased teacher professionalism.

In Australia the two key terms connected with the international trend of restructuring have been devolution and decentralisation. The terms have often been used interchangeably to mean the same thing however they are quite different. Dimmock and Hattie (1994) discerned a difference between the two terms. Devolution is characterised as political decentralisation whereby power for decision-making is transferred out into the school community. Examples include the selection of teaching staff by school communities and local participation in the determination of the school budget. Decentralisation is more synonymous with administrative
decentralisation. Bimber (1993) refers to this as a shifting of power downwards in the areas of administration whereby the school manages the decisions and costs associated with the maintenance of its facilities.

In the Australian context it is the politicised form of decentralisation or devolution that has caused the most concern for educators. Ramsey (1992) states that devolution is 'probably the single most difficult process we have had to manage in education' (p. 7). Rizvi (1994) claims that '...there is no single, uniform meaning of the term devolution. It is an inherently political concept' (p. 1). The Hoffman Report (1995) which investigated proposals to implement devolved practices into EDWA schools was of the opinion that 'the meaning of the term (devolution) has become problematic... the term has no precise meaning, with there being little likelihood that it ever will have' (p. 11). As a result the recommendations in the report were a mixture of devolved and decentralised practices.

Rizvi (1994) frames devolution as having three different perspectives. The first is that of a social democratic view. This was initially outlined in Australia when the Karmel Report (1973) was published. The report proposed that 'responsibility should be devolved as far as possible upon the people involved in the actual task of schooling' (p. 10). This proposal inferred that there was a need to overturn the strong centralist approach to decision-making by empowering school communities to make more of the decisions affecting them. The focus was on the social aspects of democratic decision-making where the community shared responsibility for the programs that would be developed and implemented.

In recent years the social democratic form of devolution has been superseded by the corporate managerialist view. The various state education
bureaucracies in Australia underwent massive internal change and restructuring toward this form of management where organisations were encouraged to 'do more with less'. State Departments of Education became Ministry's of Education and this seemed to legitimise the political control being exercised over them. Corporate management groups at the executive level were formed to oversee the allocation of scarce resources in the public sector agencies and strategic planning came into vogue. Hattie (1993) suggests that this form of management has lead to a stifling of creativity by the executives within these systems as they have been insulated from parent and community opinion by the political process.

A feature of this form of devolution has been the strengthening of the line management characteristics of the organisation. A facet of the corporate manageralist view of devolution raised by Rizvi (1994) and supported by Seddon (1994b) is of the formation of 'generic' managers. These managers concentrate more on the implementation of policy rather than focussing on the educational outcomes that the policies may enhance. The performance of the organisation becomes paramount in this type of devolution and it is not only the performance of the students that is of concern, it is a measure of performance from one line manager to the next down the line that is made accountable.

Corporatism in Western Australia education was prescribed through 'Managing Change in the Public Sector' (Burke, 1986) and 'Better Schools' (Western Australian Ministry of Education, 1987). This perspective evolved out of economic rationalist principles in the 1980s where priority was given to efficiency and effectiveness rather than cultural concerns. Wilson (1990) in his study of Better Schools report was critical of the report because the outcomes were achieved '... through the exclusion of major education
stakeholders from the change process' (p. 106). He implied that the whole of government approach was the determinant of the direction of the change outlined in the report. The corporate managerialist approach takes the power for planning change away from the stakeholders. Goddard (1992) claims that as a result of the Better Schools report the management of schools became much more important than did the purpose of the school.

The final perspective of devolution as described by Rizvi (1994) is the market view where individuals and consumers are able to make the choice of which school they wish their children to attend because the schools have taken on an entrepreneurial mode by competing with other schools for 'clients'. This type of devolution is becoming very prominent in the education system in England where individual schools are publicising students' examination results in an effort to attract more students and funding. It is also a feature of the New Zealand education system.

Sullivan (1994) when commenting on the New Zealand model of devolution describes a scenario where principals and teachers are controlled more than ever. He indicates:

... the imposition of a market model onto school management and especially onto the role of the principal in fact imposes regulation and control. It restricts options and reduces the ability of the principal to work collaboratively with teachers and pupils, and in the low-trust climate the teachers are less likely to work within their implicit contracts. (p. 16)

In Australia the Victorian education system appears to be moving towards this type of devolution with its 'Schools of the Future' program. Spring
(1996) the Director of School Education in Victoria declared that the policy initiative '...is part of one of the most significant education reforms undertaken in Australia and, indeed, the world in the last 200 years' (p. 14). He indicates that the program will make principals and school communities more proactive in determination of the direction that they are heading. Seddon (1994b) does not share the ideals generated by this program. She indicates that 'the conception of Schools of the Future is oversimplified, abstracted and ideologically suspicious' (p. 14).

Seddon is not the only critic of the market view of devolution. Hattie (1993) criticises the market view by stating that 'the major fault of market control is uninformed consumers, as poorly informed consumers are poor regulators' (p. 2). Brennan (1992) indicates that the market view approach stifles innovation and experimentation in schools and forces the school community to focus on fundraising and other monetary issues which have little to do with student learning. Smyth (1994) agrees:

... competition between schools for students and moves to make schools more 'entrepreneurial' diverts precious resources away from teaching and learning and into marketing that schools can ill-afford. (p. 7)

This can be inferred as leading to greater social and economic inequities between schools than presently exist. There may be a danger of a 'ruling class' of schools emerging in the state government systems if the market view continues to gather momentum (Rizvi, 1994). Watt (1989) supports the above views in relation to the degree of inequity which may arise between schools under a market view of devolution. He maintains that:

Schools in affluent areas, apart from being able to tap better neighbourhood sources of supplementary funding, are more likely to be
able to call on parents with the political expertise and power to tap the public sources of funding to best advantage, and with the managerial expertise to help ensure the effective use of resources. (p. 24)

Chadbourne and Clarke's (1994) study confirmed that no real gains in equity between school populations had eventuated under devolution in Western Australian secondary schools.

Smyth (1994) suggests that there is a real contradiction as far as devolution is concerned in Australia. It appears as if education bureaucracies are being dismantled with more power and decision-making responsibility being handed to the schools and their communities which to a certain extent is true, however he claims that the education systems are in fact recentralising. This is because schools are not being given power, only responsibility. The central authority is retaining the power and actually strengthening it through increased accountability measures on schools through quality assurance policies in the areas of curriculum, financial management, performance management, and resource allocation. This is especially evident in the area of curriculum where state-wide testing programs are coming into prominence (Piper, 1992).

This view is supported by Seddon (1994b) who maintains that:

*What is devolved to schools and their communities are the responsibilities for interpreting and enacting policy within the framework of centralised guidelines, and for school and financial administration at the local level. This is a context of centralised educational control and decentralised school management. (p. 3)*
Nash (1989) in reference to the New Zealand education system describes how devolution has allowed the state to gain even greater control over education with the use of schools as buffers to criticism. He points out:

*Strategic withdrawal is an attractive response to the general crisis of legitimation. The essential machinery of control is strengthened while new institutions take responsibility for the most contested frontal sites and buffer the central state apparatus from whole areas of criticism. The rationale for lobbying is weakened and the potential of state institutions themselves to become internally contested arenas is reduced.* (p. 117)

Goddard (1992) indicates that there can be a number of impediments to devolution even when an educational system is obligated to undertaking the process:

*It is possible for the entire educational bureaucracy to be committed to the concept of devolution, but not achieve it if faced with the political goal of centralising control in the executive arm of the government. It is also possible that the upper levels of the educational bureaucracy may be committed to devolution, but not attain it if devolution ceases at the school principal.* (p. 227)

Goddard considers that the only way these impediments can be altered is for the principals and school communities to assert their autonomy for the right to participate in and control the management of schools. This may be difficult due to the strong tendency by education systems to recentralise power when devolving responsibility as outlined above by both Smyth and Seddon.
Much has been written about the concerns of educators regarding devolution in government education systems. There appears to have been less written on the perceived benefits of this concept as it applies to education. Much of what has been proposed has been confused with decentralisation which is discussed in the next section.

The concept of devolution has support in Australia especially when it is linked to improving student learning outcomes (Caldwell, 1994; Sharpe, 1994; Spring, 1996). The links between the political processes of devolution and improved student learning outcomes appear problematic at best because there is a view that the supposed links may be justification for the drive to economic efficiency and effectiveness. Chadbourne and Clarke (1994) produced a report on Western Australian secondary school principals responses to devolution which indicated that less than ten per cent of the principals considered that student learning outcomes had improved as a result of devolution. More research in this area is needed before any qualified assessment can be made (Dimmock, 1993; Bamblett, 1994).

A major benefit of devolution appears to be in the area of participatory decision-making between the school and the local community (Murphy, 1991; Watkins, 1991; Caldwell, 1994; Sharpe, 1994; Ministerial Independent Assessment Group on Devolution, 1994). In this process various interest groups and stakeholders are able to have input into decisions at the school level. This allows for a greater range of opinion to be generated in decisions affecting school operations than would otherwise have been possible. Professional involvement by teachers in school operations may be likely to produce improved planning, motivation and performance (Knight, 1990; Watkins, 1991; Sharpe, 1994).
As discussed previously, decentralisation takes two forms, administrative and political. It is arguably more likely that the administrative form of decentralisation has had more of an impact on the work of teachers, and principals in particular because schools do not receive adequate extra resources to manage the additional responsibility.

Bimber (1993) defines administrative decentralisation as 'shifting authority downward within the structure of the school system' (p. 8). He suggests that this form of decentralisation is employed to give teachers and principals more discretion in areas such as curriculum innovation, goal setting and professional development of staff. With this discretion comes the responsibility of participatory decision-making and an increase in accountability in school operations to the central office. The accountability is based on the performance of the school and occurs within centrally determined guidelines and policy frameworks.

Handy (1985) suggests that decentralised organisations are a more effective environment in which to work due to the responsibility of decision-making and empowerment, however he warns that there are difficulties when an organisation has decentralised and seeks to attain a uniformity of outcomes.

The need to identify with a group, to control the means to one's own destiny are better satisfied with decentralisation. But satisfaction does not necessarily lead to productivity and organisations that decentralise for these purposes alone may well be disappointed at the outcome. For decentralisation is a response to the pressures for diversity. Only if these pressures are stronger than those for uniformity will it be effective. A sense of identity and control of resources are only two of the pressures
that need to be considered. Differentiation is another response to other pressures for diversity. It is a response too often neglected. (p. 307)

This is particularly relevant to the education context where neighbouring schools may well have markedly different student populations according to socio-economic status and racial composition. Under these conditions it would be unreasonable for system level administrators to expect a uniformity of outcomes.

The recent phenomenon of educational restructuring through devolution and decentralisation has affected the forms of leadership that principals are expected to use. The principal now has a responsibility to 'lead' the change from a bureaucratic to a managerialist form of school organisation. Mulford (1994) suggests that leadership in these turbulent times requires '... the development of effective co-operative processes and interactive professionalism' (p. 24). As education bureaucracies decentralise and devolve some responsibilities to schools a process of recentralising is also occurring under a corporate managerialist approach. Principals now have mandatory responsibility for transforming old forms and practices of school organisation. The management of change in the current era requires that principals develop a new form of leadership especially in order to empower staff. What needs to be known is the most effective form of leadership that will enhance the principal's capacity to 'lead' during the educational restructuring changes which are occurring.
2.2 The Changing Principalship.

In Australia government education systems have devolved responsibility for administration to schools using corporate managerialist models. Managerialism is now a prescribed form of practice. Principals have the responsibility to establish school based decision-making and management and more recently focus on student learning, hence new demands for educational leadership. This change has been mainly due to a combination of factors in the area of educational reform motivated by political ideologies. One outcome of the reforms has been the intensification of work that principals are now facing which has led to the need for principals to examine new forms of administration, educational leadership and teaching.

2.2.1 Industrial Implications.

During the early 1970s in Australia the various state education systems were highly centralised. Hierarchical patterns of authority were the norm in areas such as the curriculum, provision of resources, human resource management and policy determination. Principals had little opportunity to work outside centrally determined policies and their role centred upon managing the teaching staff of the school and the educational program.

In 1973 the federal government through the Australian Schools Commission commenced the injection of large inputs of finance into the state education systems and independent schools. Angus (1995) stated that 'while the funding was welcomed by the states, the conditional acceptance of commonwealth priorities and values was not' (p. 6). The various state authorities were concerned that the federal government was beginning to
subjugate some of the power of policy direction and reduce the centralist control of their systems by the funding of specialised priorities. This initial concern waned when it became clear that federal government was going to have minimal influence over the control of the state education systems. What this period did mark however was the first hint of the devolution of authority to schools which began in earnest in the 1980s. It also signalled the resultant change to the principalship which had remained moderately static for most of the century.

Although the links between education and the economic needs of the nation were recognised it was during this period of great economic reform that education systems were seen as part of the overall strategy to reform all Australian industries by gearing schools to the demands of the economy. There was a dominant theme for improving the economic efficiency and effectiveness of schools. In referring to this period Macpherson (1991) suggests that:

...the holistic reforms to administrative policies in Australian and New Zealand state education were expected primarily to achieve greater economic efficiency, educational effectiveness and political harmony in a deepening economic and legitimation crisis. (p. 56)

These reforms were to be achieved by utilising a corporate managerialist and political approach to administration in the education systems.

During the second half of the 1980s the Australian national wages system which had been in operation since 1975 commenced a series of reforms. Award restructuring was introduced and included the 'education industry'. The 'Structural Efficiency Principle' was adopted by the Industrial Relations Commission in the National Wage Case in 1988. The Australian
Conciliation and Arbitration Commission (in Macpherson and Riley, 1992) outlined the reasoning for this decision:

To sustain real improvement in productivity and efficiency, we must take steps to ensure that work classifications and functions and the basic work patterns and arrangements in an industry meet the competitive requirements of that industry. It is accepted, at least by some, that a more highly skilled and flexible labour force is required not only to assist in structural adjustments but also to provide workers with access to more varied, fulfilling and better paid jobs. (p. 15)

Bluer and Carmichael (1991) were of the view that the Structural Efficiency Principle was '... itself an expression of the recognition that a new imperative is driving our education and training efforts' (p. 24). They outlined the set of new competencies which flowed on from the Structural Efficiency Principle that impacted on the work of people in education:

- initiative;
- co-operation and working in groups;
- communication and reasoning;
- peer training;
- obtaining and using information, planning, problem solving and decision making; and
- capacity to learn new knowledge (p. 25).

These were in addition to the normal duties that were already undertaken and were indicative of the need to find more efficient patterns of work organisation which supported workplace reforms.

Angus (1991) in describing the improvements to education which should result from the Structural Efficiency Principle suggests:
...improvements to the quality of education will come from rethinking the way in which work is done in schools; school improvement is unlikely to result from simply working harder and doing more of the same; the key to better schools is to allow those most directly involved in teaching to exercise more direct control over the management of their work environment. (p. 83)

This emphasis on changed work practices through educational reform as part of the micro-economic reform agenda in Australia had direct implications for principals in particular as they entered an era of corporate managerialism and intensification of work. Principals were given the responsibility to develop new patterns of work and forms of leadership. They were expected to establish a collaborative form of school management in order to obtain greater productivity in terms of student outcomes and increased flexibility in the use of resources.

2.2.2 Intensification of Work.

As a result of the introduction of corporate managerialist approaches to school administration across Australia the complexity of the work of administrators has increased significantly. Johnson (1996) considers that the complexity and intensification of work has been caused by system initiatives in government educational restructuring agendas. He explains intensification of work as '...being expected to do more, to do many more things at once, to do them faster and to do them better than previously' (p. 3). Hargreaves (1994a) claims that intensification '...is a real and serious problem for teachers (and principals) and their work' (p. 138). He suggests that the lack of and compression of time and space in a post-modern world
is symptomatic of the problem of intensification of work. Hargreaves implies that the move by education systems to 'professionalise' teachers' and principals' work through the extension of their roles has led to the intensification. In reality the 'professionalism' approach has led to an erosion of work privileges where teachers and principals have less time to reflect on their practice, prepare work and engage in long term planning. Hargreaves also implies that the intensification of work has resulted in chronic work overload, a reduction in the quality of service, and a dependency culture of reliance upon external experts for some school issues.

Nadebaum (1991) provides the perspective of a system level administrator when referring to the new work practices which principals had to adopt by indicating that of all workers in education their role was likely to change the most. She suggests that this has meant a need for principals to:

...acquire generic management skills in financial management, human resource management, information technology management, negotiation, as well as to become familiar with corporate planning processes, program management and performance indicators. (p. 13)

This describes the paradigm shift in work practices towards a corporate managerialist form of administration faced by principals and in particular teaching principals who may only have one day or less each week for administration purposes.

Angus (1991) implies that the key to improving schools is related to the utilisation of corporate managerialist practices such as strategic planning, human resource management and generic management skills, so that those who are working at the school site have more control over their working
environment. What has eventuated is the significant intensification of work for all education workers.

Sachs, Logan, and Dempster (1994) are of a view which indicates '... a major assumption underpinning intensification is that quality improvement is dependent on involvement by staff, parents and members of the wider community in all levels of decision-making and enactment' (p. 1). The authors contend that the extensions of the work can be regarded as either major professional gains or as professional exploitation. Proponents of the professional gains position state that work intensification has resulted in a multi-skilling of the workforce which has reflected positively on the principals and teachers with public recognition of their judgement, skills, and contribution to society.

Supporters of the professional exploitation position maintain that multi-skilling or work intensification in education is in fact a process of de-skilling the profession. Ashenden (in Seddon, 1995) contends that multi-skilling is suitable for the metals industry but not for education as educators need reduced work demands.

Hargreaves (1994a) implies that work intensification is linked to a reduction in teaching preparation time because:

...teachers (are) expected to respond to greater pressures and comply with multiple innovations under conditions that are at best stable and at worst deteriorating. (p. 118)

Hatton (1994) conducted an interview based case study of the impact of corporate managerialism on a small rural primary school in New South
Wales. The study followed a qualitative approach in which school community members were interviewed over the course of one year. Hatton outlines several significant negative outcomes arising from the intensification of the teaching principal's work which relate to the above claims. These include classroom teaching preparation suffering and cutting corners in classroom planning which may be affecting student learning outcomes, and the principal's personal life being affected due to the long hours of 'overtime' spent at the school dealing with the work overload.

Murphy (1991) implies that the principal's role is becoming increasingly demanding and complex and states that ' principals in restructured schools will need to place considerably more emphasis on three areas of responsibility - technical core operations, people management, and school - environmental relations' (p. 27). This view is supported by Brown (1990) who cautions that an emphasis on productivity and efficiency may well turn principals into technicians rather than educational leaders.

The administrative responsibility of the principal has changed significantly in Australia since the 1980s and one aspect is clearly outlined in the Western Australian Ministry of Education policy document 'School Financial Planning and Management' (1991) which details the responsibilities and processes principals are expected to follow in 'managing' school finances. The principal is expected to be 'responsible for establishing processes to ensure the efficient management of funds and must enable staff and parent participation in decisions about the school's finances through the school development planning process' (p. 5).

In referring to the intensification of work that principals are facing Sullivan (1994) suggests that it will only be a matter of time before the main focus of
work of the principal will be manager rather than educational leader. Hargreaves (1994b) provides a succinct analysis of the reasoning behind the intensification of work in education. He suggests that teachers' (and principals') work is caught between the social forces of modernity and postmodernity:

> On the one hand, is an increasingly post-industrial, post-modern world, characterised by accelerating change, intense compression of time and space, cultural diversity, technological complexity, national insecurity and scientific uncertainty. Against this stands a modernistic, monolithic school system that continues to pursue deeply anachronistic purposes within obstructive and inflexible structures. (p. 40)

By comparison with teachers there is little research addressing the intensification of the work of the teaching principal. There are however many studies and conceptual analyses of the changing nature of the principalship.

### 2.2.3 Teaching Principals.

There are few published studies concerning teaching principals. Consequently little attention has been given to the impact of devolution and decentralisation on their work. The majority of the literature focuses on principals in general. This should be of concern to education system administrators. Dunning (1993) who investigated the roles of the teaching principal in small schools in the United Kingdom indicates that '...few other role holders in the school system will have experienced such an expansion of responsibilities and such limited change to the framework of their role as
teaching heads in small schools' (p. 82). He pursues the argument that the teaching principals and the schools that they lead have not attracted much sympathy or attention for the problems they face under devolved and decentralised authority by central administrators and reforming politicians.

The teaching principal's role is recognised as the most difficult in the principalship because of the multifarious duties including those of teacher that have to be performed on a day to day basis. Bell and Morrison (1988) who conducted research on teaching principals in North England, Dean (1988) researching teaching principals in Queensland, and Dunning (1993) are researchers who have supported this notion. They identified the three main roles or areas of responsibility of the teaching principal as educational leader, administrator and teacher. Primarily the teaching principal's main role is that of a teacher and secondly that of an administrator and educational leader. This is certainly so with EDWA teaching principals where much of their time according to the staffing formula should be devoted to teaching duties.

Dunning (1993) implies that there are tensions between the identified roles of the teaching principal and that these have became more pronounced with school based decision-making and management. He recognises the intensification of principals' work:

...in the 1990s, teaching heads have to demonstrate a much more sophisticated technical competence in their teaching role (than teaching heads did previously) while having to deal with the same 'effective teaching load' factors. Yet their new management commitments may be as demanding as those of non-teaching heads in larger units where the increase in managerial responsibilities has tended to be matched by the
burgeoning of professional hierarchies in the form of management teams established to allow the sharing or delegation of aspects of those responsibilities. (p. 82)

White (1989) also suggests that the process of changing to school based decision-making and management and the demonstration of accountability to more than one authority, the education system and the school community may create confusion in the roles and responsibilities of the principal. This is supported by Chapman (1987) who indicates that principals may have difficulty adapting to new roles and new lines of communication which could lead to role ambiguity. It may be more pronounced with a teaching principal who has more roles and less time in which to complete them.

Teaching principals who have traditionally been 'learning the trade' in smaller schools have usually relied upon bureaucratic direction in their various roles. The advent of devolution and decentralisation may have made 'learning the trade' more difficult and complicated because of the multitude of roles and skills that they now need to draw upon. Duignan (1990) indicates that this is especially so in the personnel area where principals are encouraged to delegate and share responsibilities, facilitate collaborative decision-making, problem solving and team management, and are expected to consult widely.

Bell and Morrison (1988) suggest that the potential for role overload is greater for a teaching principal than a non-teaching principal because of the teaching component. Based on their research they indicate that one role will usually suffer at the expense of the others. Dean (1988) suggests the role which usually suffers is that of teaching. This has implications for the
school as a whole because the teaching principal is promoted as the master teacher who sets the standard in instruction. Dunning (1993) suggests that all roles suffer equally with a slight emphasis in the educational leadership area because the teaching principal 'may be so heavily committed to classroom concerns that they have too little time and opportunity to formulate or promulgate their vision' (p. 82). The teaching principal may also be in the situation where they have very few staff and a smaller school community to work with in order to develop a shared vision. The Western Australian Ministry of Education in its policy document School Development Plans (1989) indicates that developing and displaying the school's vision is a major responsibility for the principal which is audited by superintendents on their 'accountability' visits to schools. A later policy document, School Accountability (1991) fails to mention the school vision when describing the expectations of principals and superintendents. This may indicate that The Western Australian Ministry of Education had an ideological change of direction in school development planning during this period.

