Sarah Oved

The Perceptions of Principals and Middle Managers of the Role of Middle Managers in the School Management

Doctorate supervised by

Prof. Małgorzata Rosalska

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Foreword

Completing a PhD thesis on a subject I was passionate about researching has been a dream of mine for ten years. I almost gave up on it for various reasons, but I resumed my pursuit at the right time. This is the end of my journey of discovering, learning and growth, as I submit my doctoral thesis.

I owe this achievement to the support of many wonderful people who stood by me through thick and thin. First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. Rosalska, who believed in me from our first meeting in Poznan.

Dear Gosia, you have been an excellent mentor. You provided me with invaluable feedback, advice, and encouragement, always being positive and supportive.

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Thank you, dear Kuba, for always being approachable, kind, and helpful. You have helped me overcome the most daunting part of the research.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my beloved family: my husband, daughters, and son-in-law. Thank you for your existence. Thank you for your understanding of the sacrifices I had to make in terms of time, holidays, and vacations that we could have spent together, had I not been so immersed in my reading and writing. I love you all. You are my everything.

Table of Contents

List of Diagrams

List of Tables

List of Charts

Streszczenie

Tematem dysertacji jest postrzeganie przez dyrektorów izraelskich szkół średnich i menedżerów średniego szczebla (MM) roli MM w zarządzaniu szkołą.

Praca ma charakter badawczy. Zaproponowane zostały dwa główne pytania badawcze: jak dyrektorzy postrzegają rolę MM w zarządzaniu szkołą oraz jak MM postrzegają swoją rolę w szkole? W badaniach postawiono zarówno cele teoretyczne, jak i praktyczne: zdobycie i uzupełnienie wiedzy na temat MM w izraelskich szkołach średnich oraz opracowanie praktycznych zaleceń, jak wykorzystać potencjał MM w szkole. Badania zrealizowano metodą sondażu diagnostycznego z wykorzystaniem autorskich kwestionariuszy ankiet.

W teoretycznej części pracy zaprezentowano rozważania stanowiące podstawę projektu badawczego. Ze względu na to, iż badania dotyczą kontekstu izraelskiego, w pierwszym rozdziale omówiony został system edukacji w Izraelu, założenia izraelskiej polityki oświatowej oraz kierunki przeprowadzonych reform izraelskiego szkolnictwa. W drugim rozdziale zaprezentowane zostały zagadnienia dotyczące zarządzania współczesną szkołą, zarówno w kontekście administracyjnym, jak i przywództwa w edukacji. Ostatnie zagadnienia tworzące podstawę projektu badawczego dotyczy wyzwań i zadań związanych z pełnieniem roli dyrektora w szkole. Omówione zostały wątki kształtujące obraz roli dyrektora szkoły oraz uwarunkowania jego działań w szkolnych społecznościach.

W części empirycznej zaprezentowano opis, analizę i interpretację danych pozyskanych od 89 dyrektorów izraelskich szkół i 133 menadżerów średniego szczebla. Praca kończy się prezentacją wniosków oraz rekomendacjami związanymi z możliwościami wzmocnienia pozycji menadżerów średniego szczebla w procesie zarządzania izraelskimi szkołami.

Słowa kluczowe: polityka oświatowa, przywództwo edukacyjne, zarządzanie szkołą, menadżerowie średniego szczebla

Abstract

The topic of the dissertation is Israeli secondary school principals' and middle managers' (MM) perceptions of the role of MM in school management.

The dissertation is exploratory in nature. Two main research questions are proposed: how do principals perceive the role of MMs in school management, and how do MMs perceive their role in the school? The research set both theoretical and practical objectives: to gain and add to the knowledge of MM in Israeli secondary schools and to develop practical recommendations on how to realize the potential of MM in schools. The research was carried out by means of a diagnostic survey method using original survey questionnaires.

The theoretical part of the paper presents the considerations underlying the research design. As the research concerns the Israeli context, the first chapter discusses the education system in Israel, the assumptions of Israeli education policy, and the directions of the Israeli education reforms carried out. The second chapter presents issues concerning the management of the contemporary school, both in the administrative context and in educational leadership. The final issues forming the basis of the research project concern the challenges and tasks associated with the role of the principal in a school. The themes shaping the image of the school principal's role and the determinants of the principal's actions in school communities are discussed.

The empirical section presents a description, analysis, and interpretation of data obtained from 89 Israeli school principals and 133 middle managers. The paper concludes with a presentation of conclusions and recommendations related to the possibilities of empowering middle managers in the management process of Israeli schools.

Keywords: educational policy, educational leadership, school management, middle managers

Introduction

Located in the study field of Educational Leadership and Management, MMs have been attracting scholar interest since the 1990's (Tang, Bryant, & Walker, 2022, Lipscombe, Tindall-Ford, & Lamanna, 2023). Still, to date, the subject is yet under-researched and under-theorized (De Noble, 2021).

By way of illustration, it can be argued, that the ad hoc trend in the literature is to view MMs first and foremost, as the link which is located and often times mediates between the school's senior management team (SMT) and teachers, a link that can contribute to improvement and school change (Gurr, 2019). However, to date, the potential of MMs to impact on student and school success is too often unrealized (Gurr & Drysdale, 2013).

The role of MM is complex and multifaceted, yet it offers enormous growth potential for schools, a potential that is still not utilized, most usually probably due to reasons related to both principals and policy makers. Located in the middle between the principal and the classroom teachers, MMs face competing interests, role conflict, ambiguity and lack of time (Iftach & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2023). MMs must balance their teaching responsibilities with their role responsibilities (Bennet, et al., 2007), bridge and harmonize positional tensions (Bassett & Shaw, 2018), communicate effectively with both SMT and classroom teachers (Ghamrawi, 2013) to address the needs of their schools and communities.

Despite growing interest and recognition of the significant role of MMs in school change and outcomes, blur and ambiguity still persist regarding the role, practices, authority and impact of MMs in general (De Nobile, 2018) and more specifically their role in schools' management structures. In attempts to provide a conceptual framework/s for understanding the role of middle leaders in schools, researchers have been suggesting models, recommendations and lists of elements to support the development and success of MMs (Leithwood, 2016, Angelle, & De Hart, 2016, Harris et al., 2018). This, to highlight the different leadership dimensions required to promote the students' achievements and the school outcomes. Yet, seemingly, the bulk of research is still limited and too fragmented to provide a solid, comprehensive body of knowledge. This might be explained by the role of

the school context and culture (Hallinger, 2018, Gurr, 2019) which is crucial to school outcomes, and which ultimately determines the roles, practices, micro-politics and impact of MMs on the school as a whole.

With that said, the literature in the field markedly impinges on understanding that MMs are complementary to the principal's or SMT's leadership, not the same as (Grootenboer, Edwards-Groves, & Rönnerman, 2019). Thus, the literature is canvassed with theories and research on principals and leadership styles, alongside development of education policies and state reforms to be implemented in school in attempts to lead school change and better education. In such times the need to better understand how to utilize the potential of the role of MMs in promoting school outcomes increases.

The evolving role of the principals from a manager/administrator to an educational leader has been discussed in the literature for decades. Hallinger (1992) marked the 1990's as the era of the transformational leader, which represents a significant shift in the nature of the role of the principal, who must spend more time collaborating with staff. Leithwood et al. (2019) conclude that successful school leaders 'build relationships and develop people', by stimulating growth in the professional capacities of staff, for example. Additionally, successful school leaders 'develop the organization to support desired practices' such as build collaborative culture and distribute leadership.

Ever since the 1990's the role of the school principal has changed and expanded with growing responsibilities added to the profession (Clifford & Coggshall, 2021). Pounder & Merrill (2001) assert that the role of the high school principal is the most complex and challenging in the educational systems. MMs are a form of school collaboration (Clark & Clark, 1997), playing an important role in implementing accountability policy (Spillane et al., 2002), that have a direct influence on the quality of teaching and learning (Harris and Jones, 2017).

Whereas scholars seem to agree over a repertoire of enhancing/hindering factors that affect the performance of MMs (Leithwood, 2016, Gurr & Drysdale, 2013, Gurr, 2019) there seems to be a disconnect between the theoretical models and recommendation offered and the practice of MMs at schools. This is where the motivation to research the subject has emanates from. Being an Israeli high school principal for over a decade, I have been dealing

with questions of how to distribute leadership in school, how to empower my teaching staff, and motivate them to collaborate and take roles in school. There is no simple answer to any of these questions, which is why I have decided to investigate the subject.

In the complex reality of the Israeli educational system, the role of MMs is crucial for the everyday function of school and for the school outcomes. Results and conclusion of this research will shed light on the current relationship between the theoretical knowledge and practice of MMs, in the Israeli context. Additionally, results will add general knowledge to the literature of MMs and suggest theoretical as well as practical conclusions and recommendations to the Israeli local context, principals, and policymakers.

This research explores the perceptions of Israeli high school principals and middle managers (MMs)[1] of the role of MMs in the school management.

It purposes both theoretical and practical aims: to gain and add knowledge on Israeli high school MMs and to suggest practical recommendations, how to realize the potential of MMs on the school, to principals and policy makers in the Israeli context.

Two research questions and two hypotheses lead this research:

1. What are principals' perceptions of the role of MM in school management?
2. How do MM perceive their role at school?

It is hypothesized that a positive correlation will be found between the perception of principals of the role of MMs in school management and Principals' expectations, roles, tasks, support, and power share of their MMs. Additionally, it is hypothesized that there will be differences in the role perceptions of principals and MMs in certain aspects of the school role construct and role perception.

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[1] The title MM is interchangeably titled as middle leader (ML) in the literature. In this dissertation we use the title MM, with no added semantic interpretations.

The areas where the role of MM's will be recognized and the differences in perceptions of this role between school principals and MM's will be identified are:

- Roles, tasks and responsibilities of MMs
- Necessary competence skills, Competence expectations, competence resources
- Necessity of managerial skills
- Professional development (PD): preparation for the role, on training PD
- The principal's support: collaboration, shared decision-making, power share

This research is quantitative. A diagnostic survey method and questionnaire were used. The researcher developed two diagnostic questionnaire-surveys to investigate the subject. The questionnaires were distributed to Israeli high school principals and MMs and were administered during the year 2022. 89 principals and 133 MMs participated in the study.

This content structure is typical of quantitative research. The first three chapters provide a theoretical basis for the research design. Based on the literature, key issues for the topic are presented. The first chapter discusses selected issues related to Israeli education policy. Since the research concerns Israeli schools and was conducted in Israel, it seems necessary to present the structure of the system and its legal, cultural, and political conditions. The second chapter is devoted to the topics of school management, school administration and educational leadership. The third chapter discusses various concepts related to the tasks and role of the school principal.

In the fourth chapter, the methodological background of the research is presented. The structure of this chapter is typical of survey research. The research subject, objectives, problems, hypotheses, variables, and indicators are identified. The method, technique, and research tools are also indicated. Chapters 5-7 describe, analyze, and interpret the data obtained. The paper concludes by discussing the results, conclusions, and recommendations for utilizing the MM's potential in Israeli secondary schools.

Chapter 1:   Education Policy in Israel

It is argued that a nation's educational policy should not be studied without examination of educational policies worldwide (Leithwood, Jacobson, & Ylimaki, 2011). This chapter studies the Israeli education policy in an era of globalization, reforms and accountability. It introduces the Israeli education system and its challenges in the context of worldwide educational policies. This chapter serves as the theoretical infrastructure of understanding the practices of Israeli schools.

1.1.   Education Policy

Schools are complex systems that operate in contexts which influence their educational practice and performance. Different education systems have different educational agendas, which all school principals across cultures and contexts are held responsible to carry out. It is therefore inevitable that school principals constantly find themselves juggling between education policies and their implementation in their organizations (Oved, 2020). The ultimate goal of policymakers is aimed at enhancing and improving the educational system of a nation, as it is agreed that education is conducive to a nation's future. Hence, education policies are developed at local, national and international levels to cope with educational demands and challenges. However, implementation of education policies is much less clear to define and assess and it is affected by the broader contexts in which the school is located and operate in.

1.1.1. Defining Education Policy

Rivzi and Lingard (2010) quote Dye (1992) who gives the simplest definition of policy: "Whatever government choose to do or not to do". Sykes, Schneider and Plank (2009) comment that "policy" plays a central role in educational systems, which has in turn led to a growing interest in education policy research. Furthermore, the researchers add that the objects of "policy" encompass all aspects of the educational enterprise (p.1). Coburn (2016) defines policy as "a set of rules, often supported by resources, that attempts to constrain or channel behavior in particular directions through regulative, normative, or cognitive means." (p.466). Viennet and Pont (2017) understand education policy as "the actions taken by governments in relation with educational practices, and how governments

address the production and delivery of education in a given system." (p.19). Spillane, Gomez and Mesler (2015) view policy as a governmental effort to change existing behavior or practice. Similarly, Bell and Stevenson (2006) assume that the making of an education policy involves the state imposed power and allocate resources on regional, local and institutional agencies. Furthermore, Bell and Stevenson claim that the state policy influences the daily routine of educational institutions: "policy is political: it is about the power to determine what is done." (p.9).

Simkins (2000) claims that the purpose of the many policy changes in the British educational system is to make schools and colleges follow the improved agenda of the Conservative or Labor governments. In Simkins's view, all these changes in policies are only variations of a theme. The researcher describes how education policy changed over time in England and gradually evolved into affecting school managements to become more effective, a shift from a bureau-professional organizational order to a managerial one. The policy framework for schools was established by the Education Reform Act of 1988 and was changed later by legislation. Initially, these policies focused on curriculum and the means it delivers in addition to publishing the performance of schools in tests to the parents. Gradually, governing bodies of schools were given power and became regular inspection. Policy pressure was felt in the educational system. As a result, Simkins concludes, outcome-based management evolved, school focused on outcomes. Thus, according to Simkins, education policy is politically driven. Similarly, Badat (1995) argues that policy formation is a political process characterized by competing interests.

Bush (2007) adverts to the expectations and pressure on school from external environment such as politicians, officials, academics and consultants that are often expressed as formal policy statements. In addition, Bush questions the school's ability to accommodate government policy with school needs, values and vision. Thus, according to Bush, leadership and management should be given equal prominence at schools in order to achieve their objectives. Bell and Stevenson (2006) assert that school practitioners engage in making sense of the external policy and forming their own policies simultaneously.

1.1.2. Trends in Policy reforms

The OECD (2015) education policy outlook provides a comparative analysis of education policy reforms. It encapsulates education options that have been adopted by OECD countries between the years 2008-2014 (OECD, 2015). The trends in education policy mentioned in the biennial report are equity and quality in education, preparing students for the future, school improvement, evaluation and assessment, and governance and funding. It is argued that in order to improve results in education and enhance their educational system, governments are constantly looking for education reforms, which results are not evident. Moreover, as governments seek to improve quality, equity and effectiveness of their education systems they are pressured to define and implement diverse education policies (ibid: p.22). Some of the policy options introduced in the report are: system level policies to improve inclusiveness, school outcomes and assessment strategies, policies on vocational education and training to promote preparation of students to the future, teacher policies to attract stronger candidates to the profession and school leadership policies to set standards in the field.

Many agree on a range of policy areas that deliver high yield. These include:

- investing in teaching and teachers
- setting high standards for all students
- using data to follow student progress
- building capacity of those engaged in the education process
- recognizing the key role of school leadership
- supporting disadvantaged students and schools
- ensuring sound policy making with consistent accountability mechanisms

However, it is also agreed that policy perform will differ in different social, cultural, political and economic contexts (ibid: p.27).

1.2. Accountability

The Merriam-Webster online dictionary defines *accountability* as "the quality or state of being accountable. Especially**:** an obligation or willingness to accept responsibility or to account for one's actions" (Merriam-Webster, 2021). It is impossible to understand

education policy processes without delving into the term of accountability which seems to lie on the continuum between education policy and the results of implementing it. Not only this, but also the constituents of obligation and willingness which embody the core of the term direct attention to the role of the individual in successful implementation of educational policy.

About a half a century ago, Levin (1974) suggested a conceptual framework for accountability in education. Levin pinpoints the diverse use of the term and mentions four distinct concepts of accountability that reflect review of the literature of the time:

- Accountability as performance reporting – the state supervision of testing and other information
- Accountability as a technical process – a presumption of a unanimity on the goals across schools which establishes standardization.
- Accountability as a political process – the ability or inability of the school to deliver educational services to particular groups. If they do not do that, they are not accountable.
- Accountability as an institutional process – a whole process, accountability as a part of all education systems.

Levin contemplates the need for four distinct concepts and outlines a system of accountability for education. In Levin's view an accountability system is a continuous and dynamic closed loop reflecting a chain of responses to perceived needs or demands (Levin, 1974: p.375). It is argued that examination of accountability systems should start with the formation of the political demands that are placed in the educational arena (p.377). It is through the political processes that the governing processes are transmitted to schools and the total set of educational demands are generated. Hence, already in 1974 Levin tightly relates the concept of accountability with the political elements that influence educational institutions. Levin proposes a feedback loop in his accountability system for education (p.385), as displayed in diagram 1 below:

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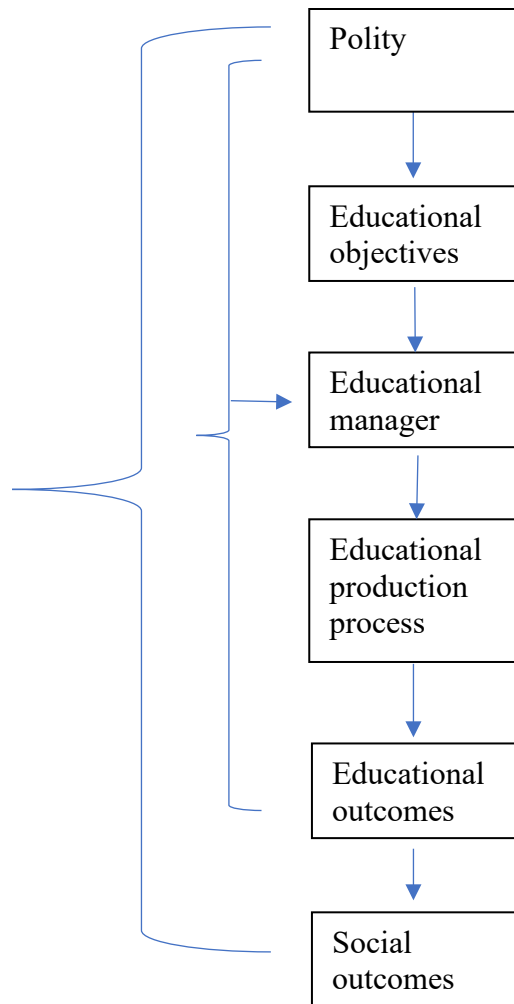
Diagram 1: Levin's Feedback loop in his accountability system for education (Levin, 1974)

Epstein (1993) lays a claim that the way Conservative Governments have used the notion of accountability in the development of education policy during the 1980s and 1990s promoted the notion of accountability as inimical to equity. Furthermore, Epstein discusses two conservative versions of accountability which allow and promote racist oppressive policies and practices in schools.

- Market accountability: assumes that producers (schools) are accountable to consumers (students/parents). It is operated through changes in school budgets and consumer choice.
- Upwards accountability: based on the notion that public services are held accountable to groups/individuals greater in power such as finance committees and governing bodies.

20

Epstein concludes that democratized definitions of accountability need to be developed to promote equality in education.

Bell and Stevenson (2006) argue that as education is now seen as significant in developing national identity, citizenship, social cohesion and social justice, school are required to produce students with appropriate skills and capabilities to match national priorities. Hence, Bell and Stevenson outline a range of measures designed to hold schools accountable for national priorities. In their view the notion of accountability has made a long way from the simple meaning of obligation to deliver an account as well as being able to do so to a more complex definition that includes adherence to codes of practice rather than outcomes. Schools are held accountable to the state via inspection mechanisms and sometimes to other stakeholders as parents and students. In this respect, market accountability is connected to ability of parents to make choices and decide where their children learn.

Burns, Koster and Fuster (2016) report on the Governing Complex Education Systems (GCES) project which identified accountability as one of the three themes that are vital for effective governance and successful reforms. Accountability is defined as "addressing the challenge of holding different actors at multiple levels responsible for their actions" (p.3). The centrality of accountability is delineated by setting priorities and steering multilevel systems. In managing accountability, a stronger focus is on measurable outputs such as standardized testing with focus on achievement and excellence. Burns, Koster and Fuster pinpoint the tension between accountability mechanisms that might lead to minimizing risks and error which are fundamental elements of processes of innovation.

1.2.1. Accountability Implementation

Hess (2002) elaborates that the educational promise which led to the politics of accountability, is "the allure of standards-based reform" (p.5). Hess asserts that context influences the political tension that pushed for high-stakes accountability programs. Hess proposes that the salient political tension in high-stakes accountability systems is no less significant than the educational component. On the way to the implementation level of accountability programs there are visible political costs, that are no less significant than the educational benefits. Hess predicates that policymakers make a number of compromises at

the design and implementation levels of high-stakes accountability systems. Making tests easier, lowering the stakes of the tests for students or reducing the thresholds required to pass accountability assessments are examples of such compromising political decisions, Hess suggests. Thus, Hess concludes that this compromise approach should not be considered as a retreat from the promise of accountability but as a refine to build comfort with accountability by softening the resistance to coercive accountability.

Spillane et al. (2002) assert that implementation of accountability-based policies which hold schools accountable for students performance involves interpretation and figuring out of what the policy means in terms of how it applies to a specific school. It is argued that figuring out how a policy applies to a school determines whether to ignore, adapt, or adopt a policy. Spillane et al. contend that school leaders use a sense-making framework to interpret their environments, among which are the political and institutional sectors. School leaders, thus, become intermediaries between the district officers and their teachers who are the one to enter the classroom to enact the policy and get test scores up. School leaders, are required to negotiate the tension between the external world of the district accountability policies and the internal school world, their teachers and staff (Spillane et al., 2002).

1.3. Education Policy Implementation

When one attempts to evaluate the success or outcomes of a given education policy, it is inevitable to examine and delve into the dynamics of education policy implementation, which is manifold and different in changing contexts. Viennet and Pont (2017) study what policy implementation entails both in theory and in practice, and examine the determinants involved in the complex process of policy implementation. Viennet and Pont define policy implementation as "a purposeful and multidirectional change process aiming to put a specific policy into practice, and which may affect an education system on several levels." (p.6). The key challenges of implementation, in Viennet and Ponts' view, are based in lack of emphasis on the implementation process at the stage of designing the policy, lack of recognition in the importance of the people engaged in implementing the policy and the need to a adapt revised implementation frameworks to new complex governance systems.

Spillane, Gomez and Mesler (2015) emphasize that local factors are critical for policy implementation processes. Spillane, Gomez and Mesler introduce a list of factors that enable and restrict the implementation of a policy: the human capital and curricular materials, workplace norms such as trust and collective responsibility, motivation, leadership support and organizational arrangements. (p.409). "Change" and "organization" are two key words necessary for the discussion of policy implementation. Change, it is argued, is a constant in school systems as schools are dynamic environments. Policy is a planned change that seeks to alter school practice by manipulating resources. Organization can be school units but also the district and the interaction between the two affects policy implementation. It is the people in the organization (whether school or district) that implement the policy. Thereof, the practice or pattern of behavior (p.413) of the people in the organization is what counts.

Coburn (2016) assumes that all theories of policy implementation are based on some aspects of the human agency, human nature. Thus, it is the relationship between social structure and agency that can explain policy implementation. It is argued that the implementation process is constrained and enabled by the social structure of the human agency. In other words, the policy impacts the individual action and interaction in various ways. A number of mechanisms are mentioned to explain it. For example, it might be the result of the fact that the policy creates social structural changes in the system or the creation of conditions that make people rethink who they are and make them act. It is concluded that policy implementation is a multilevel process, not an event (p.470), that influences the educational system.

Samson and Charles (2018) studied the challenges secondary school principals face in the implementation of a national curriculum statement in South Africa. Findings from empirical research revealed that 76% of respondents did not understand how school curriculum related to an education policy. 80% of respondents reported insufficient guidelines by government officers. 70% of the respondents asked for modification of the current education policy. The factors hindering the implementation of the new curriculum were found to be lack of physical and human resources and lack of clarity on policy guidelines. Thus, Samson and Charles propose that there is not one factor inhibiting the

implementation of education policy. They conclude that empowering the principals and the government officials can improve the implementation of a new curriculum.

Honig (2009) proposes that "what works" in education has affected policymaking for decades. Honig adds that "what works" also generated research in the field, ignoring the fact that mixed results (p.333) may emanate from different methodologies. Based on findings from the field of implementation research, Honig suggests, that "what works depends" (p.333) and demands that researchers in the field should ask themselves "what works for whom, where, when, and why?" (p.333). In addition, Honig lays a claim that implementation outcomes depend on interactions between the policy, people and places. Honig pinpoints that the current emphasis on "what works" in education reflects an approach to knowledge building in education. Honig further highlights that currently the field of policy implementation aims to elaborate past research which concluded that policy, people and places interact, and study the reasons and manner of their interaction.

1.4.   Education policy and Globalization

The ideological backgrounds of education policies initiated by policy makers around the world seem to be proactive, responding to the national needs of a country. However, it is no secret that education policies are also influenced by global theories and trends in the field of education. Rivzi and Lingard (2010) illustrate that since the 1990's, educational policies have been influenced and responded to the on-going world changes. Globalization, they claim, is a key driver of policy change in education that has reshaped the field of educational policy. Processes of education policy these days are constituted globally and beyond the nation-state (p.3). Policymakers within states network with organizations such as the OECD and UNESCO and create a global education policy. Thus, the state positions itself in relation to a range of organizations. Hence, Rivzi and Lingard (ibid) claim that new tools are required to understand policy processes these days, "a global analysis of contemporary states" (p.16). Furthermore, the current view of education as the best economic policy to ensure competitiveness has pushed for comparative measures of educational outcomes, which inevitably constituted a global policy field. OECD's program for International Student Assessment (PISA) is one example of a very influential program. Thus, a neo-liberal view of education has been promoted and embraced by nations. In other

words, national policymakers are influenced by international organizations that represent and promote an awareness of interconnectedness and interdependence. The result of such processes might be that national systems adopt similar educational policy outlooks.

Fazal and Rivzi (2010) suggest that globalization has given rise to the following issues:

- Devolution and centralization
- New forms of governance
- The balance between public and private funding of education
- Access and equity and the education of girls
- Curriculum with particular interest in teaching English and technology
- Pedagogies and high stakes testing
- The global trade in education

Carnoy and Rhoten (2002) delve into the relationship between globalization and educational change. In their view globalization is a theoretical frame for comparative education. It is a force reorganizing the world's economy, with knowledge and information being its main resources. Carnoy and Rhoten refer to decentralization and privatization, choice and accountability, testing and assessment as the ideological packging of globalization, which affects education. The core of the relationship between education and globalization is embedded in the relationsip between globalized political economy and the nation-state. There is a constant tension between the state's willingness to take part in the increasing global economic competitiveness and its focus on protecting its national identity, economy and education. Hence, the relationship between globalization and educational chage is affected by the overall delivery of schooling from the transnational paradigms, to national policies, to local practices. Carnoy and Rhoten view globalization as a dynamic multidimensional, multilevel process that is based on economics, but not exclusively. This process involves a constant conflict between the global and the local, between international paradigms and national policies that are transmitted into local practices.

Bottery (2001) argues that globalization has become a buzzword in a time of global change (p.202). Bottery suggests four major kinds of globalization: political, demographic,

cultural, environmental and economic. It is explained that all these forms of globalization have wide-ranging effects, but the political and economic ones have the most immediate effect upon educational systems. Changes at a global level are mediated by nations in a variety of ways, which are culturally, historically, geographically, politically and economically dependent. Bottery argues that in light of the global pressure on UK governments, a genuine transformational leadership cannot be achieved. Furthermore, Bottery explain, head teachers and teachers have colluded with the UK government legislation to prevent any true transformational version of leadership. Thus, Bottery concludes that a more culturally and politically contextualized approached to models of leadership is desired.

Olmos and Torres (2009) assert that globalization processes not only lessen and change the role of the state in promoting public education but also limit the state autonomy and sovereignty to provide the required educational solutions that should emerge from the social, historical context of the particular educational system. Arguing against grand theories that explain educational expansion, Olmos and Torres suggest an approach that focuses on the historical circumstances of capital accumulation and political legitimization and their impact on educational growth. Globalization in the view of Olmos and Torres is a prerequisite condition of modern capitalism. It emanates from the liberalization of the capital, deregulation, and competitiveness. The process of globalization blurs national boundaries and thus affects the identities of national and interest groups. The implications of the internationalization and globalization for educational policies, textbooks and curriculum lack empirical and theoretical research. International organizations such as the OECD and the World Bank are prominent regulatory agencies of the capitalist system.

1.4.1. Globalization and the OECD

Ineluctably, globalization is related to intergovernmental organizations such as the OECD. Arguably, it seems incompatible to discuss or attempt to understand the conception of globalization without delving into the prominent role of the OECD in shaping and constructing the current notion of it (See also Wiseman and Taylor (Eds.), 2017). Rizvi and Lingard (2006) clearly illuminate the political role of the OECD and other intergovernmental organizations such as UNESCO, UN and the World Bank play in

developing, legitimating and implementing educational policy at a national level. It is claimed that through its thematic reviews and indicators in Education project, such as PISA, the OECD uses the ideology of globalization to reformulate educational purposes and governance that adhere to the needs of the global economy, more particularly to the requirements of the global knowledge economy. It is further argued by Rivzi and Lingard (2006) that the educational policy work of the OECD which is widely used by national governments affect a seemingly convergence of education policy around the world. It is noted that this process occurs without any mandate of the OECD over its member countries, rather it occurs through a process of 'consensus-building' and through 'peer pressure' (Rivzi and Lingard, 2006: p. 248). Since the OECD is an organization that is primarily concerned with economic objectives its educational work is inevitably oriented towards a neo-liberal instrumentalist conception of education using terms such as access and outcomes, quality, choice, public and private funding and individual and social returns to investment in learning (ibid, p. 249). Thus, it is concluded that by working with competing definitions of globalization, the OECD has created globalization as neo-liberal ideology applied to the whole globe, thus creating an economic 'policy talk' (p.259).

No doubt, global international organizations such as the OECD, UNESCO and the World Bank are "strolling through the global garden" of education (Beech, 2009) to exert their ideologies. These intergovernmental organizations are evident active actors, shaping the global educational field. Rivzi and Lingard (2009, p: 438) maintain that contemporary processes of globalization have affected the OECD's policy work in education (Rivzi and Lingard, 2009. P: 438).

The field of comparative education studies the notion of *transfer* of ideas about education between contexts. Beech (2006) illuminates that "…the concept of 'educational transfer' can be defined as the movement of educational ideas, institutions or practices across international borders." (Beech, 2006. P: 1). It is not within the scope of this chapter to trace the history of the literature of comparative education which is dated back to the early nineteenth century. However, it is noteworthy to mention that the debate over the question whether it is desirable or not to separate education, as an independent aspect of social reality to be analyzed separately from its socio-historical context, has been going on since

then (ibid., p.1). Beech (2006) cites Sadler (1979) who asserted that successful educational transfer was not possible and highlighted the importance of context in defining educational systems. Additionally, Beech remarks that the question about the agents of transfer is essential and further notes that under processes of globalization, foreign influences have become more complex.

Huang and Kan (2020) discuss the worldwide impact of the OECD on the global educational arena and on national education systems. The authors argue that local educational reforms cannot be separated from the global context, though they warn against relying heavily on evidence-based data which is an indicator of this "era of quantitative enthusiasm" (inverted commas in the original). A similar approach is taken by Pizmony-Levy (2018) who reinforces that the success of global educational movements often supported by transnational actors in education is dependent upon local legitimacy.