Goldring, in Murphy and Hallinger (1992) suggests that the 'success of local school initiatives depends upon principals' abilities to adapt their roles to new realities' (p. 81). Teaching principals may face a more difficult transition in adopting the new work practices because of their limited time away from the classroom. It could be something that they will have to contend with in increasing frequency as it appears that the rapid rate of reform is set to accelerate (Caldwell, 1993; Murphy & Hallinger, 1992; Nadebaum, 1991).
Of concern for teaching principals is the notion that role overload and intensification of work during restructuring can lead to increased levels of stress. Murphy (1994) indicates:

... studies document that, while expectations are being added, little is being deleted from the principal's role. This role overload is often accompanied by a good deal of role ambiguity. Role overload and role ambiguity, in turn, often lead to increased stress for principals involved in fundamental change efforts. (p. 95)

In support of this statement Stranger (1993) provides evidence that Level Three (schools with less than 100 students) teaching principals in EDWA average 35 hours per week for managing the learning program of the school alone. Whitaker (1994) concluded from a study on the changing role of principals that many frustrations in the position during restructuring 'are related to sheer overload, being unable to accomplish the many tasks and responsibilities assigned to the principalship' (p. 160). Herein lies a problem which challenges all teaching principals, attaining non-negotiable goals in the face of increased intensification of work while striving for school improvement.

The teaching principal's work has changed significantly under the restructuring initiatives implemented in Australia. A quantitative expansion in responsibility for which accountability processes have been increased combined with a qualitative upgrading of the level of performance have led to an intensification of work. A lack of clarity concerning the responsibility of the work has resulted in ambiguity of roles. The separation of the teaching principal from decision-making about work has contributed to a form of de-skilling. The competing demands of
teaching and administration have presented the principal with contradictions concerning priorities. Finally, the overload of work brought about by the devolution and decentralisation of work practices has contributed to the anxiety teaching principals face in being able to effectively lead their schools during system-wide change. What is needed is the identification of a form of leadership that will enable teaching principals to contend with the pressures they face in their changing work practices. Now more than ever before under centralism principals must perform the leadership roles of managing school level change and providing accountability for student learning.

2.3 Transformational Leadership.

In recent years transformational leadership has been identified by an increasing number of educational researchers and writers as an appropriate form of leadership that can be used to effectively manage change and facilitate school improvement in an era of devolution and decentralisation (Chui, Sharpe, & McCormick, 1996; Leithwood, 1992, 1993, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1990; Silins, 1994a). Transformational leadership has its origins in the fields of politics, the military, and business management. This concept has only recently been adopted by educational administration theorists because it may offer a solution to the demand for leaders to manage educational system change.

Leithwood (1993) identifies two forms of transformational leadership which are related but are distinct in their meaning. The first he identifies as 'generic' which directly relates to the meaning of the word transform - to change the form, function, or condition. He states that:
The second form of transformational leadership Leithwood claims is a clinical or technical meaning which relates to non-educational contexts and was first developed in theories on charisma by Weber (1947) and further developed by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985).

2.3.1 The Development of Concepts of Transformational Leadership.

The origins of transformational leadership can be traced to Weber's (1947) description of charismatic leaders. According to Weber:

"The term 'charisma' will be applied to a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he (sic) is set apart from ordinary men (sic) and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities. (p. 358)"

Weber inferred that whether the leader was in fact charismatic was determined by the followers' perceptions and beliefs that the leader had prodigious and special qualities of leadership. Weber also noted that charisma fades and can be lost.

Burns (1978) preferred the term 'heroic' rather than charismatic leadership because he felt the term could not be defined clearly and logically and was open to too many interpretations. He defined heroic leadership as:
...belief in leaders because of their personage alone, aside from their tested capacities, experience, or stand on issues; faith in leaders' capacity to overcome obstacles and crises; readiness to grant to leaders the powers to handle crises ... it is a type of relationship between leader and led. (p. 244)

Burns suggests that heroic leaders usually emerge in organisations, situations, or societies which are undergoing extensive crisis or change. Heroic leadership becomes a part of a type of leadership Burns termed 'transforming leadership'. His other components of transforming leadership are intellectual leadership, reform leadership, and revolutionary leadership.

To Burns intellectual leadership was concerned with anticipation and mediation, and the leader's utilisation of intelligence and imagination over experience. Reform leadership implies a leader with astute and powerful political skills. These skills of leadership are most often appropriated when dealing with divisions in the ranks during change or conflict. Finding solutions in a morally acceptable way is an essential element of this. Revolutionary leadership is concerned with having a very powerful sense of vision or mission and a strong connecting purpose. This type of leadership requires an intense commitment and must demonstrate the needs and wants of the followers.

Burns (1978) describes transforming leadership as occurring when 'one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality' (p. 20). He contends that the result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and evaluation that converts followers into leaders. He
further contends that the highest form of transforming leadership takes place when followers become leaders and leaders become followers. Burns explains this in an interview with Goodwin (1978) when he indicates:

The sources of both leadership and followership lie in a vast pool of human wants, and the transformation of those wants into social aspirations, and political demands.... True leaders... emerge from, and always return to the wants and needs of the followers. They see their task as the recognition and mobilisation of their followers’ needs.... The effective leader mobilises the higher needs in his (sic) followers.... In this engagement with their followers the leaders’ own motives are altered. They may be transformed to the point where the followers become leaders and leaders become followers. That, incidentally, is the definition of the finest kind of teacher/student relationship. (pp. 47-8)

In conjunction with transforming leadership Burns identified a different form of leadership he named transactional leadership. Burns considered transactional leadership as being a more common form of leadership. The more common form is based upon the exchange of services for various kinds of extrinsic rewards which the leader controls. Government leaders providing jobs for votes and bureaucratic leaders exchanging increased salary for increased productivity in the workplace are examples. There is no binding of the relationship between the leader and the follower in the achievement of a common goal because each is seeking a different goal. This form of leadership is typical in a large bureaucracy where the leaders work within an existing system with the aim of completing the day-to-day tasks of the organisation.
Bass (1985) extended Burn's (1978) concept of transformational leadership and applied it in a management context. Here transformational leadership was:

...raising colleagues, subordinates, followers, clients, or constituencies to a greater awareness about the issues of consequence. This heightening of awareness requires a leader with vision, self confidence, and inner strength to argue successfully for what he (sic) sees is right or good, not what is popular or is acceptable according to the established wisdom of the time. (p. 17)

Like Burns, Bass (1985) agreed that 'charisma is a necessary ingredient of transformational leadership, but by itself is not sufficient to account for the transformational process' (p. 31). He distinguishes a class of charismatics such as celebrities who are not transformational in their influence.

Although Burn's and Bass's theories of transformational leadership are similar in many ways there are apparent differences. Burn's 'revolutionary' component of transformational leadership where the leader must demonstrate the needs of the followers is discarded by Bass. Bass's theory is more concerned with enhancing the motivation and gaining commitment of the followers to enhance organisational needs rather than being concerned with whether the effects will benefit the followers. As a result Bass would not discount political and military leaders such as Adolf Hitler and Lord Kitchener as being transformational leaders. Unlike Burns he suggests that society or indeed the followers do not have to benefit for leaders to be transformational.

In contrast to Burns who saw transformational leadership as being at the opposite end of the leadership continuum from transactional leadership,
Bass (1985) suggests that leaders use a combination of both transformational and transactional practices in different amounts. He indicates that it is often difficult to differentiate between the two practices. This view is supported by Yukl (1989) who suggests that:

... the distinction (between transformational and transactional leadership) is fast becoming a two-factor theory of leadership processes, which is an unwarranted oversimplification of a complex phenomenon... the distinction between the two types of leadership is not as clear as some theorists would have us believe. (p. 212)

Avolio and Bass (1988) imply that transformational leadership is 'value added' because when combined with transactional leadership this can result in organisational improvement. They view the lower order transactional leadership practices as the base upon which the higher order transformational leadership practices can be launched to effectively manage change and promote improvement. Silins (1994b) researched the relationship between the two forms of leadership and school improvement. She concluded that 'transactional behaviors appear to be effective mediators for the effects of transformational leadership on student outcomes' (p. 295). However transactional leadership practices used alone will not produce change, and will only encourage the maintenance of organisational arrangements. Bass (1985) in differentiating between the two forms of leadership indicates that 'to be transactional is the easy way out; to be transformational is the more difficult path to pursue' (p. 26).

Transformational leadership practices in the field of education have been identified by a number of educational researchers and writers as the form of leadership that may be necessary to effectively manage change and facilitate school improvement in an era of devolution and decentralisation. Sergiovanni (1990) suggests that the utilisation of transformational
leadership practices will motivate both leader and follower to higher levels of commitment and performance which will enable both to want to shape the school in a new direction. This view is supported by Kirby, Paradise and King (1992) who completed two quantitative studies in the North American context using Bass's Multi factor Leadership Questionnaire. They described transformational leadership as an effective form of leadership for principals to practice in schools. They believe the focus on the individual development of subordinates has been shown to enhance their performance which, in turn leads to organisational growth. Silins (1994b) supports this statement by suggesting that transformational leaders excel in times of growth, crisis, and reform by changing the system to recreate their environment.

Lincoln (1989) claims that 'the role of the transformational leader in a postmodern world may be to recognise the invisible and the voiceless, and to grant them the space to speak and the discovery of their own means to snare and share power' (p. 177). She suggests that this may be especially important for women in male dominated organisations such as education where they do not control the forms of discourse and where their feminist concerns are often regarded as trivial. Jantzi and Leithwood (1995) conducted a study that examined teachers' overall perceptions of their principals' transformational leadership performance in British Columbia, Canada. One of their findings indicated that women leaders were perceived as more transformational than men. They cautioned against generalising this finding because women featured more prominently in the sample than men, however it does have implications for further research as to which gender make better transformational leaders. The methodology of the study involved surveying 770 and 757 elementary and secondary teachers in years two and three of a five year longitudinal study of policy implementation.
Leithwood (1992) suggests that transformational leadership should replace instructional leadership as the most effective form of leadership during the 1990s. He states:

"Instructional leadership" is an idea that has served many schools well throughout the 1980s and the early 1990s. But in light of current restructuring initiatives designed to take schools into the 21st Century, "instructional leadership" no longer appears to capture the heart of what school administration will have to become. "Transformational leadership" evokes a more appropriate range of practice; it ought to subsume instructional leadership as the dominant image of school administration, at least during the 90's. (p. 8)

In a later publication Leithwood (1993) frames his argument for transformational leadership practices in schools around four premises. The first is the uncertainty of school restructuring in the 1990s. He argues that it is different from the change agenda in the late 1970s and early 1980s in westernised countries which was geared for control in areas such as curriculum and finance and was very clear in intent. Leithwood suggests that the early 1990s restructuring purposes were of a higher order in response to preparing students for the twenty-first century. A change was needed to move from 'control' to 'commitment' strategies utilised by school staff.

Secondly, Leithwood considers that school restructuring requires both first- and second-order changes. An example of a first-order change is the introduction of new curriculum into a school. The second-order change involves a commitment from the teachers to implement the curriculum effectively into their normal classroom routine. He claims that evidence
shows that focussing almost solely on first-order change (instructional leadership) is largely responsible for the failure of change initiatives, and most importantly, the failure to institutionalise change after implementation. Leithwood suggests that through transformational leadership teachers may become more empowered to risk change which will provide them with more meaning in their work and may lead to improvement in the organisational culture of the school. This implies that transformational leadership has greater potential than transactional leadership to generate teacher commitment.

Thirdly, Leithwood suggests that school restructuring is aimed especially at secondary schools. Because these schools are so large and complex he claims that the principal cannot have any effect on classroom practice by utilising instructional leadership. Practising transformational leadership will enable the principal to empower their heads of department to promote organisational effectiveness and school improvement with their 'frontline' staff.

Leithwood's fourth premise for transformational leadership recognises the professionalisation of teaching as a centrepiece of the restructuring of a school. He argues that teachers are in need of leadership initiatives and empowerment during educational restructuring. Transformational leadership practices can lead to shared leadership especially in the areas of teacher development. Leithwood (1993) is of a view that 'the different but nevertheless relatively narrow foci of most other competing images of school leadership are also, to be found among the dimensions of transformational leadership' (p. 12).
Silins (1992) conducted a quantitative study which tested Bass's (1985) model of transformational and transactional leadership in school settings to ascertain if there were benefits for school improvement. The methodology of the study involved multivariate analyses applied to survey data obtained from 679 teachers across 256 elementary schools in British Columbia, Canada. Her study found support for the two construct model, however, there was considerable overlap between the two constructs. Silins also found little in her study to support Bass's model which infers a direct relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes. Silins (1992) found that:

Refining the transformational construct and increasing understanding of the indirect as well as the direct effects of leadership should help to explain the differences in outcomes of school improvement programs.
(p. 333)

A further reworking of the data of the 1992 study conducted by Silins (1994a, 1994b) indicated that transactional leadership behaviors such as planning, scheduling, and defining clear roles and expectations may well be the link between transformational leadership and school improvement. Silins (1994a) concludes that transformational leadership may need to be redefined in an educational context because factors such as charisma which is prominent in the theorisation of Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) is not as relevant in the education sector. Silins suggests that personal qualities of the leader such as intellectual stimulation, individual consideration and contingent reward should subsume the charisma factor.

Leithwood completed a four year program of research involving three major studies about the forms of transformational leadership in schools
responding to educational restructuring initiatives (Leithwood, 1994). His first study examined the effects of transformational school leadership. A quantitative approach was used whereby administrators and teachers working in 289 restructured schools responded to survey items. The second study which examined the nature of transformational leadership formed two distinct sets. In the first set, the methods used were similar to those in the first study. In the second, additional interview data of a qualitative nature were gathered from administrators and teachers in case schools. The schools were selected on the results of previous quantitative research which identified high levels of perceived transformational leadership by principals. The third study was of a qualitative nature and examined internal processes giving rise to transformational leadership. The methodology involved the collection of audiotaped problem-solving sessions by principals individually and in groups. The study found that principals rated highly on the dimensions of transformational leadership by their staff were found to demonstrate high levels of problem-solving expertise.

In summarising the studies in the context of school restructuring in K-12 Leithwood (1994) redefined transformational leadership by abandoning the two-factor theory of Burns (1978) and Bass (1985). This is consistent with Silins' (1994a) findings. Leithwood (1994) found difficulty in separating management and leadership because he was of the opinion that distinctions between the two 'cannot be made in terms of overt behavior' (p. 515). He identified six dimensions of transformational leadership (see Appendix 1 for a full description):
develops a widely shared vision for the school; builds consensus about school goals and priorities; holds high-performance expectations; provides individualised support; provides intellectual stimulation; and models good professional practice (pp. 510 - 512).

Leithwood (1994) placed greater importance on the practice of the first two dimensions but stressed that the accomplishment of transformational leadership in schools depends upon attention to all six dimensions. He suggests that concentrating 'on one or several dimensions of leadership and ignoring the remainder will not get the job done' (p. 514).

Although Leithwood (1994) suggests that transformational leadership is 'value added' he stresses that it is not in the same way as Avolio and Bass (1988) claim. He implies as does Silins (1994a, 1994b) that education has an organisational culture that is different from that of business organisations as studied by Bass (1985), and Bass and Avolio (1988). Leithwood also implies that education has a different organisational culture from that of the military and political spheres as discussed by Burns (1978) when constructing his theories on transformational and transactional leadership. Leithwood claims that the base of leadership in schools unlike the organisations studied by the above authors is not transactional in nature. He suggests it requires individual consideration. This form of leadership is mainly due to high levels of personal motivation that most teachers have and the restrictions concerning extrinsic rewards with which principals can influence this motivation. As a result teachers will respond differently to transactional leadership when compared to workers in the military and business sectors who may be more motivated by extrinsic rewards.
In defining six dimensions of transformational leadership Leithwood does not prescribe a two-factor theory. He includes contingent rewards, identified by Bass (1985) and Burns (1978) as transactional in nature, as potentially transformational because they can be utilised in an inspirational manner. In supporting his theory for combining previously identified transactional practices into the dimensions of transformational Leithwood (1994) suggests:

\[ \text{...transformational effects depend on school leaders infusing day-to-day routines with meaning and purpose for themselves and their colleagues. This, too, is a quality that Burns (1978) argued was central to transforming leadership. (p. 515)} \]

The various theories concerning transformational leadership have not escaped criticism. Gronn (1994) questions the emphasis on charisma in the theory of transformational leadership especially as espoused by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) and whether it is at all desirable as a leadership style in school organisations. He indicates that the emphasis on charisma extols the 'great man' theory. In his view this style is unreliable because 'great' men were not always good men, and geniuses were invariably disruptive' (p. 261). Gronn cites the Reverend James Jones who ordered the 'Jonestown' mass suicide as a case in point. Gronn also questions whether charisma can be taught, acquired, or utilised whenever the leader requires it in their leadership. Both Leithwood (1994) and Silins (1994a) also argued that in an educational context the concept of charisma was not as relevant as both Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) suggested. Lakomski (1995) claims that current educational leadership theories, including transformational leadership are not helpful in the face of the challenges that schools are now facing. She is particularly critical of
transformational leadership as being able to fill the need. Lakomski asserts that:

...the notion of the 'transformational leader' who is charged, amongst other things, with developing teachers' (and students') potential, to alter awareness, introduce vision and mission, and generally transform the organisation and its members, is promising more than it can deliver. (p. 2)

Like Gronn (1994), Lakomski is critical of the 'great man' theory of leadership which she feels is implicit in the nature of transformational leadership by implying that all knowledge and expertise flows downwards through the organisation from the leader. Lakomski (1995) is of the view that 'there is little gain in maintaining a hierarchical view of knowledge distribution from leader to followers which puts great emphasis on the leader getting "it right" by having the "right" vision' (p. 12). Lakomski suggests that the leader's vision may be built around invalid reasoning and incomplete information which may in effect not lead to organisational improvement. Grundy (1996) also has concerns regarding the leader's vision in the model transformational leadership. She suggests:

If there is such a thing as transformational leadership it needs to be the sort of leadership which is able to tap the visions of those who are working within the organisation to enable the work of the organisation to be transformed from within. (p. 1)

Leithwood (1994) appears to take this concern into account when framing his synthesis of transformational practices. He indicates in his first dimension of transformational leadership that the leader should develop a widely shared vision for the school which is initiated through processes that
engage the whole staff in its collective development (see Appendix 1). He does, however, list an element in his synthesis whereby the leader espouses her or his vision for the school but not in a way that precludes other visions (presumably the shared vision developed by the whole staff).

In a later publication Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1995) researched the causes and consequences of organisational learning in schools in response to central policy initiatives in British Columbia, Canada. A survey study was conducted in which 72 teachers and 6 principals were interviewed in six schools in response to government restructuring policies. One finding of the study confirmed the need for the school vision to be widely shared by the staff. Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1995) claim that if organisational learning in schools is to be fostered then the 'school vision had to be perceived by teachers as meaningful; it also had to be persuasive in conversations and decision-making throughout the school' (p. 240). It would appear that controversy with any model of transformational leadership centres around the vision for the organisation that the leader is endeavouring to develop and how it is formulated.

A wider concern of the advocates and critics of transformational leadership is related to the nature of the research which has been undertaken in the field. As mentioned previously the development of the concept in a business and management context and the application of the concept in an educational context has provoked argument. Varied and opposing criticism has been directed at the forms of research carried out in the educational context.
Both Gronn (1995) and Lakomski (1995) are critical of the predominance of quantitative measures that have been utilised in transformational leadership research. Lakomski is of a view that:

...quantitative methodology cannot measure transformational leadership effects because it presumes that all cognitive activity is language-based activity whereas the kind of exceptional practice or problem-solving behaviours leaders (or anyone else) display precedes, or entirely eludes, linguistic representation. (p. 12)

Silins (1994b) is concerned that not enough research has been directed at determining the differences between the transformational and transactional leadership constructs to show whether they are related. This view is supported by Yukl (1989) who suggests that the differences between transformational and transactional leadership should be determined by research of an empirical nature rather than being based on theory.

Lincoln (1989) stresses the need for more case studies and ethnographies because of the need to define exactly what transformational leadership is when it is demonstrated. She also suggests the need to provide an insight into transformational behaviors exhibited by transformational leaders and the forms of power relationships they enter into with members of their organisation. Leithwood (1993) in supporting Lincoln's view proposes that future research should have an emphasis on grounded methods and that much more priority should be given to the exploration of the generic meanings of transformational leadership and the processes giving rise to it.

Leithwood, Tomlinson and Genge (1996) conducted a review of both published and unpublished research on transformational leadership in both elementary and secondary schools up until August of 1993. Electronic
searches were made on a number of databases to locate relevant studies. Dissertation Abstracts provided the largest source of studies selected for review. Added to these were six studies which had been completed during the period of the search, and a similar number of studies completed by Leithwood and his associates. A final set of 34 empirical and case studies conducted in schools emerged. Of these studies, 17 were conducted using quantitative methods, 5 employed a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, and 12 were conducted using qualitative methods alone. The majority of the studies were concerned with the leadership of school principals (22 studies). The remainder included other educational leadership roles such as superintendents and central office staff. Sample sizes in the studies ranged from one (single case studies) to 770. Procedures for data collection included interviews, surveys, document studies, and observation. Eleven studies employed multiple data collection studies, 16 used survey instruments, and six employed interviews. One study utilised a content analysis of narrative writings in data collection procedures.

Leithwood et al. (1996) conclude that 'many limitations of a theoretical and methodological nature remain in research on transformational leadership carried out to date' (p. 834). However, the authors are of the view that the studies reviewed provide a strong argument for the expansion of school leadership studies in the direction of transformational leadership, particularly in comparative studies with other school leadership models.

The review of literature shows that there is controversy surrounding the application of transformational leadership to educational contexts. The dimension of the leader's vision appears to be the most problematic feature of the theory. In the studies reviewed there does not seem to be a definite causal link between demonstrated transformational leadership practices and processes of school improvement in systems undergoing educational
The emphasis on quantitative studies has limited research into the theory of transformational leadership. More qualitative studies exploring the life-world view of both principals and their teachers may be able to provide additional information in determining the appropriateness of the model for principals in schools undergoing educational restructuring.

2.4 Outcomes of the Review of Literature.

The work of the teaching principal has changed significantly under the restructuring initiatives introduced into Western Australian government schools since 1987. Corporate managerialist and more recently market oriented approaches to school administration have intensified the work of teaching principals. Principals now have the responsibility for changing old forms and practices of school organisation into new ones which requires a different form of leadership, especially in the area of empowering staff. What is needed is the identification of a form of leadership that will enable teaching principals to contend with the pressures of the changing work practices that restructuring has created.

Leithwood’s (1994) synthesis of transformational leadership appeals as a form of leadership which may be a useful model for teaching principals in order to meet the demands of leading their schools through an era of educational restructuring. The intensification of work that principals face as a result of the initiatives demand that they delegate and share responsibilities, facilitate collaborative decision-making and problem-solving, consult widely, and develop comprehensive goals and visions for their schools. Leithwood’s dimensions of transformational leadership seem
to encompass these elements and therefore has been selected as the model of leadership on which this study is based.
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction.

This chapter provides an account of the research design and methodology of the study. The chapter includes the theoretical perspective of the study, the rationale for utilising Leithwood’s (1994) six dimensions of transformational leadership in the conceptual framework, a description of the pilot study and the main study. The chapter also provides data collection and analysis techniques, the limitations of the study and ethical considerations.

3.1 Theoretical Perspective.

An interpretivist approach is used as the theoretical perspective in this study. Schwandt (1994) suggests that interpretivist researchers ‘... share the goal of understanding the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it’ (p. 118). In this study the social world from the perspective of the teaching principal and their teachers was discovered, described and analysed. The purpose of the methodology was to develop the understanding of the interpretation of the social world of the school that was held by the participants. A focus on 'action' (what the teaching principal does) will result. This should indicate the meanings and intentions of the individual and can then be compared to the interpretations of others.
The specific leadership practices of the teaching principal during an era of educational restructuring will be examined from both the principals' and teachers' perspectives. The study will describe how the principals are using leadership styles and identify cases in which transformational leadership is being practised. It is expected that principals' perspectives will not match teacher's perspectives in some instances. The interpretivist perspective of this study differs from the predominantly positivist perspective used in Leithwood's (1993) studies of transformational leadership. An interpretative approach recognises the possibility that the participants may have shared different perspectives of the social world that they inhabit.