1.5.   Educational Change and Reforms

Schools seem to be durable to change and reform. On-going criticism and unceasing sense of discontent with schooling has probably led policy makers, academics and educators to initiate myriad attempts to change schools ever since the establishment of the public school system in the end of the nineteenth century, ranging from local changes to large-scale reforms.

1.5.1. Schools Persistence to Change

Many a scholar have delved into explaining the impermeability of schools to reforms. Sarason (1996) contends that no major social institution has been subject to pressure for change than the public school system (p.9). Nevertheless, and despite great forces and investments pushing to change schooling efforts have not yielded desired outcomes.

Tyack and Tobin (1994) probed into the enduring institutional forms of schooling that make it very hard to lead change in schools. The authors use the term "grammar" to refer to the regular structures and rules that organize the work of instruction (p.454). Thereof, classifying students to classes, teaching subjects and division of time and space are regularities of school that take over the system, shape instruction and make schools durable to change. Tyack and Tobin further argue that when a reform is introduced to a school, it

is assimilated into the existing structures and rules. These institutional forms are historical products of political power. Not only this, but it is also argued that school as a social construct is very powerful and the public expectations are that the "good, old" patterns of behaviors do not have to change. Thus, Tyack and Tobin add that those who challenged the grammar of schooling found themselves confronting political powers. In addition, teachers found themselves striving to change old behavior with new one, and with no evidence of outcomes, boards had to explain why it is desired. It is not impossible to change schooling, however, to succeed would require continual public dialogue, not only committed reformers.

Prestine and Bowen (1993) assessed the process of change at the mid-point of a five-year school restructuring. Four main benchmarks were identified as indicators of substance change:

1) **Substantial agreement** of the change process; Everyone at school understands that a whole school change takes place and thus everyone has to act accordingly.
2) **Observable change** is identifiable among a group of teachers and students.
3) **ALL-school participation** beyond level talk is maintained.
4) **Systemic leadership** assures continuation after key personnel leaves. Hence each person leads their way. (p.304)

Prestine and Bowen remark that until the first benchmark is attained, change will most likely not be achieved. Furthermore, the researchers argue that a successful change process demands internal pressure and external support (p.316). Thus, change in Prestine and Bowens' view is a process of organizational learning.

Ettinger (1999) scrutinizes the possible reasons for the persistence of schools to change and claims that schools assimilate the changes required from them, but do not change. One possible explanation Ettinger suggests is the direction of the change initiative: if it is top-down initiative, it tends to fail since it usually does not take into consideration school culture. Ettinger adds that failure of top-down change initiatives led to a rise in the popularity of bottom-up initiatives. However, Ettinger indicates that there is enough evidence that organizations most usually do not initiate change without external impetus.

When schools do initiate change without external impetus it is due to a difficulty that disrupted the school routine. Ettinger postulates that school persistence to change derives from compatibility between the programmatic regularities (e.g. parents-teacher meeting, gender division in gymnastics) and behavioral (e.g. teaching methods) regularities of school. Since schools are not secluded organizations, but ones embodied in a complex chain of interactions with the ministry of education, the universities, the municipality, some of these stakeholders reinforce these regularities. Similarly, the power relationships within school also reinforce the existing regularities. Thus, Ettinger proposes to allocate the principal and teachers greater autonomy if a sustainable change is desired. It would be easier to achieve sustainable change among networks of schools as networks can support and help create the right conditions essential to create new regularities in schools.

Davies (2002) asserts that the difficulties of leading an educational change are two: leaders do not have time to think and imagine. Instead, they act and focus on the urgent, rather than on the important. Furthermore, leaders keep thinking the way they have always thought, which leads no change. The 21st. century is an era of changing economic and societal contexts in which knowledge becomes an asset in itself. To discuss the key changes and challenges that schools and school leaders face Davies uses Caldwell and Spinks tracks of reform (1998: p.11):

- Track 1: Building system of self-managing schools.
- Track 2: Unrelenting focus on learning outcomes.
- Track 3: Creating schools for the knowledge society.

The implementation of these tracks of reform means a change in the model of the educational process, a shift from the traditional process in which not only the content of curriculum was predetermined but also the way, how to teach has been centrally determined. In the new model, there is less control on school: the school is more autonomous to teach "thinking skills", no more excess focus on outcomes. Thus, the challenges of the 21st. century are to lead with a moral purpose, to establish moral communities, focus on learning processes rather than on restructuring the existing administrative systems. Davis thus concludes that the educators have to be both good leaders and managers.

Mediratta (2010) reviews Paine's (2008) book which delves into the possible reasons for the persistence of failure in urban schools. Beyond the root causes of failure, Payne pinpoints at the uncoupling between reform makers and the bottom tier; teachers and principals in urban failing schools. Payne argues that failing schools are embedded in institutionalized and political contexts that are inflexible and ineffectual bureaucracies, thus any given reform is embraced. Simplistic thinking behind many of the most popular reforms, it is claimed, prevents schools from narrowing achievement gaps between children of color and their white peers. Payne illustrates that reform efforts must attend to the social infrastructure of school and must allow room for teachers and principals to try new ways and sustain their focus over a number of years. Making a clear distinction between higher performing schools and failing schools, Payne proposes standards of implementation that focus on the "how" and not on the "what" to promote change in failing urban schools.

Cuban (2016) discusses change without reform in American education and challenges the conception of policy makers that changing school structures will change teaching practices. The scholar lays a claim that planned changes can be either first order incremental changes or second order fundamental changes that take altering funding, governance, curriculum, instruction and shift in cultural norms in school behavior. Both are important but emanate from different organizational assumptions and theories of change. Classroom practices are impermeable to fundamental changes. Hence, new structures hardly affect on classroom practices, which is the aim of policy makers. However, incremental changes that are add-ons or amendments to current structure or existing components of schooling changes do take place frequently, but on a national level they are only frictions, that hardly alter traditional classroom practices. Thus, Cuban argues that the *what* of teaching changed but the *how* (pedagogy) has not changed.

Cuban then distills three common explanations for why class practices have remained stable, unchanging:

1) Teaching traditions that are reinforced by generations of new teachers, supported by social beliefs and fortified by age-graded school structure (p.160)
2) Teacher resistance to reform.

31

3) Fundamental errors in policy maker thinking and actions moving on the continuum of theory to practice.

1.6.   Educational Reforms – Facing the 21st. Century

Volansky (2020) asserts that educational reforms are not only about hopes for change but also about pinpointing at the weaknesses of educational systems, criticizing them and pursuing improvement. Scrutinizing three waves of educational reforms from 1918-2018, Volansky outlines the theoretical foundations of each wave of reforms, its global spread and the background factors that led to its decay. According to Volansky the three waves of reforms reflect ideological streams in human societies over the last hundred years. The first wave of reforms was initiated as a promising response to the traditional teaching methods of the nineteenth century. The theoretical grounds of this wave of reform have been shaped and developed prominently by John Dewey's ideology of progressive education, child centered pedagogy. This wave, which is characterized by creativity and puts the child at the center as an active participant in the process of learning, was also a response to a reality of immigration after World War I. Volansky asserts that the movement of progressive education has been one of the two main movements in the history of public education during the twentieth century (p.27).

In the late 1980's, also as a response to dissatisfaction and criticism against the first wave of reform, the second wave of reforms, also known as the movement of standards in education, aimed at defining the expected outcomes of knowledge, introducing new tool of education policy; comparative tests among schools, districts and nations. Starting in the USA and England soon other governments around the world adopted the new tool of education policy, the international tests, which also led to new standards of school leadership. Volansky comments (p.79) that the ideological foundations of this wave of reforms assumed that the quality of education could be improved if educational systems administered according to the principles of the economical market. Criticism against this wave of reform holds that it creates coalescence and paralyzes creativity.

The third wave of reforms, as illustrated by Volansky, emanated from the change in the culture of kids and youth with the penetration of technology. Changes in the global work

market and the transition to economy of knowledge require different skills and the nurturing of creative thinking. Hence, the demand for different pedagogical methods rises. Thus, the third wave of reforms is the new learning skills. Volansky illuminates that at the start of the twenty first century, the new wave of reform allows the learner to ask questions and seek answers individually, thus discards standardized conformist thinking   (p.146). Volansky adds that this wave of reforms will be assessed in the coming decades.

Fullan (2003) outlines a formulation that portrays the evolution of four decades of reform strategies on a knowledge poor-rich, prescription-judgement matrix. On this matrix the 1970's are seen as an era of uninformed professional judgement, when there was little quality control of innovations. The 1980's are marked as an era of concerns with the performance and accountability that resulted in state prescriptions for reform and thus can be described as the era of the uninformed prescription. The 1990's are the era of state-driven reform that is portrayed as the era of the informed prescription, which involved a process that combined policies and practices on research. The next, higher level of reform evolution of the 2000's is the informed professional judgement that begins with more focus on the system and policy levers in order to change the working and learning conditions in schools.

Hargreaves (2000) argues that at the turn of the millennium, across the world, educational reform is a huge priority and educational change is a worldwide project which serves an investment in the generations of the future. Change can range from the smallest classroom to the global level. The practice and theory of educational change and reform are comprised of both novel and well-worn opportunities, Hargreaves asserts. Furthermore, the author views the multidisciplinary and methodologically diverse field of educational change as a field comes of age and traces its roots in the 1960s when the inability of education system to reflect the developments and innovations in science and technology in the classrooms was apparent. According to Hargreaves when change became a calculative science, new terminology was introduced to the education system: school effectiveness and school improvement.

Fullan (2003) claims that to get a large-scale sustainable reform it is obligatory to attempt to change the system and not to treat the context as given. The author suggests eight

complex lessons for sustainable change, each cannot stand-alone, yet implemented simultaneously they are intended to promote large-scale reforms:

1) Give up the idea that the pace of change will slow down.
2) Coherence making is a never-ending proposition and is everyone's responsibility.
3) Changing context is the focus.
4) Premature clarity is a dangerous thing.
5) The public's thirst for transparency is irreversible.
6) You cannot get large-scale reform through bottom-up strategies – but beware of the trap.
7) Mobilize the social attractors – moral purpose, quality relationships, quality knowledge.
8) Charismatic leadership is negatively associated with sustainability.

(Fullan, 2003: p.24).

Fullan (2006) further elaborates the notion of sustainability and considers it as a key factor to consider in the agenda of educational change. Fullan contends that the future of educational change lies in system thinkers in actions, a new active leadership, that creates new contexts and focuses on creating conditions for sustainability of the system. Fullan explains that the field of educational change has not provided any agenda to realize deeper reform yet. Thus, Fullan concludes that the new leadership he calls thinkers in action, should focus not on changing the individual but also the system. The new leaders, "system thinkers in actions" would not only focus on small continuous school changes, but also create new contexts by connecting to leaders with similar characteristics to theirs. Thereof, school leaders' commitment to taking part in active changing of the context, would yield lateral capacity building through networks, that would then lead to deep learning which would ultimately lead to changing the culture of learning in schools. A decade later Fullan (2016) accentuates that achieving a whole system change in which most schools improve is difficult and involves two main elements: a deep pedagogical change that is based on the changing the relationships among the learning community (students and teachers) and solutions that address equity and serve all. Fullan proposes an updated understanding of the complexity of large-scale change. The researcher lays a claim that the likelihood of

whole system improvement to occur is contingent on changing the school culture and setting the foundation and infrastructure of polices and regulation. Fullan further distinguishes between wrong drivers and right drivers. Wrong drivers are wrong policies that don't work (p.539) whereas right drivers do. Thus, in Fullan's view accountability, individualism, technology and fragmented policies are wrong drivers that don't work and the right drivers should be directed at capacity building, collaboration, pedagogy, and systemic policies (ibid).

Cuban (2020) observes that when analyzing school reform it is important to examine the unit of analysis, whether it is the classroom, the school, the district or the state. Layers of authority in the educational system are not utterly connected or tightly coupled. Different reformers (teachers, principals, superintendents or policy writers) make decisions each at their own level of influence, interpreting the policy as they see it. Hence, the reform is reshaped. If the unit of analysis is not clearly stated, any analysis of school reform may be inaccurate. When the unit of analysis is the classroom or the school, success stories can be documented. However, on larger units as the district or the state "no success story appears" (p.4), Cuban argues. Thus, it can be concluded that on the intramural level, changing learning and teaching practices are more easily exerted since they are bottom-up changes, accepted, understood and maybe initiated by the field people who are the ones to execute the required changes. Nonetheless, on the higher hierarchy or larger units of analysis (such as the district or the state level), it is not unwarranted to claim that whole system/ large scale reforms will not become a success story until lateral capacity building will accumulate (adopted from Fullan, 2006) System Thinkers in Action.

1.7.   The Education System in Israel

As of September 1st, 2021, 2,458,000 Israeli pupils started the school year 2021/2022. Official national data of the year 2021 published by the ministry of Education (MOE) indicate a total number of 5,275 schools in Israel and 209,000 teachers. According to the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) (CBS, 2021) the average number of students in class in lower secondary education in Israel is 29, whereas the average number of students of same level of education in OECD member countries is 23.

The Israeli education system is heterogeneous (Geva, Oren et al. 2016). Schools are streamed in four main educational sectors: two state secular streams (Hebrew speaking and Arabic speaking), one state religious stream (Hebrew speaking) and one independent stream (Ultra-orthodox-Hebrew-speaking). School sector is determined by the nationality of most pupils. 79% of schools in secondary education belong to the Jewish, Hebrew education sector. Among the Jewish sector, there are sub-educational systems: secular, religious and ultra-orthodox (Oplatka, 2016). 21% of schools in secondary education, belong to the Arab, Arabic speaking sector (CBS, 2021).

Israel's school system is structured in three main tiers: six-year primary education - Elementary school, grades 1-6 for kids aged 6-12. The secondary education system is divided to Lower secondary education, Junior high school, grades 7-9 for adolescents aged 13-15 and the Upper secondary education, high school, grades 10-12, for adolescents aged 16-18. Lower secondary and Upper secondary schools usually count as one school and are located within the same site/location. Diagram 2 demonstrates a possible organizational structure of an Israeli high school:
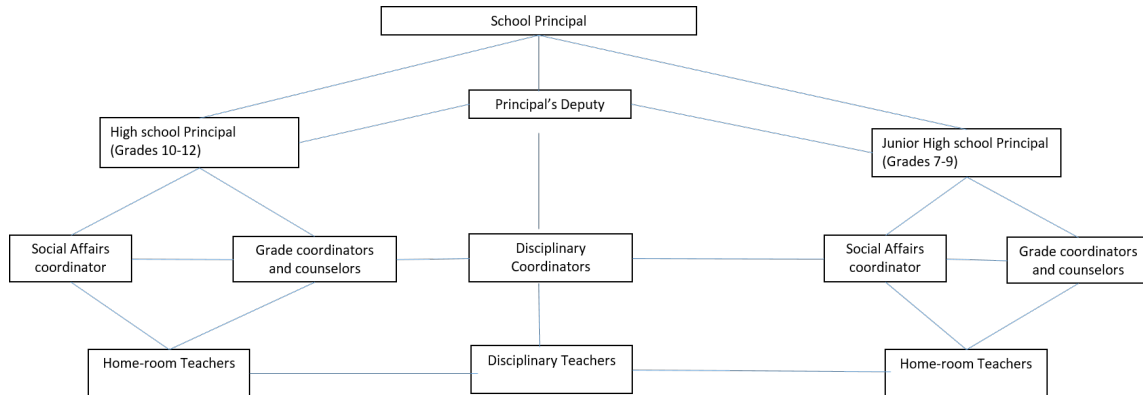
Diagram 2: An example of a version of organizational structure of an Israeli high school (source: author's own elaboration)

Israeli educational sectors are structured similarly but differ from each other in culture and religious orientation. Schools undergo same reforms, matriculation exams, national core (mandatory) curriculum and labor relations (Oplatka, 2016). Katz (2010) elaborates that the mandatory curriculum in Israel is an educational solution to the national, ethnic, religious, cultural and political divides in Israeli society. Katz points out that the Israeli MOE strives to provide all educational sectors with the required education that will meet

international standards and will prepare graduates to become productive citizens who integrate into the society of the 21st century. Historically, the first Israeli prime minister David Ben-Gurion adopted a national policy whereby the educational system serves as social melting pot and agent for the promotion of integration of the different groups into Israeli society. However, Katz claims, since the 1990's the different sectors in Israeli society have chosen to accentuate the divides in order to promote their aims and goals avoiding the ramifications of fragmentation and educational gaps. Thus, the mandatory curriculum has been designed to serve as a common denominator to achieve the twofold educational goals of Israeli society of maintaining academic standards and inculcate social values for students of all sectors.

To date, two national education reforms operate in Israel: Ofek Hadash (New Horizon) and Oz La'tmura (Courage to change). Ofek Hadash is implemented in primary and lower secondary schools. Oz La'tmura is implemented in upper secondary schools. Thereof, for the most part, at the same high school two different reforms operate. An individual teacher who works in both lower secondary and upper secondary belongs to two different reforms. The reforms primarily aim at promoting school improvement and reducing gaps in performance, but also affect the teachers' workweek and post structure (Oved, 2020). Oplatka (2016) points out the gap between policy and the actual managerial practice. Additionally, Oplatka highlights that principals do not fully know the educational policy which affects their ability and motivation to meet the system's expectations and objectives (Oplatka, 2016).

The education system in Israel is steered by the government, through the Ministry of Education. It is a public centralized system, financed and controlled by the MOE (Oplatka, 2016). Geva et al. (2016) indicate that the state religion and ultra-orthodox-independent education streams operate with sub-bodies inside the MOE. In addition, while the ultra-orthodox-independent stream is funded by the state it is less controlled by state policies.

The OECD 2016 Education policy outlook of Israel reported that compared to the OECD average of 36% the central government of Israel took 50% of all decisions in lower secondary schools (Geva et al. 2016). Elementary schools and Junior high school are controlled directly by the MOE, while most High schools are controlled by the local

municipalities. Compared to the OECD data, Israeli schools have less autonomy over resource allocation (ibid).

Education in Israel is compulsory from age 5 to age 17 and is generally provided for free. The 2007 Compulsory Education Act Amendment extended compulsory education from age 15 to age 18 (Knesset, 2007).

1.7.1. Education Policy in Israel

A work document delivered to all school principals in Israel prior to the beginning of the school year 2021/2022 by the minister of education, outlined the goals and milestones of the year 2021/2021. The document which defined the framework and provided the foundations for the work of school principals focuses on updating the learning goals and learning methods in the educational system in order to nurture graduates who realize their potential and become active partners in their families, the community and the state.

Five primary goals have been defined for the school year 2021-2022:

1. Empowering learning that enhances the learner's values, knowledge and skills to prosper in the changing reality.
2. Strengthening the resilience and the feeling of belongings by Social Emotional Learning (SEL).
3. Developing Israeli identity in the shared space in the state of Israel.
4. Equal opportunity, fairness and inclusiveness as promoting social mobility.
5. Strengthening and promoting the educational staff.

In accordance with the OECD, Education 2030, the Israeli MOE (2020) has administered a vast policy making process aimed at shaping the graduate's characteristics required in order to successfully prosper and become a productive citizen in the changing world of the twenty-one-century. The MOE defined the graduate's character as comprised of a set of skills, disciplinary knowledge and required values. The document focused mainly on conceptualizing thirteen skills upon which the MOE takes responsibility. The thirteen skills have been arranged in four clusters:

1) The Cognitive cluster: lingual literacy, mathematical literacy, scientific literacy, critical thinking, creative thinking, digital literacy and information literacy.

2) The Intrapersonal cluster: self-awareness, self-directness

3) The Interpersonal cluster: social awareness, social functioning and global literacy

4) The Physical cluster: health/physical literacy

Bush (2003) illustrates that the Israeli education system demonstrates the bureaucratic model to Education, which demands maximum efficiency. Bush underscores six main features of the bureaucratic model:

- Hierarchical authority structure with formal chains of command
- Goal orientation of the organization
- A division of labor with staff specializing tasks on the basis of expertise
- Decisions and behaviors are governed by rules and regulations rather than personal initiative.
- Impersonal relationships between staff, and with clients
- Recruitment and career progress of staff are determined on merit.

The OECD education policy outlook of Israel (Geva et al., 2016) examined Israel's education system and identified its challenges according to six policy levers that support improvement:

1) Equity and Quality: An education system organized by population sub-groups

The challenge: Reducing education gaps among the different education streams

2) Preparing students for the future: High returns for tertiary education

The challenge: Facilitating transition to the labor market for all students and improving the coverage and quality of vocational education and training.

3) School improvement: improving leadership and teaching for better learning

The challenge: Expanding the teaching workforce or the increasing number of students.

4) Evaluation and assessment: An evaluation system with multiple sources of evidence.

The challenge: Consolidating evaluation and assessment practices across the system to address the learning needs of the 21st century.

5) Governance: A centralized system with growing school autonomy

The challenge: Ensuring that increased autonomy comes with adequate support to help schools succeed.

6) Funding: Increased expenditure per student with regional disparities in school funding.

The challenge: Ensuring greater equity in resource allocation across the system in a context of regional disparities in school funding and demographic change.

The report points up policies and practices taken to address the main challenges facing the state and the education system:

1) Free early childhood education from age 3 to age 4 (2012/2013)
2) Implementing programs increasing allocation of care hours in 2014/2015 to support underperforming and disadvantaged students.
3) The compulsory Education Act Amendment extending compulsory education from age 15 to age 18, making upper secondary education mandatory.
4) One-Stop-Centers (2012) to increase access to vocational education and training and employment in the Arab and Jewish-ultra-orthodox communities
5) The establishment of Avney Rosha the institute to improve the professionalism of school leaders.
6) Ofek Hadash (New Horizon) and Oz Latmura (Courage to Change) two state education reforms for school improvement targeting several areas of teaching and learning: school improvement, evaluation and assessment, governance.
7) Special programs to attract university graduates to the teaching profession.
8) Meitzav Exams: External student assessment examination in primary and lower-secondary schools.
9) The Meaningful Learning Program defining 70% of the curriculum as core knowledge and granting teachers with autonomy in teaching and evaluating for the remaining 30% of the curriculum.

10) Implementing programs to reduce inequalities among the different population minorities at primary and secondary level.

Volansky (2020) asserts that the Israeli education system has undergone similar processes as other education systems in the world over the last hundred years, even before its establishment as an independent sovereign system. A variety of driving forces instigated changes and reforms in the Israeli education system, similarly to other systems in the world, among which: A reality of immigration, a changing world of values, ongoing criticism against the education system, viewing education as a social tool to upgrade the status of the individual, promoting lower status social layers and empowering the state.

Volansky adds that the first wave of reforms was influenced by a number of factors that helped shaping it:

- The power of the Zionist vision
- A sense of calling that attracted the youngsters in the Jewish communities in Europe
- The wish to reshape the character of the Jew, returning to their homeland
- Absorbing the children who survived the horrors of the holocaust.
- Social gaps in the young Israeli society and the wish to assure education to all.
- The need to adopt learning and teaching methods appropriate for the multicultural nature of the Israeli society.

The second wave of reforms took place in the 1990's and was based on neoliberal ideology. It required new working patterns that entered the world of education in the late 1980's. Among which were: Setting unified standards, competition as a means to improve quality, scaling, decentralization, autonomy and accountability.

The third wave of reforms in Israel is influenced and shaped by the shift to economy of knowledge and the change processes in the global work market.

Volansky further explains that the making of education policy in Israel is shaken by two contradicting world views: one that is based on neoliberal ideology and the other aspires achievements by matching learning and teaching methods to the variety among students. Lack of long-term thinking about the character of the Israeli education system has led to a

pattern that any minister of education declares a new reform to improve the system without any thorough study.

Considering data collected from international indicators Aloni, Donitsa Schmidt, & Simon (2010) submitted a policy paper to the government of Israel and the general public. The paper aimed at providing the insights and recommendations of educators and academics regarding the opportunities and the requested steps to make a progress in the scales of development, welfare, education and prosperity. The authors conclude that it is impossible to lead a significant change in the Israeli education system by focusing on the treatment of one indicator. Furthermore, it is argued that it is improbable that education in Israel would be detached from a systematic, moral treatment in the varied measurements related to the foundations of a developed society. Put differently, the authors lay a claim that a rational education policy should base on moral humanistic values. As education does not exist out of the broader context of the social ethos and the political regime it is impossible to promote the education system in Israel, without changing the societal, cultural, political trends that bound its development and retrieve it. Based on data collected from international indicators, the authors argue that the state of the Israeli education system has worsen. Thus, Aloni, Donitsa Schmidt, & Simon recommend the Israeli government to adopt a moral systematic approach that will strive to promote the system of education, while simultaneously act to strengthen democracy, social justice, equality among genders and higher education. Practically, the authors suggest to increase the budget of education and implement it differentially, legislation of shared core studies, policy making nurturing the status of teachers and their quality, a call for progressive pedagogy in schools.

Reznik (2012) claims that the evolution of education policy in Israel resembles global processes. Furthermore, Resnik highlights that an economic concern has influenced the reformist discourse over time. By comparing two large-scale reforms in Israel the author shows how in Israel, like many other countries in the world, post-World War II education reforms aimed at the expansion of compulsory education, intended to solve social problems of achievement gaps. More specifically, the 1968 structural reform aimed at coping with Israel's social problem of ethnic gap. Another reform studied by Resnik is the 2004 Dovrat managerial reform, which was linked to organizational and managerial issues. Even though

the Dovrat reform was not realized due to political reasons, Resnik claims that impact of the Dovrat Report are still reflected in the education system in Israel. E.g.: the foundation of RAMA, the New Horizon reform and the establishment of Avney Rosha Institute. Thus, Resnik concludes two main transformations in education policy in Israel and elsewhere: the displacement of reformist discourse by public policy, economists and management studies and the decreasing role of knowledge producers (education studies and social sciences) from being responsible for borrowing global educational models vs. the increasing role of philanthropic entrepreneurs in shaping education reforms and policies (Resnik, 2012. P: 284).

Ben Peretz (2009) argues that examination of the development of curricula in Israel indicates that policy makers in Israel have tended to questions of globalization such as Aliya (immigration), demographic changes, socio-economic gaps among the different groups in Israel and environmental issues. Ben Peretz discusses three educational reforms that took place in Israel:

1) The 1968, structural reform in schools, also called the Integration reform (Resnik, 2012, p.266): the establishment of the Lower secondary schools, a transition from a dual school structure of 8+4 to a three-tiered system 6+3+3. The reform responded to educational needs that emerged in the state: the low quality of teaching in the last two years of elementary school, and the high rate of failures and drop-outs of the educational system after finishing elementary school.

The ideological rational for initiating the reform also adhered to the Zionist ideology and the melting pot ideologies of the state. It intended to promote social integration of the different groups in the Israeli society when waves of immigration to Israel changed the school populations. In the 1970's, correlation was found between geo-political origin and low grades. The reform also aimed at granting equal opportunities to all populations. To date, the structure of schools in Israel is 6+3+3

2) The (unrealized) reform in matriculation exams, 1993. Matriculation exams are the main means of assessment of students in high schools in Israel.

The immediate reason for establishing a committee was the dissatisfaction with the condition of the national assessment, which led to a call to change the assessment policy. Three main reasons traced for initiating the reform were low rates of graduates entitled to a matriculation diploma, which indicated socio-economic gaps, a seek for alternative to centralization in the system, and increasing school autonomy and political climate that encouraged change.

The committee gathered developed a new assessment policy and submitted a report to the minister of education in 1994. The number of matriculation exams was not altered, however three exams changed from external exams to internal school assessment. A modular model of examination was developed. Each discipline defined three levels: basic, average and progress. In 1995 the ministry of education adopted the new policy. Problem evoked with implementation. It is not within the scope of this chapter to discuss the reasons for failure in the implementation of the reform, but eventually, in 1999 the new policy was stopped. A political change, change of government and minister of education led to stopping the reform.

3) A reform in teachers' programs. In the year 2000 a committee was called to check the quality, structure and the process of teachers' qualification programs in Israel.The immediate reason for calling the committee was the condition of teachers' programs at the time. Academics and the public criticized the system of education. General dissatisfaction with the processes and outcomes of the educational system prevailed partly due to teaching programs. Another reason was the low number of teaching candidates and decreasing numbers of students in teaching programs. The committee submitted a report to the minister of education that focused on the qualifying institutions and the process of teaching qualification. The committee recommended that certain academic institutions that still had not granted teaching certificates would be able to do so, if the ministry of education found it required and approved it. The second recommendation was to grant a M.Ed. diploma in the teaching qualification colleges. Teachers' union did not accept the recommendation. Appointment of a new minister of education changed the priorities and the recommendations of the committee were abandoned.

Ben Peretz thus concludes that the making of education policy must attend to three educational factors: curriculum, teaching and teachers' programs. The author suggests a holistic view of policymaking in education as a response to the global changes educational systems have to cope with. Furthermore, Ben Peretz emphasizes that any process of policy-making must take into consideration both curriculum and ideology. Other factors affecting the making of education policy are political power, timing and the historical cultural context. Ben Peretz distinguishes between policy-making that is required as a response to a problem or dissatisfaction with the educational system and policymaking, which aims at responding to global changes in the present and future. The latter demands studying of future developments, demographic environment, economy and technology.

Yadlin (2014) outlines five main challenges facing the public education system of the Jewish majority of the population:

1) Educating the young generation about the history of the Jewish people and bequeath the Jewish heritage alongside with universal values.
2) Preparing the young generation to integrating into society with special responsibility to national life.
3) Granting the required educational, scientific, technological tools required for coping and shaping the world of tomorrow.
4) Coping with problems of social gaps which negatively affect educational achievements, while maintaining excellence.
5) Nurturing individual personality, creative, contributing to society and internalizing cultural values based on the recognition that an individual is a whole world. Treating the individual according to their uniqueness.

Given the pluralistic nature of the Israeli education system, coping with above-mentioned challenges is a complicated task. The Israeli education system is comprised of 20% Arab education, which does not have affinity to the Jewish people and its heritage. The independent Ultra-Orthodox education, which is constantly growing is divided into Ashkenzai and Sephardi sects and the public education is divided in secular and religious sectors. Each educational stream has its own contents and unique way of coping. Hence, questions of identity and shared social responsibility are hard to cope with. To cope with

the pluralistic nature of the Israeli education system Yadlin predicates that the public education system must be kept and any process of privatization and segregation should be defied. Among the proposed outlines of future education policy suggested by Yadlin are compulsory core studies for all education sectors, strengthening the democratic and humanistic education in all streams, encouraging the studies of Arabic in Jewish schools, increasing teachers' wages and maximum integration of pupils from different socio-economic backgrounds and encouraging educational meetings of pupils from different streams of education.

Avigur-Eshel & Berkovich (2018) point out that social media activism is becoming a central phenomenon in the education system in twenty-first-century education policy making. The Authors comment that the education system in Israel which was founded in the 1950's as a centralized bureaucracy based on a monocentric and paternalist style of management. Thus, registration zones, for example, were forced and parent involvement was limited. As of the 1980's a transition in Israel's public education governance from a quasi-social democratic to a neoliberal one has taken place. Thereof, neoliberal values have become more acceptable among the Israeli public. It is claimed that whereas protest in the neoliberal era is seen as a means of opposing neoliberalism used by less privileged groups, two Israeli cases of parent protest exemplify that middle-class parents can promote both anti-liberal and pro-liberal policies through social media activism.

Avigur-Eshel & Berkovich (2018) argue that Israeli middle-class parents are becoming active and influential in the policy-making arena using the online social media. Parent seeking to influence policy in public education can take part in within school, between schools and across school's issues and decisions. Parent participation is more common in local issues, taking part in school-related processes or promoting the establishment of new schools. The across school arena involves policy issues within the public and political spheres (p.845) but it less common. However, the authors depict two cases of trans-local activism enacted on Israel's networked public sphere. The 2011 Strollers protest that went against rising early education expenses and the 2014 Sardines process that demanded decreasing the number of students in classrooms. In both cases, middle class parents protested against government education policy and managed to influence and change,

relying mainly on social media platforms to voice their demands and to organize and mobilize supporters: "Demands were articulated, demonstrations were convened, and thousands participated." (p.844).

In sum, it appears that naturally, the making of education policy in Israel is led and influenced by the societal political changes the country goes through. Additionally, the tension between adhering to the global educational discourse and trends and the need to attend to the unique local requirements of the heterogeneous multicultural Israeli population shakes the making of education policy in Israel. Furthermore, it is not implausible to claim that this tension canvasses the implementation of any version of education policy delivered to practice at schools among the different sectors of the Israeli education system. The public sphere is an un-ignorable factor to consider and take into account when developing education policy in Israel and the world.

Chapter 2: Educational Administration

The aim of this chapter is to overview the field theoretical foundations and its main developments. It shortly examines the field's epistemological sources and the building blocks of the field ontology. It presents the state of the art at the time of writing this dissertation.

2.1. Introduction

EA[2] is a vibrant academic field of study which clearly reflects reciprocal relationship between theory and practice. As its title hints it is a field that emanates and develops from at least two disciplines, education, and management. Thus, naturally, its interests and academic yields are the result of research in these two different realms/disciplines. This might explain the constant disputes and attempts to shape, conceptualize and define its identity as a scientific field of study, with a cumulative body of knowledge that is the result of intellectual scholar work and study, which can serve practitioners, namely education institutions.

A historical overview of the development and changes the field has undergone since its establishment demonstrates the mutual influence theory has had over the years on practice and vice versa. On going academic debates, work and study have produced an impressive body of knowledge. Yet despite myriad studies, reviews, academic seminars and journals, to date, scholars are still attempting to demarcate its borders, delineate its body of knowledge and reach an agreement over the dominance of theory or practice. To no avail.

2.2. Labeling in EA

Labeling of the field is an appropriate point to start illustrating the different approaches to studying the field of EA. For example, whereas in the U.S. the label is EA, in the UK it is Educational Management. In Gunter's view (2016), EA is a label used by theorists and practitioners who work in educational organizations, schools or higher education institutions. Gunter considers EA as the overarching label for activity in the field and argues

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[2] The title Educational Administration (EA) is used here as a general title of the field. The somewhat semantic dispute over the field's title will be discussed later in this chapter.

that leadership, is the current relabeling of the field that has gone ways from administration to management to leadership. To exemplify this notion of hers, Gunter cites one professor who participated a Knowledge Production in Education Leadership project she administered:

"You know ten years ago I was a Professor of Educational Management, now I'm a Professor of Educational Leadership. I'm not conscious that I'm doing much different from what I was doing then, to be honest." (Gunter 2016, p.120).

Similarly, Bush (2004) also views Educational Management as an overarching label that dominated the field during the 1980s and most of the 1990s, when leadership was just one aspect among many under considerations. Bates (1980, p.2 in Murphy et al., 2007 p.619) adds that the umbrella term EA covers a multitude of ideas and activities. Day and Sammons (2013) add that leadership, management and administration are overlapping concepts that are used differently across countries and professional cultures, distinguishing between English and Non-English-speaking countries. Day and Sammons explicate that the different usage of these concepts reflects variations in the functioning of education systems, their histories and policy. Similarly, Gunter (2004) argues that the labels administration and management are often used interchangeably, when the choice in any of them might be the result of political agenda.

Gunter (2004) dedicated a paper to labels and labeling in the field to illustrate the link between labels and knowledge claims. Gunter argues that the change in the labeling of the field corresponds with the process of change in the form of management/administration that has become performance leadership (p.21). Thus. Labels and labeling are functional and constitutes a political process, Gunter asserts. All three labels 'Management', 'Administration' and 'Leadership' are concerned with organizational matters. Gunter raises thought provoking questions concerned with meaning and practice. One such questions is, has the activity changed with the change in labeling? Gunter delineates a chronological continuum on which she illustrates the development of the field:

1944-1974: Educational Administration: a period of development of practice that is the result of an interplay between practice and the social sciences.

1974-1988: Educational Management: a period of problem solving with an interplay between practice and private sector management models.

1988-Onwards: Performance Leadership: a period of improvement with the direction of practice as organizational leadership based on practices of the private sector. (Gunter, 2004, p.25).

In the editorial of vol. 32(1) of the British journal Educational Management Administration and Leadership (EMAL) Bush (2004) celebrates the revised title of the journal formerly titled Educational Management Administration (EMA). Bush explains that this change is the result of the international growing importance of the concept Leadership. Furthermore, bush clarifies:" 'Management' is widely used in Britain, Europe and Africa, for example, while 'administration' is preferred in the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. There is little evidence of any substantive differences in the meaning of these concepts; it is simply a question of national custom and practice." (Bush, 2004 p.6)

Thus, labeling is not just a matter of terminology, but rather a matter of agenda, power and education policy.

2.3.   Theoretical Perspectives in Educational Administration

A variety of theoretical perspectives and approaches to EA characterizes the inter-disciplinary field that lacks conceptual uniformity or shared theoretical foundation. Sergiovanni (1994) even defines the field as 'characterless' and explains using this adjective to describe the field by the fact that EA is influenced from many disciplines and areas. Sergiovanni asserts that: "As long as it imports, EA will remain on the periphery of both social science and education, forever belonging to neither. You can't borrow character; you have to create it." (1994: p.214).

Bush (2003) clarifies that EA as a distinct discipline originated in the United States. Bush elaborates that the roots of EA are chronicled in theories that developed outside the field. Particularly influential such theories mentioned by Bush are Taylor's 'scientific management movement' (1947), Fayol's (1916) 'general principles of management' and Weber's (1947) work on 'bureaucracy' (Bush, 2003: p.9). In this respect Oplatka (2009, 2015) explains that it was the industrial rush era in western countries at the beginning of

the 20th Century that led to the approach of efficiency in education. It was assumed that a change from the descriptive nature of EA into a prescriptive scientific approach would bring about improvement in the administrative practice of educational institutions. Oplatka (2009) comments that despite criticism against the theory movement, led prominently by Thomas Greenfield's interpretive, subjective approach, it contributed to the academic legitimacy of EA.

Bush (2003) unearths six other management models that were developed in the educational context and encompass a variety of perspectives on management in education. These models have been applied in educational institutions:

The formal models: An umbrella term for a number of theoretical approaches that emphasize that organizations are goal-seeking hierarchical systems (Bush, 2006: p.5). The formal models dominated the early stages of theory development in EA and were regarded as the main concepts of effective management.

The collegial models: Theories that assume a set of values held by the member of the organization and emphasize that power and decision-making in the organization should be shared by the members of the organizations.

Political models: Theories that assume decision-making in organizations as a negotiating and bargaining process. Power is central concept in these models that emphasize the prevalence of conflicts in organizations and are characterized by unstable goals.

Subjective models: Models that reflect an interpretive or qualitative mode of research, based on subjective experience of individuals. The aim is to enhance understanding of the social world humans live in with the focus on the individual rather than the organization.

Ambiguity models: Theories that assume uncertainty and unpredictability in organizations. There is lack of clarity in these models about the goals of the organization.

Bush distinguishes between the formal models and the other five models and asserts that the latter were developed as a response to weaknesses to what was regarded as 'conventional theory' and a will to change (Bush, 2003: p.178).

Evers and Lakomski (2012) reflect a different perspective and broadly divide the academic community of EA in two:

1) Followers of the "Theory Movement" old orthodoxy closed-systems scientific view, positivist approach (p.57), who assert that EA can be studied as a science.

2) Supporters of the theoretical alternatives, which Evers and Lakomski term the "new orthodoxy" (p.59); those who view schools as social open systems, addicts of the chaos theory, subjectivism, ethics and moral justice, aesthetics, postmodernism, naturalistic coherentism.

Markedly, there is no agreement among scholars on how research in the field should be catered to or implemented in schools by school leaders. Furthermore, Bush (2006: p.3) argues that *there is no single all-embracing theory of educational management*. Oplatka (2015) explains that since EA draws its theoretical and empiricist foundations from sociology, philosophy, psychology and history, it lacks uniformity and even the epistemological postulations in the field are diverse. Furthermore, Oplatka highlights that the construction of the field is affected by the national-cultural context of EA in different countries, which complicates attempts to define or demarcate the field. Therefore, it is no surprise, that reading in the literature reveals continuous attempts along the decades to define, demarcate, conceptualize and then re-conceptualize the theoretical knowledge in EA. Hoy (1994) confirms that any attempt to direct the field of EA towards the goals of defining the knowledge base, setting curricular objectives and fostering systematic research, would be an ambitious agenda. Hoy concludes that despite a clear shift from studying administrative and teaching skills towards a more diverse topical interest, the field is still riveted on reform and policy issues (p.196).

Bates (1985) critiques the separation of administrative and educational concerns that dominated the field since the 1960s and which followed the model of science, according to which schools are organizations. In Bates' view, the bureaucratization of schools embodies an epistemology and politics that contradict and go against ideals of rationality and justice. More specifically, Bates decries the conceptualization of EA as a technology of control that systematically ignores educational issues. Furthermore, Bates proposes to consider at least four issues when constructing an educational theory of education: the democratization

of social relations, the democratization of knowledge, the democratization of communication and the democratization of cultural concerns (1985: p.39). Bates clusters theoreticians that belong to the era of scientific management, the theory movement, or administrative theory under the model of science. In particular, Bates suggests a dialectical nature of the growth of knowledge, as an alternative educational theory of administration.

Boyd (1992) pinpoints at the 1980's as the time when developmental change in the way people think about educational policy and school management occurred in English speaking countries (mainly the US and England, but also New Zealand and Australia). Boyd explains this change as part of greater changes that are related to the way people conceived of the role of governments and public services. In Boyd's view, to better understand the consequences and outcomes of educational policy and educational management one has to bear in mind and scrutinize the biases inherent in these (and any) paradigms and theories. More specifically, Boyd claims that this change has been the result of the influence of economic and outcome-oriented models. Boyd further admits that these topics and developments in the field are tightly connected to larger scale changes in society, world-economics and social sciences (p.509).

Willower (1996) suggests a naturalistic perspective to inquiry in EA as a substitute philosophy to the prevalent forms of subjectivism, critical theory and post-modernism. In his view, these forms of conception do not promote or contribute to the understanding of how schools operate. Furthermore, Willower contends that the "spirit of the time" had a central role in the way the intellectual history of EA has developed. In this spirit, Willower suggests a new spirit of times that is based on a blend of naturalism and pragmatism to promote inquiry in EA and contribute knowledge accumulation and knowledge evaluation.

Similarly, Evers and Lakomski (2012) propose a naturalistic coherentism compromising approach between total rejection of strong empiricist versions of foundationalism to denial of any representation in EA. (p.68-69).

Sergiovanni (1995) introduces another philosophical perspective to EA. Sergiovanni opposes the traditional rationalist linear theories that predict the effects of practice. Instead, the researcher advocates a combined approach of theory and practice. To avoid the pitfalls of the school effectiveness approach, Sergiovanni suggests a values-based approach to

defining EA. In this spirit, elsewhere, Sergiovanni (1994) challenges academics in the field to change the metaphor of schools as organizations to schools as communities, and proposes that this change in metaphor will change the theory, which in turn will construct the field and contribute to its "loss of character" (p.225).

Greenfield (Greenfield & Ribbins, 2005) outlines an alternative view that critiques the positivist scientific view of EA in general and sharply denies organizational theory, which considers schools as organizations or systems and school administrators as those whose task is to mediate between the organization and the people within it. Greenfield's alternative view suggests that organizations are definitions of social reality. It is the individuals within the organizations that bring different meaning and purposes to the organizations of which they are part of. Individuals share the same meanings and purposes. Greenfield warns that the science of organization and administration which implies international associations for the field, ignores cultural differences. Furthermore, Greenfield avows that training school administrators through the study of organization theory, suggesting "ready-made keys to problems" (p.17), is overestimated. Research in the field, thus, should be based on the phenomenological perspective. In the foreword to Greenfield and Ribbins (2005), Prof. Christopher Hodgkinson remarks that it is impossible to understand the field of EA without any acquaintance with Greenfield's thought which highlights opposing positions in the field: quantitative-quantitative, art-science, subjective-objective, individual-collective, phenomenological-logical, controversies which have never been resolved.

Bush (2010) argues that policy, practice, research and theory are the building blocks that constitute the field of Educational Leadership and Management (EDLM). Bush assumes that 'theory' deserves more dominance in the interplay between the four building blocks. Elsewhere (Bush, 2006: p.3) the researcher argues that if practitioners shun theory, they will have to rely on intuition and experience. The theory/practice Gordian Knot Of EA, Bush argues, can be resolved by good theory, that is constructed for use and predict the effect of practice.

This section illuminated different perspectives and approaches to research in EA which all contribute to the body of knowledge of the field and constitute its ontology.

2.4.   Knowledge Production in EA

Seven decades of research, work and study have yielded an impressive, consolidated body of knowledge. To better understand the ontological identity of EA, it is warranted to trace its theoretical foundation and main developments from the 1950s till present days.

It would be no less than pretentious or even arrogant to attempt to encompass or present what constitutes the body of knowledge of the field of EA within the scope of one theoretical chapter within a doctoral dissertation. However, a thorough reading of myriad articles, literature reviews, systematic research reviews, journal editorials and books, does reflect a rather consolidated body of knowledge with theoretical and topical interests that characterize the field to date and has characterized and shaped it since its establishment. Due to the limited scope of this chapter, it starts at the period that Hallinger and Kovacevic (2019, p.336) termed the "birth" of modern era in EA, in the late 1950s with the emergence of the theory movement.

Willower (1996) confirms that knowledge in general and in EA is subjective and political, yet the researcher decries the domination of the scientific and positivistic approaches in the production of knowledge in the field of EA.

Hart (1990), following Dewey's (1933) notion of *reflection* examines three sources of knowledge. The researcher argues that applicable knowledge is a pre-condition if it is desired that reflexive thinking would improve EA. Hart mentions three forms of knowing: theoretical, empirical, and experiential. These forms of knowing, Hart claims are at the service of school administrators.

Gunter (2016, 2005) consistently asserts that knowledge does not exist outside of practice, thus she stresses an interplay that goes on between theory and practice, theorists and practitioners. Gunter views and refers to EA as a field of a plurality of people she calls knowledge actors and interests for and within educational services. Gunter (2016) presents a framework of five dimensions for an intellectual history : **traditions**, theory traditions within the field, **purposes** of accessing and using resources, **domains**, field position outcomes that result from the interplay between tradition and purposes, **contexts** in which the relationship between ideas, purposes and positions occur and **networks**, the agency of

knowledge actors that takes place within contexts. Gunter's approach to knowledge production is historical in the sense of how the present is read and understood through and in spite of the past, but it is also sociological and political, as sociological analysis enriches its understanding and political as by looking at how choices are made, conflicts are resolved (Gunter, 2016: p.16). The researcher argues that historically the label of EA has been used to capture knowledge production, and this remains a feature of the field internationally with conferences, journals, books, and practices. Thus, the intellectual histories of EA are key ideas, projects, methodological developments, accumulation of evidence, necessary further projects.

Hoy (1994), Summarizing the work of the University Council for Education (UCEA) recognizes three themes that repeated themselves in the overview of the work of the UCEA: goals of educations, paradigm wars and causes and effect. Hoy uses the word 'struggle' to describe the debates and disputes of the UCEA members over choosing the seven areas the teams would study to map the essential knowledge of the field to serve educational leaders:

1) Societal and Cultural influences on Schools
2) Teaching and Learning Processes
3) Organizational Studies
4) Leadership and Management Processes
5) Policy and Political Studies
6) Legal and Ethical dimensions of schooling
7) Economic and Financial Dimensions of schooling

Evers and Lakomski (2012) outline a naturalistic coherentist epistemology to EA. The researchers contend that the science of administration should cohere with natural science, without provoking an epistemological crisis (2012: p.69). Their view of the structure of knowledge in EA is more like a web that does not lose knowledge that has been accumulated but makes use of the richness attained in the field.

Tomlinson (2013) edited a UK based four-volume collection, in an attempt to map the field of Educational Management[3] and to characterize its intellectual territory (first published in 2004). In the general introduction, Tomlinson relates to the significance of the historical perspective. Tomlinson further refers to the evolving process of changing definitions in the field from Administration to Management and the current very strong focus on and centrality of Leadership. The collection which is thematically arranged spans from the 1960s over forty years of research and it encompasses major issues in the field in historical context. The four themes are: Educational values, Educational Theory, Educational Leadership and Educational change.

In the introduction to the international Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration the editors contend that the handbook is the state-of-the-art at a time, in a world of change (Leithwood et al., 1996). Furthermore, Leithwood et al. explain the motivation and need for producing the five-section volume by comparing it to Boyan's (1988) Handbook of Research in Educational Research Association. Six main differences are introduced and illuminate the change and development of the field:

1. The growing importance of context that affects the practice of leaders.
2. The current organizational needs of schools that seem to be served by practices connected with leadership, then by those evoked by administration.
3. Awareness of the continuous professional growth of leaders and teachers is more significant than it was in 1988.
4. The need for a cognitive perspective to better-understand leadership behavior.
5. The need for critical perspectives in the field
6. The significance of context requires a more international representation of the field.

The Second International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Management was published only a few years later (Leithwood and Hallinger, 2002). The coeditors explicate the need for the second edition by the ongoing interest in educational leadership.

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[3] Tomlinson explains that it was agreed that Management would be the suitable title of the collection (p.1) and thus hints at the debates over the title of the field.

Furthermore, Leithwood and Hallinger emphasize the broad international authorship. The handbook is arranged in six themes:

1. Leadership and school improvement
2. Leadership in the creation of a community
3. Leadership in diverse contexts
4. Organizational learning and leadership
5. The context for leadership in the 21st. century
6. Leadership development

Waite & Bogotch (2017) who coedit the Wiley International Handbook of Educational Leadership bluntly introduce a postmodernist radical approach to viewing and implementing educational leadership. Waite & Bogotch emphasize a threefold departure from previous handbooks in the field: pluralism of people and ideas, challenging the epistemological, cultural and methodological ideas on leadership which they term biases and being transgressive in how the authors approach leadership and in being international. Furthermore, Waite & Bogotch take pride in the wide geo-political representation and the topical diversity in their handbook. Clearly, the topics that are included in the 2017 Wiley International Handbook of Leadership are different than those that appeared in previous handbooks in the field. To name a few: Leadership and aesthetics, creativity, eco-justice, Big Data and technology, post-colonialism, neoliberalism, political economics.

Ribbins & Gunter (2002) underpin that the field focuses too much on leadership rather than on leading and leaders. Their assertion is that research into educational leadership is a field of knowledge. The authors outline a map typology of the field of educational leadership[4] based on five key knowledge domains:

Conceptual: concerned with knowledge production

Critical: concerned with matters of social injustice and oppression

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[4] The authors use educational leadership as an inclusive term (Ribbins & Gunter 2002, p. 363).

Humanistic: theorizes and based on the experiences and biographies of leaders and those who are led.

Evaluative: abstracts and measures the impact of leadership and its effectiveness

Instrumental: provides leaders with practical 'what-to-do' assistance

Ribbins & Gunter (2002) clarify that the knowledge domains can be understood by seven major factors: purpose of the work, setting of the work, its contextual setting, the methodology of the work, its audience, communication (the research community) and impact of the work (whether intended to impact thinking or change of behavior).

In a related paper Gunter & Ribbins (2002) note that researchers are 'knowledge workers', 'mediators between what is known and what might be known' (p.387). The researchers are concerned with the intellectual work or interplay of maps, mapping, and mappers. Using their 2002 proposed map typology that is based on five key domains, Gunter and Ribbins (2002) take another step towards a map of the field by focusing on the practice of leadership, which is introduced, read and understood by two other typologies.

Gunter (2005) welcomes the pluralism and dynamism of data collection methods in the field though she emphasizes the need of field members for a multi-level framework as the basis of knowledge conceptualization in EA. In Gunter's view the process of knowledge conceptualization is a dynamic, interactive, intellectual process that demands thinking, dialogue and reading (p.165). Furthermore, Gunter who calls for a field mapping, underpins the inter-relationship between (any) current knowledge base and the potential knowledge within a field, demands that researchers would not only describe but also explain the changes in the knowledge base in the field. Thus, Gunter asserts that knowledge conceptualization requires active researchers that not only describe but also analyze and give meaning to their research, explain the change and thus build up the knowledge base in the field. Gunter defines this approach to knowledge as reflexive and addresses attention not only to knowledge, but also to how it is used and produced.

Oplatka (2009) considers the field's nature, purposes, borders, knowledge base, uniqueness, as its epistemological identities. In his view it was the dissatisfaction with the field's prescriptive nature before the mid-1950s that led to the emergence of the theory

movement, which pushed the field towards a rational-empiricist scientific approach, that operate according to the positivistic conventions which originated in social sciences. Oplatka argues that it was assumed that stable, cumulative, empirical and generalized knowledge would bring about improvement in the administrative practice of educational institutions.

Hallinger (2011) focused on understanding the nature of methodologies in the field as reflected in three decades of doctoral studies with regard to the theoretical or practical accumulation of body of knowledge . Even though Hallinger's study examined the evolution of empirical research on instructional leadership, it is critical to mention as it reaches a gloomy conclusion:

"…, the results also suggest that the conceptual frameworks and methodologies used by these doctoral students were, on the whole, inadequate for the task of contributing to either the theoretical or the practical knowledge base in the field" (p.271-272).

Gorard (2005) illustrates that research in the field has a relatively weak quality profile (p.168). Based on official data Gorard's argues that too much evidence in the field comes from weak methodological studies or is the result of funded research sponsored by institutions of interest or power, policy makers or funders. Gorard indicates several common flaws in empirical works and critically concludes that a paradigm shift is required in the field from the common inward-looking research that investigates the impact of change on management towards the impact of management on "anything else" (p.162). Mulford (2005) similarly stresses the negative impact of government approaches to provision of education on the researchers and research in the field. Mulford mentions the five generic problems identified in the OCED (1995) report on educational research and development: fragmentation, irrelevance, low quality, low efficiency and low utility. Ten years after the 1995 OECD report, Mulford argues that reviews at the national level in UK have not changed much. The researcher describes a struggle in the arena of educational administration that takes place between governments and field members revolving around the direction of research and thus knowledge construction in the field. Mulford concludes by identifying three contexts for researching leadership: societal, governmental and professional.

Bush (2020) illuminates that knowledge production in the field has been dominated by western countries, mainly the USA, UK, Australia, Canada and New Zealand, but indicates a growth in research outputs from 'emerging' regions like Asia (p.207), which can be attributed to the significance of school contexts. Gunter (2004) reminds one that the contexts in which educational institutions operate remain unchanged whereas responsibilities for outcomes of activity and action change.

Thus, knowledge production in EA is dependent upon the abiding theory-practice tension that is affected by political power and agenda. Not only this but also, the theoretical perspective the researcher comes from should not be disregarded when considering conceptualization of knowledge production in the field.

2.5. Sources of knowledge Production: The Role of Academic Journals in the Field's Evolution and Knowledge Base

Academic journals are a significant source of knowledge-structuring and restructuring in EA as in other academic disciplines or fields. Young (2012) quotes Schafner (1994): "… the hallmark of a discipline coming of age is typically the establishment of a new journal." (2012: p.). Evidently, the role of academic journals in reflecting the field's evolution should not be disregarded. Thus, it is clearly plausible to claim that the process of knowledge accumulation and knowledge base in the field are affected and maybe even shaped and directed by academic journals. In this respect, Gunter (2004) argues that power structures take part and affect the knowing (development of knowledge), knowers (governance agents) knowledge (the result of the interplay between practice and theory). Heck and Hallinger (2005) contend that journals within educational leadership and management contribute to the fragmented nature of scholarship in EA.

Hallinger (2013) mentions a list of eight "core international journals" specializing in educational leadership and management (EDLM) (p.129):

- Educational Administration Quarterly (EAQ)
- Journal of Educational Administration (JEA)
- Educational Management Administration and Leadership (EMAL)
- International Journal of Leadership in Education (IJLE)

- Leadership and Policy in Schools (LPS)
- School Leadership and Management (SLAM)
- School Effectiveness and School Improvement (SESI)
- International Journal of Educational Management (IJEM)

Oplatka (2012) argues that an historical analysis of a journal provides an intellectual and theoretical understanding of the field. Furthermore, Oplatka contends that the knowledge base of the field of EA has extended remarkably since the 1960's with the establishment of academic journals that published the works of field members. Within a framework of six legacies of JEA the researcher traces the changing topics throughout five decades of publications:

- The first decade (the 1960s): research and practice
- The second decade (the 1970s): the centrality of research
- The third decade (the 1980s): further academization and differentiation
- The fourth decade (the 1990s): more legacies than before
- The fifth decade (the 2000s); back to empiricism

Thomas (2012), at the 50th anniversary of the JEA cites Swafford (1990) who wrote at the 25th anniversary of the journal:

[...] a periodical such as the JEA functions more like a mirror than a window: rather than providing a view into the "world" of educational administration, it reflects only that which is held up to it and ultimately to its readership. In this sense, at least some of the insights and findings reported are an artefact of editorial policy and preferences and of potential held up to it and ultimately to its readership contributors' views of this influential journal (p. 19). (Thomas, 2012 p.27).

Swafford's words pinpoint at the duality of the journal being both a mirror and a window to the field. Swafford who examined 387 articles, published in JEA in the 25 first years of the journal, reported on no less than 40 "topic areas" and clustered them in thematic groupings (table 1), warned against placing too much importance to these figures. Swafford further emphasized the inconsistencies in areas of interest and described these fluctuations as "fragmentation and diversity" (Thomas, 2012, p.17). It is noteworthy to mention that

Oplatka (2012) illustrates that similar topics to those classified by Swafford were found in the British journal EMAL at the same period.

20 years after Swafford, Thomas (2010) examined 274 articles and categorized them into ten topics.

Table 1: Comparing Swafford's/Thomas' thematic grouping of articles (Thomas, 2010)

Swafford's 1990 Thematic Grouping	Thomas's 2010 Thematic Grouping
The field of study of EA	principals
organizational structure	public schools
principalship	comparative/international practices
leadership	teachers
organizational climate	higher education
philosophy of educational administration	values/ethics
politics of education	organization theory
change and innovation	stress/anxiety
participatory decision making	gender/woman in educational administration
attitude formation and change	reform/restructure/change and students
the inspectorate	

The Thomas' 2010 analysis which included over 1000 articles (years 1994-2006) from JEA and two other leading journals EAQ and EMAL, notes at the repeated and increased use of "Leadership" as a substitute or a complement to administration.

Murphy et al., (2007) extended Campbell's (1979) work and analyzed 570 articles published over a period of 25 years in the journal EAQ, the researchers define the journal as "our most prestigious academic journal" (p.626). One of the four questions studied in

the work of Murphy et al. delves into the role of an academic journal in the academic field and in influencing the direction of academic research. The authors report that the journal devotes its scholarships to studying the profession of school administrators. Pounder & Johnson (2007) dedicate an editor commentary, reflecting on the past, present and future of EAQ. Facing the future, the editors call to address attention to issues of postmodern critique and critically examine how the field has been constructed. To put it differently, the editors warn against adherence to accept theories and methods that are taken for granted and may threat progress and growth of the filed. In addition, Pounder and Johnson draw attention to the risks of dysfunctional fragmentation of the field and encourage dialogue ad debate among members of the field.

2.6. Research Reviews as reflecting developments and change in the field of EA:

The role of reviews of research as a snapshot of the state of the art should not be underestimated (Hallinger, 2014) as these reviews are actually a database that treasures the trends and advances in research and practice and outline the evolution of a field. Hallinger (2013) presented a conceptual framework for systematic reviews of research assuming that a systematic high quality review of research is 'a potentially powerful means of reducing the gap between research and practice' (p.142). Hallinger (2013, 2014) analyzed 38 reviews that were conducted over 52 years (1960-2012) and were published in nine refereed international journals. Out of the 38 reviews, 17 were identified as exemplary reviews that can serve future scholarship. The rest of reviews reflected weaknesses in methodology, evaluation and analysis. The author observed that exemplary reviews use "lineage–linked design" (inverted commas in the original), linking to prior reviews (Hallinger 2013, p.132). Thereof, this section surveys numerous exemplary research reviews which thematic focus illustrates and maps broad trends and knowledge developments in EA. Furthermore, the reviews mentioned here-on adopt what Hallinger (2013) termed "lineage-linked design", thus reading in them forms a continuum that consolidates one's understanding of the evolution of the field in the last six decades.

Bridges (1982) canonical pioneer research review on school administrators in the years 1967-1980, highlighted the methodological and conceptual characteristics of studies

conducted on school administrators. Bridges lamented that research in the field had not made significant progress: "The more things change the more they stay the same (p.24). Furthermore, Bridges indicated that in the largest body of research on school administrators i.e., doctoral dissertations, there was little interest in solving practical problems school administrators faced. Bridges decried the prevalent interest in the research in attitudes and personal traits of school administrators. Little concern was shown for the consequences of behavior or outcomes of school administrators' practices. Moreover, lack of connectedness was indicated among research studies, which implied lack of systematic knowledge building. Walker & Hallinger (Walker & Hallinger, 2015) mention the role of Bridges' 1982 review in fostering accumulations of knowledge in the field.

Witziers et al. (2003) administered a meta-analysis to examine the effect of educational leadership on student achievement. The authors delineate the beginning of the 1980's as the start of studying the impact of educational leadership on student's outcomes and mention the contradicting results of research over the direct or indirect impact of the school educational leadership on school effectiveness or outcomes. The study and meta-analysis focused on studies that were conducted in the years 1986-1996. Witziers et al. elaborate on the dispute among scholars over the definition of educational leadership and the question whether administrative management is distinguished from educational leadership or not. Findings of Witziers et al.'s meta-analysis do not indicate direct impact of school educational leadership on student achievements. Furthermore, the researchers recommend that future research focus on context and intermediate factors.

Murphy et al. (2007) provide an analysis of articles published in the journal EAQ over a period of 25 years from 1979-2003. The authors make a lineage link to Campbell's (1979) review and extend Campbell's initial work. The authors track a change in the profession of school administrations. One topic of change that is mentioned in the review is feminization. Findings on the area of empirical essays are similar to Campbell's 1979 findings; about 50% of articles published in the EAQ were empirical. 65% of the studies analyzed by the researchers relied on surveys. As for the topical nature of articles, Murphy et al. found that 75% the articles that were published over 25 years can be classified into five topics: organizational theory, politics, reforms, core technology and the profession of school

administrators (SA). Furthermore, of the five topics mentioned, two topics constituted 50% of the articles: organizational theory and the profession of SA.

Walker and Hallinger (2015) synthesized reviews of research from five societies in East Asia with the goal of identifying the boundaries of current knowledge in these five East Asian societies. More specifically, the goal was to recognize the similarities and differences in both approaches and enactment of school leadership in the developing region of the world. Walker and Hallinger acknowledge that prior to 2000 the literature in the field was dominated by "Western" socio-cultural and geographic contexts such as the US, Canada, Australia, and the UK. The researchers found differences among the five East Asian societies. Three broad contextual factors were found to affect the principal's work: personal influences, socio-cultural influences and political influences. Furthermore, walker and Hallinger recognize theoretical and methodological weaknesses in research capacity and argue that accumulation of knowledge is linked to the research capacity.

Hallinger and Kovacevic (2019) conducted an innovative systematic review using science mapping in order to understand the evolution of knowledge production and present the knowledge base of the field of educational administration from 1960 to 2018. The authors use a four-dimensional model to illustrate what they refer to when discussing "knowledge base" of the field (p.339):

1. size, as measured by the volume of studies published in the field
2. time: publications over specific periods of time
3. space: geographic distribution of documents in the literature
4. composition: distribution and impact of authors, journals, documents and topics.