3.2 Conceptual Framework.

The conceptual framework for this study is based on Leithwood's (1994) synthesis of transformational leadership practices in school contexts. The relationship of the synthesis to educational restructuring, the intensification of the teaching principal's work and the impact on school improvement is explored.

To understand whether selected competent teaching principals are using transformational leadership practices and whether these practices are an effective part of their leadership practice during restructuring it is necessary to logically and sequentially examine the key issues and relationships between the educational restructuring initiatives in EDWA since 1987. The perceived intensification of work, school improvement outcomes attained and transformational leadership practices used by the teaching principals will also provide a clearer understanding of whether transformational
leadership practices have been adopted by the teaching principals in the study.

Figure 1. is a diagrammatic representation of the conceptual framework for this study. The interrelationships between the principal's work and use of transformational leadership practices is the main focus of the study.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework for Viewing Whether Teaching Principals Practice the Dimensions of Transformational Leadership.
An analysis of these interrelationships should enable the researcher to determine whether the selected teaching principals are using transformational leadership in their schools. Phenomena that enhance and also impinge upon the capacity of the teaching principals to practise transformational leadership should also emerge from the analysis. The framework indicates that the study takes place in an era of educational restructuring.

In Western Australia the 'Better Schools' reforms were mandatory system wide changes. The principal had a responsibility for the implementation of the reforms at the school level which determined the success and resultant school improvement. Devolution and decentralisation enabled schools to set up school based decision-making and management processes which created the infrastructure for school improvement. School improvement can be internally or externally driven. Marsh (1990) provides examples of both when indicating that school improvement can:

...refer to relatively minor changes where there is some change to the program without any change in the basic goals and values; or it can refer to changes in the program and in the existing goals and values, which, in total, could amount to considerable change. (p. 148)

Hopkins (1994) regards school improvement as 'an approach to educational change that is concerned with the process as well as the outcomes' (p. 75). The principal is viewed as the key facilitator of the processes in school improvement (See Marsh, 1990; Mulford, 1994). Fullan (1992b) suggests that the principal is '...the key to creating the conditions for the continuous professional development of teachers and thus, of classroom and school improvement' (p. 96).
Silins (1994a) identifies four facets of school improvement which may be perceived by teachers. The first is school effects where there are perceived changes in the functioning, climate and direction of the school which impact on the school as a whole. Examples include establishing a clearer purpose regarding student learning outcomes and consensus about school goals and priorities. The second facet is teacher effects where the process has impacted on the teachers with examples being increased job satisfaction and greater collaboration amongst teachers. Thirdly, program and instructional effects including modifying programs to better meet student needs and adopting assessment strategies which are closely related to student developmental growth. The final facet concerns student effects such as promoting self-concept growth and developing positive attitudes to learning and school. Based on separate quantitative and qualitative field studies both Leithwood (1993, 1994) and Silins (1994a, 1994b) viewed transformational leadership as contributing to the successful facilitation of the school improvement process in response to system wide reforms.

The conceptual framework for this study uses a qualitative method of identifying approaches that the teaching principals are using in their schools in order to achieve school improvement. The framework assesses the extent to which transformational leadership practices are central to this improvement. Leadership practices will be identified by describing the experiences of the principals and using teachers' perceptions of how the principals are providing leadership in the context of their school. The linkages which exist between restructuring, intensification of work and school improvement will also be described.
3.3 Research Design.

The research design for the study was based on a descriptive form of inquiry. This qualitative method was utilised to develop a deeper understanding of the teaching principal's experiences of leadership during restructuring and how various phenomena such as the intensification of work and school improvement influenced their style of leadership. Miles and Huberman (1994) claim that a main task of qualitative designs is to '...explicate the ways people in particular settings come to understand, account for, take action, and otherwise manage their day-to-day situations' (p. 7). A non-emergent approach of collecting all of the data before analysis was used for the main study. As the leadership styles of the teaching principals were identified an analysis was applied to discover which specific transformational leadership practices they were using.

The design for this study centres on a strategy for data collection that has not been used in the Australian context in previous research studies into transformational leadership. Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1995) used a similar strategy when conducting research into school responses to central policy initiatives in the North American context. In this study, both teaching principals and teachers are interviewed. A data triangulation procedure is used to analyse the data. The promising re conceptualisation of transformational leadership by Leithwood (1994) using interviews and surveys with secondary teachers suggests that this topic of inquiry would deliver useful findings when applied in other school contexts.
3.3.1 Sample.

The design for the study includes a pilot study and main study. Both studies used three schools to explore the significance of the various dimensions of transformational leadership and also contextual influences which impacted on the leadership of the principals. In the pilot study (schools D, E and F) the principal of each school was interviewed. Three teaching principals and two of the teachers in each school were interviewed in the main study (schools A, B and C). Teachers were included in the data collection as a means of triangulation to verify, refute or add to the principals' responses. The choice of principals for both studies was based on a purposive sampling technique of maximum variation sampling within the government education system. The intention of the sampling technique was to include a variation of Level 3 and Level 4 primary schools according to student and teacher numbers within the full range of geographic locations across Western Australia. Principals were selected from metropolitan, rural and isolated primary schools.

The sample of principals for the study was identified by EDWA District Superintendents and members of the executive of the Western Australian Primary Principals' Association (WAPPA) as being competent administrators who were demonstrating high levels of success in promoting school improvement. The principals were judged as having responded positively to the restructuring initiative of devolution and decentralisation. Additionally, the principals in the main study had been teaching principals for at least eight years prior to the study. They had been in the position of principal since the onset of the era of educational restructuring. This was viewed as desirable in allowing a perspective of whether the restructuring over the eight years was associated with an
intensification of their work. These parameters enhanced the construct validity of the data relating to the impact of educational restructuring in principals' work.

The purpose of interviewing the teachers in the main study was to verify the accuracy of the principals' responses to the interview questions through the process of data triangulation. The teacher interviews were also seen as providing an additional source of information regarding the intensification of the principal's work and school improvement issues affecting the principal's leadership. It may be possible that a principal perceived that she/he was utilising a particular form of leadership but the staff members may not have seen evidence of this. The reverse case may have applied as well.

The principals were asked to nominate two teachers who were familiar with their work practices and willing to participate in the study. This strategy replicates that used in Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach's (1995) study. Selection of the two teachers in each of schools A and B was decided jointly by the researcher and the principal. The selection was based on the experience that the teachers had in working with the principal in the school. In these cases principals may not have been prepared to have critical and or uninformed comment on their practice by a random sample of teachers on their staff. School C had only two teachers on the staff and both were interviewed. It may be assumed that the longer the working relationship between the teacher and the principal the greater the teachers' awareness about the principal's work. It was possible that there could be cases where teachers had assimilated the principal's view of the school, such as accepting the principal's vision which would affect the internal validity of the study.
Table 1. Schools with Teaching Principals, Education Department of Western Australia.

Table 1. describes the population of Level 3 and 4 teaching principals from which the sample for both the pilot study and the main study was selected. According to EDWA's staffing formula all principals in these schools had a teaching component. The data were obtained from the Western Australian Education Department publication Schools and Staffing (1994c).

A limitation of the sample in the main study was that no women principals were interviewed. Women principals were in fact heavily canvassed to participate in the study, however, all declined. Some factors contributing to this limitation were that of all 282 EDWA teaching principals in 1995 only 26 were women. Only a small number of the women principals had experience as a principal dating back to 1987 which was a requirement for
the selection of principals. Two women principals participated in the pilot study.

3.4 Pilot Study.

The pilot study was utilised to ascertain the reliability and validity of the instrument to be used in the main study and to determine whether the data could be analysed for content using the dimensions of transformational leadership. Gay (1992) is of a view that pilot studies 'can help in refining procedures, such as instrument administration and scoring routines, and in trying out analysis techniques' (p. 112). The pilot study also provided the opportunity to develop leading questions which were used in the main study. Feedback on the interview questions was obtained from the participants in this study and also from two teaching principals who were not participants to assist in determining the content validity of the questions.

3.4.1 Methodology.

Subjects:
A selection of three teaching principals was made based on EDWA superintendents' and senior principals' recommendations. This number was seen as being appropriate to assess the possible range of contexts of the data. The sample included a woman principal of a metropolitan Level Three primary school (school D), a male principal of a small country Level Three primary school (school E), and a woman principal of a large Level Four country primary school (school F) (see table 2). All of the principals
were identified as having high levels of success in implementing and enhancing school improvement initiatives during a period of educational restructuring. The principals in this pilot study had no administrative assistance in their schools such as a deputy principal to support them with their work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Principal</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Geographic Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pilot Study</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main Study</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Schools and Participants.

Several principals were approached to participate in the pilot study, however, due to the bitter and prolonged industrial action occurring in government schools from December 1994 through to February 1996 many declined to be interviewed due to a State School Teachers’ Union of Western Australia (SSTUWA) ban on extra-curricular school activities. The sample therefore did not include three participants who had been teaching

1 Woman
principals since 1987. Only one of the principals had been a teaching
principal before 1987, one had been a teaching principal for three years and
one was in her first year as a teaching principal. All participants had
however been teaching since 1987 and were familiar with the restructuring
initiatives of devolution and decentralisation and their effects on teachers' work. The three principals selected worked in both city and country schools
of various sizes and provided a gender balance. Although the sample of
three teaching principals can hardly be representative of the population it
was a purpose chosen sample to assess a diversity of responses.

Instruments:
An interview schedule containing 19 questions was developed for the study
(see Appendix 2). The first 18 questions related directly to the six dimensions
of transformational leadership as theorised by Leithwood (1994) and the
impact that the restructuring initiatives of devolution and decentralisation
may have had on the use of these practices. The schedule differs from
Leithwood's initial version of seven dimensions as it does not differentiate
between transactional and transformational leadership practices. The final
question concerned the way in which their work was related to educational
restructuring.

The construct validity of the interview questions was primarily established
by basing the first 18 questions into six groups of three relating to the six
dimensions of transformational leadership as proposed by Leithwood (1994).
The final question concerning devolution and decentralisation was an issue
with which the participants were familiar as their schools were undergoing
educational restructuring at the time of the interview. Finally, all principals
validated the data collected in relation to their interview with the
researcher after the first stage of data analysis by responding to verbal summaries of the data collected.

Content validity of the interview questions was established in two ways. Prior to the pilot study the interview schedule was trialled using two teaching principals who were not connected to the study. Their perspectives were incorporated into revisions of the questionnaire prior to the pilot study.

3.4.2 Procedure for Data Collection.

All principals were initially contacted by telephone to ascertain an expression of interest in participating in the study. The three principals selected to participate were sent a 'Disclosure and Informed Consent' form detailing the purpose of the study (see Appendix 5). They were asked to complete and return the consent proforma for the pilot study. Upon receipt of the proforma they were contacted to arrange a suitable time to be interviewed.

All principals were interviewed at their schools in a face-to-face situation and the interviews were recorded on tape for transcribing purposes. A variety of questions were utilised during the interviews to obtain extended responses which revealed the perspectives of the participants. The probes varied between participants. After the interviews were completed each participant was asked to comment on the questions and suggest any possible alterations for the main study. As a result of the validation a further question was developed for the main study. The question concerned the
principals' expectations on role change under future educational restructuring.

3.4.3 Data Analysis Procedures.

Data collection during the interviews focussed on the description of the perspectives and constructs of the interviewees. The data was coded and organised using where possible the perspectives of the principals and teachers. These perspectives were designated as containing first order constructs. Typically, the interviewees would have a high level of awareness of those meanings and interpretations of their social world. The researchers use of principals' and teachers' perspectives generated what were designated second order constructs. Here the researcher devised constructs to link the perspectives of the interviewees to the theoretical perspective of the research. The use of the pattern coding method of data analysis as described by Miles and Huberman (1994) was seen as a means of strengthening the external reliability, and also to validate the questions and structure of the interviews. The external reliability of the data collection procedures was also enhanced due to all principals being interviewed in their schools, and the researcher's status position as a primary school teaching principal (See LeCompte, & Goetz; 1982).

The internal validity of the data analysis was assisted by the researcher's status position with experience of educational restructuring, participant reaction and confirmation of the findings, and the selection of participants who were all teaching principals. Checks on the internal reliability of the data analysis procedures were undertaken in two ways. First, verbatim
accounts of the participants' dialogue was taped and secondly, reaction to
the working analyses was obtained from each of the principals interviewed.

3.4.4 Summary.

The methodology of the pilot study was judged as being appropriate for
obtaining responses from teaching principals in relation to the six
dimensions of transformational leadership but not sufficient in itself to
extend to all areas covered by the research questions. A difficulty
encountered was the participants' lack of understanding of the concept of
transformational leadership. This was apparent in the second dimension
which focussed upon 'building consensus about school goals and priorities'.
The principals in the pilot study provided responses in this area which were
limited even with the use of extensive probes. The responses related mainly
to the formulation of school development plans rather than extending this
to encompass areas such as teachers' personal professional goals, linking
school goals and priorities with the school vision, and the use of the goals
in school decision-making processes as outlined by Leithwood (1994).

Of concern for the main study was a perceived lack of understanding of the
concept of transformational leadership that teachers may have had when
being interviewed for data triangulation purposes. This may have affected
the reliability and validity of the data collected. To compensate for the lack
of understanding it was seen as necessary for all participants in the main
study to have some understanding prior to the interview of the dimensions
of transformational leadership as described by Leithwood (1994). The
consequences of heightening the awareness of transformational leadership
for those being interviewed in the main study assisted the researcher in
devising second order constructs between the principals' leadership and
linkages to transformational leadership. This procedure was also viewed as strengthening the internal validity of the interview procedure and improving the content validity of the semi-structured interview schedule.

To obtain a valid and more in-depth response in relation to the research questions it was seen as necessary to modify question 19 into two different sections for principals in the main study so that a more comprehensive response could be acquired by way of reflection and expectation which would in turn increase the reliability of the collected data. This was partly due to the fact that only one participant in the pilot study had been a teaching principal since 1987.

Similarly, the two teaching principals consulted before the pilot study about the interview schedule were of a view that there may be some misunderstanding between the terms devolution and decentralisation by some of the principals and the teachers in particular. They recommended that this should be made clear to participants as part of the interview.

3.5 Main Study.

3.5.1 Methodology.

Subjects:
A selection of three teaching principals was made based on the recommendations of two EDWA superintendents and three members of the executive of the Western Australian Primary Principals' Association. The sample included a male principal of an inner city Level Four primary school in Perth (school A), a male principal of a medium-sized Level Four primary
school on the outskirts of Perth (school B), and a male principal of a small Level Three country primary school in the north-eastern wheatbelt (school C) (see Table 2). All of the principals were identified as competent administrators who were demonstrating high levels of success in implementing and enhancing school improvement initiatives during a period of educational restructuring.

Several principals were approached to participate in the study but due to an extended period of industrial conflict in government schools beginning in December 1994 and extending to February 1996 many declined to be interviewed and several principals who had originally agreed to participate in the study withdrew due to a State School Teachers' Union of Western Australia (SSTUWA) ban on extra-curricular school activities. Unfortunately a gender balance was unable to be attained with all principals being male and all teachers women, this being indicative of the composition of staff in small primary schools throughout Western Australia. All principals participating in the study held similar positions prior to the onset of restructuring in 1987. The sample of participants was limited to make manageable data collection and analysis.

Instruments:
A semi-structured interview schedule for the three principals was utilised (see Appendix 3). The schedule contained 20 questions. The first 18 explored the six dimensions of transformational leadership as theorised by Leithwood (1994), the extent to which the teaching principals were able to apply them in their schools, and the impact that devolution and decentralisation may have had on their use of these practices. The final two questions were intended to elicit a perspective of leadership practices since the onset of restructuring and of expectations for the future. The individual
interviews took from 40 to 80 minutes to complete and overall totalled 195 minutes in length.

For the six teachers an interview schedule containing 18 questions was utilised (see Appendix 4). These questions corresponded to the first 18 questions on the principals' interview schedule and were used for the purpose of verifying and adding to the data collected from the principals. The individual interviews took from 20 to 30 minutes to complete and overall totalled 139 minutes in length.

Probes for questions were used in order to obtain an in-depth response. The probes were formulated during the interviews and were specific to the interviewees' schools. Illustrated examples are shown in Appendix 3 and 4. Maykut and Morehouse (1994) suggest that 'by probing an interviewee's response, we are likely to add to the richness of the data, and end up with a better understanding of the phenomenon we are studying' (p. 95).

Cohen and Manion (1989); and Judd, Smith and Kidder (1991), stress the importance of minimising bias in the interview. The standardising of the interview procedures, in particular the wording of the questions assisted in countering bias. This technique was seen as an effective way of improving the reliability in the interviews. As this study used an interpretive theoretical approach it was expected that the participants would differ in the way in which they constructed the meaning of each question.
3.5.2 Procedure for Data Collection.

All principals were initially contacted by telephone to ascertain an expression of interest in participating in the study. The nature of the study and the requirement for two of the teachers in the school to participate was discussed. The principal and two teachers from each of the three schools selected to participate were sent a 'Disclosure and Informed Consent' form (see Appendix 6) describing the purpose of the study. They were asked to complete and return the section detailing their willingness to participate in the study. Upon receipt of this section the participants were forwarded a copy of Leithwood’s (1994) dimensions of transformational leadership (see Appendix 1) and the interview questions (see appendices 3 and 4) to read in order to understand the focus of the research. They were contacted to arrange a suitable time to be interviewed.

All principals and teachers were interviewed during July and August in 1995 by face-to-face or telephone interviews. It was seen as desirable to interview all participants in a face-to-face situation. The advantages of face-to-face interviews are that variations in body language can be taken into account during responses, and the interviewer is in a position to be able to control the context of the interview. The major disadvantages are that too much data can be collected which presents a problem at the data analysis stage and the feasibility of arranging times and venues. There is also the possible problem of interviewees providing responses that they feel the interviewer will want. Although not as desirable as face-to-face interviews Jaeger (1988) indicates that telephone interviews have many of the advantages of face-to-face interviews. These include providing additional information, keeping the interviewee on track, being able to explain the purpose of the questions, and being able to interview respondents who may
be unavailable for face-to-face interviews due to geographical isolation or other difficulties.

Of the three schools face-to-face interviews were only held in one (school B). This was due to a combination of availability of the teachers and principals, the distance factor and the industrial situation at the time. The participants in the remaining two schools were interviewed by telephone. Before each interview the participants were asked if they had read the copy of the dimensions of transformational leadership and the interview questions, and if they required any further explanation. All participants had pre-read their copies before being interviewed. Clarification was also sought regarding their understanding of the differences between devolution and decentralisation as the key components of educational restructuring so that there was no confusion of meaning when using the terms in the interviews. They were then reminded that the interview would be taped for transcribing purposes.

3.5.3 Data Analysis Procedures.

The data collected during the interviews were coded according to the pattern coding method of data analysis as described by Miles and Huberman (1994). Each interview was transcribed in full then analysed to delineate units of general meaning in relation to each of the dimensions of transformational leadership as proposed by Leithwood (1994). These units were then reduced to units of meaning which were directly relevant to the research questions. Clusters of meaning were then established to construct central themes of inquiry. The next stage was to identify common themes across all interviews and themes which were common to particular instances, for
example the success or difficulty teaching principals had in practising one or more of the transformational leadership dimensions and the possible causes resulting in the success or difficulty. Maykut and Morehouse (1994) recommend this form of data analysis because it 'combines inductive category coding with a simultaneous comparison of all units of meaning obtained' (p. 134). The process is also supported as an effective method by Cohen and Manion (1989).

After the first stage of data analysis the principal of school C and all teachers were contacted by telephone to validate the data collected. A condensed summary of the findings was read to them for confirmation and feedback. The principals of schools A and B were able to meet in a face to face situation with the researcher to validate the findings. The same condensed summary was read to them. All participants confirmed the findings.

3.6 Reliability and Validity.

External reliability in the methods of data collection and analysis was maintained in several ways. The researcher's status position as a teaching principal during the period of the study should have enhanced the capacity of the researcher to interpret the meanings of the interviews that were evident in the data. All principals had been teaching principals before 1987 and had experience in the role in more than one school which was an advantage in strengthening the external reliability as was the fact that all principals were interviewed while in their school. Finally, the constructs of devolution and decentralisation, and transformational leadership were described to the participants before the interview. Internal reliability was maintained in two ways. First, by taping the verbatim accounts of all
dialogue in the interviews, and second by obtaining reaction to the preliminary analyses from the principals in the study as a means of confirmation of the data that was collected.

External validation of the research design was confirmed by the use of the pilot study which produced similar findings to the main study. The selection of teaching principals for the study who all had experience before 1987 also strengthened the external validity. The use of data triangulation procedures in interviewing two teachers from each school enhanced the internal validity of the data analysis. The researcher's position and the principals' reaction and confirmation of the findings also assisted in strengthening the internal validity. The construct validity of the interview questions was primarily established by basing the first 18 questions for both the principals and the teachers into six groups of three relating to the six dimensions of transformational leadership as proposed by Leithwood (1994). The final two questions for the principals concerning devolution and decentralisation was an issue with which the participants were familiar as their schools were undergoing educational restructuring at the time of the interview. Finally, all participants validated the data collected in relation to their interview with the researcher after the first stage of data analysis. This was achieved by dictating summaries of the transcriptions in a telephone interview format. The content validity of the interview questions was determined by their use in the pilot study and the feedback received from the participants. This led to subsequent modification to questions 19 and 20 in the main study.
3.7 Limitations.

The primary limitations of this study concern the sample of participants and the interviews. The unprecedented period of industrial action and political manoeuvring involving the SSTUWA and EDWA from December 1994 until February 1996 severely limited the number of available participants. Many principals approached to take part in the study declined because they considered it to be extra-curricular in nature and such activities were 'black-banned' by the SSTUWA. In some cases principals agreed to be interviewed but could not convince teaching staff to participate. As a result only three principals and two each of their teachers participated. A larger sample of principals may have revealed greater use of the specific dimensions of transformational leadership practice.

The criterion used for selecting the participants may be questioned for reliability. The identification of competent teaching principals who were responding positively to restructuring was a difficult process even with the cross referencing between superintendents and executive members of the Western Australian Primary Principals' Association.

Also it was not possible to have face-to-face interviews with all participants, consequently there may have been some reduction of the validity of the data. Telephone interviews are not as personal as face-to-face interviews. The respondents may have been reluctant to disclose or fully expand their perspectives. Telephone interviews may also have limited the use of leading questions and probes by the researcher. These limitations may have influenced the internal validity of the data collected.
Principals in the study nominating teachers who were interested in being interviewed may have affected the reliability of the data collected. The professionalism of the principal in nominating unbiased teachers for the study and the utilisation of triangulation methods was seen to be an adequate compensation for this. Also, the researcher had a responsibility to create minimal disturbance in each school. The data collection had the potential to change the nature of the professional relationship between the principals and teachers. It was to be expected that the principals would have to approve the participation of the teachers in the study.

3.8 Ethical Considerations.

Anonymity and confidentiality of individual responses was guaranteed to all participants in both studies. Respondents were informed that their comments could be used in reporting the research although there would be no identifying information. Respondents were advised that they could withdraw from the study at any time. The researcher's private and business telephone number was made available to all participants in the study.
CHAPTER 4.

THE PRACTICE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP.

4.0 Introduction.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research findings of the study which correspond to the first research question, to what extent are teaching principals who are competent in managing school improvement practising the dimensions of transformational leadership. The findings concerning the second and third research questions are presented in Chapters 5 and 6. Each chapter is organised into sections using Leithwood's (1994) six dimensions of transformational leadership. The perspectives of the principals and teachers in the study, as well as researcher interpretation are used in the data analysis.

4.1 Develops a Widely Shared Vision for the School.

Of all of the six dimensions of transformational leadership this dimension appeared to be the least practised by the principals in the study. Although collectively each element was used amongst the three principals there were significant gaps particularly with the elements of espousing their own vision for the school but not in a way that precludes other visions; clarifying the specific meaning of the school's vision in terms of its practical
implications for programs, instruction and the like; and explicitly helping staff understand the relationship between district and central office initiatives and the school community vision (see table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Initiates processes (retreats, etc.) that engage staff in the collective development of a shared vision</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Espouses own vision for the school but not in a way that precludes other visions</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Clarifies the specific meaning of the school's vision (or own vision for the school) in terms of its practical implications for programs, instruction and the like</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Explicitly helps staff understand the relationship between district and ministry initiatives and the school's vision</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Uses all available opportunities to communicate the school's vision to staff, students, parents and others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Range of Responses to the Dimension 'Develops a Widely Shared Vision for the School' that were Evident in the Practice of Teaching Principals.

The findings indicated that the principals had views that differed from Leithwood as to what a 'shared vision' exactly was and what it meant for their school. Although each principal had initiated processes that engaged staff in the collective development of a shared vision the understanding of what a 'shared' vision entailed was not strong and it varied between
schools. This occurred in two distinct ways. First there appeared to be a
difference in the concept of a 'shared' vision. The concept varied from the
principal having her or his own vision and facilitating a process whereby
the staff took ownership of it (school B), to the process of developing a
school vision with the participation of the staff (school C). The second
difference was evident in the pedagogical focus of each school. School A
which was a member of the P.S.P. program had a focus on literacy because of
the large proportion its students from non-English speaking backgrounds.
School B focussed on science because the principal perceived the curriculum
area as needing attention.

Leithwood (1993, 1994) stresses the importance of vision building as a pre­
require to improving school outcomes with restructuring initiatives. The
evidence in the findings which suggested that shared vision building was
not a priority in the schools studied may indicate that there was no strong
tradition among EDWA principals to develop one. Vision building is
synonymous with a corporate managerialist approach in school
administration. The EDWA policy on School Accountability (1991) does not
indicate that schools need to develop a vision. This may be the reason why
the teaching principals were unclear about the development of a vision in
their schools.

The principal of school A tended to merge his conception of a school vision
with pedagogy and school development planning. In his view:

The staff here themselves have been working, especially on the P.S.P.
program of developing where the school was heading. So you're looking
at things like literacy. Literacy has been a very big focus on what they are doing. (P.A)¹

The principal appeared to confuse the development of a shared vision in his school with determining school goals and priorities. The lack of clarity of a 'shared vision' in this school was further explained by a teacher who explained:

We have monthly meetings and we always talk about the issues of that moment, 'what is the Department or the Union doing or what is the school development policy at that stage.' And we also do it informally during lunch times or any professional development day where he informs us of anything that needs to be looked at immediately if it can't wait until the next meeting. (T2. A)

This comment suggests that there was a low level of understanding in school A of the concept of what a shared vision means.

In schools B and C teachers had a higher level of awareness of the concept of what a 'school vision' entailed. The emphasis appeared to be on the principal's vision rather than a collective 'shared vision' as described by Leithwood (1994). The principal of school B initially claimed that the 'shared vision' emerged from his own personal vision. He explained:

My vision, developmental learning, which I shared with the staff started to grow then it became an effective part of all teachers' objectives... it became part of a shared vision and the teachers started to run with that vision and move on with it. (P.B)

¹ Denotes position of respondent (P - principal, T1 or T2 - teacher; and school A, B, C...).
It appeared that this principal may have mistakenly believed that the staff also understood and shared the vision. Later in the interview he claimed:

...the vision came from the department and it is my role to transform that vision into some form of reality. (P.B)

This view of sharing the principal's personal vision rather than the school staff's 'shared vision' was supported by a teacher:

He has a vision for himself. He is then able to talk about that in practical terms. Not only being able to talk about it from a philosophical point of view but being able to say, 'this is what it means, this is how it can be reflected in school practices, in teaching practice, in parent-school relationships, in relationships with students.' He can bring his own vision down to something that really impacts in the classroom. (T2. B)

It would seem that this principal was fulfilling most of the requirements set out in Leithwood's synthesis in developing a school vision, especially the element of espousing his own vision for the school. The principal of school C has used methods which have developed less of a personal vision for the school but still had the hallmarks of a strong personal influence over the substance of the vision. He explained:

The way I do it is by talking as a group about what the staff vision is and without saying this is my vision. All the time saying I suppose that 'the best school I have been in has this sort of atmosphere, and the best schools I have seen have this type of teaching, and this sort of rapport with one another.' It is through more incidental than direct communication with staff. It is through morning tea discussion and it is not something that I would say 'let us sit down and talk about our vision
and what we want to be like.’ I would say it is something that develops over months and months through incidental general discussion. That is how I go about it. (P.C)

One teacher in this school was of the view that the principal did discuss the school vision in formal sessions:

He (the principal) has regular meetings with the Key Teacher to discuss all the things to do with the school. It will then go to a staff meeting and be discussed and shared about. (T1. C)

Although the principals in the study were able to broadly illustrate and communicate the vision for their school none were able to supply a copy of the school vision to the researcher in a written statement. There was however a shared view of pedagogy and the purpose of educational programs in all of the schools. The findings seem to suggest that building a shared vision, rather than sharing the principals' vision, was not a strong feature of school administration in the schools that were used in this study. Shared vision may be more a feature of schools in the North American context. At the time of the study principals were under no obligation from EDWA to develop a school vision.

4.2 Builds Consensus About School Goals and Priorities.

It was found that elements in the dimension of building consensus about school goals and priorities were used by the principals of each school. Elements of this dimension that were not consistently confirmed in the

1 Senior teacher
interview were: encouraging teachers, as part of goal setting, to establish and review personal professional-growth goals; assisting staff in developing consistency among school vision, school, and/or department goals and individual goals; and clearly acknowledging the compatibility of teachers' goals and school goals (see table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Expects individual teachers and teams of teachers to regularly engage in goal setting and review of progress toward goals; may also have a process for goal setting and review for whole school staff</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encourages teachers, as part of goal setting, to establish and review personal professional growth goals</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Assists staff in developing consistency among school vision, school, and/or department goals and individual goals</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Engages with individual teachers in ongoing discussion of their personal professional goals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Explicitly makes use of school goals in decision-making processes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Clearly acknowledges the compatibility of teacher's goals and school goals when such is the case</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Expresses own views about goals that are important for the school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Range of Responses to the Dimension 'Builds Consensus about School Goals and Priorities' that were Evident in the Practice of Teaching Principals.
Each of the principals in the study had placed a major emphasis on the processes of goal setting and reviewing the goals in the school. This was achieved by establishing a set of procedures which had allowed staff to contribute to and participate in the formulation of school priorities. A feature of the procedures was that each school had been able to adopt a flexible approach which suited their organisation. The process of goal setting and review known as 'school development planning' in EDWA schools is a formal procedure for which principals are accountable to their superintendents.

One principal commented on how the advent of devolution had changed the decision-making processes in his administrative leadership:

... now I rarely make a decision where I haven’t talked to the staff about it first and the majority of them are onside and clear about it. Devolution and decentralisation has increased the staff participation in decision-making. If they disagree with it (the principal’s point of view) strongly then I would have to seriously think whether it was valuable because I respect their judgement. (P.B)

The decision-making process outlined above by the principal is clearly compatible with the elements in Leithwood’s dimension of building consensus about school goals and priorities.

School A had the smallest number of staff. Here the principal had adopted a more informal process. He explained:

Because we are a small school we do it through a round table discussion. When we are planning the school goals to determine where we are going people put forward their views and consensus has ruled. (P.A)
The capacity to reach consensus was confirmed by the teachers:

...he often (the principal) puts relief into a class so that we have time for shared decision-making so the goals belong to the whole staff. (T1. A)

...the document (school development plan) belongs to the whole staff and everybody takes part. We review everything together, we plan everything together and we have a great working document. (T1. A)

...he (the principal) encourages us to form our own opinions and when we do have meetings everyone’s opinion is important. (T2. A)

In schools B and C a more structured approach was evident:

Each staff member is given a section (of a school development plan priority) to analyse and report back on to a staff meeting. This helps build up an information base among the teachers. (P.B)

A lot of our goal and priority setting is based on documentation from testing and the MIS. Staff discussions about the goals and priorities take place regularly in staff meetings. (P.C)

Here the staff met regularly and the teachers had special responsibility for certain elements of the school planning process such as co-ordinating a priority or cost centre management. The principals of these schools have also promoted participation through the sharing of power by using the students’ parents in this process:

...goal setting and priorities has always been a joint program with teachers and parents. (T1. B)
...also in regards to the parents, on the newsletters and P & C meetings and school development meetings he will actually quiz the parents on what they want as well as telling them his ideas and sort of extracting more information from them. (T2. C)

Leithwood's set of elements in the dimension of building consensus about school goals and priorities does not include provision for parents to be included in the decision-making and planning process for school goals. All principals in both studies used extensive consultation of parents and other school community members when planning goals and priorities. It is EDWA policy that parents as members of school decision-making groups must approve school priorities (Western Australian Ministry of Education, 1990).

Encouraging teachers to establish and review personal professional-growth goals was a practice that was seldom used by the principals in the study. There was little focus directed towards linking school goals with teachers' personal professional goals and with some minor exceptions this practice appeared to be overlooked by the principals. In contrast to this there was evidence that the principals engaged individual teachers in ongoing discussion of the relationship of their personal professional goals to those of the school. A teacher explained:

*He (the principal) encourages us to do a lot of inservices and professional development if we want to set a goal in a certain area if it is a priority for the school then we will focus on that area. For example, I am the science co-ordinator and the principal nominated me to be in the science networking for the District because it was a priority for our school.*
The principals and teachers of schools B and C appeared to have developed a stronger sense of a 'shared' school vision than for school A. This was probably due to stronger links between the school vision and individual teacher goals.

In all schools of the study there was an emphasis on the use of school goals in decision-making processes:

*School goals form the basis of the decision-making processes in the school and is reinforced through the performance management process.* (P.B)

...I have to make sure that the decisions made by the group do suit the group and do benefit the school as a whole. They are just not decisions to appease the strategies of the Department...they are tied in with the school goals. (P.C)

The processes used by the principals complement the link between decision-making and school goals in Leithwood's synthesis.

All principals regularly expressed their views about the goals that were important in the school. This occurred in whole staff meetings, informal discussion with teachers, Parents and 'Citizens' meetings and through the school newsletter. In all schools teachers described how principals promoted dialogue about school goals and priorities:
...the principal does a lot of thinking and working these things (goal setting) out himself and then once again he will discuss it with us and ask for all our opinions and he will also do things like send out surveys or orally survey us and ask our opinions. (T2. C)

Another characteristic was the emphasis by the principal in ensuring that the school goals and priorities were linked to the classroom teaching practices. Teachers were of a view that:

...at the beginning of each semester we have a sheet which we sit down and go through with the principal. And that (process) is more or less a part of our..., well it is individual goal setting, like what we are going to do in our classrooms. What we are doing in our classrooms should link in with what the whole school is doing. We sit down with...(the principal) and we go through it. (T1. C)

...a feature of this school is that school development planning impacts on the classroom, and if you go into any classroom in this school you will see something happening in each of the priority areas; people talk about them quite naturally as part of their every day teaching; and parents are very much involved in it as well, and they will talk about the things that are happening. (T2. B)

The perspectives of the teachers show that they were linking pedagogy to the school goals and priorities.

The data provides support for the view that the principals were using this dimension of Leithwood's synthesis in their leadership practices. Goal and priority setting appeared to be emphasised in all schools. There was evidence of set times such as staff meetings, school development days and
parent meetings to engage in these operations. The decision-making processes in all schools appeared very clear and refined with opportunities for staff to express views in structured and orderly meetings. The type of processes the principals used in their individual leadership was partly determined by the nature of their school. The principals of schools B and C used a more formal and structured approach as they had a larger number of staff than the principal of school A.

4.3 Holds High Performance Expectations Concerning Staff.

Holding high performance expectations for staff was the dimension of transformational leadership that was most evident in the practice of principals in the study. The teachers' comments supported a view that the principals had an unflagging commitment to the welfare of the students in the school. This was illustrated by perspectives such as:

I think (that the principal) has got a wonderful attitude with kids. He actually cares about them as a whole and he sets off ... like he gives us the idea that we have to care about them, not just their academic learning but their social development and their mental growth as a whole. It comes through really clearly working with (the principal of school C)...

(T1. C)

Similar perspectives came from all teachers in the study. Commitment to the welfare of the students appear to teachers to be the most important element in this dimension.
Table 5. Range of Responses to the Dimension 'Holds High Performance Expectations' that were Evident in the Practice of Teaching Principals.

The principals were recognised as regularly espousing standards of excellence for the schools in order to stress expectations of high performance for their staff. Both the teachers and principals identified that the main mechanism of promoting 'excellence' was through modelling (see section 4.6).

All principals expected the staff to be innovative, hardworking and professional. Only school B was in a position to select new staff using these criteria because of participation in the EDWA Flexibility in Schooling Project. A teacher from the school explained:

...the criteria selected by the teaching staff indicated that this school has a staff which is innovative, which has a certain philosophy, which has
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...the criteria selected by the teaching staff indicated that this school has a staff which is innovative, which has a certain philosophy, which has
certain expectations. Not only has the principal put high performance expectations on the staff, the staff has put it on themselves. (T2. B)

In referring to the principal's expectations of staff in this area a teacher in school A commented:

...he has a professional expectation of staff, and I do not think he puts anything onto staff that they cannot perform or give back to him or achieve. I think he is very realistic and he approaches each person with regard to strengths and weaknesses, and certainly works in a very positive way. (T1. A)

A feature of this dimension of transformational leadership as used by the principals was that all of the teachers and principals interviewed highlighted the flexibility that the principals allowed the staff within the context of the school plans. Teachers were of a view that:

...he (the principal) definitely promotes flexibility and flexibility comes from him too, not just expecting it one way. He gives us as much opportunity as he can to work in a collaborative manner. (T1. A)

...he (the principal) respects your professionalism and allows you to go along with your own goals and policies and he just backs them up with little guidelines and the structure of what is expected and he reviews them informally. (T2. A)

Each of the principals interviewed recognised the importance of holding high performance expectations in the area of performance management. Although the practice is not listed in Leithwood's (1994) dimension as a discrete element there are components of the process explicit in other
dimensions including 'Provides individual support' and 'Builds consensus about school goals and priorities.' The principal of school B described how he accomplished managing performance by being prepared to listen to people and to demonstrate high levels of performance himself. A teacher in this school believed that:

...there is a constant performance management process that happens in the school where the teachers have a one-to-one interview with the principal and they talk about the goals that they are setting in the classroom and for themselves. Children who are at either end of the scale, what they will do with them, how they will meet their school priorities. So that is an expectation that people are performing to a high level. (T2. B)

Although many of the practices of the dimension of holding high performance expectations in the school was used by all principals in their leadership the findings suggest that the principals considered performance management of the staff to be a vital practice in the area. As described above performance management as a discrete element is absent from Leithwood's (1994) synthesis of transformational leadership. However, Leithwood does refer to the importance of performance management as a role requirement of the principal in an earlier study on transformational leadership (Leithwood, Jantzi, Silins & Dart; 1993). He suggests that 'appraisal practices provide not only performance feedback to school leaders, they also symbolise organisational values' (p. 106).

Although the performance management of teachers was not an accountable requirement of EDWA principals at the time of the study all principals in both studies had structured processes which they used in the schools. There
was also an expectation by superintendents that principals carry out a process of performance management although requirements were always ambiguous. During 1995 an Enterprise Bargaining Agreement for teachers was being developed by EDWA which included regular performance management of teaching staff as a requirement of quality assurance.

Participants in the study highlighted the importance of the principal holding high performance expectations in schools during a period of restructuring. Leithwood (1994) places less importance on this dimension in relation to achieving set outcomes during restructuring by placing it behind vision building, goal setting, individualised support and intellectual stimulation. He states that 'high-performance expectations appear to be much more context dependent than the effects of most other dimensions of transformational leadership' (p. 509). Leithwood suggests that where commitment to educational restructuring in a school is already high negative effects may be experienced by the extra pressures placed on the teachers. This did not appear to be the case with the schools in this study where commitment to educational restructuring was very high. It is likely that teachers in small primary schools represent a context in which there is a need for further studies of transformational leadership.

4.4 Provision of Individualised Support to Staff.

The findings indicate that principals were providing school staff with high levels of individualised support. This was consistent with nearly all of the practices in this dimension (see Table 6). Of note is that the teachers interviewed provided stronger evidence of the occurrence of the support than did the principals.
All principal and teacher interviewees recognised the importance of the principal's professional relationship with the staff members. They indicated the value of the principal having an awareness and understanding of the teachers' particular skills and interests. Principals provided individualised support in a variety of ways. One principal indicated:

*I prefer working individually with teachers. I visit the classrooms and have formal and informal discussions to address their needs. I individually counsel staff members on their needs, their students, and their personal concerns and endeavour to follow through on those. I actively try to listen to what is being said and attempt to find the best possible joint solution to address the teachers' needs.* (P.B)

He believed that this process where he formally recorded notes made it easier for him to follow through on any action that was jointly decided. The success of this method was demonstrated by a teacher:

*...he (the principal) helps people identify areas of concern and provides support for them to work on that. A specific example of providing support or backing off I guess, in terms of pushing people into a new area was where the school has mathematics as a priority. We had been approached to be a trial school in the outcome statements working mathematically. The principal backed off in that area because he sensed that the staff felt a bit of an overload, so he is supportive in that area. He can sense the way people are feeling and working and can back off when needed.* (T2. B)

This comment was consistent with a number of Leithwood's elements in the dimension of provision of individual support.
In contrast the principal of school C preferred a less structured approach to provide individual support. Some structured processes were used to meet EDWA accountability procedures. The principal of school C was of a view that the provision of individual support came:

...through meetings at the start of each term. That has only come about because of the increase of performance management and accountability information we keep getting from District Office. This is a result of devolution and decentralisation and yet I do not think this is the way that I do it. That is the way that I do it so that I can show the superintendent that 'yes, I am doing it,' but I give more individual support during teacher’s DOTT time when I have a coffee with them, or just being in their class at different times, or talking after school when they tell me they have a problem with something. That is how I would give 90 per cent. of my individual support. That is all incidental type stuff. (P.C)

An acknowledgment of the success of this less structured method was demonstrated by a teacher who explained:

...first thing in the morning when we get to school we spend 15 minutes like friends chatting about what you have done, but slowly you move into more of a teacher and principal role. Being friends he knows you well enough to know our problems. He knows our problems before we do half the time. (T1. C)

A number of issues arise here. The first is the balance between the personal and professional relationship of the teacher and the principal. EDWA
- Gets to know individual teachers well enough to understand their problems and be aware of their particular skills and interests; listens carefully to staff's ideas
- Provides recognition of staff work in the form of individual praise or pats on the back
- Is specific about what is being praised as good work
- Has the pulse of the school; builds on the individual interests of teachers, often as the starting point for school change
- Encourages individual teachers to try new practices consistent with their interests
- As often as possible, responds positively to teachers' initiatives for change
- Treats everyone equally; does not show favouritism toward individuals or groups
- Has an open-door policy
- Is approachable, accessible, and welcoming
- Follows through on decisions made jointly with teachers
- As often as possible, provides money for professional development and in support of changes agreed on by staff
- Explicitly shares teachers' legitimate caution about proceeding quickly toward implementing new practices, thus demonstrating sensitivity to the real problems of implementation faced by teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6. Range of Responses to the Dimension 'Provides Individualised Support' that were Evident in the Practice of Teaching Principals.</th>
<th>School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Gets to know individual teachers well enough to understand their problems and be aware of their particular skills and interests; listens carefully to staff's ideas</td>
<td>A 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Provides recognition of staff work in the form of individual praise or pats on the back</td>
<td>1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Is specific about what is being praised as good work</td>
<td>1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Has the pulse of the school; builds on the individual interests of teachers, often as the starting point for school change</td>
<td>2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encourages individual teachers to try new practices consistent with their interests</td>
<td>3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- As often as possible, responds positively to teachers' initiatives for change</td>
<td>3 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Treats everyone equally; does not show favouritism toward individuals or groups</td>
<td>2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Has an open-door policy</td>
<td>3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Is approachable, accessible, and welcoming</td>
<td>3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Follows through on decisions made jointly with teachers</td>
<td>3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- As often as possible, provides money for professional development and in support of changes agreed on by staff</td>
<td>3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Explicitly shares teachers' legitimate caution about proceeding quickly toward implementing new practices, thus demonstrating sensitivity to the real problems of implementation faced by teachers</td>
<td>2 1</td>
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</table>
accountability procedures would suggest that there are power differences and that they are clearly defined in many instances including the processes of performance management. It is more likely that the principals and teachers in small schools develop both an effective personal and a professional relationship.

In each school the small number of staff allowed regular unstructured discussions between the principal and the teachers to take place on a wide range of issues. The three principals in the study were viewed by the teachers as actively encouraging pedagogical change in the school and where possible linking the change in with teachers' interests:

He (the principal) encourages any area that you are interested in. (T2. A)

He (the principal) is very flexible and very encouraging of teachers who wish to try new things. He supports teachers’ initiatives. (T2. B)

He (the principal) makes us feel confident enough to try new things. He gives us that support. (T1. C)

The principals' perspectives confirmed this view although they implied that any change had to be within the parameters of the school development plan. There was recognition from all interviewees that initiatives to change were always supported by adequate provision of professional development in the schools. A teacher explained:

He (the principal) encourages any area that you are interested in, or if it is part of the school development plan he will encourage everyone to go along to professional development. He keeps up to date with all the
Departmental directives and he will inform you. Anything from the Union (SSTUWA), the district office; he will come in and tell you about it straight away and perhaps put a sheet in the pigeon hole. However he would rather discuss it with you and tell you what is happening. This includes anything that might be interesting to you. (T2. A)

An example of the support provided occurred in school B where the principal encouraged a teacher who had a special interest in science to investigate new curriculum initiatives and develop strategies for the school science program. He provided support based on his own experiences as a science adviser in District Offices and through professional development which resulted in science becoming a priority in the school development plan. The teacher also undertook the role of the co-ordinator in introducing a new program across the school. A teacher explained:

I can think of a particular teacher on the staff who was moving out of a junior primary area where she taught for years and years into a support role in the area of science. The principal is very strong in that area and he offered a huge amount of support in her development: modelling good practice, demonstrations, giving lots of feedback, providing lots of time for her to go and visit other places ... to the point that the teacher has now received recognition as a science teacher of high quality. (T2. B)

The empowerment of teachers through the provision of individualised support as illustrated above was a key feature in every school in the study. One principal was of the view:

The biggest thing that I have noticed with the change brought about by devolution has been the empowerment of teachers to have a say in the
school development plan, and controlling the direction of the school...I try to support them especially with professional development, and trying to keep their minds clear on what they are doing. (P.A)

Although Leithwood does not list a specific element related to teacher empowerment in this dimension several of the elements include descriptions of the strategies used by the principals.