The authors broadly highlight a paradigm shift in the field from school administration to school leadership. In addition, Hallinger and Kovacevic identify four key school of thoughts that have dominated the field over the past six decades: Leadership for Learning, Leadership and Cultural Change, School effectiveness and School Improvement and Leading Teachers. The authors overview the six decades of research in the field and frame the evolution of EA as follows:

1950s-1960s (The emergence of "theory movement" in EA): an era of criticism against the goals of theory movement with optimism towards the future.

1970s: Researchers decry the lack of programmatic research, a period of greater scholar interest in "practice", decoupling from the learning of students as the central purpose of schooling.

1980s: The emergence of "mainstream" in EA focusing on "gender and school leadership", "effective schools" and "principal instructional leadership" (all inverted commas appear in the original text).

1990s: New interests in "school restructuring", "leadership development", "professionalization of school leadership" and "transformational school leadership" in response to changes in the research and the policy of education.

2000s: The first decade of the 21st. century integrates past trends of research on principal leadership and school improvement. New interests in shared leadership and social justice.

2010-2018: Era of consolidation of the field and internationalization of EA scholarship, broadening the limited set of Anglo-American-European societies. (p.337-338).

Halinger's and Kovacevic's overview clearly illustrated the dual influence (internal; in the research and external; government, state reforms) on the consolidation of the field to date.

The research reviews outlined and presented in this section provide a clear view of the field, its topical foci and development.

2.7. The Rise of Leadership in EA

At first sight, it seems that for the last forty years "leadership" is all around in the field of EA, at the expense of management. Many a definition have been generated to explain the nature of leadership and what it (should) consist(s) of (see for example, Day, 2012). Daniëls, Hondeghem, & Dochy, (2019) comment that literature in education can be generally categorized in three: theories of/approaches to leadership, characteristics of successful/effective school leadership and leadership professional development /leadership development programs.

Arguably, the premise regarding the necessity of leadership in the field has invaded educational institutions and hovers over the heads of principals. Thomas (2006) calls attention to the phenomenon of leadership which occupies "more journal space and more and more conference time" (p.11) dealing with matters of definitions of leadership, components of leadership, correlates of leadership. Thomas warns against passing trends: "Just as the trait approach to leadership in decades past 'succeeded' in identifying a plethora of individual attributes or characteristics 'fundamental' to 'successful' leadership, contemporary studies threaten to engulf us with their own tidal wave of descriptors. (Thomas, 2006: 11).

To better understand the theory-practice gap in the field via the rise of leadership in EA, it might be useful to think of a situation in which a school principal[5] is asked to introduce herself and her occupation. Chances are that most principals would not state their occupation as leaders, rather as managers. Apparently, school principals spend their time leading their school doing both managing and leading. Thus, obviously, there is a difference between leadership and management, but both are required activities principals must engage in and together they complement the principal's job.

Based on historical studies of school, Cuban (1988) distinguishes between leadership and management and contends that the practices of administrators are dominated by the managerial imperative to maintain efficiently and effectively the organization. Lumby et al. (2005) assert that leadership and management in education are undoubtedly complex and contested concepts. Leadership is a critical complex activity. The capacity to support its development depends on adequate methodological tools that can match its complexity.

2.7.1. Defining Leadership

Armstrong (2009) adverts to leadership as a process which adds up and aims for results: "To lead is to inspire, influence and guide. Leadership is a process of getting people to do their best to achieve a desired result" (Armstrong, 2009: p. 4). To define leadership and enhance understanding of its elusiveness among researchers, Armstrong compares it with

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[5] otherwise, titled school head, head, school administrator

management. Armstrong comments that some researchers view these two concepts as synonymous, others consider management a subset of leadership and yet others even demonize one at the expense of the other. Armstrong suggests an elusive compromising definition to leadership: "what leaders do" (p.7). Armstrong goes on quoting Bennis and Nanus (1985) famous definition: "Managers do things right; leaders do the right things" (P.8).

Bennis' (1989) well-known distinction between managers and leaders is warranted mentioning here since demonizing management has been (too) common in the field of EA:

1. Managers administer, leaders innovate.

2. Managers ask how and when; leaders ask what and why.

3. Managers focus on systems; leaders focus on people.

4. Managers do things right; leaders do the right things.

5. Managers maintain, leaders develop.

6. Managers rely on control, leaders inspire trust.

7. Managers have a short-term perspective; leaders have a longer-term perspective.

8. Managers accept the status quo; leaders challenge the status quo.

9. Managers have an eye on the bottom line, leaders have an eye on the horizon.

10. Managers imitate, leaders originate.

11. Managers emulate the classic good soldier; leaders are their own person.

12. Managers copy, leaders show originality. (Bennis, 1989, in Armstrong, 2009: p.8).

Armstrong concludes that management and leadership are different. Whereas management is about effective use of resources, leadership is about getting the best out of people. Similarly, Day (2012) distinguishes between leadership and management. Day elucidates the importance of not confusing leadership with power and management. Day further clarifies that leadership is a purpose-driven action that is aimed at change or transformation and is based on values, ideals, vision, symbols and emotional exchanges. Management,

Day argues, is objectives driven resulting in the fulfillment of obligations. (Day, 2012: p.5). Day and Sammons (2013) delineate a distinction between leading and managing concerns. Whereas leading concerns are vision, strategic issues, transformation, ends, people and doing the right thing, managing concerns are about implementation of operational issues, transactions means and systems (Day and Sammons, 2013: p.5). Leithwood and Riehl (2003), assume that 'providing direction' and 'exercising influence' can serve as a definition of leadership, in a nutshell.

Ribbins and Gunter (2002) distinguish between leadership, leading and leaders, critiquing the field for focusing too much in research on leadership and less on leading and leaders. Following Hodgkinson's (1991) definition of leadership, Ribbins and Gunter argue that leadership and leading are about what people do and not what they are (Ribbins and Gunter, 2002: p.362). Gunter (2004) argues that the political context in which leadership evolved and developed in the UK and the entrance of the private sector management to education introducing concepts like marketing and strategic planning, underpinned the growth of leadership in educational setting, more specifically performance leadership than educational leadership. Gunter (2016) reiterates this notion that within the political and economic settings school leaders act they have to be efficient, effective and excellent, showing school improvement and change. In this spirit, Greenfield (1995) emphasizes the need to distinguish between the personal traits of leaders, what leadership is, and the contextual conditional affecting leadership and administration. In this vein, Day (2012) provides a multifaceted definition to leadership that includes an influencing process and its outcomes, but which is also rooted in a context, which may affect the type of leadership that is used.

2.7.2. Educational leadership

The dispute over the question whether managing is the same in all organizations or different in educational institutions is probably as old as the field of EA. As aforementioned, the theoretical foundations of the field have been borrowed from other fields and disciplines. Clearly, the main critique against the organizational theory approach to research in the field derives from that fact that schools are perceived as "different" organizations. It is therefore

not implausible to argue that educational leadership also differs from leadership in other contexts.

Gumus et al. (2018) comment that since the 1980 the interest in researching leadership models in education has grown slowly until the 1990's and stayed stable until the year 2000. A dramatic increase is noticed after 2005. It is warranted mentioning what is already known, that most of the leadership research was initiated in the USA, but when publications in journals from outside the USA were added to the scientific database, the number of related studies from other countries increased gradually. Bellibas and Gumus (2019) add that during the past decade there have been efforts by other societies rather than the English-speaking countries to contribute to the knowledge base of educational leadership, by investigating the topical foci, conceptual frameworks and research design. A number of examples to such attempts can be found in Walker and Hallinger (2015), Hallinger and Chen (2015), Oplatka and Arar, (2017) and Hallinger and Kovacevic (2019).

Greenfield (1995) upholds that schools are uniquely moral organizations that are distinct from other organizations. In Greenfield's view leadership, a highly moral normative endeavor, is an interpersonal influence phenomenon. Cuban (1988) defines leadership as influencing others' actions to achieve desired goals and further argues that a prerequisite for leadership to arise is autonomy. Cuban adds that a necessary condition for leadership to exist is that followers must agree to be led. In schools, Cuban comments, both administrators and teachers have a common purpose, being educators. Greenfield (1995) proposes the centrality of leadership ss the most effective and efficient vehicle to improve school effectiveness. Greenfield commences that educational leadership, can be an individual, group or organizational phenomenon. Greenfield further claims that due to the uniqueness of schools, educational leadership should be responsive to five situational imperatives: moral, social/interpersonal, instructional, managerial, and political. Not only this but also, Greenfield avows that the central means school administrators can use to influence teachers is leadership, rather than power. Wright (2001) refers to the tension between the political context within which school leadership operates and the actual authority and influence of school leadership and terms it 'bastard leadership'. This is to

suggest that school leaders conform to political authorities, thus having a limited ability and time to deal with developing and impinging values in their organizations.

Gunter (2004) conceives of educational leadership as a social practice that is less about the "must" of being a leader and more about doing leading and experiencing leadership (Gunter, 2004: p.32). Thus, for Gunter educational leadership is about:

- productive social and socializing relationships.
- locations in an education system within democratic structures and cultures
- inclusive of all who are concerned with educational matters.
- integration into teaching and learning
- challenging power structures
- being underpinned by experiences and aspirations
- locations within the social sciences
- embracing a policy-making process that includes all within the system.
- sustaining and developing through educational opportunities located in a range of organizations: homes, playgrounds, offices, seminars, staff rooms.
- informing through professional research undertaken in higher education and by researching professionals in their own and other settings.
- locations in the present and informed by historical and developmental analyses.

Murphy et al. (2007a) conceptualize that leadership behaviors are influenced by four factors: the previous experience of the leader, the knowledge base of the leader, the leader's personal traits he brings to the job and the set of values and beliefs that helps define a leader.

Bush and Glover (2003) present a typology of eight 'model' for leadership:

- Instructional leadership – focuses on teaching and learning and on the behavior of teachers in working with students.
- Transformational/transactional leadership – it is about increasing the commitment of staff to organizational goals.
- Moral leadership – based on values and beliefs of leaders.

- Participative leadership – concerned with the process of decision-making, linked to democratic values.
- Managerial leadership – assumes that the focus of principals has to be on functions, tasks and behavior.
- Post Modern leadership – focuses on subjective experience of leaders and teachers and on interpretations.
- Interpersonal leadership – focuses on the relationship heads have with their teachers.
- Contingent leadership – the way leaders respond to the unique organizational circumstances or problems.

Bush and Glover (2014) update their 2003 writing on leadership models and contend that though leadership models are subject to fashion, they often inform and reflect changes in leadership practice. Thus, Bush and Glovers' (2014) review nine models of school leadership which are based on previous research and study in the field:

Individual leadership models:

- Instructional Leadership: linking leadership to learning.
- Managerial Leadership: focus on functions, tasks and behaviors
- Transformational leadership: central focus on the commitments and capacities of organizational members. Contrasted with transactional leadership.
- Moral and Authentic Leadership: values-based leadership. Emphasis on integrity.

Shared Approaches to leadership:

- Distributed Leadership (the formerly popular collegial and participative models of leadership): uncoupled from positional authority, engaging expertise wherever it exists in the organization. Stated by Bush and Glover as *becoming the normatively,*

preferred leadership model in the twenty-first century. (p.566).

- Teacher Leadership: linked to distributed leadership. Involving teachers' shared leadership.

- System Leadership: schools portrayed as independent systems. Involves leaders extending their remit beyond their own school. Co-leadership based on the notion that valued can be shared across groups of schools.

An alternative approach:

- Contingent Leadership: an adaptive leadership style reflexive to the diverse nature of school contexts.

Except leadership models and approaches to understanding the manifestation of leadership in educational setting a number of researchers have attempted to provide explanations to the perplexing nature of leadership in order to explain how leadership is enacted. Berson et al. (2015) examined a theoretical model to enhance understanding of the effects of leadership on organizational learning and concluded that the full impact of leadership could be realized when managers nurture trust among their followers, which would ultimately yield long-term organizational outcomes. Connolly, James, and Fertig (2019) bring to the fore the notion of responsibility as a central feature in educational organizing. It is argued that whereas educational leadership in practice is the act of influencing other, the ability to influence others is not restricted only to those who have the 'leader/leadership' in their job title. Thus, for Connolly, James, and Fertig, anyone who takes responsibility and influences others in the direction of the organization's goals is performing an act of leadership. Heck (2015) offers a perspective to school leadership which is based on an adaptive model that takes into account the changing relationships among organizational processes as facilitating and promoting school effectiveness.

2.7.3. Leadership and School Success

It is supported by the literature that leadership and management are critical variables affecting school success (e.g.: Bush, 2004a, Murphy et al., 2007, Leithwood et al., 2008). School success is rather complex to define though it is often approached from the perspective of the students' achievements. A recurrent concept in the literature linked to school success is school effectiveness.

Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003) suggest 'balanced leadesrhip' that is based on 21 leadership responsibilities related to students' achievements, as a framework to

understanding effective leadership: the knowledge, skills, strategies, resources, and tools educational leaders need to improve student achievement. In their view 'effective leadership means more than simply knowing what to do; it means knowing when, how, and why to do it.' (p.1).

In line with the notion of school effectiveness connected to student outcomes, Bush (2016) confirms the common view that the quality of leadership affects school and students' outcomes. Bush (ibid) concludes that effective school leadership and management do make a difference to students' learning and outcomes and constitute successful schooling.

Elsewhere, Bush (2007) elaborates that the global interest in leadership and management emerged because it is assumed that leaders and managers maintain successful schools and education systems. In this respect, Leithwood (2001) develops a contextual perspective on leadership and argues that educational policies are among the most powerful contexts school leaders have to attend to while performing their job. More specifically, the author refers to the accountability-driven policy contexts. Despite criticism against the eclectic nature of educational reforms, Leithwood asserts that school leaders have to do what they can do of such policies concurrently with serving the best interests of their students. Daniëls, Hondeghem, & Dochy, (2019) highlight that even though school context itself is not a characteristic of school effectiveness, it effects principals' practices and therefore it has to be taken into consideration when considering school effectiveness. Stoll et al. (2010) contend that school leadership, being an education policy priority around the world, should be reconsidered when discussing school results. Interestingly, Day and Sammons (2013) suggest that the focus on studying the contribution of leadership on school effectiveness did not emerge from skepticism about it, but rather from the demand to prove it from policy makers. However, Day and Sammons argue, the empirical support that has accumulated so far is still a subject of debate.

2.7.4. Evidence of Successful School Leadership

Inasmuch as school success is an elusive concept, which can be defined either by school outcomes and student achievements or by establishing and promoting moral values such as equity and justice, it is rather daunting to present evidence or models of successful leadership. However, there are some canonical studies that portray and outline the existing

knowledge of successful leadership. Leithwood et al. (2008) provide an overview of literature regarding successful school leadership. They summarize their findings in the form of seven strong claims about school leadership. The two strongest claims, supported by ample literature are:

1) School leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning.
2) Almost all successful leaders draw on the same repertoire of basic leadership practices.

The authors (ibid) report four main leadership practices, which they organize in four categories:

1) Building vision and setting direction
2) Understanding and developing people
3) Redesigning the organization
4) Managing the teaching and learning program

Leaders, Leithwood et al. claim, do not do all of these things all of the time, and the ways they function is context and culture dependent. A decade later, Leithwood et al. (2019) gained new insights about successful school leadership. Based on updated empirical literature, the authors reiterated their claim about the set of practices used by successful leaders. Their revised claim mentions a larger number of effective practices used by leaders. In addition, whereas in 2008 Leithwood et al. discussed a small handful of personal traits that explained a high proportion of the variation in leadership effectiveness, they now suggest the concept of 'personal leadership resources', which encompasses a set of cognitive, social and psychological resources. The researchers conclude that "school leadership matters greatly in securing better organizational and learner outcomes" (Leithwood et al., 2019: p.12).

Day and Sammons (2013) conducted a review of international literature that focuses on successful leadership. In their review Day and Sammons use both the terms "effective" and "successful" and clarify that while measurable student outcomes indicate effectiveness, they are not necessarily indicative of success. Day and Sammons claim that collective

leadership which draws upon transformational leadership and instructional leadership, is a model of leadership that promotes successful schools. Moreover, it is concluded that a combination of strategies can promote school success and that leadership indirectly effect student outcomes by enhancing conditions for teaching and learning through direct effect on teachers and teaching. The authors emphasize the significance of understanding the societal cultures which constitute the contexts in which schools operate and which determine the criteria for success. Nonetheless, despite societal, cultural differences across countries, Day and Sammons strikingly identify cross cultural/contexts principal's practice similarities. Thereof, Day and Sammons conclude that internationally, successful leadership incorporates combinations of values, key strategies, and commitments.

Harris (2004), examined the relationship between heads distributed leadership practices and school improvement and found that further research is needed to confirm such relationship. It is premised that school leadership impacts school effectiveness and school improvement and that leadership makes a difference. Based on two studies of successful school leadership, Harris posits that a link between distributed leadership practices and school improvement can be drawn, but it is only implied, not confirmed. Thus, Harris reflects that successful leaders are those who recognize the limitations of a singular leadership approach and distribute leadership in their schools through responsibility and authority.

Based on reviewing the literature, Daniëls, Hondeghem, and Dochy, (2019) determine that effective school leaders focus on curricula and instruction, foster effective communication and maintain good relations, which affect school climate and culture and sustain the school mission, and invest in personnel, recognize and award successes. The authors conclude that the characteristics of effective school leaders entail with both instructional leadership (focus on curriculum, learning and teaching), transformational leadership (motivating staff) and distributed leadership (leadership is not only the responsibility of the formal leader). Thus, Daniëls, Hondeghem, and Dochy recommend a theory that would integrate multiple theories. The lacune in research that the researchers recognize is in resources acquisition and use and in exploring school leaders' personality traits.

2.8.   Middle Management

Literature is canvassed with leadership theoretical models, examples of leaderships in successful schools and a general agreement over the notion that successful leadership is a critical factor for school performance and outcomes. Unlikely, literature regarding middle management (MM), interchangeably termed middle leadership (ML), is much sparse, albeit MMs are those who are part of any leadership model applied in educational institutions. If it is agreed that leading a school is not a one man show, then a number of questions arise: Who are the other participants? What are their roles? How do they perceive their role? Are they perceived as leaders by their colleagues and by the senior school leadership?

It is relevant to mention here the distinction between middle level leadership and Leading from the Middle (LftM). Fullan (2015) elaborates that LftM (a conception identified by Hargreaves and Braun, 2004) is a system strategy, "a whole system change" (p.22) initiated by governments which are "the top" which ask the "middle" – the districts – to lead system change.

 "Leadership from the Middle can be briefly defined as: a deliberate strategy that increases the capacity and internal coherence of the middle as it becomes a more effective partner upward to the state and downward to its schools and communities, in pursuit of greater system performance." (Fullan, 2015: p.23).

2.8.1. Roles and Responsibilities of MM

Different schools operate in different cultural contexts and have different structures of management. Thus, it is no surprise that, the definition of MM changes from one school to another. Simkins (2000) reinforces that there is no one definition or agreement who constitutes middle level management, however it is clear that heads of subject, head deputies and coordinators are among the roles needed at school to fulfill the need for middle level management. Furthermore, Simkins argues that since the late 1980's policy changes and reforms have impacted the organization and managements in schools and colleges, as a result of the emphasis on school performance. The new emphasis, Simkins contends, sees the effective management as a means to achieving the policy goals. Consequently, the

changing roles of senior managers distance them from staff, which led to a growing need for middle level managerial roles within managerial structures concurrently changing the roles of middle managers.

Floyd and Wooldridge (1992) introduce a typology of four MM roles in strategy, which is a synthesis of action and cognition. In Floyd and Wooldridges' view middle managers are the coordinators of the organization's daily activities, who play a role in strategy by implementing the top management intention. The researchers indicate a positive relationship between MM involvement in strategy and organizational performance.

Clark and Clark (1997) view middle level management/leadership teams as a form of school collaboration. They focus on the issue of collaboration as participation in school decision making. The authors assert that there is not much active involvement in decision making on the part of leadership teams and claim that real power to make decisions is infrequent in schools. A possible explanation for that is that principals may not be willing to give up power and teachers (middle managers) are not willing to become involved if they perceive it to be based on external compliance. Another obstacle suggested is the sheer idea of not having enough time to collaborate. Thus, Clark and Clark who view collaborative decision making as critical for bringing about school change, recommend for school leaders to delegate leadership responsibilities and develop decision making process, thus, to empower teachers and enhance transformational leadership which will in turn increase involvement and willingness of teachers to share decision making.

Spillane et al. (2002), explicate that middle managers pay a significant role in implementing accountability policy, which involves student performance outcomes and reward/sanction for schools. It is rightly argued that schools' leaders are intermediaries between the district office and their classroom teachers. Thus, Spillane et al. contend that the sense-making of middle managers of the district policy is a key factor in the implementation of a district policy, since, like school managers, they are not passive receptors, and they are the ones to enact the implementation of any policy.

Bennett, Woods, Wise, and Newton, (2007) report on two reviews of empirical research into the roles and responsibilities of middle leaders, mainly subject leaders, who are not regarded part of school senior management team, highlighting some difficulties that arise

from the literature. The paper identifies two tensions in the role of middle leaders between loyalty to their department and expectation of their role with the whole school focus. Another tension identified is between the school culture of a hierarchical management line and a professional rhetoric of collegiality. The authors assert that a way to understand the role of middle leadership is based on structure/agency dualism. Similarly, Busher, Hammersley-Fletcher, and Turner, (2007) provide insight into the school political power that affects middle leaders. The paper argues that whereas literature on middle leaders have focused on their roles and identities, it overlooked the influence of political contexts on middle leaders' choices and practices. To gain a comprehensive understanding the role of middle leaders, the authors recommend combining existing theories of power with the framework of communities of practice.

Harris and Jones (2017) assert that current literature on middle leadership roles is far broader that it used to be two decades ago (subject leaders and heads of departments) and that it now includes a variety of roles, positions and perspectives. The authors suggest a number of explanations for the paucity of research interest in ML among which is the popularity of distributed leadership and the fact that ML reinforces the centrality of it or that all that there has been to say about it has been said. Harris and Jones assert that ML have a direct positive influence on the quality of teaching and learning. Not only this, but also the researchers add that ML can positively impact teaching and learning processes by building strong professional learning communities where teachers can enquire and develop together.

De Nobile (2018), suggests a theoretical model of middle leadership in schools and remarks that the area of middle management/middle leadership is still under-theorized, despite considerable research activity in the area in the 1990's. The model describes the factors affecting middle leadership and proposes a typology of roles of middle leaders and ways to perform them. Based on extensive literature De Nobile defines middle leaders as those between the senior leadership and the first line managers in school who oversee others with no particular responsibilities. In addition, middle leaders occupy formal positions of responsibilities. Middle leadership is similar to teacher leadership, but it is not the same, De Nobile concludes. The model suggested includes the factors that influence the work of

middle managers. At the center of the model, based on key roles reflected in the literature, a set of roles is illustrated. The model distinguishes between the roles and how they are performed. Furthermore, the model delineates the factors influencing the work of middle leaders as 'inputs' and shows the potential of middle leadership that can contribute to school effectiveness as 'outputs'. Thus, a flow of interactions that assumes 'input-roles-output' is designated. The model is not suggested as linear 'one size fits all' (De Nobile, 2018, p.410) but rather as a theoretical framework that facilitates understanding of the roles and performance of middle leaders.

Day and Grice (2019) understand middle leadership as: "a series of actions associated with the values, dispositions, qualities and skills required to lead effectively, carried out in and mediated by particular individual, social, organizational and policy contexts." (p.11). The authors argue that the phenomenon of middle leadership is relatively recent in educational leadership and takes different forms in different across national and sector contexts. Middle leaders are teachers who are not part of the executive school leadership but situated within the school hierarchy and have formal responsibilities and pedagogical leading roles of teachers.

2.8.2. The Effects of MM on School Outcomes

MM can be viewed as one form or another of distributed/shared school leadership or teacher leadership. With that said, it is interesting to examine the effects of MM on school outcomes. Glover et al., (1998) examine the nature of the changing role of middle managers in schools to consider how to enhance effectiveness and efficiency at this management level. Their findings underscore the importance of recognizing the middle managers within the school community, promoting the subject leaders' professionalism and developing the skill of motivating and supporting the teams of staff. Glover et al., point at the change in the perception of the driving force of the middle managers. Whereas in the past the administrative skills were seen as the main role of middle managers, nowadays, the ability to develop and transmit a vision for the team of staff is perceived as the most significant requirement of a middle manager.

Gurr and Drysdale (Gurr & Drysdale, 2013) report on a decade of research on middle level leaders (curriculum and subject leaders) in secondary schools in Australia. The researchers

view middle managers as 'those people who have formal responsibilities and duties of leadership and management and sit between senior leadership and teachers.' (p.57). Furthermore, align with this era of school change, middle level leadership is considered a dispersed form of school leadership that has a critical role in influencing teaching and learning. Gurr and Drysdale contrast the gap between the positive potential of middle leadership to employ school curriculum and pedagogy and the limitations that might prevent maximizing it, such as the school role constructs and job perceptions. The researchers lament that too often this potential is unrealized. However, Gurr and Drysdale assume that a key to success of middle level leaders lies in the school's senior leadership expectations and the capacity and aptitude of the middle leader to be a leader. It is argued that another significant factor that can enhance the success of middle level leadership is the development of their professional needs. Similarly, Leithwood (2016) identifies the prerequisites of department-head leadership and claims that currently this role is underutilized as a source of instructional leadership despite its potential and contribution to positive effects on school improvement. The challenges to significant department-head leadership proposed are teachers' preference and beliefs, teacher unions, department heads expectation and understandings and the principal's perceptions about department-head roles (p.124). Among the conditions that might enhance significant department-head leadership are collegial school-wide instructional culture, leadership capacities, adequate time allocation to carry out duties and the principal's support in the form of structured arrangement for decision making, as well as delegating responsibility to the department-head. It is noteworthy, that based on evidence Leithwood concludes that the contribution of department-head leadership is greater than the contribution of principal leadership to the improvement of teaching and learning.

Koh, Gurr, Drysdale, and Ang (2011), recognize middle leaders as a 'Significant source in ensuring that quality education reaches out to pupils' (p.609). In a study conducted in the internationally highly regarded Singaporean primary school that studied the perceptions of school leaders of middle leaders, the researchers identified seven major themes of depicting the role of middle leaders:

1) Teaching and learning

2) Building vision and setting direction

3) Leading and managing teachers

4) Communicating

5) Continuing leadership development

6) Changing role

7) challenges

It was found that school leaders regarded middle leaders as excellent or good classroom teachers whose core business is to promote effective teaching and learning. Middle leaders assume that a key measure of school success is results of examinations. In addition, school leaders believed that idle leaders should have the capacity to think strategically.

Hargreaves and Shirley (2019) assert that middle level leadership is the layer with "first-hand knowledge" (p.95) that communicates with the front teachers and plays a role in implementing school change. Some, Hargreaves and Shirley claim, see middle level leadership as a set of roles with formal responsibilities. In general, in complex systems it is a role that enhances efficiency and performance.

Lipscombe, Tindall-Ford and Grootenboer (2020) also acknowledge the importance of middle leadership on school improvement. Studying the practices and influence of two middle leaders (one from primary school, one from secondary school) in two Australian schools, findings showed that the influence of middle leaders was dependent upon the support of executive leadership, time, formal role descriptors and trusting relationship. In addition, the researchers assert that middle leaders have limited power even though they are highly experienced teachers. Thus, it is claimed that if middle leaders are expected to lead they need both resources and authority. Furthermore, the significance of relationship and collaboration to middle leadership influence is outlined. It is suggested that a reciprocal influence exists between middle leaders and colleagues and between middle leaders and executive leadership, without assuming transferability due to critical contextual factors.

Day and Grice (2019) report that following a school-based professional learning program for middle leaders, 88% of middle leaders changed their own role perception from managing the task to leading the people, especially in terms of taking initiatives, providing

direction, resolving tensions and tackling conflict (p.15). Thus, Day and Grice lay a number of claims: capacity building is significant if it is desired for middle leaders to enhance school vision and change. Trust, developed through open collegial relationships and mentoring and school support for middle leadership development are the conditions for successful middle leadership.

2.8.3. International Research on MM

Despite paucity of cumulative literature about MM, it appears that rather overdue there seems to be international interest in the topic, emerging not only from Western origin. Several international examples (from non-English speaking or non-Western countries) from 2010 onwards are: Mampane (2017) on the importance of MMs of training South African public schools in leadership and management skills. Head of departments and subject leaders are Mampane's MMs, who are viewed as school's main asset, those promoting school effective teaching and learning. Mampane's study found that the acquisition of leadership and management skills of MMs were positively related to improving learner outcomes and teacher commitment. Bassett, (2016) examined the role of middle leaders in New Zealand secondary schools. Bassett unfolds the complexity and challenging role of middle leaders, having a responsibility for a variety of leadership functions which impact student learning outcomes. The paper concludes that it is obligatory to provide middle leaders with essential training and support to develop leadership capabilities, since their role as mediators between senior leaders and the staff is central.

Javadi, Bush, and Ng, (2017) examined middle leadership in four secondary international schools in Malaysia. The paper focused on the roles, responsibilities, role relationships, instructional engagement and leadership involvement within the school leadership. Findings did not support leadership practices enacted by middle leaders. Otherwise, MMs were more involved in management practices. Furthermore, in all schools, roles lack clarity and instructional responsibilities dominate. The findings of this study were consistent with the international literature. The somewhat gloomy conclusion stated by the researchers is that 'we should not assume, just because time has changed, things are necessarily significantly different'. (Javadi, Bush, and Ng, 2017: p. 495). Wong, Wong and Peng (2010) investigated the potential effects of middle-level leaders (senior teachers responsible for

administrative duties) emotional intelligence in Hong Kong on teacher's job satisfaction (followers' jobs outcomes). Results provided support for the impact of middle level leaders emotional intelligence on job outcomes. Shaked and Schechter (2017) investigated system thinking among Israeli school middle leaders. Shaked and Schechter also claim that the role of middle leaders is complex and expectations from them are high. Whereas school senior leadership shape the vision, policy and ethos, middle leaders are the ones responsible for implementing the decisions. Thus, the researchers assert that in the current trend of worldwide decentralization and accountability school middle leaders are required to be effective change agents. The key to middle leaders' success is official leadership position, access to expertise, support by senior management and interpersonal relationships among leadership.

Chapter 3:   Principalship

3.1.   Introduction

This chapter is about Principalship, the evolution of the profession, the contexts affecting it as well as the duties, responsibilities and accountabilities it embodies. The incessant need for apt principals in Israel is well-known and has been discussed also in the 2021 state comptroller annual report

(http://www.mevaker.gov.il/sites/DigitalLibrary/Documents/2021/71C/2021-71c-209-School-Principals-Taktzir.docx). This paucity of principals pinpoints at some of the complexities of the job requirement that deter candidates of taking the job and keeping it. In addition, the added-on duties and responsibilities tip the balance against choosing to be a principal.

When one types the word *principalship* in a Word document, it is not recognized and marked as a typing mistake. The suffix *ship* (attached to the word principal) used in the English language adds the meaning of *the position, status or duties of something.* Thus, this chapter delves into the core of the position, status and duties of principals in order to gain a better understanding of schools, how they function and what makes their principals behave the way they do.

In an era when a plethora of papers is dedicated to leadership styles, suggesting theoretical models to guide educational systems as well as school leaders how to improve schools, by the end of the day it is the principal who navigates the school, set direction and answers to the ecosystem.