All participants in the study indicated that the principals worked to maintain an 'open door policy'. Principals were approachable and accessible and treated all staff equally. Teacher perspectives of principals included:

...he (the principal) will offer advice if you want it and certainly will be flexible to accommodate you in any way he can. (T1. A)

...individually he (the principal) approaches teachers and he is approachable for them. (T1. A)

...he (the principal) specifically sets up a process where people are able to approach him at any time. (T2. B)

...he (the principal) goes out of the office and is seen in the school. He meets people on their own turf. (T2. B)

One principal indicated:

...I try to practise an open door policy at least 90 per cent of the time. (P.B)

Investigation of the provision of individualised support yielded data suggesting that teachers had a higher level of awareness of how principals provided support, than many of the principals. This may have been due to
the principals taking these relationships for granted in the day to day
operations of the school. More importantly it may have reflected the higher
level of needs of teachers for their principal’s support. It would also appear
that due to the small number of staff in these schools teaching principals
have greater opportunity than their non-teaching colleagues to provide
individual support. In larger schools the support would be shared amongst
the administration team.

4.5 Provision of Intellectual Stimulation to Staff.

The data from the three schools in the study were very distinct in the ways
that each principal endeavoured to provide intellectual stimulation for the
staff members. The exception was with the first practice in the dimension.
This concerned the principal directly challenging the teachers’ basic
assumptions about their work as well as unsubstantiated or questionable
beliefs and practices. There was no evidence that principals were using this
practice in any of the schools (see Table 7).

The principal of school A relied on facilitating intellectual stimulation for
staff through school development processes and associated professional
development activities provided by EDWA. He explained:

_I think also being part of the Early Literacy Project has also provided
them with new found stimulation in the point that since being involved
in the project we have had two mornings set aside where we have been
working towards tying that in with the PSP program and the Key
Teacher has run most of those sessions, and she is very competent and
puts it across very well. It was again a round table discussion. And then_
following from that we did a school or a staff survey and now we are leading into professional development again to keep them up to the changes. (P.A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>School A</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>School C</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Directly challenges staff’s, basic assumptions about their work as well as unsubstantiated or questionable beliefs and practices</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encourages/persuades staff to try new practices without using pressure</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encourages staff to evaluate their practices and to refine them as needed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Stimulates the search for, and discussion of, new ideas and information relevant to school directions</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Attends conferences and seeks out many sources of new ideas and passes such ideas onto staff</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Seeks out new ideas by visiting other schools</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Publicly recognises exemplary performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Invites teachers to share their expertise with their colleagues</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Consistently seeks out and communicates positive activities taking place in the school!</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Removes penalties for making mistakes as part of efforts toward professional and school improvement</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Range of Responses to the Dimension 'Provides Intellectual Stimulation' that were Evident in the Practice of Teaching Principals.

The principal of school B deliberately set about establishing structures within the school so that intellectual stimulation was self generating. Focus
teacher networks were developed within the school so that teachers could share their expertise with colleagues. Processes were established which enabled teachers to participate in the decision-making of the school. In school committees teachers were encouraged to take turns in facilitation, setting the agenda, leading, writing, presenting and supported in being able to break into open debate. In school B a teacher commented:

*Everybody is learning from everyone else and this has been deliberately constructed by the principal.* (T1. B)

The principal had worked to establish professional relationships so that each member of the staff was learning from structured interaction with colleagues.

The principal of school C used yet another approach. He became familiar with the professional interests of individual teachers. Resources and information were channelled to those teachers. Comments from the staff included:

*...he will organise the budget so that we can get to different things (conferences, visits to other schools) to increase our knowledge.* (T2. C)

*...anything he thinks we will be especially interested in he pigeon holes for us or draws our attention to it. So he does make us aware of new things that are out.* (T1. C)

All three principals were active in encouraging the staff to try new practices and follow up with evaluation and refinement of their practice. A principal indicated:
I get staff to evaluate what they are doing in class and in some cases there have been radical changes. This has led to a more developmental student focussed learning style. (P.B)

The principal of school C was of the view that:

I always encourage staff to try new ideas. I encourage them to have a go because they have nothing to lose. They can start again tomorrow if it does not work. (P.C)

This approach was valued by one of the teachers who indicated:

...one of the big things I found when I first came here was he would encourage us to try whatever we wanted to, even if he knew it was not going to work. He knew I was not going to do anything too terrible. (T2. C)

The teacher’s comment was compatible with the final element in Leithwood’s dimension of providing intellectual stimulation. This concerns the principal removing penalties for making mistakes as part of efforts toward professional and school improvement. It would appear that the principals of all schools in the main study encouraged the teachers to experiment with pedagogical practice in order to facilitate professional development and school improvement.

Although the principals were generally seen to be communicating the positive activities taking place within the school only one principal consistently publicly recognised exemplary performance:
He will often say at P & C meetings and assemblies how teachers have contributed or achieved something, or have performed well. I think he uses the praise to avoid taking on the ‘you will do this’ role. (T1. A)

The participants from all schools in the study claimed an organisational culture which promoted collaboration among the teachers:

I have always been a collaborative type of person...We sit around and we do toss things (ideas) around and sometimes I am not going to get what I want because the teachers are going to put up a good argument. This process empowers them in the school decision-making. (P.A)

This view was supported by a teacher:

He promotes teamwork amongst the staff. We will try a new strategy and come back review (collaborate) how it went. Then we make a decision on its value to the school. (T1. A)

The use of these collaborative processes may in some part be due to the EDWA accountability procedures concerning participatory decision-making in schools.

The principals' use of the practices of the provision of intellectual stimulation to staff varied from school to school. There was a consistency in all schools that the principals did not challenge basic assumptions of staff about their work. Principals tended to support rather than challenge staff. This practice appears to be necessary for the remainder of the elements in the dimension. It seems problematic as to whether the principals were able to use all of the required elements.
4.6 Models Good Professional Practice.

The findings revealed that the teaching principals in this study used a minority of the elements in the dimension of modelling good professional practice (see Table 8). These elements appeared to be focussed in the areas of empowering staff in school decision-making procedures, allowing teachers a large degree of autonomy in their operations, and modelling as a means of promoting excellence.

The principal of school A concentrated on building a culture of 'shared decision-making' within the school through the school development plan and school program management:

...sharing leadership is built in. It goes back to the PSP plan basically. That (the PSP plan) is teacher owned. So in that plan you have co-ordinators for the priorities. I am a co-ordinator for only one of the priorities. I do 'phys ed' but I have someone who shares that role with me. Other teachers are fully responsible for other sections of the PSP plan. Sometimes I spend a lot of time modelling practice to the staff. For example, I am the cost centre manager for physical education. I lead by example I think. (P.A)

This facet of the principal's leadership was valued by the staff:

...he definitely trusts teachers' professional judgements and will back you. I think that is vitally important in the changing times we are experiencing. (T1. A)
Table 8. Range of Responses to the Dimension 'Models Good Professional Practice' that were Evident in the Practice of Teaching Principals.

...he gives a lot of shared leadership to the teachers who take on a few of the roles that he would do on his own. For example collecting data, or running a meeting, or disciplining some children that may need a first
warning rather than a severe warning, so he has distributed that with the teacher. He has given a lot of power back into our classrooms. (T2. A)

The adoption of shared leadership practices by these principals may have been influenced by EDWA educational restructuring initiatives that prescribed participatory decision-making. The practice of participatory decision-making featured strongly in all schools. It was associated with the incorporation of teachers and parents into school administration, and the breaking down of boundaries between the administration and teachers within the school. Most participants saw this practice as essential, especially in a small school. One teacher explained the process in the school where she taught:

Any decisions that are made, he (the principal) will work out on the basis of consulting everyone. Being the Key Teacher I provide a fair amount of assistance with this as a sort of talking blackboard. But before any major decisions are made he will discuss it with the staff first and it will go to a vote. (T1. C)

Teachers were of the view that it was very important for the principal to have a component of teaching in their duties. The teaching component of the principals' work was seen as enhancing their credibility as an educational leader in the school:

He (the principal) obviously gets to know their (the teachers') style and the children that they are teaching, so he has got a foot in the door when it comes to problems in the classrooms. This is because he deals with those children in a teaching way as well. (T1. A)
He (the principal) talks about what makes a good teacher and actively demonstrates that in his teaching. (T2. B)

This perception was also shared by the principals who all had a high level of awareness of the necessity of it for modelling good professional practice to staff. Principals' comments included:

*The expectations I have for teachers is shown in my teaching.* (P.B)

*I think it is very important to model good teaching practice because it should lead to an improvement in the children’s education.* (P.C)

A feature of the work of principals in this dimension was the energy and positive enthusiasm they displayed in their work in relation to both the students and the staff. The necessity of maintaining a positive approach to all facets of work was stressed as an essential component of leadership by all principals. One principal recognised the importance of the element even when interacting with students outside the classroom:

*In the playground very much so. I am very strong on positive reinforcement and I really make a strong effort to be positive to the students. I think it is really important because it can be infectious and I find the staff pick it up as well.* (P.C)

The practice of this element in the dimension by the principal was confirmed by the teachers:
...he is very involved in positive reinforcement for the students and you can send kids up to his office any time and he will make the time for them. (T1. C)

...he just is professional. He sets the example, by encouraging people, being happy, being confident in what he is doing, and that passes onto other people. And the expectations he has transfers to other people. Everybody is treated equally. I work with him, not for him. Most of the teachers feel like that. (T2. C)

...he is always seen to be doing the right thing whether its adults, children, whoever. You see it all the time so it rubs off on you as well. (T2. C)

It is clear from the teacher's comments that they value this form of leadership in their school because it sets a standard for expected behaviours and practice.

Both principals and teachers highlighted the value of modelling in promoting excellence within the school. The principal of school C valued this method:

I believe in modelling, in that as a classroom teacher and someone who always has to pick up the things like if you have got a program going. If it is a whole school program, I will often be the person out the front leading and taking each class. Therefore modelling is one way where if someone is down and not working to expectations I will look at the area in which they are working which I feel is a bit below expectations. It would just be something which I would happen to be talking about, then
discussing with them using my own teaching as an example. I am not a confrontationist so I do not like to go and say to someone 'right I want you to lift in this area.' I would do it more subtly. (P.C)

The subtle approach outlined by this principal in modelling excellence is not listed as a discrete practice of Leithwood's dimension. It does appear though to be inherent across all practices within the dimension. It seemed from this comment that the principal used critical discussion of pedagogy and practice with the teachers in conjunction with modelling. This would indicate the principal was combining practices from the dimension of intellectual stimulation with those of modelling good professional practice. Comments from two of the teachers in this school recognised the principal's belief in the modelling process:

...through his own behaviour, his own modelling and the standard he sets for himself. I feel it even comes down to little things like the time he gets to school, or the time he leaves. The time he puts in. He is hardworking and professional. He models it and he expects us to be professionals and in turn we are. His modelling is so widely commented upon in the community. He is held in quite high esteem in the community, so you sort of want to lift yourself up to that level. (T1. C)

...modelling. He has always got a high standard for what he himself does and you sort of think you have got to get up to scratch. (T2. C)

There were two apparent groups of elements in the dimension that were rarely used by principals. One is related to the first dimension concerning the shared vision for the school. There was little evidence that the principals were linking their school vision with professional practice and long term goals for the school. Rather than focussing on a vision it appeared
as if the principals were employing the school development plan to achieve this purpose.

The second group of under utilised elements concerned dialogue between the staff regarding the principal's leadership practices. None of the principals in the study had a formal procedure whereby staff were able to provide dialogue about the professional performance and expectations of the principal. Only in one instance did a teacher refer to informal dialogue:

*He (the principal) responds constructively to feedback about his own leadership practices. We can talk to him about things and tell him that we need more help in this or in that, or I'm a bit lost and he will respond.* (T1. C)

This seems to suggest that the practice in these schools was at best of an *ad hoc* nature. One reason for the dialogue not occurring in the schools could be the corporate managerialist philosophy of line management which EDWA was using at the time of the study which promoted lines of accountability in one direction only.

4.7 Summary.

The findings in the study suggest that the group of identified principals were demonstrating only some dimensions of transformational leadership. Leithwood (1993) claims that transformational leadership in schools is:

...a whole cloth...The substantial effects of transformational leadership which we found, seem attributable to the comprehensive application of
The principals in the study were certainly not applying all of the practices in the dimensions of Leithwood's synthesis of transformational leadership. The most significant under-utilisation occurred in the dimension related to developing a shared vision for the school. The understanding by the principals of what constitutes a shared vision within the culture of the school appears problematic. Each principal believed that they were cultivating a shared vision of the future program of the school but this was not confirmed by the staff in each of the schools.

The principals appeared to focus on leadership through the dimensions of goal and priority setting. The provision of individualised support to the staff was claimed as important by the teachers. The principals, however, did not provide as much evidence as the teachers did in indicating that this was occurring. The findings suggested that of all the dimensions, holding high performance expectations for staff was more central to the principals' practice.

The provision of intellectual stimulation produced the most diverse responses amongst the participants. There was evidence that each principal was practising this dimension in a different manner. Again there were inconsistencies in the dimension of modelling good professional practice to the staff. The data confirmed that a number of Leithwood's practices were rarely used while those related to participatory decision-making and trusting the judgements of teachers were consistently practised.
The small sample of principals in the study does not enable generalisation to all principals. Since...data was collected a new round of EDWA restructuring has created further opportunities for principals to develop transformational leadership practices. However, the data illustrates the kinds of transformational practices that may be evident among teaching principals during an era of restructuring.
5.0 Introduction.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research findings from the study related to the second research question. In the previous chapter a description of how teaching principals were practising transformational leadership was presented. This chapter identifies phenomena which are seen as impinging upon the capacity of the teaching principals to effectively practise the dimensions of transformational leadership during educational restructuring. The perspectives of the principals and teachers in the study, as well as the researcher's interpretation of their perspectives are reported in the data analysis.

5.1. Develops a Widely Shared Vision for the School.

A number of common themes emerged from the data which appeared to impinge on the capacity of teaching principals to effectively practise the dimension of developing a vision for the school that is shared by the staff and the parents. All participants suggested that the main issue was the principal's lack of time in which to complete the necessary job related tasks. Teachers described the difficulty their principal faced as:
...being on the teaching staff himself and having duties in the playground does make it quite difficult at times to be able to discuss these things (developing a shared vision) especially when there is a Departmental issue or a school development issue. I find that if he is out there doing duty or he is teaching, that does restrict time to talk to the staff and inform us of what is happening. (T1.A)

...a factor in our school is that we have very little time together to be able to get together and have open discussion or challenges on things that have arisen. So sometimes given pressure from Central Office and District Office the principal has to make decisions without consultation. He does not have time to come to us. Time is a major factor. (T2. A)

From the teachers' perspective the explanations of the various time constraints that the principal in school A faced provide an indication of the intensification of work that principals have had to deal with during educational restructuring. The teachers provided evidence of the conflict that principals face concerning time and the priority of the demands of management. In this context it is likely that developing a shared vision would remain a low priority. The issue of limited time to complete the required work was evident in all other responses from the principals.

For another principal the building of a shared vision was a low priority. He was frustrated by a perceived tension between the roles of administrator and classroom teacher and was of a view that:
I wanted to do both jobs really well but realised I could not because of the time constraints. This has really affected my ability to do things such as building a shared vision for my school. (P.B)

A teacher in this school supported his views by claiming that:

...it (tension between roles) has an impact on your teaching. The teaching load that the principal has is in mathematics and just getting organised. It is difficult when you get phone calls two minutes just before you have to go off teaching. (T2. B)

This teacher believed that the principal's pedagogical practice may have been suffering due to the time constraints. If the principal's teaching is being affected by a shortage of time and the intensification of work demands it is likely that developing a widely shared vision for the school would remain a very low priority for the principal. Also many management demands require immediate responses which may force principals to defer shared decision-making processes. Teaching principals are viewed as the 'master' teacher in their schools and the findings in both studies suggest that the principals are well aware of this.

Overall both the teachers and the principals did not hold strong views concerning the dimension. This would suggest that building a shared vision was not an institutionalised practice in each of the schools studied. There is also the possibility that they may have had a low level of awareness of the common views that they had developed concerning the vision of their school.
5.2 Builds Consensus about School Goals and Priorities.

There was very strong evidence that each of the principals attempted to build consensus about school goals and priorities. EDWA accountability policies, a key influence on principals, required that they attain the consensus. Rigorous audits of these processes are carried by superintendents. Finding time to initiate such processes was a continuing frustration for the principals. One principal recognised that:

...the biggest factor here for me to achieve consensus is that I rarely get to see the staff in school hours. So the biggest problem is that when a teacher is on DOTT time, it is me that is giving them DOTT time. So to see them and walk into the staffroom when they are on DOTT time and say 'look can I see you for a minute, I want to talk to you about this', is basically just about impossible. (P.A)

The principal in this instance was referring to a lack of time in which to demonstrate educational leadership. Due to the rigidity of the EDWA staffing formula, the principal's teaching component and the small number of staff in the school he had little opportunity to regularly spend time with his staff working through school planning issues.

The principal of school B discussed the effect of the shortage of time on the teachers. He believed that on several occasions by trying to build consensus about school priorities he had placed a considerable amount of undue pressure on the teachers to make quick decisions. This had resulted in a large degree of stress for both the teachers and the principal. He knew that this was unsatisfactory leadership practice but he had no choice due to the
tight timelines set down by the district superintendent in order to meet accountability procedures. This issue was raised by a teacher who explained:

...in some cases devolution and decentralisation has made it harder
given that devolution has in lots of ways created an awful amount of accountability and you double up on so many things. The paperwork is incredibly large. (T1. A)

This comment would indicate that teachers were also feeling the effects of the lack of time and work intensification that teaching principals have in order to meet their accountability requirements with consensus building.

Another influence on the capacity of the principal to use the leadership practices which create consensus was allowing for the competing educational philosophies and priorities of various teachers and parents. This was an issue in two schools. One teacher reported:

...the one problem which would happen in any school is probably the teacher's own philosophy of the best way to reach certain outcomes. For example First Steps and the Early Literacy Project and other change that we are going through now and the teachers' own philosophy can cause problems. We have overcome this by giving the staff a number of opportunities, a lot of support, trying to make it as non-threatening as possible. (T2. A)

This teacher has raised an issue which all EDWA schools face under educational restructuring. The schools are obliged to implement participatory decision-making models in order to obtain consensus in the area of school goals and priorities. This process can be very time consuming.
Previously the decisions have either been centrally determined or made by the principal.

Parents of students in more isolated schools are likely to have greater input into school operations. Teacher 2 in school C highlighted this issue by commenting that they often had parents in their school community who have ideas for learning/curriculum priorities which are quite different from the teachers' and the principal's views. The teacher indicated that this situation can become a problem. The advent of devolution has allowed parents in all communities to participate in this aspect of decision-making. There was a possibility that the politics of the community entered the school forum. EDWA educational restructuring initiatives encourage community members to take their conflict about educational matters direct to their local school rather than the office of the Minister for Education.

5.3 Holds High Performance Expectations Concerning Staff.

Again the shortage of time was very pronounced as an impingement in this dimension. Although the principals were viewed as putting in a large amount of extra hours after school, they were unable to fully address the elements described by Leithwood. The difficulty the principals faced was related to the expectation that their teachers would put in the extra time after school when the principal was available. The principals did not equate the extra hours they put in at school with high performance, they equated it with getting the job done. A principal explained that a major barrier to performing in this dimension was his teaching load:
I am timetabled in to teach. I am always teaching somebody else's class. That makes it difficult and of course the teaching load of 0.6\(^1\) has made it very difficult. Basically the other 0.4 is used for administration. I always find that the District Office or everybody else will always call a meeting on Wednesdays which is my full day administration. So I lose a lot of time there and I do not get the opportunity to use my administration time to wander down and have a look in. (P.A)

This principal believed that his teaching load had forced him to work outside of his normal hours to complete administrative duties. The related concern was that his administration time was often taken up with meetings which reduced the time that he was able to attend to pedagogical matters with teaching staff.

The lack of time was highlighted by a teacher in relation to the principal's teaching load. She indicated that there was a degree of frustration among the staff because of the shortage of access to the principal:

...time becomes a hassle. The program changed a little bit this year. He was spending every morning in the classroom last year and this year he is spending two full mornings in the classroom and two half mornings in the classroom. That presents a big problem because he does not have the time within school time, school hours, for sorting things out. The time constraint would probably be one of the major problems other than the personality thing that sometimes comes into it, but he seems to be able to handle that pretty well. (T2. A)

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\(^1\) Refers to a six-tenths teaching load.
The finding was consistent in each school regarding the lack of quality time that teachers were able to spend with their principals discussing best practice. The issue of differing personalities on the staff was also raised by the principal of school B. He was of the opinion that there were always difficult situations where he had to consider teacher's feelings and needs when promoting high performance expectations especially concerning organisational change in the school brought about to a large degree by restructuring. This principal described:

...breaking down the barriers between the teacher thinking about their role as just within the four walls (of the classroom). The old cultural identity of a teacher. You need to break that down and get the teachers to think of the whole school. It happened quickly at our school because it is a small school. (P.B)

The rigidity of the EDWA staffing formula was also seen as a barrier to the quality of the principals' leadership. The staffing allocation did not allow the principal to be released from specific teaching duties when the need arose. Teachers in school A had traded off components of their DOTT time so that they could gain access to the principal. This meant that the teachers' class preparation time was compressed which further intensified their work. The principals of the Level Three schools (schools C, D and E) all mentioned the restrictions that the staffing formula posed in relation to their leadership.
5.4 Provision of Individualised Support to Staff.

The time and workload factors featured very strongly in the area of provision of individualised support to staff. All principals cited that they were not able to provide the quality of individual support to their staff that they would have liked to. During 1995 school A was placed under threat of rationalisation because student numbers had fallen to a level in an EDWA formula which meant that the students were destined to move to other schools because the school premises and buildings had to be sold. This meant an increased workload for the principal and severely affected the amount of time and quality of individual support that he was able to offer the staff. He explained:

Basically it (rationalisation) has given me another hat to wear because part of my role is to keep the parents informed. One of the aspects of the leadership here is not to panic the staff in particular, in that the school is going to close at the end of the year and that they will be left high and dry. They do not trust the Department, that is the best way of putting it and we have had Staffing Section come out here and tell them 'look, you are going to be looked after', but they are a bit sceptical about that. The other thing about it is that I was told by the rationalisation people that the staff were not to stick their beaks into it, that the parents made the decision. I had to tell the staff that it is alright to have an opinion, but keep it to yourself. The staff will be called later on by the Rationalisation Unit to express something like their opinions on the learning side of it. So it is just another job to keep them going. The hardest part of the rationalisation is that this particular school has been targeted, (it was top of the list last year in the paper and they have been expecting it) is to keep them going and get away from the attitude of why bother we are
going to close down. That was a big problem last year because I inherited quite a big bank balance from last year because they did not spend any money. The idea was 'why spend money if we are going to close this year'. I said 'spend the money, because they are either going to go to (an adjacent primary school) or somewhere else at the end of the day, we can use it here for our PSP. Let us not work on the philosophy that we are going to close up at the end of the year. It may help.'

It has been more of a job of keeping them fully informed as to what is going on, so part of staff meetings are taken up by a report from me on rationalisation and where we are at, explaining to them what the committee is working on currently, this is what their views are. The outcome of that is that under this process the minutes from meetings cannot be divulged really until they have been accepted by the school committee, and to try and keep them informed without compromising the committee is quite difficult because you are basically working in a backward process where the committee is basically two steps ahead of what the staff know. And the unfortunate thing about that is that I do not have control over committee members who may discuss openly what has been going on at meetings. I just have to make sure that staff do not learn what is going on out in the community. That would get them even more disgruntled. I have broken the rules in that I have given them a copy of the minutes anyhow, they get a copy of the minutes the same time as the community now, and I just tell them to put them under their hat, sit on them, but at least they know what is going on and so the staff is fully informed. So the rationalisation has played a fairly big part. (P.A)
This principal's experiences was evidence of how EDWA's policy of rationalising schools acutely intensified the work of the teaching principal. The focus amongst the staff moved from school improvement to school survival. The principal's focus in the provision of individual support to the teachers moved from one of pedagogical support to one of advocate for government policy. School rationalisation was yet another example of conflict in education moving from the office of the Minister for Education to the school.