3.2.   School as an Organization

Schools are social organizations aimed at serving societies. Montgomery & Kehoe (2016) highlight that schools are the first formal organization we experience during the formative years of our lives and based on our experience at school we learn about power, leadership, self-esteem and even bullying in organizations. Bush (2011a) observes that schools as organizations have drawn a great deal of attention from academics and practitioners attempting to understand the complex institution called school and the behavior of school

leaders. As Ball (1987) puts it: "organizational theory and the 'sociology of organizations' traditions… – have had little of any significance to tell us about the way in which schools are actually run on a day-to-day basis". (p.16). Ball elaborates that the a-priori approach to analyze schools as organizations, which tended to base on what *'we all know about school'* (p.22) failed, as it based on outside informers. Instead Ball suggests an alternative approach to analyzing schools as organizations, by studying schools from a micro-politics perspective, looking at the key concepts of power, goal diversity, ideological disputation, conflict, interest, political activity and control.

It is not pretentious to claim that criticism against schools and attempts to re-invent and transform it for the better have been going for centuries now. However, despite the fact that the organizational aspects of schools have not changed much since its establishment, so that schools around the globe are organized basically the same, it is rather impossible to analyze schools as organizations due to their complex nature. Furthermore, it appears that schools are change resistant despite endless calls for change reforms. Hargreaves & Shirley (2012) write, "The history of attempts to establish innovative schools is another largely tragic narrative of early radicalism that is then often followed by regression to the institutional norm" (p.25).

School as an organization and more specifically a popular criticized social organization has been delved in depth in Goodlad's (1984) *A Place Called School.* Organizations seek continuous improvement and thus it is argued up-front that widespread disaffection with schools regards questions of improvement. In this line, Goodlad states that institutions need faith from their clients, or they collapse. Schools will continue to exist in any case, but the educational system might not be what the public desires and society needs schools (p.2).

Goodlad views school as a system of interacting parts which affect one another (p.31). In his assertion, school is not and cannot (p.350) be an institution apart and it is not the sole provider of the community's educational system. There are other participants in this system like home and church, which also affect shaping the student's behavior. Goodlad observes that there is enough evidence to support that school's limitation are less severe in teaching the basics of reading and writing, but in teaching more complex abilities. Thus, Goodlad

concludes that, "if our schools need improvements in the basics, they need – perhaps more – a fresh examination of their role in a society undergoing rapid change" (p.15).

Furthermore, Goodlad points out a highly crucial distinction between school, schooling and the individual school. Criticism against schools is usually directed more against the schooling system of an individual school. Commonplaces of schooling are teaching practices, content of subject matter, instructional materials, physical environment, activities, human resources, evaluation, time, organization, communications, decision making, leadership, expectations, issues and problems, and controls and restraints (p.28). It is postulated that this rise and criticism against schools is a part of general societal decline of faith in organizations and the bureaucratic insensitivity they represent.

Whereas schools and even an individual school are too complex to understand as a whole, it is possible to sort out the priorities for an agenda of school improvement. However, it should be noted, Goodlad comments, that no single set of recommendations applies to all schools. Furthermore, it is stated that whereas researchers criticize schools they research schooling: the teaching, the students the methods, not the school.

Schooling and education are not synonymous (p.322). Schools are a means to provide access to knowledge and are held responsible to socialize the young students of diverse background into the norms, values and beliefs of a democratic society and to prepare the young to become responsible adults and imbue commitment to society. It is the conduct of schooling that has led to criticism against the public educational system despite the fact that most parents still regard schooling as good and desirable. (p.11). Goodlad doubts the power of schools to effect to a societal renewal as expected by the 88th-89th Education Congresses that sought schools to address social problems such as poverty, practices unemployment, urban decay (p.4). Array of conditions affect school conduct; most are the result of changes in communities and decline in the sense of community (p.8). Thereof, Goodlad points out that, "…education is as yet something more envisioned than practiced" (p.361).

A decline in standardized achievement scores, teaching, or incompetent principals led to disenchantment with schooling in the 1950's, in the 1970's public criticism included the institution (p.5). Goodlad finds it ironic (p.12) that despite dissatisfaction with the

schooling system people still choose to participate in the educational system, with increasing rates of enrollment. The circumstances surrounding schoolings were overlooked and falling test scores led to criticism against the school system and to doubts against the effectiveness of schools (p.13).

Sarason (1996) claims that what we call "school system" is a closed system, on which nations impose educational policies, that the system is expected to accommodate to and implement. Being a closed system that does not include groups and agencies outside the system, allows it to set barriers against these outside attempts at change. Furthermore, Sarason asserts that in order for a school to change, many other systems are supposed to undergo changes. Any person, may it be a parent, researcher or a politician who enters the school gate comes with a developed conception of an attitudes towards the school, all based on personal experience or secondhand knowledge and derived of their socialization in society and it culture. Thus, Sarason elaborates, sharp conflicts between school and community have been common throughout history. Power and political processes are part of school as an organization. Sarason argues that power struggles take place at any time and in any school. Questions like "who owns the school?" indicate the issue of power struggle in schools. The fact that answers to such a question can vary depending on the person asked, is enough evidence to demonstrate the complexity of understanding schools as organizations. Thereof, Sarason concludes that a social change in schools can take place only when change in power relationship between the encapsulated school system and the outside community and stakeholders takes place.

Tyack & Tobin (1994) delve into the organizational framework that shapes the structures and rules of instruction, which they term the grammar of schooling. The authors highlight three fundamental resources in secondary education: time, subject and academic credits. It is argued that what constitutes the notion of "real school" (p.478) among the public is an established cultural assumption. Moreover, Tyack & Tobin claim that schools change reforms by adapting them to their local circumstances and their community expectations and not the other way around. A detailed survey of the origins of graded schools is delineated and entails that once there was a nongraded (rural) school: A school with a flexible schedule, students of different ages who often taught one another and it all took

place in a one-room country school (p.458). At the beginning of the twentieth century there were hundreds of thousands of such schools in cities, towns and rural areas. Once reformers in universities and state departments decided to replace the one-room school, against the will of most rural residents, the graded school was established. It was a larger multigrade school which was considered more efficient, more professional, with a more elaborated curriculum and heavily subject to lay control as teachers became under the scrutiny of the community. With the development of the graded school also developed the division of labor and hierarchical supervision, similar to the commonality in factories. Seeking efficiency, a more precise sequencing of the curriculum was permitted as well as classification of pupils by proficiency. It was the birth of the 'homogeneous' class and strange as it may seem these days, it seemed egalitarian to the reformers. Administrators were mostly male that divided the traditional curriculum- reading, spelling, arithmetic, writing – which was sequenced and supervised by teachers mostly female that were following the syllabi. By the end of the year tests were taken to determine if the student were ready to move to the next level. By the second half of the nineteenth century the graded school had spread almost everywhere. The urban graded school had critics all along, however, for the most part attempts to change it were mostly minor, not fundamental. In 1906, the Carnegie unit was introduced: "a course of five periods weekly throughout n academic year" (p.460). These periods became the fifty-fifty five minute lesson still used in many schools around the world to date. Challenges to the structure and rule of the graded school such as the Dalton Plan and the Eight Year study, originated from within the educational system, but it was too entrenched and hard to dislodge.

Based on neu-institutional theory and the analysis of the faculty workplace, Bidwell (2001) analyzes schools as organizations. The researcher argues that public schools became a mass enterprise in the twentieth century, which led to the bureaucratization of school administration. However, despite the profound changes in size, composition and administrative complexity of schools, no change occurred in the organization of instruction. Using an integrated approach to analyzing school Bidwell concludes that broad national attempts for instructional change are not likely to be accepted or implemented successfully. The integrated approach Bidwell uses explains the findings by the tendency

of the informal organization of the faculty workplace to bound for their local cultures of practice to resist change.

Disregarding the external influences and local contexts of schools, by the end of the day, schools are organizations led by principals, who have their own values, principles and priorities, and are committed to both their organization and ecosystem. Wilkins (2002) studied the perceptions of school leaders which relate to school as organizations. The study revealed perceived tension between leaders' values and national policies. For example, whereas school leaders who are the gatekeepers and mediators between the school and the wider policy context, they make judgements and prioritize the implementation of change based on their judgements of the staff capacity to accept and implement the change required. Furthermore, the nature of schools as organizations is contested as school leaders are committed to their educational principles. On the other hand, the regulatory framework is still stuck in past conceptions, which also raise the perceived tension among school leaders towards national policies.

3.3. The Evolving Role of Principalship

A hundred years ago Forest C. Ensign (1923) addressed the issue of the evolution of the high school principalship. Reading this outstanding paper without looking into its date of publishing is intriguing. A hundred years later, and the same issues and questions raised and asked in Ensign's paper are still relevant, "Who is furnishing the leadership? Who guides and directs the teachers who in their turn are in intimate daily contact with these' our citizens, our governors of tomorrow?" (p.179-180)

Ensign clearly states that the position of a high-school principal is strategic, as he carries the burden of shaping a wonderful, incomplete, promising of an educational machinery called the high school. All, still relevant to date.

At the time of writing, Ensign viewed the role of high school principal as one of no history, yet its origin can be traced back to the historic foundation of the modern secondary school principalship of Plato or the great teacher Quintilian. However, Ensign adds, there is no evidence to show that Quintilian represented a class of professional masters or principals of school.

School, back then, lacked the consciousness of social service and responsibility, which schools are so sensitive to today. Furthermore, Ensign argues, those masters did not have assistants. It was in the sixteenth century that John Sturm came to Strassburg as rector, or principal of a new secondary school for boys. He organized the Gymnasium effectively, which became a model for later secondary schools in Germany. Sturm's school served the higher scholastic needs of the community: it was established on a scientific basis and unlike secondary schools which were much smaller and had one mater at the time, it numbered six hundred boys. Strum no longer taught the boys, rather he had a group of men to carry out the extensive curriculum. By the time the boy was fourteen he had a vast amount of literature to read, extensive drill in style, and fine distinctions in the art of speech. Sturm wrote extensively, books, essays and pamphlets. For the use of his teachers, he discussed issues we term in the last century school management and leadership.

From the time of Strum in Germany, the Netherlands and France, the movement towards effective organization among English speaking people was not rapid. Ensign elaborates that it was not until 1653 that a recognition arose, that the master might need an assistant. Little administrative authority was provided for English schools. It was in the eighteenth century that the term "headmaster" became a common use. Ensign mentions Richard Mulcaster, a great educator of his time who complains about the need of placing a degree of responsibility for the control of the entire school. In 1821, the first high school was established in Boston of the instruction of the "sons of the mercantile and industrial classes" (p.188). The teachers were known as masters of ushers, but the head was now called principal. Very early in the high-school movement new administrative and responsibilities were required of the principal. The schools being free, attracted large numbers from all classes, imposing the principal to make some kind of classification. Obviously, the principal had to lighten his teaching to take over his other responsibilities. As public education developed the graded system was developed, super-intendency was developed.

Ensign closes this paper concluding that, "The man who combines power of the organization and qualities of leadership with a love for older youth…. Will find new callings in which he can be happier than in the administration of this office". (p.190)

This concluding sentence is so valid to date!

Trends in the evolution of principalship, in the US over 30 years, from the 1960s to the 1990s, are portrayed by Hallinger (1992), who recognizes three roles played by principals during this period:

Predominantly, the role enacted by American principals from the1920s to the 1960s was that of the administrative manager.

- The 1960s and1970s: The principal as a program manager. With the introduction of curricular innovations, the principal became a curriculum/program manager. The role was limited to managing the implementation of an external program designed by others.

Hallinger points out that this approach to change implementation did not yield improvement.

- Mid-1980s: The instructional leader and effective schools. With renewed interest of the public in educational improvement rather than maintaining of the school, instructional leadership became the new educational standard for principals. The model of instructional leadership was introduced by state academics. In this model of leadership, the principal is viewed as the primary source of knowledge of the school's educational program. Principals were viewed as the key figures in the successful implementation of the effective school's model. Hallinger further remarks that in this model the principal was still inherently managerial.
- 1990s: The transformational leader and restructured schools. With the recognition that the system of education was not adequately preparing the student led policy makers, educators, and parents to re-examine schooling in America. Whereas the instructional leadership emphasized the centrality of the principal's role, the conception of school restructuring emphasizes the diffuse nature of school leadership. A greater emphasis was on problem solving and goal setting by the staff and community. The source of expertise underlying school restructuring is that the knowledge needed for school improvement lies inside school. This represents a significant shift in the nature of the principal's role who must spend greater

proportion of time collaborating with staff. In this model the principal is to enhance connections between the school and sources of knowledge in the environment.

Hallinger remarks that the American public schools' manifest social values, a vehicle to sort out and blend societal priorities and values. Thus, the principal's job involves mediating and interpreting community values and reflect them in the local school. Nevertheless, no matter what predominant model of principalship prevails, the principal role always persists of some nineteenth century reminiscent of the head-teacher. Furthermore, Hallinger believes that the leadership component of principalship creates a complexity that not all principals are equipped to cope with. Schools will continue to respond to changing demands and expectations, while at the same time keep the traditional notions of schooling and leadership.

3.4. Becoming a principal

Bush (2011) emphasizes the centrality of the principal for school improvement and enhanced student outcomes, no matter their leadership styles, be it distributed, or else.

A rather common path of becoming a school principal is delineated: a gradual evolution from teachers who acquire leadership and management responsibilities as their career progresses to the principal post, then reducing and replacing the teaching work they were trained for with the challenges of becoming a principal. This transition from teacher to principal is perceived by some as exciting and by other as daunting. Bush then hints that this background might be the reason why women are under-represented in leadership positions in most countries. Figures presented in Joan Smith's (2011) paper are that 36% of secondary school principals in England and Wales are women, although they constitute 57% of the teaching workforce. Findings indicate that those who find becoming a principal daunting, think the job is time consuming, detracting them from their personal lives and lonely! Those who choose to become principals, find the job challenging, developing and satisfying. Pounder & Merrill (2001) also mirrored the disproportionate percentage of men to women in secondary school administrative roles with 71% of respondent group in their study were male and only 29% female respondents. (p.37)

3.4.1. Preparation and Qualification programs to develop school principals

Bush (2011a) states that due to the growing recognition that leadership requires different skills from classroom teaching, these days it is more accepted to have special preparation and qualification programs to develop school principals. However, it is not the case all over the world, including some European countries, where only a teaching certificate is required in order to become a school principal. It is highlighted that without proper qualification principals are not ready to take the responsibilities of being a principal. Bush points out that in England a program called the National Professional Qualification for Headships was initiated in 1997 and became a mandatory requirement for newly appointed principals in 2009. Israel is another example where a preparation and qualification program is mandatory since 2008 in order to be appointed a school principal.

3.4.2. Underperforming principals

Bush (2020) raises a significant issue less discussed and researched in the literature: whereas becoming a school principal is considered the culmination of one's career, a natural path of experienced successful teacher to the top job, cases of under-performing principals are rather avoided in most educational system and the principals continue in post. Bush mentions Singapore and Malaysia as nations as the exception which do not avoid the problem and return under-performing principals to the classroom. The case of Turkey which in 2014 declared a new policy that principalship was not a post but a quadrennial duty, followed by an evaluation process resulted 7000 principals that did not pass the evaluation process (in 2014) and returned to their previous posts.

3.5.   The dynamics of principalship as affected by policy changes and societal demands

Goldring (1992) introduces the case of Israel, where principals have to undergo a dynamic change in their role due to the educational system shift towards diversity and decentralization, as an attempt to meet the needs of an increasingly pluralistic society. Consequently, Israeli principals have to move from being routine-managers to leader-managers in four pivotal areas: resource allocation, organizational framework, governing system and market structure. School success is thus dependent upon the principal's abilities

to adapt their traditional role to new realities, becoming attuned to the external school environments. This move towards a system-wide diversity, Goldring argues, has made the structure of public schools increasingly complex and fragmented, which greatly affects aspects of the principalship.

Principals have to be both managers and leaders in their schools. The evolving role of principalship towards an integrated role is required if school improvement is required. Klein & Schwanenberg (2022) illustrate the case of Germany where a similar path of the evolving role of the principal from a teacher with additional administrative, to a leader of school improvement takes place. Klein & Schwanenberg elaborate that by contrast to the US, principals in Germany get little or no support from the local or regional authorities when it comes to school improvement. Neither do the principals receive formal training for the new role partly because the systemic structures for the recruitment and training of principals have not adapted themselves to the new changed role. A highly bureaucratic conservative German educational system, which did not focus on improving school outcomes is portrayed by the authors. Furthermore, until the 1990s school improvement was under the responsibility of the government, and the principal's role was to implement it in their school; an administrative task. Principals were not superior to the other teachers. From the 1990s and on, with a new governance model, the role of principals changed as well. Now schools were expected to have improvement plans and the principal's role is to shape the plan rather than just administer it. Nevertheless, Klein & Schwanenberg argue, that despite the paradigm shift of the principal's role in the 1990s, principals still do not see themselves as leaders and do not engage in leadership functions such as teacher collaboration or instructional improvement.

Pounder & Merrill (2001) contend that the high school principal's role is one of the most complex and challenging assignments in the public education system (p.35). The role has evolved over time, now demanding more response to societal changes and school reform efforts. A high-school principal is required integrate a variety of role demands, manage support services, run curriculum and extra-curricular activities and tend to compete managerial and political expectations. Pounder & Merrill argue that successful high school principals must understand and accept that their multiple roles have both managerial and

leadership elements. Pounder & Merrill put forward the paucity of high school principals from the perspective of job desirability of candidates. The researchers conclude that there might be certified candidates, but not enough highly qualified ones. (In this respect, see also Davis et al., 2005, p.5). Results of a study of the availability of qualified candidates for the job of high school principal suggested that candidates are attracted to the job firstly due to a desire to influence and improve education. The second most attractive reason to take the job is the salary. The unattractive work features included time demands, balancing work and family and dilemmas that are part of the job.

3.6. Principalship around the world

Most literature reviewing the evolving role of principalship originates from western countries and refers to countries in Europe and North America. However, it is well known to researchers and practitioners in the field that school function in general and principals' conduct are culturally shaped and influenced (see for example Hallinger, 2018), on the importance of studying school leadership in context). Oplatka (2004) tended to this issue by reviewing 27 papers that explored principalship in 'Developing Countries', countries outside Europe and North America. Oplatka points out the importance of studying principalship in diverse national/cultural contexts, which affect principal's sets of attitudes, values and norms for behavior (p.428). Furthermore, Oplatka stresses that reading the literature might give the impression that western models of principalship are universal. Which is not the case, as portrayed in Oplatka's review. Nevertheless, Oplatka traces certain commonalities of principalship characteristics in developing countries: limited autonomy restricted by the rules of the system, autocratic leadership style focused on routine management and control maintenance, summative evaluation, low degree of change initiation and lack of instructional leadership. Oplatka concludes that even though the field continuously changes it is still warranted to bear in mind that no universal theory in educational administration is valid in all contexts (p.442). Furthermore, Oplatka challenges the literary community to change the current narrow definitions of principalship originated in western educational systems as their transferability and implementation in developing countries is questioned. (p.442).

3.7. Contexts affecting the principal's conduct

The role of school principals as educational leaders who contribute and affect directly or indirectly school outcomes, has never been underestimated in the literature over the last century. The field of Educational Research continuously provides theories, data and figures (mostly form western countries, but recently also from developing countries outside North America and Europe [Oplatka, 2004]) somewhat prescribing or dictating the updated "recipe" to follow to become an efficient school. However, in reality, the shift from theory to practice, namely the translation of the theory to everyday practice, is much less known and seems to diverse whenever the social cultural school contexts change.

3.7.1. The power and influence of academics on schools

Hallinger (2018) entails how during one conference in Hong Kong, while he was giving a lecture, a school principal raised a rather bold question, asking how school principals should apply "the average finding" from the many studies conducted in many schools, located in many places. (p.5). The answer Hallinger gave the principal was:

The findings that I have presented reflect a growing global consensus of scholars based on research conducted over the past 40 years. In my view, these findings are an affirmation of productive progress. At the same time, I also acknowledge that this knowledge base offers only limited advice on how to adapt and refine leadership practices to the needs, constraints, resources, and opportunities of specific schools. Therefore, I cannot give you evidenced-based advice on exactly how to adapt these findings to the specific challenges facing you at your secondary school here in Hong Kong. I simply don't know enough about either you or your school. (Hallinger, September 23, 2009, as it appeared in Hallinger, 2018).

Hallinger's response acknowledges the limited power and influence academics have on the actual practice within schools, admitting that the knowledge base offered by scholars of the field is *only limited advice* on how to adapt and refine leadership practices to the needs of specific schools. To complement his response to the principal, Hallinger quotes Barth (2006):

School people carry around extraordinary insights about their practice—about discipline, parental involvement, staff development, child development, leadership, and curriculum. I call these insights 'craft knowledge'. Acquired over the years in the school of hard knocks, these insights offer every bit as much value to improving schools as do elegant research studies and national reports. (Barth, 2006: 8, cited in Hallinger 2018).

Thus, it is now rather clear that the translation of scholars' theoretical advice as to how to adapt and refine leadership models in schools, such as instructional leadership for example, is a combination of what Barth (2006) termed the 'craft knowledge' school principals have and the way they apply it in their school.

3.7.2. Types of contexts affecting the school and its leadership

The role of contexts affecting the individual school and their leaders, and of the leader's role in leading change in education draw scholar attention. Some of the contexts of school are fairly objective and constant. Location of school, for instance, being in Iran, Israel, England or the U.S., or located in a poor/rich environment are constants that affect school practices and outcomes when one observes the different educational systems in those states, their approach towards governance for example (centralized/decentralized educational systems), granting autonomy to school principals. Thus, in reality it is not implausible to claim that local policy makers lead and affect the conduct and behavior of the principal, which affect school outcomes, which leaves much less space to generalizing the theories and their successful implementation in school. Hallinger (2018) focused on a number of types of school contexts to study how they affect and shape school leadership practices. Thus, Hallinger highlights the interaction between context and leadership. (p.6). More specifically, Hallinger elaborated Bossert's et al. (1982) limited model and examined the following contexts:

- Institutional context: refers to the 'education system', the state and the regional units that comprise it. (p.8)
- Community context: the needs, opportunities, resources and constraints that principals have to attend to in their community. (p.11)

- National Cultural context: incorporate national culture as an external context the school is located (p.11), i.e., the different socio-cultural contexts as a set of values translated to school practices or norms of behavior.

- Economic context: the level of economic development of a society that shapes the conditions that impact the principal's work: teacher quality, class size, parental education and involvement are some examples (p.12)

- Political context: the ways normative education policies reflect prevailing power structures and relationships which shape the beliefs, attitudes, and practices of the principal (p.14).

- School improvement context refers to the way the historical trajectory of improvement defines he nature of the principal's leadership challenge. (p.15).

Hallinger delineate four ways which characterize the school's improvement trajectory:

- 'Effective': evidenced by stability of student success over time.

- 'Improving': evidenced by significant improvements in student learning over time.

- 'Coasting': evidenced by moderate student performance levels with little improvement or decline over time; or

- 'Ineffective': evidenced by poor and/or declining performance in student learning over time.

3.7.3. Successful principals around the world and national contexts

Based on the notion of the International Successful School Principalship Project (ISSPP) that leadership and school improvement can be recognized and compared across national contexts, Johnson et al (2008) studied whether 'success' in one country is seen as success in another. Synthesizing case study findings from the USA, Norway and China Johnson et al. uncovered the influence of national context on the practices of school leaders. The comparative contexts of each country differed. The researchers examined the core leadership practices of each country and recognized that the leaders carefully considered the local, cultural context when choosing leadership strategies. It was reflected in the way they treated and involved teachers, parents and the larger community in their decisions (p.411). Thus, even though the focus of all principals, cross-nation, was students' learning,

they were influenced by and responded to the norms and larger national purposes. The US context reflected decentralized governance and high accountability, the Norwegian context revealed democratic values and democratic leadership and The Chinese context showed respect for authority and experience and top-down leadership style. The researchers underscored the role of varying ideological orientations and policy contexts. Successful principals were highly sensitive to their own local, national contexts (p.419). Thus, Johnson et al. conclude that when applying cross-national comparisons, one has to bear in mind the gap between theory and practice; the practices of educational leaders are socially constructed and contextually bound. Thereof, principals' daily practices are culturally negotiated, probably reflecting different value orientations and leadership priorities. In light of the findings, Johnson et al. maintain that the contextual conditions in which principals' function, may these be cultural, social or political, impact what is considered "successful" in a local educational structure.

3.8. The principal's identity and traits

In line with above describe, it is, thus, the day-to-day school routine and behaviors which by the end of the day, determine school outcomes, and these are no doubt influenced to a certain extent by the principal's identity and management and leadership traits.

The principal's personal identity is probably the most crucial factor affecting their practice and behavior. Who you are at the outset of your career as a school principal is what you bring to school and what is reflected at the school environmental context, namely the school community. It is a question whether one's personal identity can reconstruct and develop along their career and to what extent. However, undoubtedly one's professional identity develops and reconstructs, depending on a variety of contexts. Crow, Day and Møller (2017) suggest a framework to understanding principals' identity construction and development along their career. The authors argue that the construction of a school leadership identity is located in time and space. Further, emotions reflect complex identities which are bound in social hierarchies and social power and control. Synthesizing existing work in the field, Crow, Day and Møller focus on professional identity which is different from person identity or role identity. It is argued, that though a school principal's identity is negotiated over time it is also constrained within culture and context (p.266). Therefore,

it is acknowledged that gender, race, and other group factors also affect one's professional identity. Identity drives motivation and makes one take on and enact a role. The way principals experience their job and interpret their position is a matter of the position within broader structures. However, while doing their job, principals are likely to negotiate and thus construct or reconstruct their professional identity. Four contexts are presented: the personal (home and educational background), the community (family and staff), the institutional (the people in power and structural regularities, and the fourth the historical and social contexts. It is through interactions and actual behavior that the principals develop their professional identity. It is emphasized that the process of constructing one's identity is emotional and cognitive, that is affected by biographical contexts such as the local, cultural and policy. The narrative principals construct within the context of their school is affirmed, rejected, negotiated and revised with others.

3.8.1. The Psychological aspects affecting the principal

Liu & Bellibas (2018) address the importance of understanding of the principal's psychological conditions. Their study aims at investigating how school factors impact the principal's job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Liu and Bellibas compared these indicators across 32 countries to study how school factors impact principals. Results indicated that principal's attitudes towards the job and the school can be predicted based on several factors. It is argued that job satisfaction derives not only from how people feel about their job, but also from their experiences with the job. Based on available literature, the authors contend that there is variation of job satisfaction among principals according to race, experience and location. Additionally, extrinsic, and intrinsic aspects of the job can also impact job satisfaction. Reviewing the literature, Liu and Bellias conclude that school social capital, namely the dynamic relationship among staff, is an imperative element in building organizational capacity. Organizational commitment is defined by a three-component model: affective attitudes towards the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving it and obligation to remain with the organization. Complete school factors must be examined, as they all influence the work experience of a principal. The results indicated variance across countries and continents regarding job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the Asian employees were the least satisfied. Staff mutual

respect was found to be the most important factor accounting for the variation. Thus, Liu & Bellibas argue the importance of a positive climate among staff. Other factors such as school safety, school human resources, school management type and funding resource and school composition were also found as influencing job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

3.9. The practices of successful school leaders

Day (2005) asserts that successful principals are those who emphasize on people and processes rather than the outcomes, revealing passion for education, for their pupils and communities in their daily practices and they show increase in pupils' achievement over a period of time (p.573). The need to identify practices and processes in what has been termed 'exemplary schools' has been discussed by Hallinger et al. (1983). Already then, forty years ago, there was a notion of the factors believed to be characterizing effective schools. Yet, it was not clear how to translate these functions into actual practices and behaviors. Furthermore, at the time, there was no theoretical model available in order to be guided of a choice of behaviors. Thus, the gap between the theoretical grounds of what makes schools effective was not bridged but kept. Hallinger et al. who recognized this gap decided, based on Roland Edmonds, to deduce a functional set of principal practices and behaviors elaborating the general school effectiveness factors:

- A Strong administrative leadership
- A climate of high expectations of all students
- An orderly conducive instruction
- A norm emphasizing basic skills instruction over other school activities
- A system for monitoring student progress.

The suggested framework started with breaking down each dimension into a number of functions, which were then broken down into specific behaviors. Using the instructional leadership developed at the School Effectiveness Program the researchers outlined a three general dimensions:

- Defining the school's mission
- Managing curriculum and instruction

- Promoting a positive school learning climate (p.85).

Alongside the academic evolution of the principal's managerial and leading roles as reflected in the research field of Educational Management and Leadership, the role of the school principal changes and expands as more and more responsibilities are added to the profession (Clifford & Coggshall, 2021).

3.9.1. Professional standards for Educational Leaders

As society and therefore schools continue to transform, educational leaders are faced with additional challenges in their job (NPBEA, 2015). The National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) published a new Professional Standards for Educational Leaders. It is argued that the standards are the result of an extensive process that involved both researchers and school leaders thus it the standards are the result of research and practice-based understanding. The standards are of use to all levels of educational leadership and have been recast with focus on students and student learning.

There are ten standards suggested and organized around domains, qualities and values of leadership work that research and practice view as conducive to students' success:

1) Mission, Vision, and Core Values
2) Ethics and Professional Norms
3) Equity and cultural Responsiveness
4) Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment
5) Community of Care and Support for Students
6) Professional Capacity of School Personnel
7) Profession Community for Teachers and Staff
8) Meaningful Engagement of Families and Community
9) Operations and Management
10) School Improvement.

It is stated that those domains function as an interdependent system. Furthermore, the standards can be grouped in three clusters:

1) Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment and Community of Care and Support for Students

2) Professional Capacity of School Personnel, Profession Community for Teachers and Staff and Meaningful Engagement of Families and Community

3) Mission, Vision, and Core Values, Ethics and Professional Norms and Equity and cultural Responsiveness

The domain of school improvement affects all the clusters, which altogether construct the theory of how educational practice influences student achievement. The standards are to serve as a compass to guide direction of practice, but do not prescribe specific actions. It is acknowledged that it is the educational leadership that can best adapt them to actual day-to-day practices in the contexts of the individual school.

Clifford & Coggshall (2021) found that during the years 2020-2021 of the global pandemic crisis, principals had to change their priorities and responsibilities shifting from the important to the urgent. Thereof, even though the standards and priorities still provided the vision, the priorities given to standards changed, when principals spent more time on some of the standards and less on others. The four standards principals put in the front and spent more time on were:

1) Community of Care and Support for Students
2) Profession Community for Teachers and Staff
3) Meaningful Engagement of Families and Community
4) Operations and Management

The authors elaborate that principals identified two new areas of work they were not represented in the standards but were recognized that they roles expanded to and are here to stay:

1) Crises management
2) Social media and communications management

3.9.2. Leadership functions and allocation of time

Given that the principal's job responsibilities are clear, and principals are held accountable for school outcomes and school improvement, it is more than interesting to study how much of their time principals spend on leadership functions, leading instruction or managerial tasks. Huang, Hochbein, & Simons, (2020) studied how principals across different school contexts use their time. Their study attempted to find out if the principal's time use affects school climate and school achievements. Reviewing past studies, the researchers draw typical patterns in principals' work. As for the nature of the job, it is described as long hours, hectic, spontaneous, and unplanned. Many activities that dominate the workday are reactive. Further, the job is administration bound; principals have to allocate time to administrative tasks such as planning, gathering, sharing information, budgeting, hiring, scheduling and maintenance (p.307). Whereas the changing role of the principal requires principals to spend time on instructional leadership, principals rarely measure up to the ideal of instructional leadership. Based on meta-analytic literature, Huang, Hochbein, & Simons delineated 13 impactful leadership behaviors:

- Keeping an orderly atmosphere
- Ensuring that there are clear rules for student behavior
- Monitoring teachers' implementation of school goals
- Monitoring students' learning progress
- Promoting visions or goals
- Developing curricular and educational goals
- Creating a climate of trust among teachers
- Addressing disruptive student behaviors
- Initiating educational projects or improvements
- Initiating a discussion to help teachers who have problems in the classroom
- Advising teachers who have questions with teaching
- Participating in professional development activities for principals
- Visiting other schools or attending educational conferences for new ideas (p.313.)