A teacher in this school described other factors which were related to restructuring which impinged on the principal being able to provide her with individualised support. She explained:

> I think the barrier is that he (principal) still has all the requirements of all the paperwork of a non-teaching principal. The barriers are that with devolution all things that come out to schools, and even with your school development, School Council, and that, he still has to do all those things that a non-teaching principal does and he only has so many hours in a day. (T1. A)

Again there was evidence that the teachers in these small schools were aware that the principal had large administrative demands which limited the time they were able to spend in receiving pedagogical support.

A teacher suggested that the constraints placed upon principals by both restructuring and teaching commitments did not allow them to exhibit adequate leadership practices in this dimension. She was of the view that:
...having that teaching commitment which in one way allows that person to be part of the teaching profession, but in another in terms of administration or management is just a huge, huge load. (T2. B)

It would appear that many of the teachers in the study may be resigned to the fact that they were unable to obtain the level of support that they would like to receive from their principal. This was due to the workload and time constraints that the principals were faced with under educational restructuring. The teachers were not critical of the principals' leadership. Instead they were critical of EDWA in not providing the principals with adequate resources and administrative support.

Having an 'excellent staff' had taken the pressure off the principal of school C. He described the problems that he faced in a previous school and expected to face in the future in relation to time and workload and provision of individualised support:

> It has not so much with this staff because I have a very good staff at the moment and I feel that they will come to me when they have a problem. Therefore I feel I do not have to spend time to help them or sit in their classroom with them because they have got a good grasp of most things, but I could imagine if I had a bad teacher as I had a few years back I know that I would spend a very long time going in and giving them time which is valuable to me, but it was spent helping that teacher. Being a teaching principal really makes it difficult. (P.C)

Prior to 1987 the principal was able to call the district superintendent into the school to deal with sub-standard or difficult teachers. Devolution of
authority through restructuring has placed this responsibility with the principal.

Another difficulty of principals in outlying schools was the isolation factor. Because the schools are so distant from the EDWA Central and District Offices they were unable to receive the extra assistance they may need at times to provide extra support for their staff. This problem was evident in school C where the principal had to provide the service to the teachers and the parents.

5.5 Provision of Intellectual Stimulation to Staff.

Once again the time and workload factors impinged upon the principals’ capacity to provide intellectual stimulation for the staff. The principal of school A was of the opinion that he should have been able to use part of the four school development days each year for this purpose. Exacting accountability measures by EDWA concerning the school development plan prevented him from doing this. He was obliged to use the days for whole school planning and data collection purposes. The principal of school C found that the lack of time did not allow him to undertake sufficient professional reading. Consequently he did not feel up to date with the latest educational practices. He believed that this limited his capacity to promote the professional growth and empowerment with his staff in this area.

Isolation was another key consideration in this dimension. The principal and teachers of school C stated their concerns about the distance that they had to travel for professional development.
With the majority of professional development being in Perth the
distance factor is a major problem. With the amount of money this
school gets we cannot afford to attend a lot of the professional
development (that is) available. (P.C)

...distance is a major factor because a lot of the courses are offered in
Perth and if they are middle of the week type things it is very difficult for
you to get down, and travel wise (arranging transport and
accommodation) a real pain trying to actually get to things. And getting
various things up to here, once again we have to pay travel to get them
here, even though we have the PCAP funding. There are a lot of things
that if we were in Perth we would probably go to whereas being here we
are just not able to for financial reasons. (T2. C)

The principal was of the opinion that the isolation of this school placed
extra responsibility and pressure on him for further provision of
intellectual stimulation for his staff in contrast to other principals of schools
near large centres. The planning for suitable activities impacted on his time
and further intensified his work. Related to the isolation factor, another
concern for school C was the small number of staff. Both teachers
considered that this affected the quality of intellectual stimulation they were
able to obtain. A teacher commented that:

Being a small school limits talk and discussion and there is the chance as
we are a small staff that we may get in a rut. Sometimes I think it would
be interesting if we were a bigger staff; you would have more
disagreements obviously because you would have more personalities
with an opinion coming into it. So maybe it would be easier to get more
stimulated if there were more people. You might have more people with
expertise in other areas. I suppose we overcome that by attending professional development days, but they are few and far between these days. (T1. C)

This comment reinforced the opinion of the principal in school C that he had the extra responsibility to ensure that the staff obtained intellectual stimulation because he was the only source who was able to provide it due to the isolation of the school.

The teachers in schools A and B were unable to suggest any constraints apart from time which would impinge upon the ability of the principal to provide intellectual stimulation through professional development. Both schools were close to a District Office and other schools.

5.6 Models Good Professional Practice.

A consistent response from all participants was that restructuring has had a major impact upon limiting the capacity of principals to effectively practise the dimension of modelling good professional practice. A teacher in explaining the limitations of the leadership role of the principal in this dimension expressed concern regarding the tensions that the principal faced with his competing roles of teacher and administrator and the effect on his modelling of professional practice:

I do not know how to say it, it seems to be...I feel that (the principal) is a very good, well an excellent teacher and an extremely good principal and it seems to be that in order to become a 'better' principal and to 'move up the line' you have to back away from your classroom and spend less
time with the kids, and the push seems to be that if you want to get promotion you then have to go on this committee, that committee, everything out of your school. I think that is a bit of a shame because it seems that if you really care about the kids in your school and want to spend your time with them you are going to be penalised in a sense. That is what I seem to have picked up. (T1. C)

This teacher provided an interesting and relevant opinion that was not described by other participants in the study. Although principals of small schools were regularly promoted to larger schools before the 1980s the promotions were rarely based upon competitive criteria. Educational restructuring reformed the promotional system in the 1980s from one of promotion by seniority to that of promotion by merit. As a result of the new system many principals were of the opinion that they had to make themselves 'known' amongst their collegiate group and superordinates. The principals endeavoured to sit on as many District and Central Office committees as possible. Because fewer promotional positions were available the competition for vacancies became very competitive and some principals spent a large amount of time away from the school. The principal of school C appears to have followed this course and it is apparent that the teachers consider that he had suffered a deal of conflict between the demands of teaching and administrative duties in pursuing that course of action. The amount of time the principal spent away from school meant that opportunities to model good professional practice to the teachers was lessened.

The principal was also very clear about the demands on his two main roles:
With the increase in time to be spent on administration, you cannot teach excellently and administrate excellently, one of them suffers and I think in the last year or two the teaching has suffered. I have made a concerted effort probably in the last few months to focus on teaching rather than administration. (P.C)

He had obviously become aware that the teachers were concerned that he was focusing more on the administrative nature of his work and that they required more of his pedagogical expertise.

Of particular concern to the principals were the increased administrative workload that comes with devolution, the extra hours needed for delegation, participation and collaboration, and the pressure on them to perform in the classroom. The principal of school C illustrated these points:

I have been talking to a few teaching principals just in the last few days who are based in the country and about the same level as myself, and we have all commented that just recently especially, you come back from your holidays and you have got three feet of mail and a lot of it is related to decentralisation which we would not have received pre-1987. You just get so tied up with that, that you just do not get the same time to prepare for lessons and you get so angry with some of it that you can go into the classroom not in the mood that you should be in. So I think that they are all things which are factors. This is my sixth year here, with decentralisation I do not feel that I am getting any closer to being on top of being a good administrator and a good teacher. I feel I am a good teacher but I do not know if I am getting better in the other role because there is always new things being added to it. (P.C)
The problem of the continuous expansion of the responsibilities of the principal's work under educational restructuring was evident in the comments from this principal. He indicated that the continuous addition to his work may not have allowed the development of mastery of many of the new responsibilities. The teaching staff had a high level of awareness of the pressures placed upon the principals which were exacerbated by the time factor:

_Sometimes he chooses to make the decisions himself purely on a time saving basis because by the time he gets to see it, it is about it and we get to talk about it and he gets back to do it...he just does not have the time. It seems to be even more so this year that he seems to have more and more work which is keeping him at his desk and more and more administration. But principals are not getting any more administration time. It is just expected that they will take on a lot more and I suppose the throw-off of that is that you as a teacher are getting a lot more thrown on to us. I think it is as a result of increased devolution from the Department. You are (principals) becoming an administrator and a facilitator rather than an educator to a certain extent. (T1. C)_

_I think devolution and decentralisation has made it harder for them to do that (model good professional practice). There are so many committees, so many things you are called out of school for, and being a small school that is really difficult given that he, the principal gives us DOTT time, so everytime he is called out we have to make arrangements for DOTT time to continue or getting relief, or change all the days. It makes the organisation and management of the school more difficult. (T2. C)
Again the teachers were critical of the EDWA restructuring agenda. The perceived lack of support for principals relating to time in which to complete work was an issue. The teachers viewed modelling of professional practice as a very important component of the principal’s leadership. It was noticeable that the comments originated from teachers in school C. Both had limited teaching experience at the time and may have valued as much modelling of professional practice as possible at that stage of their career. The teachers interviewed in the other schools were more experienced and had easy access to other schools and District Offices.

The data collected appears to indicate that the onset of restructuring has had a major impact on the capacity of teaching principals to demonstrate the dimension of modelling good professional practice. The main phenomena which are impinging upon the capacity of principals to demonstrate this dimension of transformational leadership are increased workload in administrative functions, shortage of time in which to complete work, and conflict between roles.

5.7 Summary.

The findings indicate that a lack of time in which to complete work was the major constraint in enabling effective performance of administration, leadership and teaching by principals in this study in being able to effectively practise the six dimensions of transformational leadership. The finding was consistent across all dimensions. There was evidence that the principals of the three schools in the study allocated a large amount of time at school after hours completing administrative duties seemingly brought on by the advent of restructuring.
Another major constraint described was that of the teaching load of the principal. There was evidence of role conflict between teaching and administrative duties which placed extra stress upon the principals in their work, particularly in the role of educational leadership. The nature of the conflict appeared varied. Primarily the conflict was connected to a lack of time in which to complete work. However there was evidence to suggest that teaching principals face daily conflict when they are required to respond to urgent administrative demands while teaching. This places strain on the educational leadership role of the principal especially in the dimension of modelling good professional practice. Teachers would be viewed as showing unprofessional practice if they were continuously leaving the classroom during instruction time to respond to unscheduled demands.

Professional isolation for both the principal and the teachers was a key impingement for one school situated in the north-eastern wheatbelt region. Assistance and support for the principal in his work was not readily available which increased his workload and responsibility especially in the dimension of provision of intellectual stimulation to the staff.

Devolved practices of restructuring such as community participation in decision-making, and establishing processes such as delegation and collaboration amongst the staff placed extra pressure upon the principals in their leadership role. The findings again also indicated that little time was utilised in the three schools on vision building which is viewed as a major component of transformational leadership by Leithwood (1994).
CHAPTER 6.

ENABLING CONDITIONS FOR TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP.

6.0 Introduction.

The purpose of this chapter is to continue the data analysis and to present the research findings from the study which relate to the third research question. In the previous chapter a description of the phenomena that impinged upon the capacity of teaching principals to practise effective transformational leadership. This chapter describes the phenomena which enhance the capacity of the teaching principals to demonstrate effective transformational leadership practices during educational restructuring. The perspectives of the principals and teachers in the study, as well as researcher interpretation are used in the data analysis.

6.1 Develops a Widely Shared Vision for the School.

The findings suggest three types of phenomena which were enhancing the capacity of the principals in the three schools to develop a shared vision. The first relates to the size of the school. There was consistency of data gathered from each of the schools which indicated that small schools may
facilitate uncomplicated and straight-forward decision-making processes.

This was evidenced by comments from teachers in two schools:

I guess because of the small number of people; like any sort of organisation obviously the more people there are then the more varied is opinion and sometimes it's harder to come to a consensus. So I guess in that aspect we are small, we generally can have a bit of give and take, we can come to a consensus. Our decision-making is generally quicker than in larger schools where you have got more staff to consider. (T1. A)

In a small school we tend to make all decisions together. I think it is quite easy because we are such a small staff. We are all involved in every step. We do know what everyone else is doing which possibly is because we are only a teaching staff of four. It is very easy to develop that shared vision. (T1. C)

Although both teachers indicated the advantage of a small staff reaching consensus quickly there was no mention of the quality of the decision being made. A teaching principal with a staff of inexperienced teachers may have greater opportunity than a colleague in a large school to force her or his vision upon the staff.

The second phenomenon relates to restructuring and devolution. The principals' perspectives were similar in the belief that the advent of devolved practices in administration especially in the areas of participative decision-making and delegation had made it less difficult for them to develop a shared vision. A principal explained how the concept of devolution enabled his vision to evolve into a shared vision for the school:
When appointed to the school in 1990 I had a vision and the teachers took it on by a 'web' style but this changed. Devolution allowed the involvement of staff in new practices such as First Steps strategies and collaborative planning mode. This enabled the teachers to understand my vision. (P.B)

This principal was able to influence teachers to accept his vision through transformational leadership practices as outlined by Leithwood (1994). The small size of the school may have assisted in achieving the teachers' acceptance. The principal of school C indicated that devolution had provided opportunities for collaboration and delegation of responsibility among staff to develop a shared vision. Before 1987 he was responsible for making these decisions without consultation. This placed added pressure on his work.

The third phenomenon identified relates to the leadership style of the principal particularly in the areas of team building, interpersonal skills and sharing of information. These were highlighted in all three schools:

...we are a well informed staff which makes it easier for him, and that is to his credit that he keeps the staff informed. (T2. B)

...the staff is very much built into a team and they accept me as part of it. There is no friction, no personality clashes. We all get along very, very well. (P.B)

...he is so open when he talks about things. (T2. C)

The staffs of the schools had poorly developed visions. These perspectives may have been synonymous with the behaviours that the principals
demonstrated in applying their personal vision to the organisational culture of the school. It appears that the 'shared' vision was actually the principal's vision rather than a vision that was developed in a collaborative manner by all staff.

6.2 Builds Consensus About School Goals and Priorities.

The data suggest that educational restructuring has had a major influence on the level of difficulty with which principals have been able to practise consensus building about school goals and priorities. Participants from each school and in particular the principals highlighted the positive effects that these forms of devolution and decentralisation have had on their capacity to lead in this area. The increased empowerment of the teachers in the participative decision-making process has been emphasised by a principal:

Devolution and decentralisation has made it easier for teachers to make decisions. It has empowered them to make decisions. They are very comfortable with the decision-making processes. It has allowed more freeing up of discussion and ideas they can put forward, but I think also a more freeing up of or more experimentation. 'We will have a go at this,' because now they have got the idea that they are making the decision. 'We can have a go at this. We will monitor it. If it works that is fantastic. If it is failing we either modify it or look at a new direction.' So participative decision making has been a plus. (P.A)

This perspective illustrates that the teachers were not the only ones advantaged with their increased empowerment. Because the teachers were
able to accept a more active and responsible role in the decision-making processes pressure may also have been taken off the principal's work.

The notion of empowerment was further emphasised by a teacher in school B:

...the vision of the staff and the parents that they are prepared for change and they are not prepared to just close up and let things carry on as they are... They are a well informed parent group, they are a well informed staff and that makes it easier to form a consensus for goal setting. (T1. B)

This teacher implied that the parents were also empowered in the school decision-making processes as a result of devolution. Therefore the empowerment of teachers and other school community members through the devolution of authority to the school may have assisted principals in the demonstration of transformational leadership practices.

Conversely the principal of school A indicated that the processes of restructuring had legitimised the need for consensus about school goals and priorities. EDWA policy and accountability procedures had forced some principals to comply with these practices. Therefore principals had to develop a working consensus of school goals and priorities and it was not just a question of leadership style as to whether these processes occurred or not. Another principal suggested that:

Devolution and decentralisation has made us focus more on planning. It has made every school look at what it is doing. It has developed an improvement culture. The staff can now see some sort of visionary statement from the Department. Devolution and decentralisation has
increased flexibility in this area (building consensus about school goals and priorities). (P.B)

This principal also indicated that transformational leadership may not contribute to the building of a consensus about school goals and priorities, rather it was the devolution of responsibility to school staff that enhanced the process.

The other aspect identified as assisting in the demonstration of this dimension was the size of the school. Most participants believed that a small school enabled the principal to facilitate consensus significantly faster than in large schools. Here all staff were familiar with the students in the school, were able to develop close professional bonds through collaborative planning and tandem teaching arrangements, and had usually formed close social bonds with each other. Related to this in all three schools was the circumstance that the principals taught all students in the school across the week. Familiarity with students provided the principals with knowledge about the issues which concerned the teachers. It also provided the principals with a degree of credibility with the teachers on these matters because they were very familiar with knowledge relating to the teaching and learning concerns of the teachers.

6.3 Holds High Performance Expectations Concerning Staff.

The onset of devolution again features prominently as an influence which has facilitated the holding of high performance expectations as a dimension of transformational leadership for principals. A key component mentioned by several participants was the flexibility which devolution allowed the
principals to use in the achievement of high performance expectations for
the staff. In school B the principal was able to select staff as part of EDWA's
'Flexibility in Schooling Project' when vacancies arose. This devolved
responsibility enabled the principal to encourage high performance
expectations in the school because the staff were able to participate in the
selection of new teachers who they felt would uphold the culture of the
school:

...it has been a big advantage for our school. It would have been very
difficult if we had to take pot luck in terms of transfers and have to
nurture a person along to get to the level that this staff is at now. It is
fairly difficult for a person to come in when you have got a highly
motivated, highly professional developed group of people and have a
person come in and try to slot in who does not have the same
philosophy or does not have the same level of motivation. (T2. B)

The process whereby the principal and teachers were able to select new staff
provided the opportunity for the principal as a transformational leader to
influence the level of pedagogical expertise and related organisational
culture of the school. The principal of the school was able to develop this
influence through a whole school approach in relation to high performance
expectations. One method which the principal successfully used was the
facilitation of group problem-solving to obtain better outcomes for student
learning. He explained:

Devolution and decentralisation has allowed for development of
thinking about the whole school. That has led to higher performance. I
do not know whether we have got higher performance yet but we are
getting there. Thinking whole school means teachers are collaboratively
planning and they are sharing between classes which has resulted in creativity. This allows teachers to set their own standards of high performance. (P.B)

The processes used by the principal above clearly replicate the elements outlined by Leithwood in the dimension of holding high performance expectations concerning staff. The findings indicate that the principal was demonstrating a very high level of transformational leadership practices in the dimension.

Again the size of the school was an influence on the achievement of holding high performance expectations concerning staff. According to the teachers in school C a small staff led to closer bonds between the teachers, students and the general community. The small school was in essence the centre of the local community where everyone knew each other and socialised regularly. The familiarity that community members had with each other resulted in all staff wanting to achieve and hold high performance expectations. One teacher suggested that this phenomenon may not be as apparent in larger schools where there were much larger student numbers and undefined communities.

Another aspect which emerged concerned the personality and related leadership style of the principal. One principal indicated that being a teaching principal was extremely important in gaining credibility in being able to expect high performance from staff. He suggested:

I do not believe I would have credibility in telling someone that they should be doing this in their math if I was not doing it myself and could not show them how I think it should be done. (P.C)
This view was supported by a teacher. The main reason which made it easier for him to hold high performance expectations concerning the staff was:

...his personality. He is open and a very easy person to talk to. If you are having problems and you do not know what is expected of a certain area he is very approachable and you can easily discuss it with him and find out what standard you should be at. (T2. C)

This perspective does not confirm the principal's expertise in pedagogy but it does highlight the use of teacher empowerment strategies which transformational leaders are expected to use.

It is clear that the flexibility provided through the devolved and decentralised practices of educational restructuring have enabled the principals in these schools to facilitate high performance expectations for the staff.

6.4 Provision of Individualised Support to Staff.

A consistent finding which could be drawn from the data was that small schools enabled the principal to provide a higher level of individualised support to the staff. Both principals and teachers believed that time constraints would not allow the principal to provide effective support for a large staff. Aligned with this suggestion was that in small schools the staff tended to support each other a great deal more which eased the pressure on the principal. Respondents believed that:
...they (the staff) are a very close unit and have supported each other and I have supported that. (P.A)

...it goes back to being a small school. We are not only colleagues but we are good friends, so that makes a big difference. (T1. C)

...the small staff and the fact that we are all very familiar with the school and the area and we all get on very well personality wise, so it is much easier to approach each other. It makes it easier to be open to new ideas, professional development days and anything that we would like to do. (T2. A)

Leithwood’s synthesis in this dimension does not contain elements for the principal promoting collegial support amongst the teaching staff, although it is implied in the dimension of intellectual stimulation and in his synopsis of school culture. Due to the time constraints and intensification of work that teaching principals face under educational restructuring it may be appropriate that an element promoting collegiality is added to the synthesis in the dimension of provision of individualised support to staff. The comments above suggest that collegiality amongst the staff has been of assistance to the teachers. The principal of school B indicated that restructuring had assisted in reducing the existing ‘dependency culture’ by the staff on the principal. The development of a more collaborative culture led to teachers working together, supporting each other and recognising the professional efforts of others.

The principal of school C indicated that being in an isolated community made his leadership task in this area easier. The teachers transferring to the school were usually graduates and they were generally both receptive to the provision of support and also active in seeking support.
The final aspect that emerged from this dimension was that of the principal and his teaching component. It was noted by a teacher that a teaching principal would have more credibility in the provision of support because:

...the fact that he is teaching in all classes is a distinct advantage for him in this area. He is very in tune then with some of the stresses the teacher or aide is coping with. (T1. A)

This perspective was evident among teachers in all of the schools in the study. The credibility gained from their teaching role would certainly enable teaching principals through transformational leadership practices to influence the pedagogical practice of the teaching staff. It would be an interesting comparison to note teachers’ comments about non-teaching principals in terms of pedagogical credibility in the provision of individual support.

6.5 Provision of Intellectual Stimulation to Staff.

The responses collected in the dimension of provision of intellectual stimulation to staff from the principals were very similar. All principals highlighted the restructuring initiatives in relation to professional development as a major influence in enabling them to provide a high level of support for the staff. Their reasons are discussed below. The teachers on the other hand did not raise the element of professional development at all. They referred mainly to the small size of the school as a consideration in assisting the principal to practice the dimension of provision of intellectual stimulation.
The principals' held a common view that devolution and decentralisation assisted them with their leadership in the provision of intellectual stimulation. Describing the change pre- and post-restructuring a principal explained how the dimension through professional development was now focussed on improving student learning outcomes in the school:

I think that devolution and decentralisation has made it easier to achieve (for teachers). Because basically the PSP plan and the school development plan have allowed you to target what your professional development is going to be. I think prior to that (devolution) it was very piecemeal. I go back to my previous school before we started to do this school development planning. Basically every teacher was given a day and off they went wherever they wanted. With devolution in this school and in my last school when we went on it, it has been more zeroing in on a particular issue and concentrating on that, or one or two issues or priorities that you are concentrating upon and staff are doing inservicing according to that priority. So you are getting value out of that priority because the staff are getting enthused on it whether it be science or early literacy. You are working to achieve an agreed goal and I think that has been much better. Professional development is not so much now piecemeal or 'I see an inservice on today, I can go to that, that is my one day gone,' or whatever. Currently we are setting days aside for particular professional development so that we get it. Yes, I think it is more defined, so to me, more defined and more beneficial, and its totally related to your student outcomes. If your teachers are inserviced on a particular issue like we are going to next with dealing with ESL kids and language strategies, obviously they are going to take it back to their rooms and start using it, or some of it and you are just starting to achieve a bit better there. So I think that devolution has made a big change. (P.A)
The principal of school A was unlikely to have been demonstrating transformational leadership because his provision of intellectual stimulation was not directed at individual teachers. He has indicated how restructuring has enabled the provision of intellectual stimulation through professional development to become more focussed for the whole school. What appears to have happened since 1987 is that the responsibility of providing the stimulation to staff has moved largely from the principal's control to that of the collegiate group of teachers. The devolution of authority has allowed teachers to become more empowered in the decision-making processes concerning professional development. This has resulted in an emphasis on group rather than individual intellectual stimulation.

The principal of school C in agreeing with the above statement explained that devolution has had extra benefits for his school which is in a very isolated region. Unlike the principal of school A he was able to use some of the professional development budget for personal interests of teachers in an effort to maximise intellectual stimulation in an isolated area. The personal interests were those that were not associated with the school development plan. Examples included professional development in teaching styles and behaviour management of students. It had also taken some of the strain off his leadership role because of the flexibility of budgetary control in the professional development area. He explained:

Since we have had control over our own professional development fund, myself and the staff have been able to do what we want. They have been able to look for things which they feel are really important to themselves. We have made use of the professional development funds to send teachers to different schools around the place to set up networking opportunities and contacts, and share ideas with. It has been
a huge bonus when you compare it with when I first started as a principal (pre-1987). (P.C)

It is likely that this principal was demonstrating transformational leadership practices in the provision of intellectual stimulation as he had purposely taken the individual teachers' interests as well as the school interest into account when determining professional development. Across the three schools the teachers were consistent in their view that being in a small school had made the principals' leadership in the dimension easier. The teachers suggested that they were able to assist the principal in the provision of intellectual stimulation by supporting and challenging each other which could only occur when a school has a small staff. Another consideration was that the principals' knowledge of educational issues had been an influence in the provision of intellectual stimulation.

6.6 Models Good Professional Practice.

The responsibility of the classroom teaching component of the principals' work is the single reason most identified as assisting the leadership role in the dimension of modelling good professional practice. Having a teaching role brings credibility to the principal when talking about and demonstrating pedagogy. A principal described his experience of the difference between small and large schools:

*A difference between a level four school like this one and my last school which was basically a level five was that because you are in the classroom you are one of them (teacher). They tend to accept it a lot*
easier I think. In a bigger school you need to justify why you are doing it because one of the key answers is time. 'I am too busy, I have got to teach, when am I going to find time to teach?' Here I am in the same boat. It gets to be a little bit easier because you are one of them teaching, they seem to accept it a bit better. (P.A)

Having credibility as a classroom teacher appears to be a necessary attribute for principals in being able to influence teachers through the use of transformational leadership practices in the dimension of modelling good professional practice.

The small school aspect was again identified as important in assisting with the principals' leadership. The collaborative work practices among the staff were again apparent:

...being a small school it is so much easier to see everyone everyday and keep in contact, and being together for a long time we understand one another very well. (T1. A)

...in a small school you can get to talk with everyone. It is not like one of the super schools where you cannot get to talk to all of the staff, you do not even know who they all are. (T2. B)

...it is a small staff and we have to all work in together because there is only us. (T2. C)

The collaborative nature of the work in these schools indicates that the modelling of good professional practice may not necessarily be limited to the role of the principal. The findings indicate that other staff members may share this leadership role with the principal.
The principals' personal qualities were mentioned as another important consideration in the dimension. A teacher provided a description of the principal which she believed was a key influence in the successful achievement of modelling good professional practice:

...he is enthusiastic and co-operative. I think those (qualities) contribute to a good model and acceptance and probably loyalty from staff. (T1. A)

These qualities were referred to by teachers in the other schools when describing the principals and appear to be an essential component of leadership in modelling good professional practice.

6.7 Summary.

The findings suggest that there are four main phenomena which enhance the capacity of teaching principals to practise the dimensions of transformational leadership. The advent of the restructuring initiatives of devolution and decentralisation appears to have had the greatest impact. This finding was consistent across the six dimensions with greater emphasis in the provision of intellectual stimulation, building consensus about school goals and priorities, and holding high performance expectations for staff. The explicit components of devolution and decentralisation in schools such as delegation, participatory decision-making, shared leadership and school development planning have all been identified by the participants in the study as providing opportunities for teaching principals to demonstrate transformational leadership and influence the pedagogical practice of the teachers.
The size of the school was also identified as a key phenomenon in assisting the teaching principals' leadership. The participants indicated that the staff of smaller schools were more likely to take on the responsibility of shared leadership and were generally much more supportive of one another both professionally and socially than were the staff of the large schools. Another perspective identified was that all staff including the principal were likely to know all of the students and their families and the issues facing one another in relation to the students.

Linked with small school size was the advantage of having a teaching principal within the school. This enabled the principal to have a large degree of credibility amongst the staff and appeared due to the role of teaching all classes at some time during the week and therefore being familiar with the issues faced by teachers on a daily basis. This credibility again enabled the principals to influence the teachers pedagogical practice through transformational leadership.

The final phenomenon related to the teaching principals' personal qualities such as co-operation, enthusiasm, respect and support for the staff. These were raised in all schools as a consistent influence in enhancing the capacity of the principal to practice the dimensions of transformational leadership.
CHAPTER 7.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.0 Introduction.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings of the main study in relation to other studies, and EDWA restructuring. The chapter is divided into two sections which relate directly to phenomena that impinge upon and also enhance the capacity of teaching principals to practise effective transformational leadership.

7.1 Phenomena that Were Impinging Upon the Capacity of Teaching Principals to Practise Effective Transformational Leadership.

The research findings indicate that the teaching principals in the study were not using all of the dimensions of transformational leadership as outlined in Leithwood's (1994) synthesis. Contextual influences such as EDWA accountability procedures, teaching load, intensification of work and geographic location were phenomena that impinged upon their capacity to practise all of the dimensions.

The findings of the study reveal that the major barrier teaching principals faced in being able to practise the dimensions of transformational leadership was the intensification of work brought on by the EDWA restructuring initiatives. This resulted in a lack of time in which to adequately complete
all facets of their leadership role and was consistent across all dimensions of transformational leadership.

There was strong evidence in the findings that intensification of work has made the teaching principal's work more complex and demanding. Devolved practices such as financial and human resource management, and strategic planning, along with establishing the processes of participative decision-making, collaboration and delegation of responsibility in relation to these corporate managerialist procedures has increased the workload of the principals. Evidence of these devolved responsibilities was clear in the perspectives of both principals and teachers in the study. The teaching principals in the schools studied were unable to delegate to the same extent as non-teaching principals in larger schools due to the limited number of staff. Also the smaller country schools tend to have more inexperienced teachers who do not need the added burden of extra responsibilities. The principals tended to shield the teachers from this extra work by completing it themselves. The findings complement Hatton's (1994) findings in her study in a small rural primary school where the principal's leadership and work suffered due to the limitations of time.

At the time of data collection the findings of the study indicated that teaching principals were responding to a set of new accountability demands that were required of schools. These demands may be partly responsible for the limited amount of time that they were able to direct towards the dimensions such as developing a shared vision and modelling good professional practice to the staff. The four school development days that each school was able to use were in each case designated specifically for school planning and reviewing purposes. Principals and teachers in the schools suggested that the four days were not enough even for their
planning purposes. This would indicate that even if the principals had a well-developed understanding of the nature of a shared vision, its development would take second place to school planning. The same could also apply for modelling good professional practice. The findings therefore support Whitaker's (1994) study on the changing role of the principalship during restructuring. Whitaker found that the problems of work overload and limited time lead to the principal being unable to accomplish all of the expected leadership tasks. It can also be reasonably expected that the principals may not have viewed all of the dimensions of transformational leadership as being important.

The EDWA context may not have demanded that all dimensions were demonstrated. An example is the dimension of developing a shared vision. Principals may have reasonably been under the impression that they were not expected to apply the EDWA vision in the school because the policy document 'School Accountability' (1991) did not list any accountability measures concerning developing a school vision.

An accountability demand which appeared to impinge upon the leadership of the principal in the dimension of building consensus about school goals and priorities was the conflict which principals face in obtaining consensus in the school community. The findings indicated that this aspect of management presented difficulty and extra demands for the principal because it displaced conflict about education from the office of the Minister of Education to the school. What has happened is that the politics of the community have entered the school decision-making forums. This finding was consistent with similar occurrences following educational restructuring in Victoria (see Seddon, Angus & Poole, 1990).
Another phenomenon which compounded the problem of time to complete tasks was that of the teaching load of all principals in small schools. The principals in the study highlighted the large amount of time teaching took in their working week. Along with the time in the classroom actually teaching, preparation for these lessons eroded their time set aside for administration purposes. The principals also had responsibility to prepare lessons for a number of different classes in the school which added to the intensification of their work. They were also considered the 'master teacher' in the school which added extra pressure in the preparation and presentation of the lessons.

The findings highlight the perception of insufficient time for principals to adequately perform all of their responsibilities. This creates a dilemma as to how their professional responsibilities should be allocated given the competing demands of teaching, administration and educational leadership as outlined in the conceptual framework of the study. The finding did not indicate which of these roles was given greater priority, or whether one role was neglected. There was evidence that all roles were affected to some degree which would support Dunning's (1993) claim that tensions between roles become more pronounced during educational restructuring. Bell and Morrison's (1988) research into the roles of teaching principals in primary schools reports this tension between roles. Similarly Bell and Morrison (1988) could not identify which role was affected more than any other by the lack of time.

Geographic and professional isolation was a phenomenon which was evident in one school in the study as an influence which affected the capacity of the teaching principal being able to practice transformational leadership. This does not seem to have been considered in previous
research on teaching principals. The findings in this study indicated that a teaching principal in an isolated school had a greater responsibility than their colleagues in schools closer to major populated centres to ensure that the staff received appropriate pedagogical challenge through intellectual stimulation. There was likely to be no support available with this dimension beyond the school staff. Teachers in schools closer to populated areas had the support of District Office staff and the availability of networking facilities with other local schools to receive this form of support.

7.2 Phenomena that Enhanced the Capacity of Teaching Principals to Practise Effective Transformational Leadership.

The findings from the study indicate that the most important phenomenon which enhanced the capacity of teaching principals to practise transformational leadership was that of educational restructuring. This phenomenon was consistent across all dimensions but most evident in the dimension of building consensus about school goals and priorities. As previously mentioned EDWA schools have four days each year for the purpose of planning and reviewing school goals and priorities. The principals and teachers in the studies recognised the importance of these days for the purpose of planning and reviewing goals in the school and indicated that without them they would find it difficult to complete the necessary tasks. The principals were accountable to EDWA for ensuring that the planning processes engage the teachers in a participative manner which is congruous with the practices in this dimension of transformational leadership.
Educational restructuring was also highlighted as being responsible for enhancing the principals' leadership in the area of intellectual stimulation. Principals had expanded the range of elements in the dimension by empowering the teachers in the area of decision-making. As part of the thrust towards a corporate managerialist form of restructuring EDWA decentralised the responsibility for professional development of staff to the school. This allowed teachers to participate in the selection of professional development appropriate for their personal and school needs. There was strong evidence in the study to indicate that teacher participation in the selection of professional development activities enhanced a higher level of intellectual stimulation than had been occurring before the restructuring initiatives were implemented. Teacher participation in the decision-making process also placed less emphasis on the principal taking the predominantly proactive role in intellectual stimulation.

The third dimension of transformational leadership in which restructuring has had a major influence was that of holding high performance expectations. The restructuring initiatives enabled the principals of these schools to adopt a more flexible approach in holding and maintaining high performance expectations. Only one of the principals was able to select new teachers under a devolved initiative from EDWA. This process enabled the selection of teachers who would perceivably hold the same high performance ideals as the rest of the staff in the school. At the time of the study less than five per cent of EDWA schools had school level appointment of staff.

Restructuring initiatives also enabled the teachers to take on a collaborative leadership role in the dimension of holding high performance expectations. As with the dimension of intellectual stimulation where the principals
were becoming less proactive in their leadership role there was evidence that restructuring had facilitated the teachers to become more responsible for maintaining the high performance expectations within the school. This can be related to their active participation in school planning and goal setting which were mainly due to the restructuring initiatives introduced by EDWA.

The second phenomenon which enhanced the capacity of the teaching principal to utilise transformational leadership practices was the small size of the school in each case. The findings suggested that in these smaller schools the principals were able to develop a sense of shared leadership in some areas amongst the staff. This occurred even though the corporatist model adopted by EDWA promoted a hierarchical structure in schools where the principal was the line manager. It is unlikely that the staff really participated on an equal basis with the principals, however, there was evidence that the teachers were taking on leadership tasks such as curriculum leadership which were previously the domain of the principal. This would also have been assisted by the restructuring initiatives outlined above which have encouraged this concept in school operations. The condition of small school size was identified as enhancing the principals' leadership skills in all of the dimensions especially with respect to the provision of individualised support.

This study indicates that the small size of the school has contributed to greater collaboration between teachers which has in turn again provided an opportunity for principals to take actions about the provision of individualised support for staff. This finding confirms the view of Leithwood and Steinbach (1993) who suggest that school size is a variable which may influence the interaction between teachers and the principal.
'The larger the school, the fewer the opportunities for substantive interaction' (p. 46). The findings have also shown that the teachers in these schools are likely to be very supportive of each other both professionally and socially and frequently take on responsibilities from this dimension such as encouraging each other with their interests, being aware of each other's problems, and providing recognition of each other's work. With the intensification of teaching principals' work, greater collaboration between teachers will certainly assist them in their leadership role.

In a small school the principal was likely to know each of the students, their parents, and the issues facing the students with their education. This would undoubtedly assist the principal in the dimensions of provision of individualised support for teachers and modelling 'good' professional practice. Teaching in each class within the school would provide the principal with credibility amongst the staff and the broader community in being aware of the issues that the teachers are facing in relation to the students.

The third phenomenon identified as enhancing the capacity of teaching principals to practise transformational leadership was the teaching component of the principal's role. The study was consistent in identifying teaching as a major advantage. This was due not only because of the credibility as a pedagogic mentor discussed above but also because of the shared leadership which has evolved due to the increased intensification of work as a result of the implementation of the restructuring initiatives.

As outlined in the previous section the principal's teaching load was seen to impinge on their capacity for leadership, however, this study has shown that the teaching component can have the reverse effect as well. The heavy
workload of teaching principals and the restructuring processes they were obliged to implement have forced them to delegate, share responsibilities, utilise collaborative decision-making processes and introduce shared problem-solving strategies with the teachers. This has resulted in greater empowerment of staff and has enabled the principals to responsibly and effectively shed some of their workload in the administration area and direct more time into their teaching component. Evidence of the delegation of administrative responsibilities in the study included school development planning, staff meeting organisation and curriculum cost centre management.

The principal's professional relationships with staff also enhanced their transformational leadership practices, especially in the dimensions of provision of individualised support and intellectual stimulation, and to a lesser degree modelling of good professional practice. All principals in the study were identified by staff as having highly developed interpersonal skills including being approachable and accessible, always being concerned about the welfare of the staff and students, trusting teachers' judgements, treating teachers with respect, and treating everyone on an equal basis. The phenomenon of highly developed interpersonal skills, especially the component of individual consideration was identified by Silins (1994a) as necessary for subsuming the charisma factor relied upon by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) if the model of leadership was to be relevant in an educational context.
7.3 Summary.

The findings of the study indicate that the teaching principals were only fully demonstrating some of the dimensions of transformational leadership in their schools. Holding high performance expectations for staff, building consensus about goals and priorities, and provision of individual support were the most evident. The provision of these dimensions of leadership was clearly enhanced by the EDWA restructuring initiatives and accountability demands. To a lesser degree they were also influenced by the small size of the school in each case, and the teaching component of the principal.

The EDWA restructuring initiatives focused on the importance of participatory decision-making and whole school planning in determining goals and objectives. This emphasis directed principals in their leadership in similar ways to those outlined in Leithwood's (1994) dimension of building consensus about school and priorities. Similarly, the dimension of holding high performance expectations contains many practices which were synonymous with the EDWA restructuring initiatives. Accountability measures ensured that principals were using these practices in their schools.

The small size of each of the schools in the study enabled the principals to develop practices of shared leadership and greater collaboration among the staff. The commitment to restructuring by the teachers was enhanced by the principals' use of such leadership practices which are evident in the three dimensions fully demonstrated by them. In each case the principals' teaching components also enhanced opportunities for teachers to share facets of the leadership role. This was mainly due to the difficulties the principals faced in completing all requirements due to the intensification of
work and time constraints. The sense of empowerment that shared leadership and collaboration creates in the teachers is a cornerstone of Leithwood's (1994) model of transformational leadership.

The EDWA restructuring initiatives were also seen as a limiting factor in principals being able to demonstrate transformational leadership practices. Developing a widely shared vision was not a priority in the schools studied. Rather, a shared view of pedagogy and educational programs was the case. This circumstance was probably due to the fact that vision building by the principal was not a requirement of EDWA at the time of the study. However, Leithwood et al. (1995) concluded from their study in Canada on school responses to central policy initiatives that 'even the apparently most effective of the school leaders we studied... were not identified as spending much time articulating or building an explicit school mission or vision' (p. 251). They found that the principals were goal and priority focussed rather than vision builders. This replicates the finding in this study.

Interaction between the staff and the principal, about the principal's leadership practices is a strong component of Leithwood's (1994) dimension of modelling good professional practice. The absence of feedback from teachers to principals in the study about their leadership practices was probably due to the performance management procedures used by EDWA at the time of the study. Restructuring initiatives promoted the practice of 'line management' theory which meant that EDWA staff were only accountable to their superordinates.

Another factor which impinged upon the teaching principals' ability to demonstrate transformational leadership practices was the teaching load which took up a large amount of the principals' time both in preparation
and instruction. Competition between the roles of teacher, administrator and educational leader was also seen as a major impingement and each were affected by the intensification of work brought about by the EDWA restructuring initiatives.

Although the teaching principals in the study were not fully demonstrating all dimensions of transformational leadership their practice demonstrated evidence of strong use of some. Holding high performance expectations for staff, building consensus about school goals and priorities, and provision of individual support were used extensively in assisting schools to respond to the educational restructuring agenda. The dimensions of providing intellectual stimulation and modelling good professional practice were used moderately. It is likely that the principals were (without awareness) developing, within constraints, an emerging style of transformational leadership.
CHAPTER 8.

CONCLUSION

8.0 Introduction.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the implications of the use of transformational leadership for teaching principals during educational restructuring, and specifically the implications for the professional preparation of teaching principals in Western Australian government schools. Implications for further research into transformational leadership are also discussed.

8.1 The Implications of Transformational Leadership for Teaching Principals During Educational Restructuring.

The findings of this study indicate that transformational leadership as outlined in Leithwood's (1994) synthesis would appear to assist Western Australian teaching principals in managing change during educational restructuring. This study has also found some inadequacies with the model if applied to the Western Australian context. These concerns centre around the processes promoted in developing a shared vision, and holding high-performance expectations.
Some of the other dimensions of transformational leadership are important and are necessary for school level change. The dimension of building consensus about school goals and priorities appears to be the most relevant dimension of Leithwood's (1994) synthesis of transformational leadership practices for teaching principals during an era of restructuring. The principles of devolution as outlined by EDWA (1994b, 1995b) place an emphasis on the participation of teachers in school planning, and the elements in this dimension appear to complement those principles. There was considerable evidence in all schools in the study that the teachers were participating fully and successfully in the development and achievement of the goals and priorities. EDWA accountability procedures ensure that the collaborative processes are being implemented and accomplished. The principals have little choice as to whether they use the practices in this dimension. EDWA superintendents regularly audit the principal's responsibilities in developing collaborative processes in the area of school planning.

Provision of individualised support to teachers in small schools was viewed by the participants in the study as a necessary facet of the principal's leadership during restructuring. Teachers face constant changes to their work practices and require supportive encouragement to change their practice. This finding supports the research of Kirby, Paradise and King (1992) who found that individual support of subordinates enhances their performance and therefore contributes to organisational growth. This study indicated that the provision of this support proved to be a very difficult task for the principals to accomplish due to the time constraints they faced with the intensification of their work. What appears to have eventuated within the small schools in the studies was a developing culture of collaborative support rather than contrived collegiality (see Hargreaves, 1994a) amongst
the teachers which has been partly facilitated by the principals. It is clear that this collaboration was an educative experience for the teachers where they were able to reflect then contribute. This represents a shift from the practices in the dimension as outlined in Leithwood’s synthesis because it is in a sense shifting authority away from the leader to the followers. Hargreaves (1994a) promotes this form of collaboration amongst teachers as essential in the context of restructuring because 'it embraces the principles of teacher empowerment' (p. 261), which he views as indispensable in responding to the complex and accelerating changes that the restructuring agenda generates. Although Leithwood’s synthesis does not list collaboration as a specific practice in any dimension he does acknowledge that collaborative processes are an important feature of the culture of a school during restructuring.

A similar concern emerged in the dimension of the provision of intellectual stimulation to teachers where the synthesis of elements proposed by Leithwood’s studies suggested that the principal controls the processes in the provision of these practices. The findings from the main study indicated that principals were only partly effective in the provision of these elements due to time constraints brought about by the intensification of their work under restructuring. What appeared to be occurring was that the teachers were sharing a leadership role in this area with each other. The restructuring agenda had enabled the devolution of these practices to be applied by the teachers in their schools thus relieving the principals of some of their responsibilities in the provision of intellectual stimulation.

The teachers and principals in the study indicated that professional development was a major source of intellectual stimulation for the staff in the schools. Leithwood’s synthesis does not list the element as a specific
practice in the dimension. It is to be expected that professional development experiences would emerge from the elements pertaining to the overall structure and culture of the school. Principals have a major role to play in facilitating decision-making concerning the choice of relevant professional development for staff in EDWA schools. Professional development is identified as an element in the dimension of the provision of individualised support as providing money for professional development. This may be seen to legitimise an emphasis on leader control in Leithwood's model of transformational leadership but may be due to the accountability procedures in the North American context. Devolution in EDWA schools has enabled teachers to participate in the decisions regarding the deployment of school funds for professional development purposes. The study provided evidence that teachers in small schools, especially isolated small schools, view this type of decision-making as essential for enhancing their own professional development.

Leithwood's synthesis of elements in the dimension of the provision of intellectual stimulation to teachers also appears to overlook the differentiation between the personal focus and school focus in relation to intellectual stimulation. The study indicated that this is a relevant cause for concern in relation to small isolated schools. Restructuring principles have required EDWA schools to focus upon initiatives which are relevant to their local community. This has directed the majority of schools into planning professional development activities which reflect and are associated with their goals and priorities as was evidenced by the schools in the study which were in or near to the Perth metropolitan area. Teachers at these schools were able to access forms of intellectual stimulation with a personal focus from the numerous after school network meetings, special interest groups and visits to other schools in the locality. Teachers from
isolated country schools were not privileged to these opportunities which placed an extra responsibility on the principals for the provision of a substitute which usually entailed a portion of the professional development funds being set aside for these purposes.

As previously mentioned the dimension of modelling good professional practice lists 13 separate elements which are indicative of good leadership, a number of which replicate elements in other dimensions. With the exception of those associated with principals soliciting feedback about their leadership the majority appear to be demonstrated by principals in the study.

In contrast to the other dimensions, modelling good professional practice did have a more directed focus upon shared leadership and collaboration within the structure and culture of the school which according to Hargreaves (1994a) will lead to positive school improvement and effectiveness outcomes. This study indicates that the teaching principal of a small primary school may be likely to have greater success with the use of the dimension than a principal of a large school because the teaching component they are obliged to undertake may enhance a more credible and intimate relationship with their teachers. Examples include shared curriculum planning and joint interviews with parents concerning student progress. This was evident as the majority of participants in the study who indicated that although the teaching component presented the principal with difficulties regarding time it was an essential element of the principal's leadership in modelling good practice in a small school. The principals' teaching responsibilities appear to have enhanced the processes of collaboration and shared leadership within the schools. Leithwood's (1994) synthesis implies that it is likely to be the principal who commences these
processes, but not necessarily. It is more likely that the principal would commence these processes in large schools. The study indicates that in small schools these processes can be initiated by the teachers and the principal. This may be due to the closer professional and working relationships which have been identified in the study as developing in small schools.