Results indicated that American principals spent time on maintaining an orderly environment, promoting school goals and nurturing a climate of trust among teachers. Additionally, principals emphasized less on teacher mentoring and professional development for self and others (p.314).

Huang, Hochbein, & Simons characterized two groups of principals: eclectic principals vs. balanced principals. The eclectic principals spent a lot of time across all areas of activities, except visiting other schools and participating in professional development activities for principals. Balanced principals who were the majority of 71% of participants – divided their time differently across the set of leadership activities. The balanced group outperformed their counter group in math achievements. The researcher conclude that the enactment of instructional leadership takes more than simple organizational structural change. The influence of various situational factors such as socio-economic status, school size and level of parent involvement on leadership profiles was confirmed.

As Hargreaves (2012: 177) puts it,

"It doesn't matter how much bottom-up ferment there is in a system or how much lateral learning is occurring among teachers, principals, and schools – there will always be an imperative for excellent leadership at the top."

3.9.3. Attributes of excellent leaders

The on-going academic discussion over the current/updated 'right' or 'preferred' leadership style best opted for improving school outcomes and leading change, by the end of the day, as Hargreaves stated (ibid) it is imperative but also essential to have an excellent leader at the top. As has been discussed in this chapter there is no one 'Excellent Leader" recipe to copy-paste across cultures, states and educational systems. However, based on voluminous literature and studies of excellent leaders, there are recurrent patterns of functions and practices to be learnt from and adapt to one's school, such traits that can be traced among those who are considered excellent leaders.

Fullan (2002) contends that there is a set of attributes, which cut across effective leaders. These attributes do not involve *charisma or saint like virtues* (p.17), rather they are accessible and can be learnt. Fullen argues, though, that it requires hard work and many

years to develop leaders. Fullan compared educational organizations with successful businesses and found that leaders across all organizations shared a core of actions and mind sets. Other leader characteristic Fullan recognized are hope (optimism), enthusiasm and energy. Successful leaders tend to engage others with their energy and are energized by the activities and performances of the group. Fullan further identified that leaders have a strong sense of moral purpose, an understanding of the dynamics of change, an emotional intelligence, a commitment to developing and sharing knowledge and a capacity for coherence making.

Following Goleman's et al. (2002) consolidated work on leaders' personal competence, Fullan stresses the importance of emotional competence among leaders as reflected in the following domains:

- Self-awareness
- Self-management
- Social competence
- Social awareness
- Relationship management (p.15)

Fullan also adopts Hay's (2000) characteristics of effectiveness:

- Drive and Confidence
- Vision and Accountability
- Influencing tactics and politics
- Thinking styles (i.e.: the whole picture) (p.16)

It is stated that developing and sustaining teamwork is the greatest challenge to carry out. Further, Fullan recognizes a number of personal characteristics that refer to the spiritual domain such as innocence, curiosity, compassion, emotional maturity and courage. Fullan sums up, suggesting five interrelated themes that have simultaneously cause and effect properties:

- Opportunity and depth of learning
- Policies for individual development
- Learning in context and "systemness"

- Leadership succession and leader at many levels
- Improving the teaching profession

3.10. School Leadership for school improvement: the role of school leaders in promoting school outcomes

Based on literary evidence, Leithwood et al. (2010) offer a conceptualization of strategic orientation to school leadership for school improvement, drawing four paths along which the influence of successful leadership flow: the Rational, Emotional, Organizational and Family paths. It is argued that effective leadership should simultaneously attend to all variables with each of the paths. The model proposed call school principals to rethink their work plan in the direction of influencing directly on what the students learn. Thus, without underestimating or dismissing the role of teachers as instructional agents, the model proposes other paths of improving students' outcomes, identifying the principal '*typically the only people in schools in position to stimulate improvements*' (p.27), directly affecting students' achievements.

Pashiardis & Johansson (2021) examined perspectives of successful and effective leadership as well as successful and effective schools in an effort to study the governance interventions and influence which lead to one or the other characterization. The researchers draw a distinction between the terms successful and effective, not being a substitute to one another. In the view of Pashiardis & Johanssons' 'successful' is an inclusive term, which embrace 'effective' and is more about the processes for achieving the desired results. 'Effective' is more about obtaining the results. According to Pashiardis & Johansson, the community of school leadership researchers have used the two terms interchangeably. It is argued that a combination of both 'successful' and 'effective" should be in focus in order to create in the long run a sustainable leadership to improve schools. It is potentially, the right path to choose, with the growing repertoire of role and responsibilities principals have to carry out being pedagogical, entrepreneurial and leading the school vision and structures all at the same time. (p.691). Furthermore, Pashiardis & Johansson point out that there is a variety of leadership models and frameworks, but their choice is more a holistic one; the Pashiardis and Brauckmann Holistic Leadership Framework (Pashiardis, 2014). It is a hybrid model, of which the center piece is the Leadership Radius, which is the action area

of the school leader. This action area is manifested when school leaders perform their duties through five main styles of leadership: the instructional style, the structuring style, participative style, the entrepreneurial style, and personnel development.

The authors go against the notion of *'a best practice and best achievement suitable for all'* (p.700). They claim that what is valued as best education is politically and values driven. Pashiardis & Johanssons conceptualize a few concluding remarks about successful leaders, successful schools and the interplay between context and the various actors at the school level. Successful leaders are:

1) 'contextually literate', aware of the broader context in the internal and external school environment and act accordingly to meet their students' needs.
2) instructional/pedagogical leaders who affect the quality of teaching and learning.
3) distributing leaders within their school regardless of context. They build collaborative structures within school ad outside school.
4) values-driven and trust-driven. They share asset of values they believe in and communicate them to others.
5) aware of the need to strive for quality with the understanding that equality does not mean the same for all, since that quality and equality are sometimes conflicting goals. (pp. 701-702).

Reflecting on 25 years of research, Gurr & Drysdale (2020) discuss three areas of research on school leadership that matters: successful school leadership, middle level leadership and leadership in context. The researchers propose a model of system leadership view with overlaps and complex, reciprocal relationships. Based on a synthesis of findings confirming that leadership and context are a reciprocal influence, Gurr & Drysdale (pp.58-59) argue that successful school leaders seem to be less constrained by context, being adaptive and reflective, capable of learning from their practice and experience to manifest school success.

Additionally, the researchers make use of a three impact levels conception, moving from the least direct impact on student outcomes (level 3) to the direct impact (level 1):

- Context (level 3 impact): family and external contexts the leaders have to respond to and influence
- Leadership (level 2 impact): emphasis on the capacity building of teachers and staff in the school
- Teaching and learning (level 1 impact): the main areas of teaching and learning in the school, with focus on success rather than effectiveness.

Gurr & Drydsale thus summarize some of the characteristics of successful leaders with regard to contexts:

- Remain optimistic about the future in cases of insurmountable obstacles.
- Contextually sensitive, able to develop and apply appropriate strategic interventions to meet the needs of students and community.
- Adaptable to changing circumstances.
- Occasionally influence the external context to better meet the needs of their school.
- Sufficiently agile to meet the new demands and circumstances to provide quality education (p.59).

Day, Gu & Sammons (2016) illustrate that the abilities of schools to improve and sustain effectiveness are not primarily the result of principals' leadership style, but of their understanding and diagnosis of the school, the way they clearly articulate organizationally shared values and the time and context-sensitive strategies embedded in the school's work, culture and achievement. Results drawn from a 3-year mixed methods national study enabled the researchers to identify patterns and common strategies used by principals of effective and improved schools in England. The principals

- measured success at the level school and at the broader educational purposes
- were not charismatic or heroic, however possessed common values and traits, such as clarity of vision, determination, responsiveness, courage, openness, fairness
- were respected and trusted internally and externally, in building relational and organizational trust
- built the leadership capacities of colleagues through the distribution of responsibility with accountability

- emphasized on creating a range of learning and development opportunites for staff and students
- used data, research, evidence and observations as tools
- combined and accumulated both transformational and instructional leadership strategies

Day, Gu & Sammons conclude that success is related to the principals' judgements about what can work in their school, as applied through the combination and accumulation of a number of strategies. Thus, the principals' personal qualities are more important as key to enabling success, than any single paradigm model of leadership.

Hitt and Meyers (2018) indicate that there is increasing evidence supporting the importance of school leadership on student achievement. Furthermore, there is ample evidence how leaders indirectly influence student achievement. The role of leadership is more accentuated in cases of struggling low-performing schools. Thus, Hitt and Meyers argue that given the prominent role of leadership in student achievement, a counter assumption is required that in low-performing schools, a low performing leadership was unable to generate positive outcomes. However, there is lack of theoretical an empirical knowledge of sustained improvement practices in the lowest-performing schools. Hitt and Meyers contend that though turnaround (a rapid and dramatic improvement in a school, p.7) is necessary it is also insufficient towards continuous growth and sustained change. Thus, the authors yield a synthesis based on available literature, for leaders of sustained improvement in previously low-performing schools, suggesting an integrated new framework that includes a new set of practices and domains that have been shown to impact student achievement. One area that emerged associated with effective leadership practices moving towards distributed leadership and the practices is associated with garnering others outside of the formal authority for decision-making and responsibility. Thus, principals are advised to transition towards more of a collaborative and inclusive approach. Another domain called attention to is transforming the organization by engaging and motivating teachers to maintain commitment to the organization's work.

3.10.1. The impact of principals on students and schools

In 2021 the Wallace foundation published a report that was based on two decades of research on the impact of effective principals on student achievement and other important school outcomes such as teacher satisfaction and retention, student attendance and reduction in exclusionary discipline (Grissom, Egalite, & Lindsay, 2021). The systematic review picks up the Wallace 2004 review of school leadership that famously reported that "leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school" (Leithwood et al. 2004, p.5).

The 2021 report asks three main questions:

1) How has the principalship changed over the two past decades?
2) How much do principals contribute to student achievement and other school outcomes?
3) What drives principals' contributions, namely, what are effective principals' characteristics, skills and behaviors?

The authors conclude that it is rather impossible to come up with a better investment in K-12 education, than the investment in improving school leadership.

Three main changes in the shifting landscapes of principalship are documented:

1) The principalship has become markedly more female.
2) Principals' experience has fallen in average, especially in high need schools
3) Racial and ethnic diversity in school leadership has moved only slightly, creating growing racial and ethnic gaps between the principals and the students (p.xii).

The effect of principals on students is indirect, enacted through their effect on teachers, via the conditions for teaching and learning they create. The authors add that the effectiveness of the principal is more important than that of a single teacher's since the principal affects the whole school and the single teacher one class/es they teach. Moreover, the report indicates that replacement of an under average performing principal with an above average performing principal would result in an additional 2.9 months of math learning 2.7 months of reading learning each year for students in a school. Additionally, the researchers contend

that the identity of the principal affects others aspects of school such as reduction in absenteeism rates and exclusionary rates. The report identifies three overlapping realms of skills required for the successful principal: people, instruction and the organization. These skills are manifested in four classes of leadership behaviors that would produce positive school's outcomes:

- Engaging in instructional focused interaction with teachers
- Building a productive school climate
- Facilitating productive collaboration and professional learning communities
- Managing personnel and resources strategically

Three leadership practices and policies have not been supported by evidence:

- "unproductive" classroom walk-throughs
- Post observation feedback checklists
- Licensure examinations

A recent conceptual paper by Tubin & Farchi (2021) introduced a successful school principal (SSP) explanatory model that is based on 13 years of involvement in the ISSPP study. The model comprises of three cyclical phases that explain cause-effect relationship with intervention points to promote school improvement towards success:

Phase 1: organizational restructuring of school routines: the school schedule and the tracking system

Phase 2: shaping the school as a learning environment as reflected in the school values and priorities as reflected in behaviors

Phase 3: achieving the school legitimacy as reflected in the school values and priorities

It was found that although the principal's influence is indirect it is crucial, as the principal is the key player leading the process. Moreover, the authors point out they are not interested in studying the direct/indirect impact of the principals but are interested in the steps they take towards developing the organization. The principal's actions and behaviors reflect their own values and then establish the school values, climate and culture. Thus, for example, appointing middle managers in school, based on professional abilities would be

a behavior of a successful principals, whereas a less successful principal might appoint "loyal" middle managers and overload them with responsibilities they are unable to handle (p.64). Importantly, Tubin and Farchi put forward that less successful principals are no less devoted or hard working as successful principals. Less successful principals have difficulties in leading people, they show low self-awareness and limited system thinking.

Tubin and Farchi underscore that whereas in the literature there are available definitions of a principal's success, school success is more complicated to define. Countries around the world set different set of criteria for successful school. In Israel, for example, high schools are ranked by the matriculation exams rate and the scores required to attend higher education institutions (p.57).

Successful Israeli principals shared same set of practices successful principals in other countries: building a vision and setting direction, developing people, shaping the organization, and managing the teaching and learning program. However, the hierarchical order and prioritizing within the set of practices changes among different principals.

Furthermore, the researchers reinforce that a principal should focus first on restructuring and maintain the core routines at school. Some of Tubin and Farchis' findings indicated that low performing schools had broken routine structures.

Chapter 4:   Methodological Assumptions of the Research

4.1.   Purpose Statement

With the growth of recognition in the role of MM within school leadership since the 1990's (see for example: Spillane et al., 2002, Gamrawi, 2013, Gurr, & Drysdale, 2013, Harris, & Jones, 2017, De Nobile, 2018, Day & Grice, 2019, Lipscombe, Tindall-Ford, & Grootenboer, 2020, Tang, Bryant, & Walker, 2022), still, little is known about the perceptions of principals of the actual role of MMs in school management and leadership. Interestingly, despite the growing interest in the role middle managers play in promoting school change and outcomes, heretofore, much lesser is known about the perceptions of MMs of their role as part of school management. This research, thus, aims at studying the perceptions of both high-school principals and MMs about their role in school management.

Thereof, the purpose of this research is to study and analyze the perceptions of Israeli high school[6] principals on the role of middle managers (MM)[7] in school management. Additionally, the perceptions of MMs of their role will also be studied and analyzed in order compare and correlate the perceptions of the two groups. This to derive both cognitive and practical objectives, to add data to the existing body of knowledge of middle managers and middle managements in general and more specifically MMs in Israel. Further, this research aims at studying what constitutes middle managements in Israeli high schools, how they function, and the perceptions of principals and MMs of their role of MMs in the school management. Based on the data collected, this research will attempt to provide practical recommendations, that might be conducive to both principals and policymakers, how to realize the enormous potential MMs have on the school as a whole.

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[6] In general, when not explained specifically otherwise, 'high school' refers to grades 7-12.

[7] In this dissertation, Middle Managers (MMs) are teachers responsible for an aspect of schoolwork that lead staff/have line management responsibilities for other staff.

4.2. Objectives of research

This research is rooted in the field of educational leadership and management which often time overlaps with the field of education policy. The subject of this study is *The Perceptions of Israeli High School Principals of the role of Middle Managers in School Management".*

Objectives of this research are both cognitive and practical.

Cognitive Objectives:

1. to identify and describe school principals' perceptions on the role of middle level management (MM) in the school management.
2. to identify and describe the perceptions of middle level management representatives of their role in school management.
3. to research and describe the structures of middle managements in Israeli high schools and their practices in schools.

The practical objective:

To suggest recommendations for principals and policy makers how to realize the potential of middle managers in schools.

4.3. Research Questions, Hypotheses, Variables and Indicators

Two research questions led to and guided this research:

1. What are principals' perceptions of the role of MM in school management?
2. How do MM perceive their role at school?

Each research question was further broken down into sub-questions that helped study the subject.

Research question #1: What are principals' perceptions of the role of MM in school management?

1.1 Which tasks do principals assign to MM?

1.2 What areas of schoolwork do principals delegate to MM?

1.3 What competence expectations do principals have of MM?

1.4 How do principals design the collaboration with their MM?

1.5 How do principals support MMs in carrying out their tasks?

1.6 How do principals share power at school?

Research Question #2: How do MM perceive their role at school?

2.1 What tasks and roles do respondents perform in their schools being a MM?

2.2 What importance do respondents give to their role in the school?

2.3 How do respondents assess their preparation for their role as MMs?

2.4 What competence resources do respondents find useful in carrying out MM tasks?

2.5 What deficits do respondents perceive in their competence resources in the context of the performance of MM tasks?

2.6 What needs for professional development are declared by the respondents?

2.7 How do the respondents assess their cooperation with other school stakeholders?

2.8 How do MMs assess their role with the students' parents?

Due to the diagnostic nature of the research, two research hypotheses were proposed:

Research Hypothesis #1:

A positive correlation will be found between the perception of principals of the role of MMs in school management and principals' expectations, roles, tasks, support and power share of their MMs.

Research Hypothesis #2:

There will be differences in the role perceptions of principals and MMs in certain aspects of the school role construct and role perception.

Dependent and independent variables were distinguished in the research. The independent variable is the job title: school principal or middle manager. The dependent variable analyzed is the perception of the role of middle managers in the school management process in the following areas:

- Roles, tasks and responsibilities of MMs
- Necessary competence skills, Competence expectations, competence resources
- Necessity of managerial skills
- Professional development (PD): preparation for the role, on training PD
- The principal's support: collaboration, shared decision-making, power sharing.

Indicators are inferential and are respondents' own statements.

4.4.   Method of Research

The research was conducted using the diagnostic survey method, which allows data to be collected on socially dispersed phenomena in larger populations. This method was chosen as adequate to both the research subject and the research problems. The survey technique was used. Two diagnostic questionnaires were designed, one for the principals and one for MMs. The questionnaire surveys were then administered to Israeli high school principals (both junior high and high school principals) and MMs.

To study the two research questions, each questionnaire was first analyzed separately. Then, the two questionnaires were compared and correlated, to examine possible gaps in perceptions between the two groups and to gain insights from the data.

4.5.   The perception of the role of MM: Constructing the survey questionnaires

The two questionnaires were designated by the researcher, based on two documents that had been published by Avney Rosha, The Israel Institute for School leadership. The first document that constituted the theoretical foundation of the questionnaires is a report (Avney Rosha, 2008) that was submitted to the MOE by a professional committee, titled" Perception of the Principal's Role in the State of Israel". The report that was initiated by the MOE, delineated a conceptual and practical framework that aimed at defining the role

of school principal and thus illustrated the perception of the principal's role. Constructing the questionnaires and selecting the items based on another document by Avney Rosha (2010)," *Expected outcomes from school principals at the start of their career"*. The document proposed the expected outcomes of principals at their inception years of the job, as detailed in table 2 below:

Table 2: The Expected Outcomes of Principals at their Inception Years of the Job (Avney Rosha, 2010)

Suitability for the job	Performance	Evaluation of the job	Initiatives undertaken/launched
Serves as school ambassador	Cooperates and works to promote processes in school	Lead staff	Initiates activities
Identifies with school's norms and values	Mediates/screens the management's decisions among staff	Takes active part in school's strategic thinking	Responds to emerging needs of staff and students and initiates solutions
Resilient – copes with pressure and demands	Implements school's pedagogic approach	Wins recognition for work from faculty, students and parents	
Committed to school success	Nurtures a positive climate of learning	Promotes and nurture positive relations with students, parents and teachers	
Motivation for the job	Attends to school needs and takes responsibility		
	Runs day-to-day successful functioning		

Thereof, based on literary evidence that unfolded the significant contribution of MMs to school improvement and their role in promoting students' outcomes, it was decided, to investigate the perception of the role of MMs on the same scale of expected outcomes from principals, even though they are not principals. Thus, to gain a comprehensive overview of the role and practices of MMs and thereof to be able to thoroughly study the perceptions of both the principals and the MMs, items in the questionnaires used in this research were designated based on the following criteria:

- Suitability for the job: Is it the right man/woman in the right place?
- Performance: What he/she does in their role as a MM?

- Evaluation of the job: How he/she perform the role?
- Initiatives undertaken/launched by the MM: Does he/she possess the leader's quality?

The principals' questionnaire consisted of eighteen (18) questions and six (6) personal background questions. The MMs' questionnaire consisted of twenty-one (21) questions and nine (9) personal background questions. Questions in both questionnaires were selected following above criteria. Primarily, respondents were asked to respond/rank statements using a 4–5-point scale. Additionally, in most questions, respondents had the option of providing an open-ended answer. Most items on the questionnaires were comprised of a few statements. The scores given by respondents were statistically analyzed, compared, and correlated to derive insights and conclusions.

4.6. Distribution of Survey Questionnaires

Questionnaires were randomly distributed online via links to Google forms to junior high and high school principals and MMs. Respondents filled out the questionnaires anonymously. Personal background was collected for statistical analysis. Eighty-nine (89) principals' and a hundred thirty-three (133) MMs' responses were collected. It is noteworthy that over 150 questionnaires were sent to principals with a personal request to fill out the questionnaire, however, all in all, 89 questionnaires were collected.

4.6.1. Breakdown analysis of the population of Principals

Among principals 41.6% were males (N=37) and 58,4% were females (N=52). 93.3% of principals (N=83) held M.A. degree, 4.5% (N=4) held a degree of PhD. The average number of years of teaching among the principals was M=25.25 years (SD=6.35) with the minimum teaching experience of 9 years and the longest work experience as a teacher of 38 years. 46,1% (N=41) of principals were 7-12 grades principals. 29.2% were Junior high principals (7-9 grades), (N=26). 14.6% of respondents were 9-12 grades principals (N=13) and 5.6% were 10-12 grades principals (which is formally considered by the ministry of education as a deputy and not a principal (N=5). 79.8% of the principals belonged to the general Jewish sector (N=71). 12.4% belonged to the non-Jewish sector (N=11) and 7.9% belonged to the religious sector (N=7). Four (4) other principals belonged to unique

versions of schools: one principal was the head of a grade 1-12 school, two others were principals of Technological high schools (usually, schools for youth at risk) and one principal was the head of a high school and college school, where 12th grade graduate continue to complete diploma of practical engineering.

Approaching MMs was done either personally, or via professional acquaintances. Furthermore, when a principal was asked to send the questionnaire to their MMs, they were explained what a MM was referred to as, namely, any team member who is responsible for an aspect of the schoolwork and who leads staff members, what is often time called in Israel extended school management.

4.6.2. Breakdown analysis of the population of MMs

Among MMs 22.6% were males (N=30) and 77.4% were females (N=103). 23.3% of MMs held a B.A. degree, (N=31), 73.7% held M.A. degree, (N=98), 0.8% held a degree of PhD (N=1), 2.3% (N=3) held other certificates. The average number of years of teaching among the MMs was 20.5 years (SD=10.22) with the minimum teaching experience of 2 years and the longest work experience as a teacher of 46 years. 98% of the MMs belonged to the general Jewish sector (N=99), One MM belonged both to a Jewish and non-Jewish schools (N=1).

Out of 133 MMs respondents 35% (N=47) were subject coordinators, 16.5% (N=22) were pedagogical coordinators, 7% (N=9) were councilors.

MMs respondents were asked to report their line-manager, their direct manager. 86.5% of total gathered responses can be categorized while the rest of responses were scattered and not organized. For example, 4 respondents reported a subject coordinator as their line manager. Interestingly, 19% (N=25) did not mention they had a line manager which might be interpreted in twofold: either they do not know who their line manager is, or no one has been appointed to this role. 35% of participants (N=47) reported the school principal as their line-manager, 16.5% (N=22) reported the Junior high principal. 9% (N=12) reported the pedagogical coordinator as their line manager. It should be noted that the pedagogical coordinator is the line manager and in charge of the subject coordinators. 7% of MMs respondents reported the high school principal (in charge of 10-12 grades) was their direct

manager. It should be remarked, that in Israel only Junior high school (in charge of 7-9 grades) and High school principals (in charge of 7-12 grades, including the principals of 7-9 grades) are formal principals, nominated by the MOE. Thus, high school principals (in charge of 10-12), are regarded as deputies and not principals by the MOE. This reality further complicates the issue of what constitutes Middle Managements in Israeli schools and leaves principals with ambiguity as well as freedom and creativity about their Middle Managements in general and Middle Managers in particular.

Chapter 5: Principals' Perceptions of the Role of MMs in School Management

5.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the results gathered in this research that correspond to research question #1: What are principals' perceptions of the role of MMs in school management? It was hypothesized that a positive correlation would be found between the perception of principals of the role of MMs in school management and Principal's' expectations, roles, tasks, support and power share of their MMs.

Based on the sub-questions that helped studying the subject, the chapter is organized as follows:

5.1 Introduction

5.2 MMs' roles Principals consider to be a part of their school MM

5.3 MMs' tasks and responsibilities

5.4 Principals' perceptions of competence expectations of MMs

      5.4.1 Principals' perceptions of necessity of managerial skills

      5.4.2 Principals prioritizing expected competencies

5.5 Competence resources to assist MMs perform and succeed in their role

5.5.1 Principals designing collaboration with their MMs

      5.5.2 Principals' support of their MMs in carrying out their role

5.6 Designing collaboration by decision-making frameworks to build capacity and enhance visibility of MMs at school

5.7 Power share at School

5.2.   MMs' roles Principals consider to be a part of their school MM:

There are seven roles that are reported by most principals in this research to be included in the school middle management (MM) in Israeli high schools:

1) Pedagogical coordinator

2) Grade coordinator

3) Subject coordinator

4) Counselor

5) Social education coordinator

6) Assessment and evaluation coordinator

7) Inclusion and integration coordinator

Each of aforementioned roles was reported by more than 50% of the principals as follows: pedagogical coordinator 92.1%, grade coordinator 91%, subject coordinator 83%, counselor 67.4%, social education coordinator 59.6%. Slightly more than 50% of principals reported the roles of assessment and evaluation coordinator (51.7%) and inclusion and integration coordinator (50.6%) as roles they consider part of their MMs.

It needs to be explained here that all these roles are formal roles in Israeli Junior high and High schools, as defined by the Ofek Hadash and Oz La'Tmura (Geva et al., 2016), the two state reforms. Additionally, all these roles are rewarded by the MOE. Thus, having these roles at school does not imply the principal's inclination to have them at school as a part of a pedagogic agenda. However, in the question, principals were asked to tick the roles they consider to be their middle management. Chart 1[8] below shows the principals' reports.

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[8] All charts in chapters 5-6-7-8 are the researcher's elaboration and choice of representation of results of this research (author's own research).
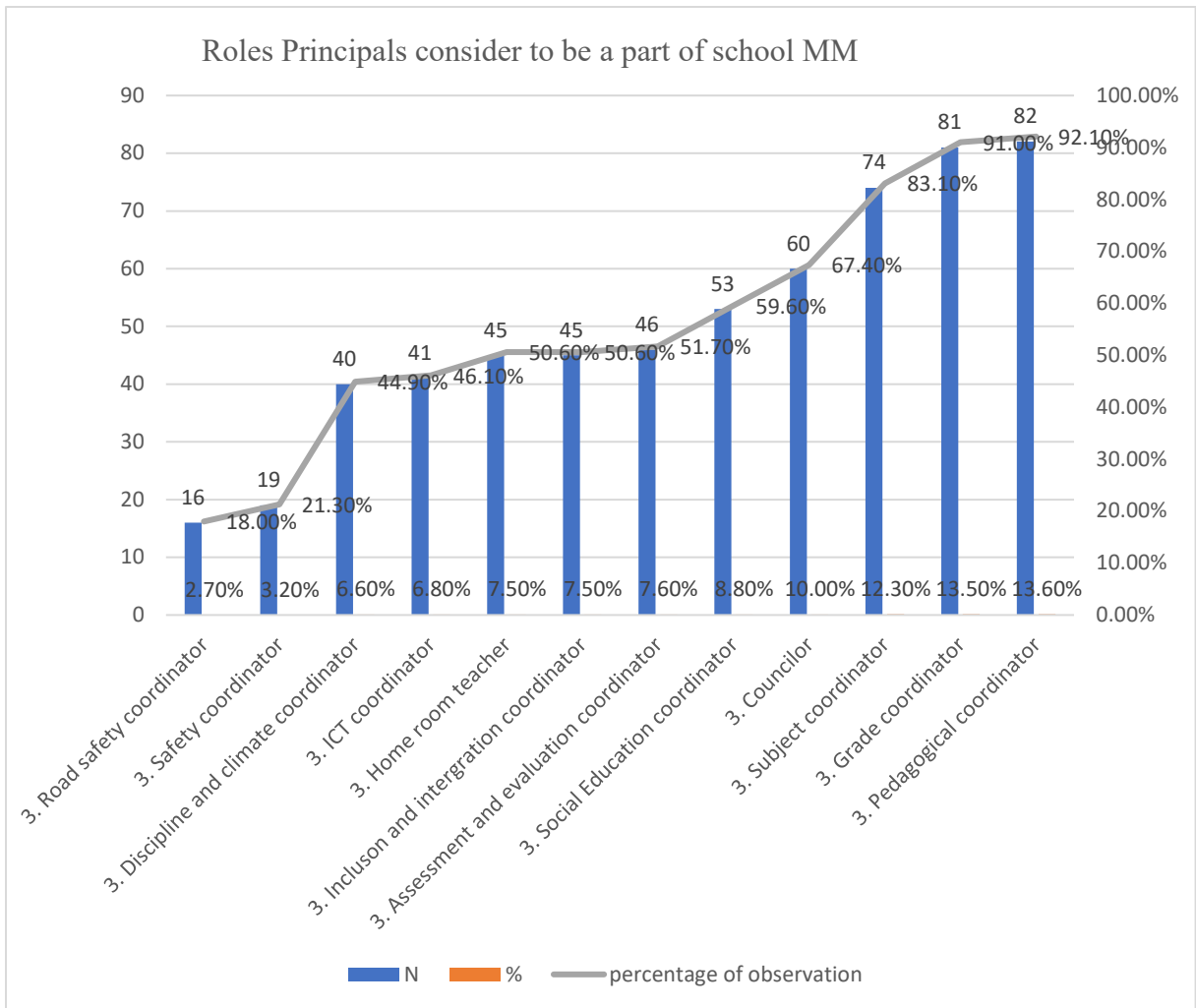
Chart 1: Roles Principals consider to be a part of school MM

Thus, the official roles as dictated by the MOE are the foundations of constructing the school management [9] . Furthermore, any other roles, not offered and rewarded/paid by the MOE actually reflect the principal's pedagogical agenda. Such roles, not mentioned in Diagram 1 above, were mentioned as '*other'*, by the principals.

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[9] MMs in Israel are commonly also homeroom teachers. However, homeroom teachers are not necessarily MMs. Thus, for the purposes of this research the data of "Homeroom teacher" is excluded from calculations and descriptions.

A wide range of "other "roles principals consider part of the school MM reflect the possibilities and the variance among school middle managements. Some examples of roles principals reported are:

- Youth at risk coordinator
- Student council coordinator
- Special education coordinator
- Learning disabilities coordinator
- New Teachers' mentor
- PD coordinator
- Human resources coordinator
- Schedule and timetable coordinator
- Pluralism coordinator
- Inclusion and integration coordinator
- Matriculation coordinator
- Educational coordinator
- Marketing coordinator
- School ambassador

To sum up, it is markedly clear that at the basis of a school management there are some central roles initiated by the MOE and reflect the macro goals of the MOE on a national level. Whatever other roles are subsumed in what principals report to be their school MM, primarily reflect the principal's agenda and priorities at school.

5.3.   MMs' tasks and responsibilities: Principals' reports of expected tasks and responsibilities:

Principals' perceptions of competence expectations of their MMs are probably shaped by the school needs which often times are also a response to policy makers demands. The literature indicates that in recent times increasing number of responsibilities are bestowed upon MMs, demanding more tasks from MMs in different role domains (De Nobile, 2021). Results of this research adhere to the literature.

Chart 2 below presents the principals' reports regarding their MMs' expected tasks and responsibilities. As can be observed, eight tasks and responsibilities were reported as expected by MMs by more than 90% of the principals: Manage a staff of teachers, comply with school policy, sustain school regulation, liaising with parents, assist staff members professionally, set and conduct weekly staff meetings, operate team/stage/students/routine and take part in school management meeting. It is worth recalling that all these expected tasks and responsibilities are supposedly to be performed within a highly limited time allocated to the role and in addition to teaching classes which consumes most of the time of MMs. This sets an almost impossible mission for MMs.
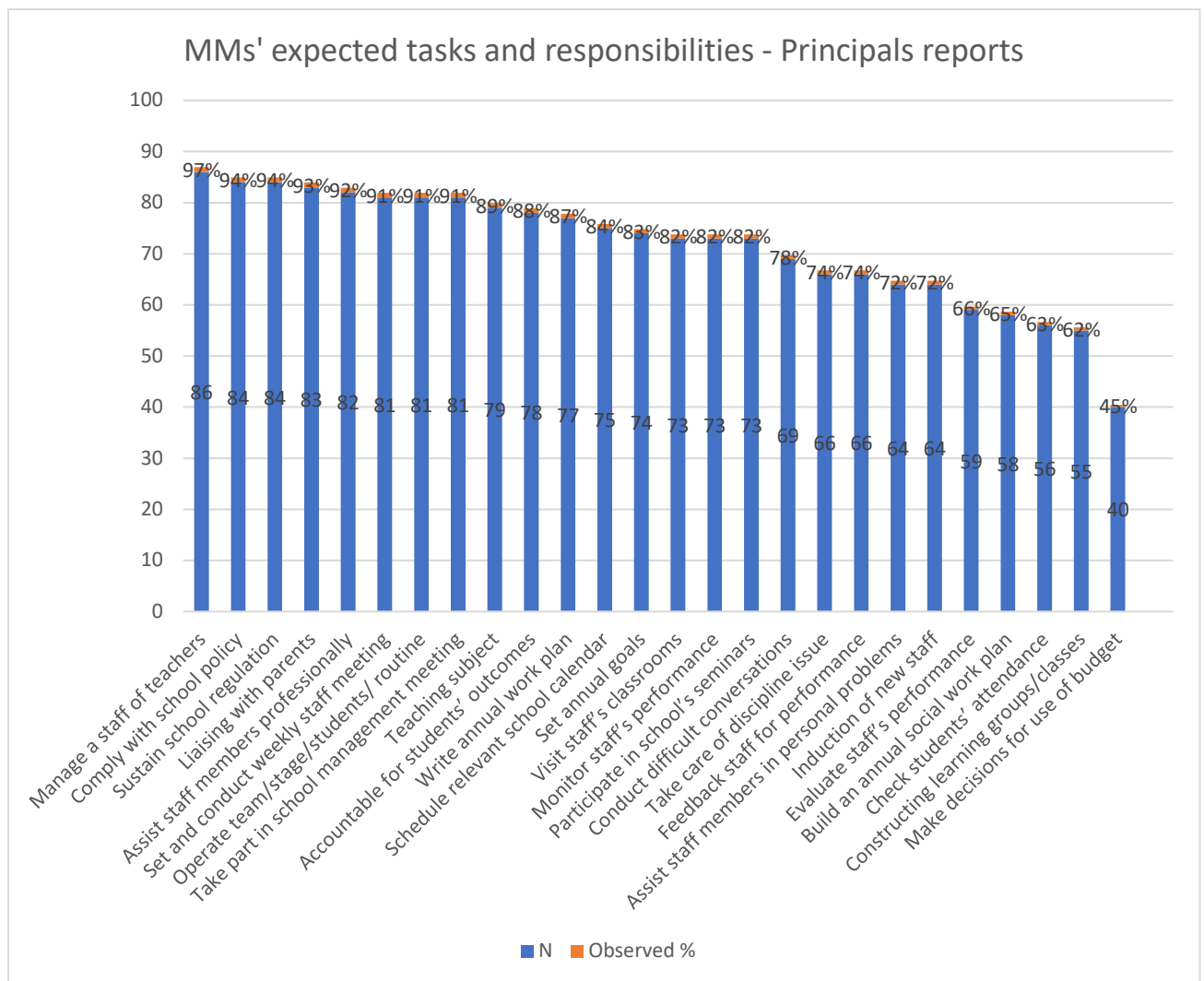
Chart 2: Principals reports of MMs' expected tasks and responsibilities

The lowest calculated task/responsibility was *make decisions for use of budget*, which was reported as an expected responsibility by only 44.9% of respondent (N=40). In light of this finding, it is worth mentioning that White (1992) proposed that involving teachers in budgeting is a way to empower teachers.

5.4.   Principals' perceptions of competence expectations of MMs

Findings shown in chart 3 below reveal that except for '*making decisions regarding budgeting* '(M=2.71, SD=1) principals have great competence expectations from their MMs. Above all principals expect MMs to be able to *'promote the school vision and its goals'* (M=4.19, SD=0.721), *'mediate SMT to the teachers'* (M=4.18, SD=0.777) and '*have managerial ability'* (M=4.17, SD=0.801). The next two most necessary competence expectations principals have of their MMs are '*being ambassadors of the school to parents and other external stakeholders'* (M=4.09, SD=1.018) and *'promote students' learning'* (M=4.09, SD=0.717).
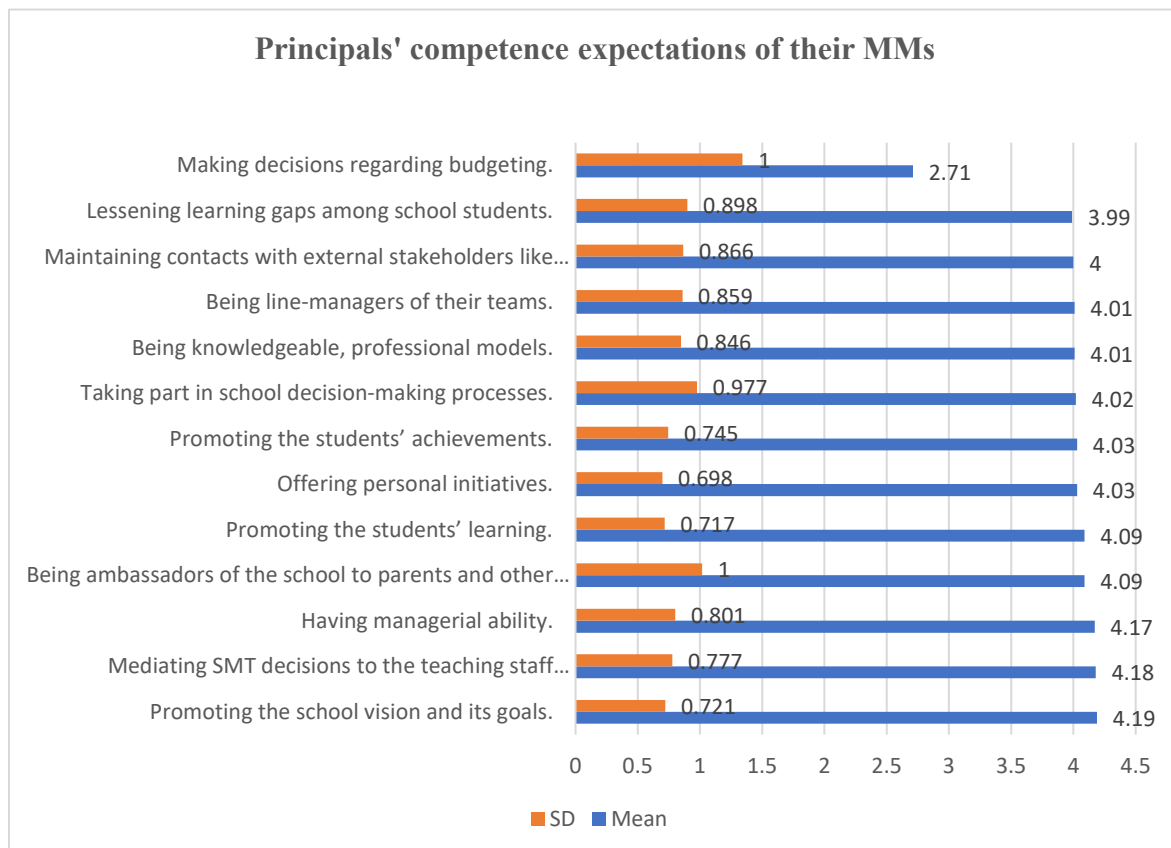
Chart 3: Principals' competence expectations of their MMs

It is suggested to understand the competence expectations that are necessary for the roles of MMs as expectations of responsibilities, tasks and abilities. It appears that principals expect their MMs to have certain abilities, take responsibilities and perform tasks. Table 3 below proposes a way to understand the principals' competence expectations of their MMs.

Table 3: Break Down of Competence Expectations (Source: author's own elaboration)

Responsibilities	Tasks	Abilities
Promoting the school vision and its goals.	Mediating SMT decisions to the teaching staff (teachers).	Having managerial ability.
Being ambassadors of the school to parents and other external stakeholders.	Being ambassadors of the school to parents and other external stakeholders.	Offering personal initiatives.
Taking part in school decision-making processes.	Being line-managers of their teams.	Making decisions regarding budgeting.
Promoting the students' learning.	Promoting the students' achievements.	Being knowledgeable, professional models.
Lessening learning gaps among school students.	Maintaining contacts with external stakeholders like parents.	

In addition, it is worth elaborating on the recurring finding of budgeting, being the least expected competence from MMs. If principals expect their MMs to be competent of so many responsibilities and tasks, then why is making decision regarding budgeting not a required one? It may be a matter of power share. When principals are theoretically asked about their expectations, they seem to report their ideal thoughts, however, when it turns to materializing ideas, they are much less decisive, stating that their MMs are not expected to deal with budgeting.

5.4.1. Principals' perceptions of necessity of managerial skills

As part of the study of the principals' perceptions of the competence expectation they have of their MMs, principals were asked about their perceptions of the necessary managerial skills they believed were helpful and required for their MMs in order to succeed in performing their role. Chart 4 below shows the results. As can be seen in chart 4 the

principals think that there are two managerial skills that their MMs need primarily. The two skills ranked the same mean score: *Coordinating* (M=3.78, SD=0.765), *Planning* (M=3.78, SD=0.703). The next managerial skill required according to the principals is *Implementing the school pedagogic approach* (M=3.55, SD=1.118).
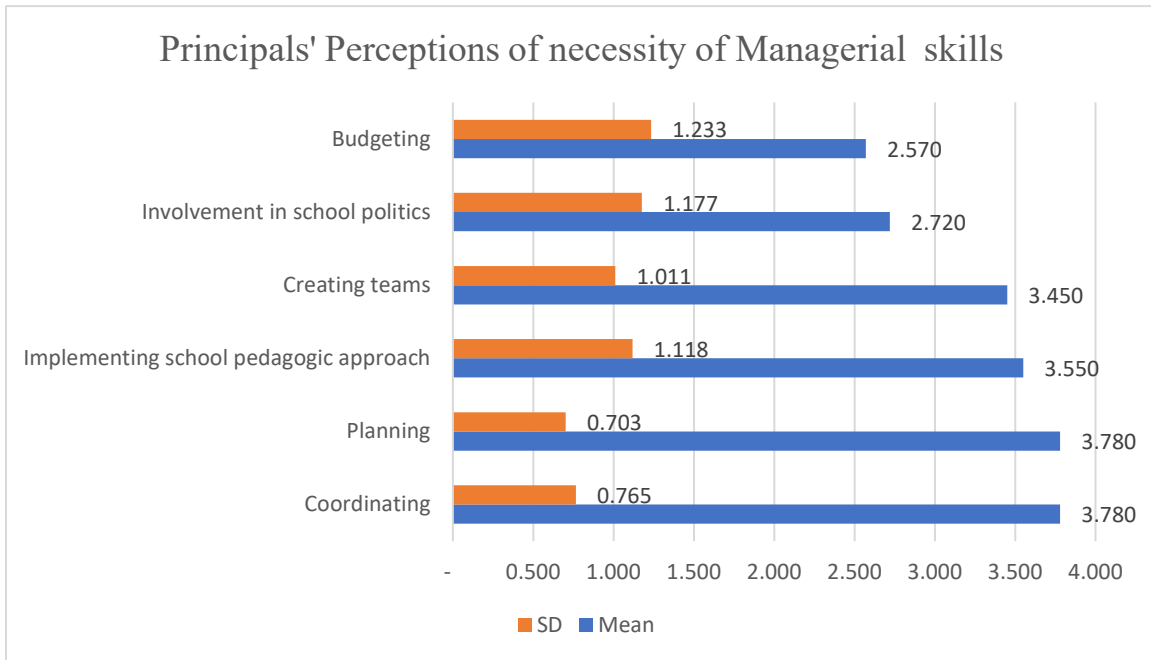
Chart 4: Principals' Perceptions of necessity of Managerial skills

Repeatedly, the least necessary managerial skill for their MMs is *Budgeting* (M=2.57, SD=1.223). It is noteworthy to deliberate the high rate of SD (=1.233) which implies differentiation among respondents. Additionally, *Involvement in school politics* is the second least required managerial skill in the principals' view (M=2.72, SD=1.177).

5.4.2. Principals prioritizing expected competencies

Except from reporting the expected competencies necessary to carry out the roles of their MMs successfully, it seemed essential to ask principals to rank these in a priority order, to learn more accurately about their perceptions.

Chart 5 below shows principals' priorities in detail. Findings indicate that the top priority competence principals expect from their MMs is '*Managing ability*' (M=4.48, Md.=5, Dominant=5) and '*Charism*' (M=2.94, Md.=3, Dominant=4). For all three other competencies surveyed, namely. '*Continuous professional development* '(M=2.55),

'*Academic ability*' (M=2.54 and *'Disciplinary expertise'* (M=2.48) The dominant figure found was 3.
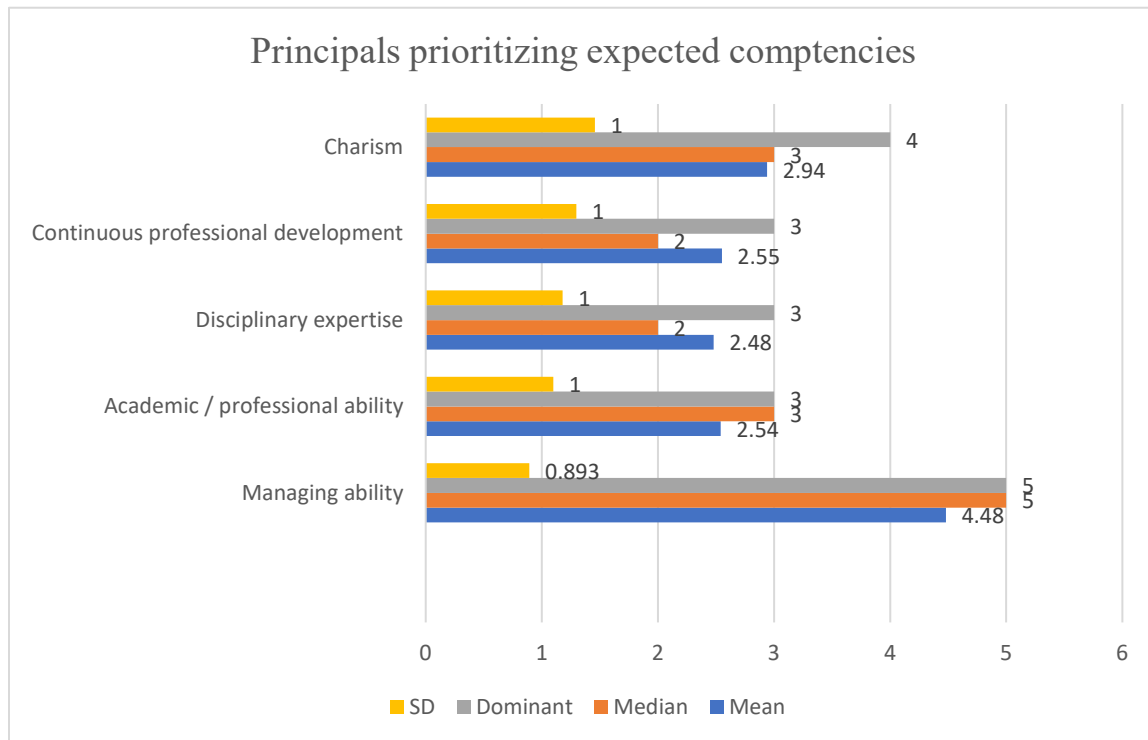
Chart 5: Principals reported prioritized expected competencies

It is compelling that principals prioritize managing ability followed by charism when compared to more pedagogic necessities such as continuous professional development, disciplinary expertise and even academic/professional ability. These findings possibly indicate that principals are inclined to prioritize more 'practical' competencies (tasks) over the professional ones. According to the reports of principals, MMs who have managing abilities and charism, it appears, can do their job more peacefully, over those who are 'professional' MMs.

5.5. Competence resources to assist MMs perform and succeed in their role

The literature suggests a number of practices that can enhance the performance of MMs and thus contribute to school outcomes (Gurr & Drysdale, 2013, Leithwood, 2016, Gurr, 2019). In this research several competence resources that can enhance the performance of MMs and assist them succeed in their role, were studied. Results are presented here-below.

5.5.1. Principals designing collaboration with their MMs.

Israeli high schools have senior management teams (SMT) and extended management team (EMT) in their management structures. The EMT structure is" flexible" and subjected to the principal's resolution (though, as has been found and discussed also in this research, in Israel there are common roles that are considered to be a part of the school MMS, such as subject coordinator, pedagogical coordinator, grade coordinator). Including a role holder in the school EMT implies that the person is empowered and that creates a greater sense of belonging, which increases motivation. To study how principals design their collaboration with their MMs it was decided to ask principals about their structure of MM and whether their MMs are part of the school EMT. 91% of respondents (N=81) stated they do include their MMs in their EMT. 79% of principals (N=71) indicated that their MMs are part of the managerial level of school. 18% of principals (N=16) indicated that some of their MMs are part of their managerial level of school. It is plausible to understand the 18% of principals who reported that some of their MMs are part of their managerial level of school, by the fact that principals are autonomous in constructing their middle management structure. Further, it is plausible that not all roles required and appointed in schools are to be included in the school management.

Principals in this research reports indicate that there are routines and regularities that are held in schools. 93.5% of principals (N=83) reported that they meet their EMT three times a year or more. 98.9% of respondents (N=88) reported having staff meetings integrated into the school timetable. 88.7% of the principals (N=79) reported having feedback meeting with their MMs twice a year or more. 10.1% of principals (N=9) stated they have one feedback meeting a year.

Thus, including the MMs in the school management team/s is the initial and prerequisite stage to designing collaboration between the principals and their MMs. However, it is plainly insufficient if it is the only measure taken to design collaboration.

5.5.2. Principals' support of their MMs in carrying out their role

The principal's support is no doubt one of the main sources of support for MM (Gurr & Drysdale, 2013), Bassett, & Shaw, 2018), Tang, Bryant, & Walker, 2022). There are many

ways to express support. Collaboration can be better and more easily established when MMs feel that their principals support them and are open to assist. The possibility to approach and access the principal whenever the need arises is undoubtedly a good source of support for MMs. In this research, 91% of principals (N=81) reported that their MMs call them whenever the need arises. A minority of 4.5% (N=4) reported their MMs do not call them whenever the need arises and same findings of 4.5% (N=4), reported that their MMs call them via their line manager. These figures imply a warranted situation when MMs get the support they need directly through their principal. This finding is not surprising, since openness and being informal are rather evident in Israel.

Chart 6 below further establishes and visualizes the informal relationship among principals and their MMs, as the most popular means of contact is WhatsApp text (M=4.55, SD=0.8). Indirect means of contact via the secretary is the least common way of contact with the highest SD (M=1.55, SD=1.96).
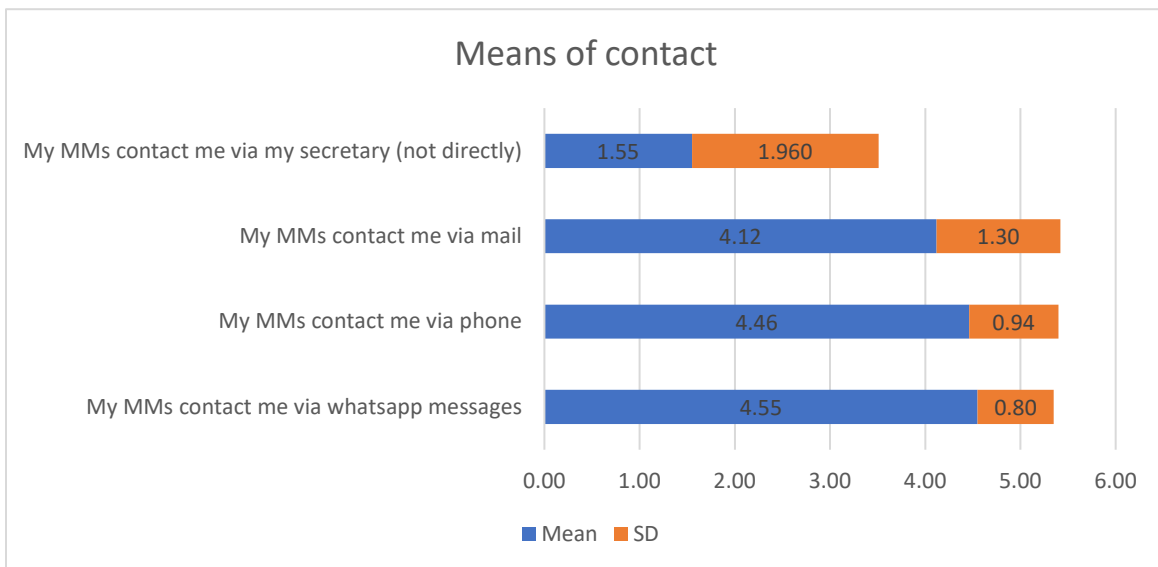
Chart 6: Means of contact between Israeli high school principals and their MMs.

The exceptional figure of the contact via the secretary can be explained by cultural differences, as 12.4% of respondents (N=11) are from the non-Jewish sector. As the Israeli education system is heterogeneous and includes both the Jewish and non-Jewish sectors, it is common to detect cultural differences among schools from the Jewish and Arab communities.

5.6.   Designing collaboration by decision-making frameworks to build capacity and enhance visibility of MMs at school.

Enhancing the visibility of MMs at school is particularly important to building the capacity of MMs. As principals' competence expectations from their MMs are *promoting the school vision* and *mediating SMT decisions to the teaching staff* it is particularly interesting to examine whether MMs know about SMT decisions before the rest of the teachers and if they take part in decision-making processes at school. Knowing about SMT decisions before the rest of the staff enhances the visibility of a MM at school and ultimately also facilitates and promotes the performance of the MM. Taking part in decision-making process at school builds that capacity of MM and develops them as professional leaders.

As can be seen in chart 7, According to the reports of principals on these two questions the vast majority of principals (82%) report that their MMs know about SMT decisions before the rest of the teachers (strongly agree: 48.3%, agree:33.7%). Only a rather redundant minority of 3 respondents disagreed with this statement.
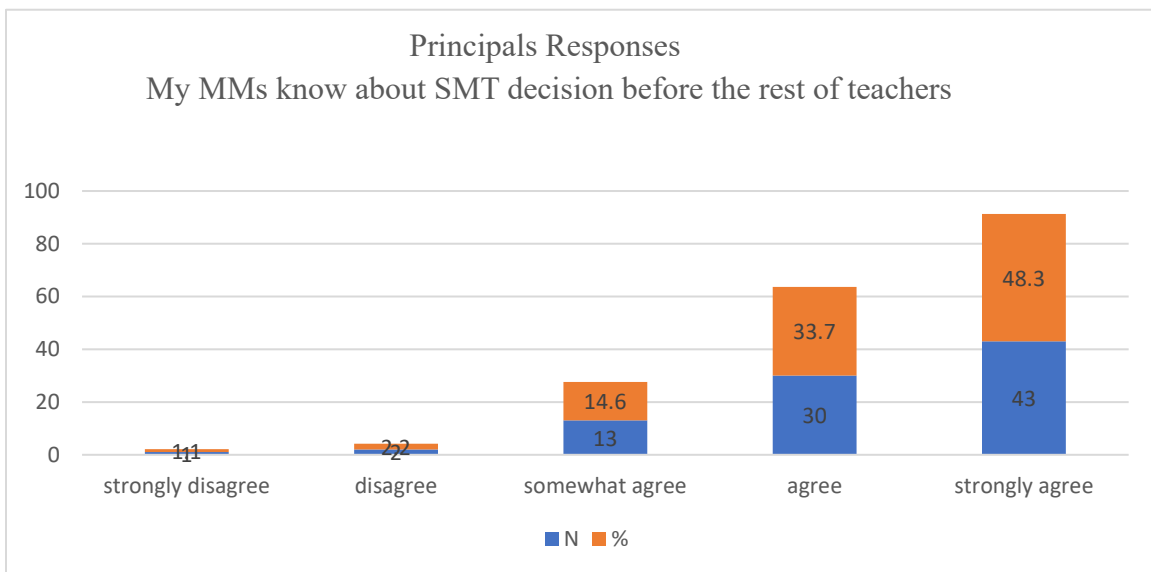
Chart 7: Principals reports of sharing MMs with SMT decisions before sharing the teachers

Principals' reports are slightly different when it comes to MMs taking part in decision making processes at school. Though 71.9% of respondents report they strongly agree (41.6%) or agree (30.3%), more than a quarter of respondents (27%) reported they

135

somewhat agree with this statement, which imply that MMs do not take part in all decision processes at schools. Chart 8 visualizes these results:
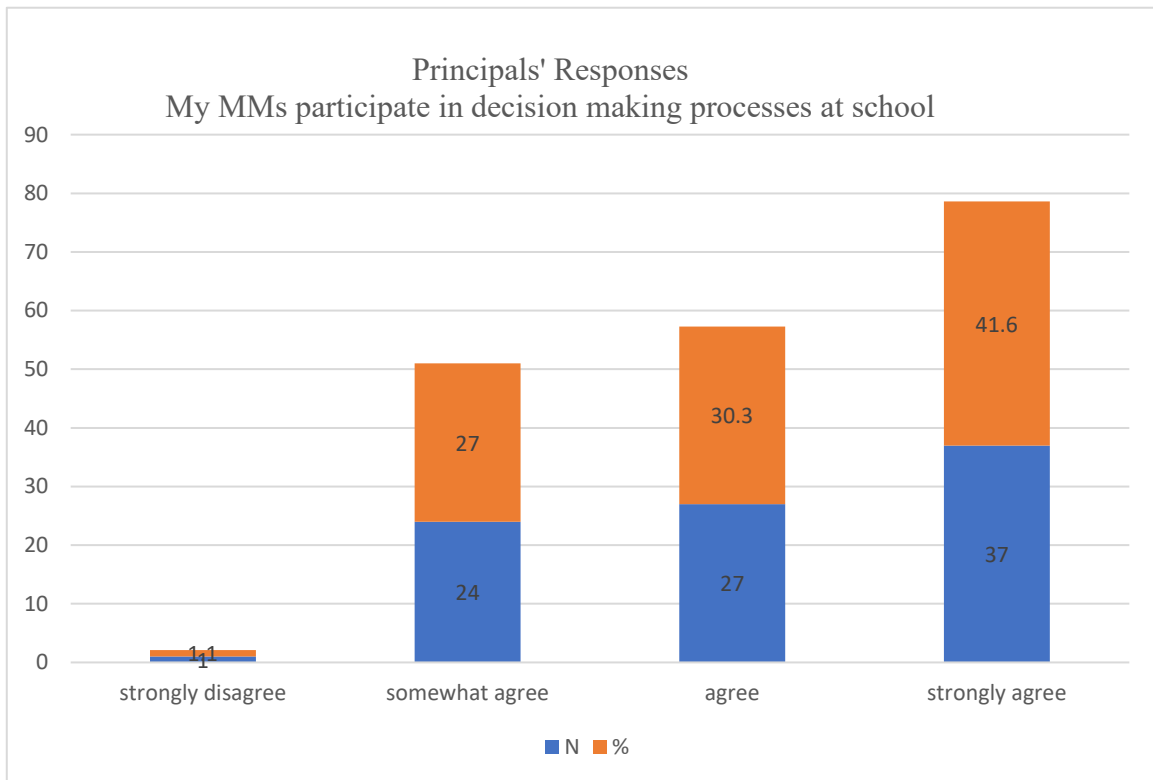
Chart 8: Principals reports of their MMs taking part in decision making processes

This finding can be understood simply with the explanation that there are decision-making processes principals choose not to share with (all) their MMs, or it can be interpreted that sometimes due to time pressure or school routines MMs are not available at all times to take part in decision-making processes. The latter is possibly the more probable postulation.

Further, it is postulated that when principals responded to this question, they referred to both SMT who take part in decision making processes at schools, as well as other MMs who are less shared in decision making processes at school, due to reasons such as the ones suggested here or others.