The dimension of holding high-performance expectations was viewed by the participants in the studies as an extremely important facet of the principals' leadership in the attainment of school improvement during restructuring. Leithwood (1994) appears to have placed less emphasis on the dimension than on the others in his synthesis. He explains that it is more context dependent than the other dimensions and may well produce 'negative effects when exercised in circumstances where teacher commitment to restructuring is already high, appearing to create additional pressures on teachers that are interpreted as unhelpful' (p. 509). There appears to be little evidence of this in the findings from this study where teacher commitment to restructuring was high in all of the schools.

There was evidence that all principals had successfully implemented restructuring initiatives within the schools and the findings indicated that they were effectively utilising the elements in the dimension. The teachers interviewed were very supportive of the principals' leadership in the area and were also supportive of the necessity for the maintenance of high-performance expectations in the schools during restructuring. It could be expected that teachers and principals in small schools do build a closer and more supportive working relationship than in larger schools. Small schools may well be a context in which high-performance expectations should be viewed as a priority during restructuring.
A key element of the dimension of holding high-performance expectations which has not been considered as a discrete practice in Leithwood's synthesis but was identified as being very important by all principals and several teachers in the study was performance management. This practice is part of the EDWA quality assurance agenda and especially since 1993. EDWA has increased the importance of the performance management process with responsibilities in the area decentralised to the principal and the teachers. Stringent accountability mechanisms have been developed to ensure that the process is carried out regularly and efficiently and the process is viewed as a critical area of the principals' leadership practices in the development and implementation central policy. It would appear that if Leithwood's synthesis is to have validity in the Western Australian context during restructuring where schools are more accountable to the central education authority than ever before, then the dimension is in need of an element indicating the necessity of a performance management component in the principal's leadership role.

The dimension of developing a widely shared vision for the school could be viewed as the most contentious of those presented in Leithwood's synthesis. Leithwood (1994) proposes two processes in the development of a shared vision. He states that:

...advocating a transformational approach to school leadership does not entail the specification of a uniform or rigid set of leadership behaviors. We observed in our studies, for example, principals who began with a clear vision for their schools, a vision that eventually was adopted by staffs; we also observed schools in which the vision emerged from a highly participative process with the principal's energies largely devoted
to the vision-building process. Both approaches worked well and seemed suitable under the circumstances. (p. 515)

The practice of the leader promulgating a vision for the school appears to be the most problematic in the dimension. Although Leithwood's (1994) study indicates that he has seen both methods work well the first may be taken by some theorists, at least in the Australian context, as endorsing the 'great man' approach (Gronn, 1995 ; Lakomski, 1995). Lakomski (1995) is critical of the perspective of the leader projecting the vision. She states that 'it is neither reasonable nor prudent to assume...that the TF (transformational) leader's vision and knowledge is a reliable base for correctly predicting the course of the organisation's future' (p. 10). Lakomski's reasoning for this assertion is based on a number of premises. The first is that quantitative methodology which has largely been the basis of studies about transformational leadership by its leading theorists including Bass (1985) and Leithwood (1994) cannot measure transformational leadership effects because 'it presumes that all cognitive activity is language-based activity' (p. 12). Lakomski also suggests that quantitative research cannot measure behaviours such as exceptional practice and problem-solving (termed as 'value added' by Leithwood 1994) that transformational leaders are proclaimed to exercise.

Lakomski claims that a leader's vision may be based on faulty reasoning and incomplete information as was likely with Adolph Hitler who was identified as a transformational leader by Bass (1985). Lakomski suggests that it is a disadvantage for an organisation to maintain a hierarchical view of valid knowledge from the leader to the followers because there are many ways of learning which are relevant during organisational change.
Senge (1990) states that 'all too often, a company's shared vision has revolved around the charisma of a leader' (p. 9). He stresses that an organisational vision must be developed by all of the people within the organisation and that leaders who dictate a vision (as can be inferred from the second practice in Leithwood's model) are actually being counterproductive to the process. Hopkins (1994) supports this view in the attainment school improvement. He suggests that 'all members of a school community should actively build and share a common vision of its main purposes' (p. 79).

In light of the above comments regarding the processes involved in developing a vision for the school, it would seem more appropriate, at least in the Western Australian context, that principals concentrate on using Leithwood's first practice in the dimension (Initiates processes [retreats, etc.] that engage staff in the collective development of a shared vision).

Alternatively, a more relevant approach may lie in Jantzi and Leithwood's (1995) reworking of the dimension:

Identifying and Articulating a Vision: Behaviour on part of the leader aimed at identifying new opportunities for his or her school, and developing, articulating, and inspiring others with his or her vision of the future. (p. 4)

Further research is needed into the development of school visions, especially in the Australian context. Such research may develop a more complete understanding of how principals with a vision for their school can empower staff through the process of employing their vision. Also, the process of the principal -spousing her or his own vision for the school in a way that does not preclude other visions needs further exploration.
A vital area of school leadership during restructuring highlighted by the participants in the study but lacking prominence in Leithwood's synthesis involves the greater school community including parents of students in the school. EDWA places major importance on this facet of the principal's leadership as was evidenced by the principal of school A in the study who as a result of the restructuring agenda in Western Australia was responsible for negotiating with the school's parent body for the rationalisation of the school. Principals in EDWA schools are made accountable for their leadership with parents as they have an increasing participation in the school operations under the practices of devolution. If Leithwood's synthesis of transformational leadership is to be valid for conceptualising the work of principals in the EDWA system then it would be necessary for it to include a number of leadership practices related to the school community. This is particularly important in the dimensions of developing a widely shared vision and building consensus about school goals and priorities. In Western Australian government schools it appears that building school-community relationships will become of increasing importance as schools endeavour to maintain a 'market share' of services to their local community. Parent understanding of vision will be an important outcome of leadership.

As indicated in the findings of the study a large proportion of the elements outlined in Leithwood's synthesis were utilised by the principals however it appears uncertain whether the principals would utilise more of the elements if the barriers of time, intensification of work, increased devolution and decentralisation and teaching components were removed. This would seem to be the case particularly with developing a shared vision for the school. The dimension may be more relevant in the North American context than in Western Australia where there appears to be
more of an emphasis on building consensus about goals and priorities. The relevance of transformational leadership for teaching principals in the EDWA system is obstructed to some extent by the stringent accountability processes they face such as the performance management of the staff which has not been considered as a specific practice in Leithwood's synthesis. This finding would seem to support the findings of Goddard's (1992) research into EDWA restructuring. He indicated that as a result of restructuring the management of the school became a much more important role for the principal than did the enhancement of the school's purpose. The lessening of the emphasis to provide educational leadership due to the heightened management role may have reduced opportunities for teaching principals to demonstrate transformational leadership in their schools. However, in the case of the teaching principals in this study it does seem apparent that they were using a large number of transformational leadership practices to effectively lead their schools during restructuring.

There are several strengths in Leithwood's (1994) synthesis of transformational leadership for teaching principals in Western Australian government schools. The dimension of building consensus about school goals and priorities is very relevant for principals during an era of educational restructuring. The focus on teacher participation in school planning, decision-making and goal setting supports EDWA policy and accountability procedures. The dimension of providing individualised support contains practices which promote collaborative processes. Managing change in a school can be a difficult course of action without the collaboration of teachers and other members of the school community. The practices outlined by Leithwood provide a useful basis for teaching principals to implement in their efforts to manage change in their schools. The dimension of modelling good professional practice contains several
practices which are vital to managing successful school level change. Those relating to the principal receiving feedback from the staff about their leadership practices would seem critical during a period of educational change. This study found that teaching principals were not initiating these processes in their schools. It would seem appropriate that teaching principals initiate this practice to enhance collaborative processes in their schools and also to strengthen their leadership while managing change. The dimension of holding high-performance expectations contains practices which promote the empowerment of teachers. The value of empowering teachers in their work has been outlined previously. All practices in the dimension are therefore very relevant to EDWA teaching principals during educational restructuring.

8.2 The Implications for the Professional Preparation of EDWA Teaching Principals.

The findings of this study indicate that EDWA teaching principals are in need of a range of professional support mechanisms which would enable the enhancement of their leadership. The most critical influence which impacts on their leadership is the shortage of time in which to complete the tasks related to their work. The advent of educational restructuring has intensified their work practices which has resulted in role conflict as to determining priorities. An increase in administrative time (which would mean a decrease in teaching time), and regular professional development in strategies to deal with the intensification of work they face are two suggestions.
An increase in administrative time would enable the teaching principal to spend more time with the teachers in the provision of educational leadership through individual support and intellectual stimulation. The principals in the study indicated that time spent on the two areas was limited due to other administrative and teaching demands. Teachers in the study suggested that the two areas were very important for them in strengthening their pedagogical expertise, which can be related to school improvement.

Regular professional development in strategies dealing with the intensification of work that teaching principals face during educational restructuring may be a necessary part of professional preparation of teaching principals based on the concerns related by the principals in the study. New principals in particular may be prone to trying to complete all of the tasks themselves and may be in need of professional development in the areas of participatory decision-making, delegation, time management, building collaborative school cultures, community liaison skills, principal-teacher relationships, and priority setting.

Chui, Sharpe & McCormick (1996) concluded from their study into transformational leadership that professional development of principals particularly in the area of developing a shared vision, rather than espousing their own, was a priority in promoting empowerment of teachers in the school and enhancing school improvement outcomes. A mentor approach using senior non-teaching and competent teaching principals could be developed by EDWA to assist in this process. In addition networks of teaching principals could be developed, especially in the more remote areas such as that in which school C was located.
8.3 Implications for Further Research.

This study of transformational leadership and its value to the teaching primary school principal during restructuring has added to the very limited amount of research completed to date in Australia. There is a need to complete further research into a number of related areas so that a clearer understanding can be determined as to the value of this form of leadership in the Australian educational context.

Further research is needed to identify the nature of and reconceptualise the concept of transformational leadership. Leithwood's synthesis of transformational practices (Appendix 1) could be further refined, especially if it is to be applied to the Australian context. A number of elements appear across several dimensions and are vague in their depiction of leadership behaviours. Examples include the many practices which are related to performance management. The dimension 'Builds consensus about school goals and priorities' includes practices such as 'engages with individual teachers in ongoing discussion of their personal professional goals' and 'Encourages teachers, as part of goal setting, to establish and review personal professional-growth goals.' Also, the dimension of 'Provides individual support' includes practices such as 'Is specific about what is being praised as good work' and 'Gets to know individual teachers well enough to understand their problems and be aware of their particular skills and interests.'

Silins (1992, 1994a) suggests that transformational leadership in schools may have to be redefined because teachers are important mediators in the impact of school leadership. Therefore models of leadership theorising direct leader influence on school improvement may need to be treated with caution and
new studies on teachers as mediators of the impact of leadership in schools instigated.

An emphasis upon further qualitative studies may offer new possibilities for understanding the processes of transformational leadership. Lincoln (1989) calls for the need for more detailed case studies and ethnographies which will provide more information on what transformational leadership looks like when it is enacted. Further to this she suggests that researchers need to develop an insight into the personalities and characteristics of individuals considered transformative. Some teachers in this study indicated that their principal’s leadership was shaped by their personality rather than by a particular method. Longitudinal case studies, in Australian schools, examining the professional practice of highly competent principal’s may provide a rich field of data for determining successful forms of leadership during restructuring.

Research is also needed to determine how transformational leadership is shaped by educational restructuring. There was evidence in this study that restructuring had placed constraints on the way that principals were able to demonstrate their leadership practices especially with school planning. Accountability requirements by the central education authority prevented principals from demonstrating several of the leadership behaviours viewed as essential by Leithwood for restructuring. Further research into the phenomena shaping transformational leadership may provide a clearer understanding of the associated leadership practices.

The principals in this study were from a large education system. Their formative experience had been during an era of centralised, bureaucratic control. Facets of their leadership such as goal setting, vision building and
holding high-performance expectations were shaped to a great extent by the accountability processes of the bureaucracy. A similar study considering teaching principals from non-systemic primary schools may provide an interesting comparison as they would be unlikely to have had their leadership style shaped by any external constraints.

The phenomenon of professional isolation as a factor which impinges upon the leadership of the teaching principal is an area that is in need of further research. This study indicated that principals in isolated schools faced unique challenges to their leadership particularly with the professional and social relationships they developed with their staff.
REFERENCES


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APPENDIX 1


 Purposes

Develops a widely shared vision for the school

- Initiates processes (retreats, etc.) that engage staff in the collective development of a shared vision
- Espouses own vision for the school but not in a way that precludes other visions
- Clarifies the specific meaning of the school’s vision (or own vision for the school) in terms of its practical implications for programs, instruction, and the like
- Explicitly helps staff understand the relationship between district and ministry initiatives and the school’s vision
- Uses all available opportunities to communicate the school’s vision to staff, students, parents and others

Builds consensus about school goals and priorities

- Expect individual teachers and teams of teachers to regularly engage in goal setting and review of progress toward goals; may also have a process for goal setting and review for whole school staff
- Encourages teachers, as part of goal setting, to establish and review personal professional-growth goals
- Assists staff in developing consistency among school vision, school, and/or department goals and individual goals
- Engages with individual teachers in ongoing discussion of their personal professional goals
- Explicitly makes use of school goals in decision-making processes
- Clearly acknowledges the compatibility of teacher’s goals and school goals when such is the case
- Expresses own views about goals that are important for the school
Holds high-performance expectations

- Demonstrates an unflagging commitment to the welfare of students
- Often espouses norms of excellence
- Expects staff to be innovative, hardworking, and professional; includes these qualities among the criteria for hiring new staff
- Establishes very flexible boundaries for what people do, providing people with freedom of judgement and action within the context of overall school plans (a means of nourishing their creativity)

People

Provides individualised support

- Gets to know individual teachers well enough to understand their problems and be aware of their particular skills and interests; listens carefully to staff's ideas
- Provides recognition of staff work in the form of individual praise or pats on the back
- Is specific about what is being praised as good work
- Has the pulse of the school; builds on the individual interests of teachers, often as the starting point for school change
- Encourages individual teachers to try new practices consistent with their interests
- As often as possible, responds positively to teachers' initiatives for change
- Treats everyone equally; does not show favouritism toward individuals or groups
- Has an open-door policy
- Is approachable, accessible, and welcoming
- Follows through on decisions made jointly with teachers
- As often as possible, provides money for professional development and in support of changes agreed on by staff
- Explicitly shares teachers' legitimate caution about proceeding quickly toward implementing new practices, thus demonstrating sensitivity to the real problems of implementation faced by teachers
Provides intellectual stimulation

- Directly challenges staffs' basic assumptions about their work as well as unsubstantiated or questionable beliefs and practices
- Encourages/persuades staff to try new practices without using pressure
- Encourages staff to evaluate their practices and to refine them as needed
- Stimulates the search for, and discussion of, new ideas and information relevant to school directions
- Attends conferences and seeks out many sources of new ideas and passes such ideas onto staff
- Seeks out new ideas by visiting other schools
- Publicly recognises exemplary performance
- Invites teachers to share their expertise with their colleagues
- Consistently seeks out and communicates positive activities taking place in the school
- Removes penalties for making mistakes as part of efforts toward professional and school improvement

Models good professional practice

- Becomes involved in all aspects of school activity
- Works alongside teachers to plan special events
- Responds constructively to feedback about own leadership practices
- Demonstrates, through school decision-making processes, the value of examining problems from multiple perspectives
- Treats others with respect
- Praises student work
- Demonstrates trust in teachers' judgements
- Displays energy and enthusiasm for own work
- Always strives to do one's best; works hard and takes risks from time to time
- Inspires respect
- Is punctual
- Has a sense of humour
- Requests feedback from staff about own work
APPENDIX 1 continued

Structure
Distributes the responsibility and power for leadership widely throughout the school
Shares decision-making power with staff
Takes staff opinion into account when making own decisions
Ensures effective group problem solving during meetings of staff
Allows staff to manage their own decision-making committees
Provides autonomy for teachers (groups, individuals) in their decisions
Alters working conditions so that staff have collaborative planning time and time to seek out information needed for planning and decision-making

Culture
Strengthens school culture by (a) clarifying the school's vision for teacher collaboration and for the care and respect of students and (b) sharing with staff norms of excellence for both staff and students
Uses bureaucratic mechanisms to support collaborative work by allocating money to provide opportunities for collaboration; creating projects in which collaboration is a useful method of working; and hiring staff who share school vision, norms and values
Engages in frequent and direct communication, using all opportunities to make public the school's vision and goals
Shares power and responsibility with others: working to eliminate boundaries between administrators and teachers and between other groups in the school
Uses symbols and rituals to express cultural values by providing social occasions in which most staff participate
APPENDIX 2

Interview Schedule for Teaching Principals.
Pilot Study

1. How have you attempted to develop a shared vision for your school?

2. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

3. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?

4. How have you attempted to build consensus about school goals and priorities?

5. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

6. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?

7. Can you describe how you have attempted to hold high-performance expectations concerning your staff?

8. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

9. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?
APPENDIX 2 continued

10. How have you attempted to provide individualised support to your teaching staff?

11. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

12. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?

13. How have you attempted to provide intellectual stimulation for your teaching staff?

14. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

15. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?

16. How have you attempted to model good professional practice to your teaching staff?

17. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

18. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?
19. How has your work changed since the advent of devolution and decentralisation?
Interview Schedule for Teaching Principals with Examples of Probes.
Main Study

1. How have you attempted to develop a shared vision for your school?

   -Probe: Describe what you mean by the staff having a shared ownership of your vision.

2. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

   -Probe: Can you elaborate on how the 'Flexibility in Schooling Project' has hindered you in this area?

3. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?

   -Probe: What do you mean by a 'positive' for your school?

4. How have you attempted to build consensus about school goals and priorities?

   -Probe: Was there an obligation for you to do this, or was it part of your leadership style?

5. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

   -Probe: Explain how devolution and decentralisation has legitimised the process.
APPENDIX 3  continued

6. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?

- Probe: How has the EDWA policy on school development planning affected your leadership in this area?

7. Can you describe how you have attempted to hold high-performance expectations concerning your staff?

8. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

- Probe: Can you comment on the issue of time?

9. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?

- Probe: How has the small number of staff affected your leadership?

10. How have you attempted to provide individualised support to your teaching staff?

- Probe: Describe how the concept of 'School Rationalisation' has added to your work?

11. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

12. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?
APPENDIX 3 continued

-Probe: Have you had to provide more than 'normal' support to your staff as a result of 'School Rationalisation?'

13. How have you attempted to provide intellectual stimulation for your teaching staff?

-Probe: How has restructuring allowed you to provide more relevant professional development for your staff?

14. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

15. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?

-Probe: What could be some of the reasons for that?

16. How have you attempted to model good professional practice to your teaching staff?

-Probe: Describe how difficult it was for the teachers to take on shared leadership

17. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

-Probe: Which staff have you had to spend more time with in modelling good professional practice?

18. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for you to achieve this?
APPENDIX 3 continued

-Probe: Explain how it is easier for you as a teaching principal.

19. How has your leadership changed since the advent of devolution and decentralisation?

-Probe: Explain how having no administrative assistance has made your work more difficult.

20. Do you expect your leadership role to keep changing as the system becomes more devolved? If so, what aspects do you expect to change the most?

-Probe: How will it change your leadership style?
Interview Schedule for Teachers with Examples of Probes.

Main Study

1. How has your principal attempted to develop a shared vision for your school?

   -Probe: How has it impacted on his time?

2. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

   -Probe: Explain further how the lack of time has made it difficult for the principal.

3. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for your principal to achieve this?

   -Probe: How has the restructuring been responsible for your principal developing his own vision, or would he have done it anyway?

4. How has your principal attempted to build consensus about school goals and priorities?

   -Probe: Can you explain what you mean by 'consensus' amongst the staff?

5. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

   -Probe: Are there differences between teaching and non-teaching principals?
6. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for your principal to achieve this?

-Probe: How has working in a small school made it easier?

7. Can you describe how your principal has attempted to hold high-performance expectations concerning the staff?

-Probe: Describe how school-based staff selection has benefited your school?

8. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

-Probe: Can you comment further on the issues of time and workload?

9. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for your principal to achieve this?

10. How has your principal attempted to provide individualised support to the teaching staff?

-Probe: Do you feel that this is a normal part of his leadership? Explain further.

11. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

-Probe: How does his workload prevent him providing extra assistance?
12. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for your principal to achieve this?

13. How has your principal attempted to provide intellectual stimulation for the teaching staff?

14. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

-Probe: Explain further what you mean by an 'isolated' school.

15. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for your principal to achieve this?

-Probe: How has restructuring affected your principal's provision of intellectual stimulation?

16. How has your principal attempted to model good professional practice to the teaching staff?

-Probe: Can you explain further how you have been empowered in decision-making.

17. Have there been any factors which have made this difficult to achieve?

18. Have there been any factors which have made it easier for your principal to achieve this?

-Probe: Has restructuring had any effect on those processes?
Teaching Principals: Restructuring and Transformational Leadership
- Pilot Study -

Dear Potential Participant,

The purpose of the pilot study is to ascertain the reliability and validity of the interview questions to be used in the main study. This will help to determine whether the data collected can be qualified and analysed in the manner intended. The purpose of the main study is to determine the extent to which teaching principals are able to utilise transformational leadership practices in an era of continuing devolution and decentralisation in schools. Research has indicated that this particular form of leadership enhances the prospects for school improvement. Unfortunately the current research does not include teaching principals who have the added responsibility of pedagogy which limits the time they are able to devote to other duties. I wish to determine whether this enhances or impinges on the ability of a teaching principal to utilise these leadership practices.

The pilot study involves interviewing three teaching principals. The interviews which will be either face-to-face or by telephone will take approximately 60 minutes. All interviews will be recorded on tape for transcribing purposes and will be wiped at the conclusion of the study. A potential benefit for you as a participant will be the familiarity you will have with this form of leadership after the interviews. It is hoped that this study will have an impact on the design of future leadership programs for teaching principals in the Western Australian government school system. Anonymity for all participants in the study is guaranteed. Any questions concerning the study can be directed to Kevin Gillan at Dwellingup Primary School on (09) 538 1026.
If you wish to participate in this study please complete the form below and return to me in the envelope provided. Thankyou for your interest.

Kevin Gillan.

I have read the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity, realising that I may withdraw at any time. I agree that the research data gathered for this study may be published provided I am not identifiable.

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Participant School Date

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Investigator Date
Dear Potential Participant,

The purpose of this study in which you are invited to take part is to determine the extent to which teaching principals are able to utilise transformational leadership practices in an era of continuing devolution and decentralisation in schools. Research has indicated that this particular form of leadership enhances the prospects for school improvement. Unfortunately the current research does not include teaching principals who have the added responsibility of pedagogy which limits the time they are able to devote to other duties. I wish to determine whether this enhances or impinges on the ability of a teaching principal to utilise these leadership practices.

The study involves interviewing three teaching principals and at least two of their teaching staff members. The interviews which will be either face-to-face or by telephone will take approximately 60 minutes. All interviews will be recorded on tape for transcribing purposes. Principals and teachers will not have access to each others recordings and the tapes will be wiped at the conclusion of the study. All participants will be given a series of notes describing transformational leadership before the interview so that they are familiar with the term. A potential benefit for you as a participant will be the familiarity you will have with this form of leadership after the interviews. Teachers will have a greater understanding of the difficulties their principals may have in utilising these practices. It is hoped that this study will have an impact on the design of future leadership programs for teaching principals in the Western Australian government school system.

Anonymity for all participants in the study is guaranteed. Any questions concerning the study can be directed to Kevin Gillan at Dwellingup Primary School on (09) 538 1026.
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