5.7.   Power share at School

According to the principals in this research the role definition of MMs in schools is determined by the principals (N=59, %=66.3) which implies that role definitions of MMs

are local and might change from school to school. 11 respondents (%=12.4) claimed they follow the role definitions which appear in the director general circular. 4 principals (%=4.5) reported that there are no written role definitions in their schools. 13 principals who constitute 14.6% of respondents reported "other".
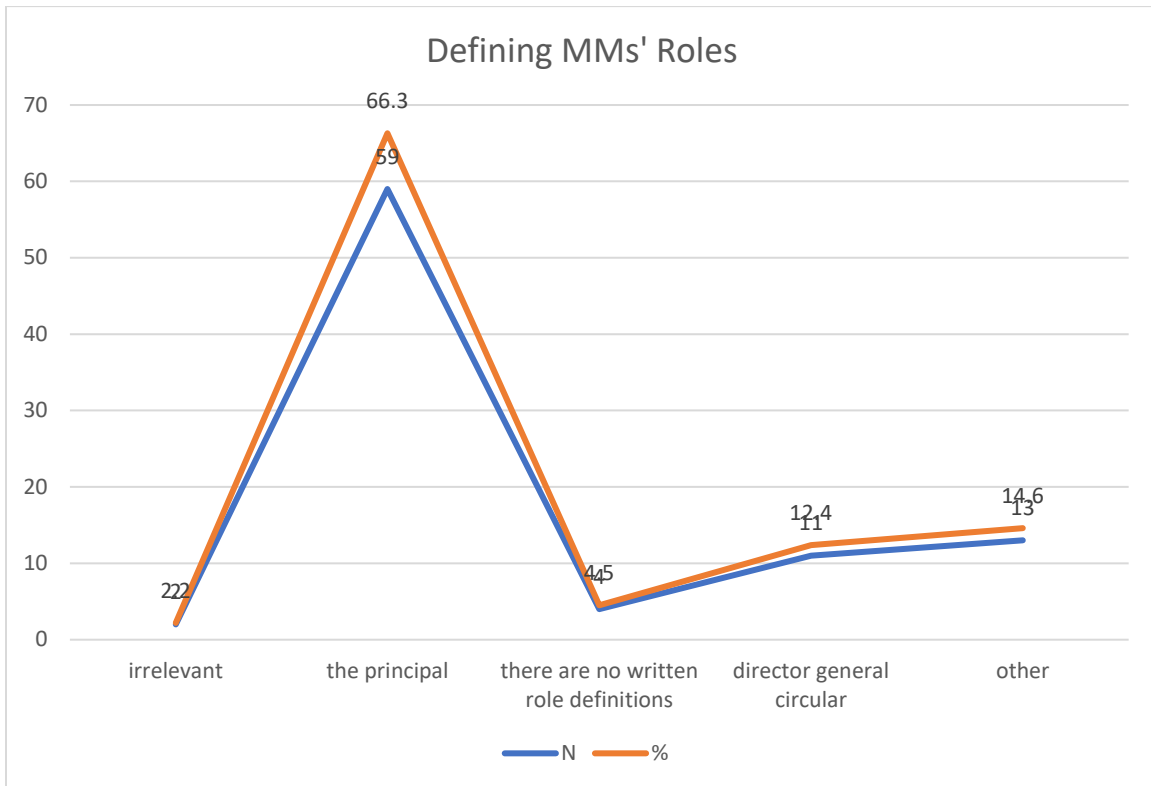
Chart 9: Defining MMs roles in school

In their open answers principals indicated different forums that determine the role definitions of MMs:

- The principal in cooperation with the Junior high principal and the pedagogical coordinator (SMT).
- The principal in cooperation with subject coordinators
- The principal with other role holders
- in a shared constructed process
- Based on a combination of the director general circular, the principal and the subject coordinator.
- A Pedagogical forum
- The principal with the MM

A total of 85 principals (%=95.5) stated that the staff policy in their schools is determined according to the school's general policy. However, as shown in chart 10 below, the breakdown of the answers is divided so that 33 principals (%=37.1) report that the staff policy in their schools is determined according to the school's general policy and 52 principals (%=58.4) report the staff policy in their schools is determined according to the school's general policy, which the MMs are part of setting it. The latter figure indicates that MMs are partners in setting the school policy, together with the principal.
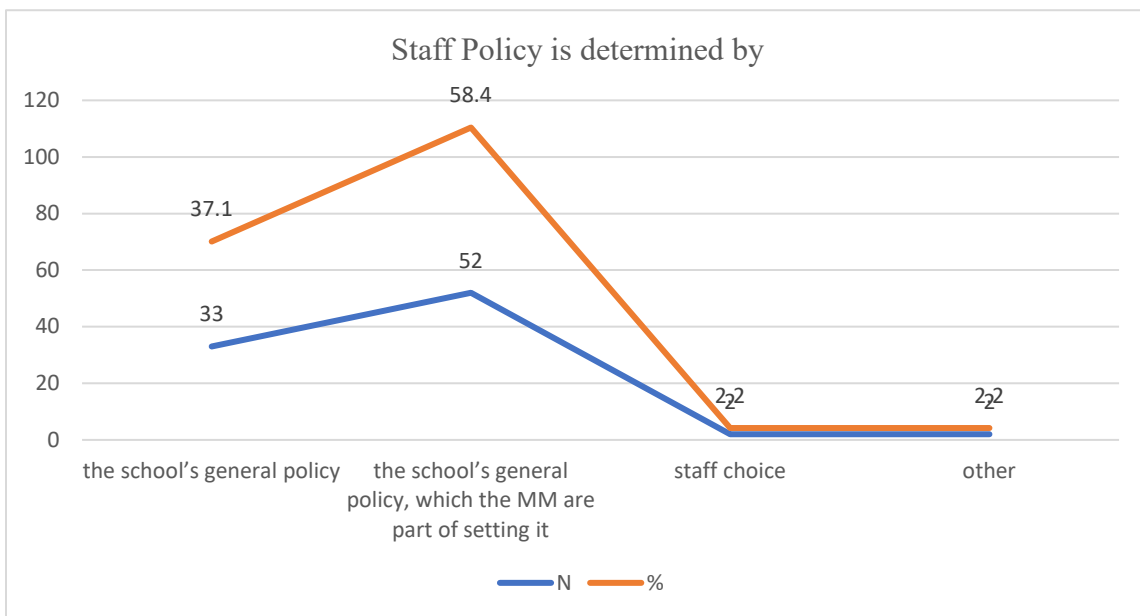
Chart 10: Determining staff policy in school

Chart 11 below indicates that the principals are mostly involved in recruiting staff (N=73, %=82.1). Even though, in 55.1% (N=49) of the cases the principal is the one who recruits staff members in collaboration with MMs/other persons chosen for this purpose.
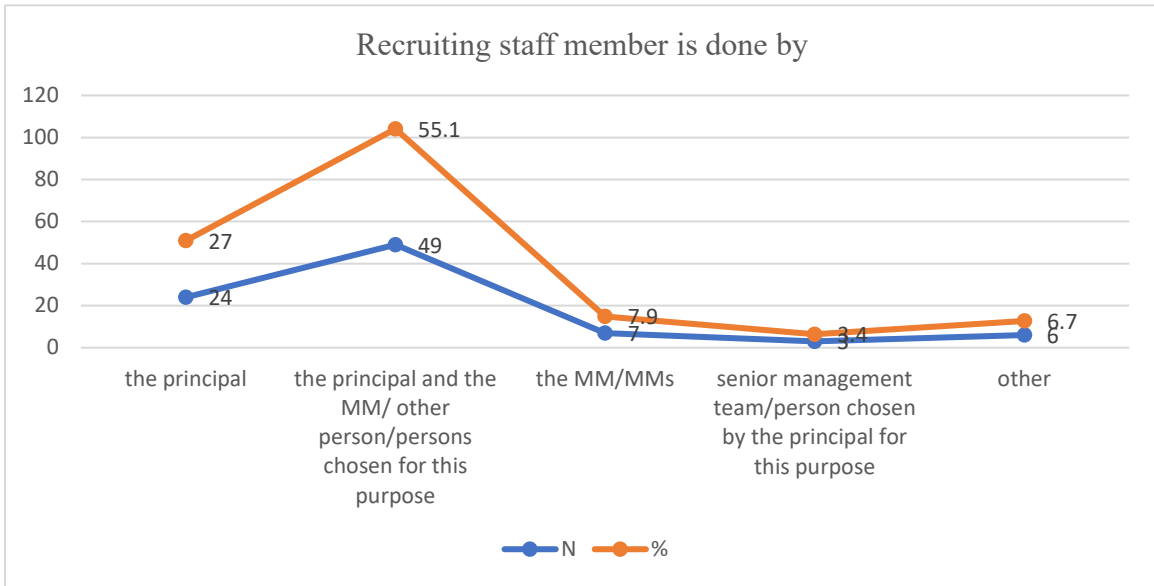
Chart 11: Recruiting staff members in school

To sum up, results indicate that MMs are not autonomous, and principals do not share power authentically, completely. The principals define the MMs roles, determine the staff policy and recruit staff members even when they do it together with their MMs. The percentage of cases reported in which MMs oversee determining the staff member or recruiting staff members are minor.

Chapter 6:   MMs' Perceptions of their Role in School Management

6.1.   Introduction

This chapter introduces the results gathered in this research that correspond to research question #2: How do MM perceive their role at school?

Based on the sub-questions that helped studying the subject, the chapter is organized as follows:

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Roles MMs perform at schools

6.2.1 Perception of Tasks and responsibilities performed by MMs

6.3 Perception of the importance of role at school

6.4 Perception of preparation for the role of a MM

6.5 Perceptions of useful resources to assist MMs carry out their tasks

6.5.1. Perceptions of the principal's support as competence resources

6.5.2. Perceptions of deficits in competence resources

6.6 Perceptions of cooperations with stakeholders

6.2.   Roles MMs perform at schools

As reported by MMs, distribution of MM roles appears to be similar to that reported by the principals', with same main roles that constitute the school MM. Thus, 48.5% of MMs respondents were subject coordinators (N=64), 23.5% were grade coordinators (N=31), 6.8% were pedagogical coordinators (N=9), 7.6% were counselors (N=10) and 5.3% were social education coordinators (N=7). It is noteworthy to clarify that percentages and numbers of reporting MMs should be read with the understanding that whereas there are roles such as subject coordinators that can be held by 15-25 MMs in schools, there is for example, only 1-2 pedagogical coordinators and a maximum of six grade coordinators. However, whereas subject coordinators are in charge of one team, pedagogical coordinators are in charge (a line-manager) of all subject coordinators and their teams.

Another interesting figure of MMs roles in schools, is the report of 22% of MMs respondents (N=29) who reported "Other" as their MM role in school. A look into the specifics of "other" reveals that there are other roles, which principals appoint at school and are considered a part of the school middle management. MMs reported a variety of "other" roles, as follows: Project coordinator, New teachers' mentor, Youth at risk coordinator, Inclusion and Integration coordinator, Schedule and Timetable coordinator, New Immigrants coordinator, Special Education coordinator, College coordinator, Behavior Modification coordinator, Matriculation coordinator, Preparation to recruiting to the Army, Holistic Education coordinator. Coordinator of technological excellence, Outdoor coordinator, Deputy.

Observing the long and varied list of "other" roles appointed as MMs by principals, it can be argued rather decisively that this figure of 22% of MMs respondents stating "other" as their role imply that principals are autonomous, in constructing their school middle management. These roles whose holders (MMs) are members of the school management undoubtedly reflect the principal's priority or focus of pedagogical agenda and reflect the school's local needs. For a principal to appoint a certain role which is not mandatory, and which requires them to allocate resources to reward the postholder, it is a statement and a message to the school's stakeholders what counts beyond the basic required roles that are common in most schools (such as the pedagogical coordinator or grade coordinator). Chart 12 below shows the distribution MMs' roles at schools.
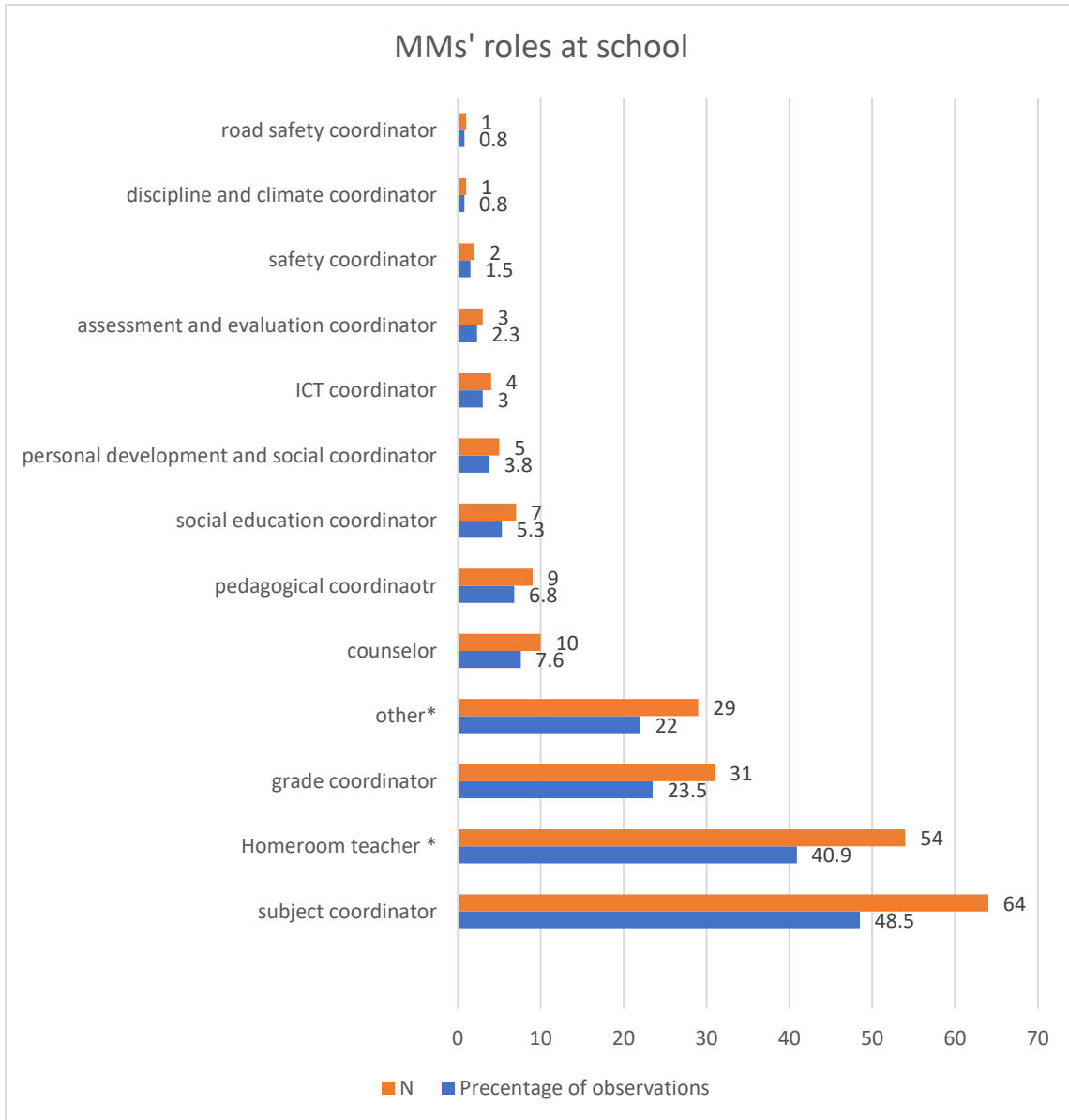
Chart 12: Distribution of MMs' roles at schools

Additionally, to learn more about their role and its scope at school, MMs were asked to report on number of staff members they are in charge of. Respondents reported a mean of 10.9 (M=10.9) and median of 7 with a dominant 4 (SD=14.7). Four respondents did not answer this question, which might be the result of sheer mistake, or they are not in charge of staff members. It might be the case that MM will carry out a role but will not be in direct charge of staff.

6.2.1. Perception of Tasks and responsibilities performed by MMs based on the time allocated to performing each task/responsibility

The time MMs allocate to performing their role, no doubt, shapes their perception of the role. Therefore, in addition to studying the tasks and responsibilities by reports of MMs, it is no less important to observe the time allocated to each task and responsibility they report to be performing as part of their role as MMs. However, when attending to these issues, it is highly important to be aware of the difference between a task and a responsibility. The Miriam Webster online dictionary defines 'task' as *assigned piece of work and duty: obligatory task, function, professional, official position*, whereas 'responsibility' is defined as *Moral, legal or mental accountability* (Merriam-Webster.com, 2023). The difference is apparent. Whereas tasks are a duty or assigned pieces of work, responsibilities have to do with one's volition to be accountable morally and mentally. Thus, the tasks performed by MMs as part of their role are their actual 'doing', what they do regularly at school. For instance, the tasks of a subject coordinator are mainly pedagogical and involve working on professional issues with the staff, having regular staff meetings, writing the syllabus etc. The responsibility/responsibilities of a subject coordinator are to be understood on a different level and might be inspecting the execution of the syllabus, the students' achievement, and outcomes, being the mediator between the school and the discipline inspectorate or else. Accountability over these issues, is gained through actual activities and tasks performed regularly. It is easier to calculate the time allocated to performing a task, and much more difficult to estimate the time allocated to responsibilities.

Chart 13 below demonstrates MMs' reports of their time allocation to the different tasks and responsibilities expected by principals to be carried out by MMs. Data reveals that Israeli MMs declare to allocate most of the time they perform doing their role, to complying to school policy (M=2.5, SD=0.849). As has been discussed in depth here-above, this finding clearly depicts more the mental accountability, or the MMs' perception of their role, rather than a task they perform. Thus, the highest prioritized reported responsibility, as reported by MMs in this study is *Complying to school policy*. The second highest ranked task MMs report is *Assisting to staff members professionally* (M=2.38, SD=0.822), and the third highest task reported by MMs is *liaising with parents* (M=2.37, SD=0.839).

Though teaching a subject (instruction) is not a part of the role definition of MMs, it consumes a great part of the time of MMs. Matter of fact, MMs are teachers with a responsibility over an aspect of the school work. It is noteworthy that a high school teacher full time job is 40 hours. A MM who holds the role of "grade coordinator" in Israeli high school (grades 10-12), for example, is required to teach about 20 hours per week and gets 4-5 hours for the role and his six tutoring hours can be shifted from actual tutoring to additional hours to his role.
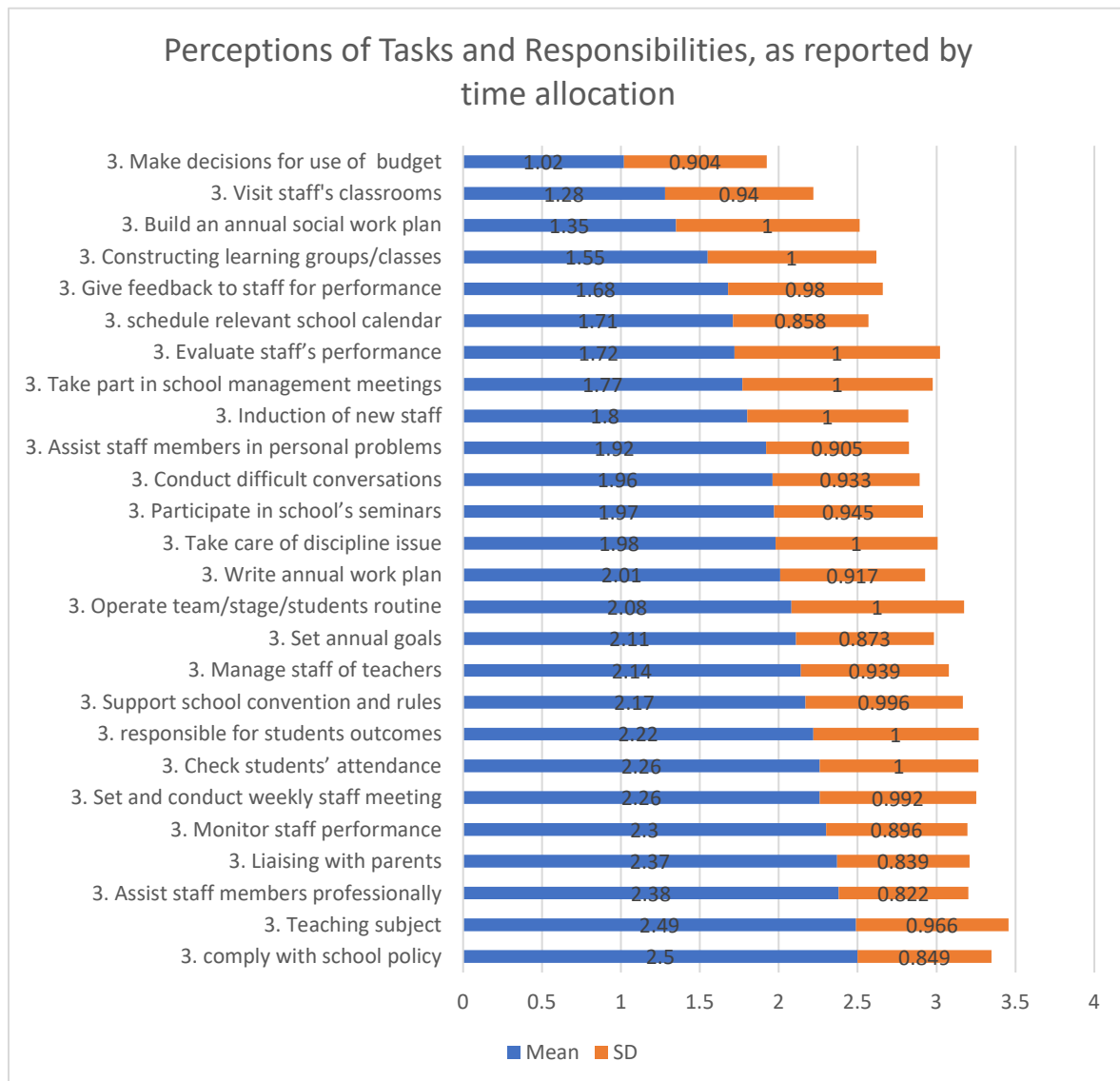
Chart 13: MMs reports of tasks and responsibilities as reported by time allocation

The tasks and responsibilities Israeli MMs report to allocate the least time to, are making decisions for use of budget (M=1.02, SD=0.904) and visiting staff's classrooms (M=1.28,

SD=0.940). This figure is in-line with principals' reports that making decisions for use of budget is the task they expect their MMs the least to deal with.

MMs were further asked to report the three tasks that consume most of their time as MMs. In contrast to the previous question, in which MMs were asked to report the tasks and responsibilities that best depict the time they allocated for, in their daily routine, in this question MMs reported the actual tasks that consume most of their time. As shown in chart 14 below, the three top time-consuming tasks and responsibilities MMs report are:

1. Manage staff of teachers (observed %=44.6, N=58, %=15.1)
2. Operate team/stage/student routine (observed %=36.2, N=47, %=12.3)
3. Assist staff members professionally (observed %=28.5%, N=37, %=9.7%)

All top three tasks are operational and indicate managerial tasks that MMs attend to mostly as part of their role: manage the staff, operate the daily routine, and assist staff professionally.

It is equally compelling to observe the least attended tasks and responsibilities MMs report:

1) Evaluate staff's performance (observed %=0.8%, N=1, %=0.3%)
2) Check students' attendance (observed %=0.8%, N=1, %=0.3%)
3) Visit staff's classrooms (observed %=1.5%, N=2, %=0.5%)
4) Conduct difficult conversations (observed %=1.5%, N=2, %=0.5%)

When one examines the least attended tasks, a question arises, why are these the least prioritized tasks in the MMs daily routine and not any others? Is there anything these tasks have in common? The answer might be twofold: on the one hand it is possible that MMs simply do not perceive these tasks as part of their role, or they prioritize it the lowest due to over workload. One might also postulate that these tasks have not been agreed upon (with the principal) as part of framework of the role when the role holder accepted their role. Thus, considering the findings, it is not implausible to claim that MMs do not evaluate their staff performance or visit their classrooms, they do not check students' attendance and they do not conduct difficult conversations. It is worthwhile to approach these findings since they are a part of forming the perception of MMs of their role.

Top Three Time-consuming Tasks and Responsibilities - MM reports

Task	% of observations	N
Check students' attendance	0.80%	1
Evaluate staff's performance	0.80%	1
Participate in school's seminars	1.50%	2
Conduct difficult conversations	1.50%	2
Visit staff's classrooms	1.50%	2
Support school convention and rules	2.30%	3
Build an annual social work plan	3.80%	5
Constructing learning groups/classes	4.60%	6
Assist staff members in personal problems	4.60%	6
Induction of new staff	5.40%	7
Make decisions for use of budget	5.40%	7
Monitor staff performance	6.20%	8
Set annual goals	6.20%	8
Schedule relevant school calendar	6.90%	9
Comply with school policy	8.50%	11
Responsible for students outcomes	10.80%	14
Liaising with parents	12.30%	16
Take care of discipline issue	12.30%	16
Write annual work plan	13.10%	17
Take part in school management meetings	16.20%	21
Set and conduct weekly staff meeting	24.60%	32
Assist staff members professionally	28.50%	37
Teaching subject	36.20%	47
Operate team/stage/students routine	36.20%	47
Manage staff of teachers	44.60%	58

Chart 14: three top time-consuming tasks and responsibilities MMs report

Furthermore, it is warranted to pay attention to the contrasting findings, whereas in the first question, in which MMs were asked to tick the appropriate column that best depicts the time they allocate for it in their daily routine they reported '*Liaising with parents*' as the third top task. Yet, when asked to tick the three top tasks/responsibilities, which demand most of their time, '*Liaising with parents*' is not one of the three top time-consuming task/responsibility reported by MMs, but the eighth. This discrepancy stresses the difference between a general question and a specific question. On a more general level,

when MMs were asked to report the time they allocate to a list of tasks/responsibilities that data calculated yielded different results, compared to the more specific question that required to rank the three top time-consuming task and responsibilities.

6.3.   Perception of the importance of role at school

According to the data gathered in this research, MMS perceive their role as important (M=4.43, SD=0.8). In line with other findings in this research, MMs comply with school policy (M=4.40, SD=0.75), and view themselves as partners in school success (M=4.31, SD=0.8).

Overall, results repeated themselves with most statements MMs had to refer to, indicating that MMs perceive their role as important and influential, one that promotes the school vision, its outcomes and efficiency. Thus, it is not implausible to conclude that MMs allocate high importance to their role and its influence on school outcomes.

However, when reporting about '*being a part of the school decision-making processes*' (M=3.55, SD=1), or their '*authority as line managers*' (M=3.62, SD=1), or the extent they '*determine the annual objectives of their staff*' (M=3.77, SD=0.99), results reflect somewhat different perceptions, lesser higher. Findings regarding the preceding statements advert to the daily reality of MMs at school. If MMs do not view themselves as part of the decision- making processes at school despite their being a part of the extended school management, it implies that school decisions are taken at within a more confined group of people. Furthermore, if MMs do not generally view themselves as line managers, it implies that their authority among their staff members is dubious. These findings pinpoint to the complicated reality of MMs at school. Whereas they are asked to take responsibility in addition to performing tasks, they are not granted enough authority to do so, and they are not active partners in school managements. Chart 15 below summarizes the MMs' perception of importance of their role.

Perception of Importance of Role

Statement	SD	Mean
As a member of the school management I am a part…	1	3.55
I have authority as a line-manager of a team.	1	3.62
I determine the annual objectives of my staff/students.	0.999	3.77
I am responsible for maintaining the daily routine of…	1	3.8
I am a partner in lessening the gaps amongst students…	0.918	3.89
I am a change agent at school.	0.976	3.95
As a team leader I influence others at school.	0.957	3.99
I view myself accountable for the students' outcomes.	0.892	4.09
I am a school ambassador to parents and other…	1	4.22
My work as a MM promotes school effectiveness.	0.974	4.23
promote the school vision and its goals.	0.867	4.23
Mediate SMT decisions to the teaching staff.	0.914	4.24
I view myself as a partner in school outcomes.	0.809	4.31
I comply with school policy.	0.758	4.4
My role is central and indispensable at school.	0.8	4.43

Chart 15: MMs' perception of the importance of their role in school

To better understand the MMs' perception of the importance of their role, a correlation using Spearman's rho was conducted to assess the direction and strength among the 15 statements. Each statement was correlated with each of the rest of statements. A statistical positive correlation was observed among all statements. Based on the results, some key observations can be made:

The positive perception of importance of the role is adverted clearly by the high correlation coefficients (ranging from 0.303 to 0.676) between the statement 'My role is central and indispensable at school' and several other statements:

- 'My work as a MM promotes school effectiveness' (correlation coefficient 0.676, Sig. (2-tailed) <.001)

- 'As a team leader I influence others at school' (correlation coefficient 0.540, Sig. (2-tailed) <.001)
- 'I am a partner in lessening the gaps amongst students in school' (correlation coefficient 0.538, Sig. (2-tailed) <.001)
- 'I am a school ambassador to parents and other external stakeholders' (correlation coefficient 0.498, Sig. (2-tailed) <.001)

'I comply with school policy' was correlated the highest with the statement 'I promote the school vision and its goal' (correlation coefficient .729, Sig. (2-tailed) <.001). This means that MMs who state to comply with school policy also state to promote the school vision and its goals.

The correlation coefficients observed with the statement 'As a member of the school management, I am a part of decision–making processes at school' ranged from 0.316 ('I determine the annual objectives of my staff/students') to 0.609 ('My work as a MM promotes school effectiveness'). These results indicate that those who state they are a part of the school decision-making processes also believe that their work as MM promotes the school effectiveness.

The statement 'I have authority as a line-manager of a team.' Revealed relatively weaker correlation coefficients (though still statistically significant) that ranged from 0.254 ('I comply with the school policy') to 0.513 ('As a team leader I influence others at school.'). This means that MMs who state to have authority as a line manager, also believe that as team leaders they influence others at schools.

6.4.   Perception of preparation for the role of a MM.

Proper preparation and training before starting a role cannot be underestimated and are probably factors in one's success or failure in doing their job. MMs were asked about the training they received upon entry to their roles. Chart 16 below demonstrates inconsistency and variance in the preliminary preparation for the job.
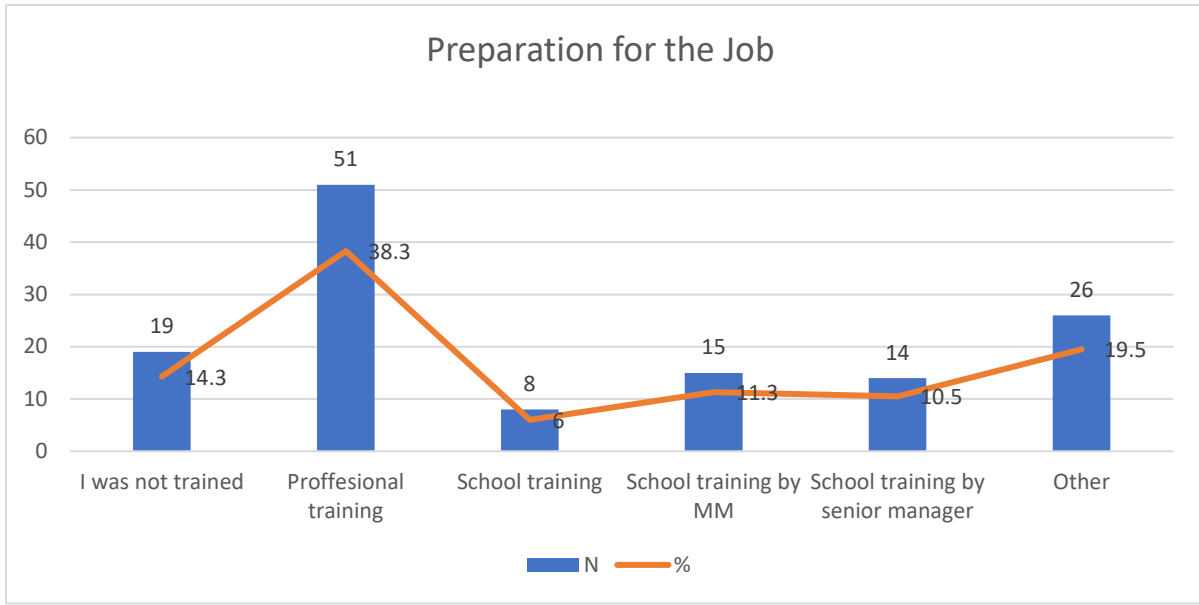
Chart 16: MMs preparation for the role

38.3% of respondents (N=52) indicated that they had professional training. This figure should be read with the understanding that there are mandatory roles define by the MOE which demand professional training as a prerequisite for having the role. Such roles are ICT coordinator, Road safety coordinator, councilor, Assessment and evaluation coordinator, Social education coordinator, Personal development and social involvement coordinator. For these roles, principals know that apart from agreement to take the role, the candidate for the role has to agree to take the preliminary preparation/training. This fact might explain why 38.3% of respondents reported having professional training as a preparation for the job. In addition, it also constitutes that some roles do not require formal preliminary training. Accordingly, results point out that 27.8% of respondents received their training at school (School training: N=8, %=6, School training by MM: N=15, %=11.3, school training by senior manager: N=14, %=10.5). The remaining data is particularly interesting: 19 respondents (%=14.3) reported that they did not get any training and 26 MMs reported "other" as their preparation for the role. Delving into the responses of "other", one common response of MMs is academic degree (M.A), four respondents indicated that, they had been trained by the school principal, and others mentioned their seniority and experience as their training. Other scattered responses repeated the existing

possibilities suggested in the questionnaire in their own words and 2 mentioned being trained in Avney Rosha program for school principals.

It is insufficient to merely gather data about the training MMs received upon entry to their role, but rather it is far more interesting to study how they assess their preparation for the role. Data reveals that 55.6% of MMs (N=74) assessed their preparation for the role as sufficient. The rest of results are divided as follows: 20% of MMs (M=27) state they received good preparation but is did not prepare them for the job. 8.3% (N=11) indicate insufficient preparation. Furthermore, 15.8% (N=21) report that they were not trained for the role. Thus, altogether 45% of MMs indicate insufficient preparation for job or not preparation at all. Chart 17 below demonstrates the findings.

MMs Assessing preparation to the role

	I was not trained	Insufficient	Good, but did not prepare me for the job	Sufficient
— (N)	21	11	27	74
—N				
— (%)	15.8	8.3	20.3	55.6
—%				
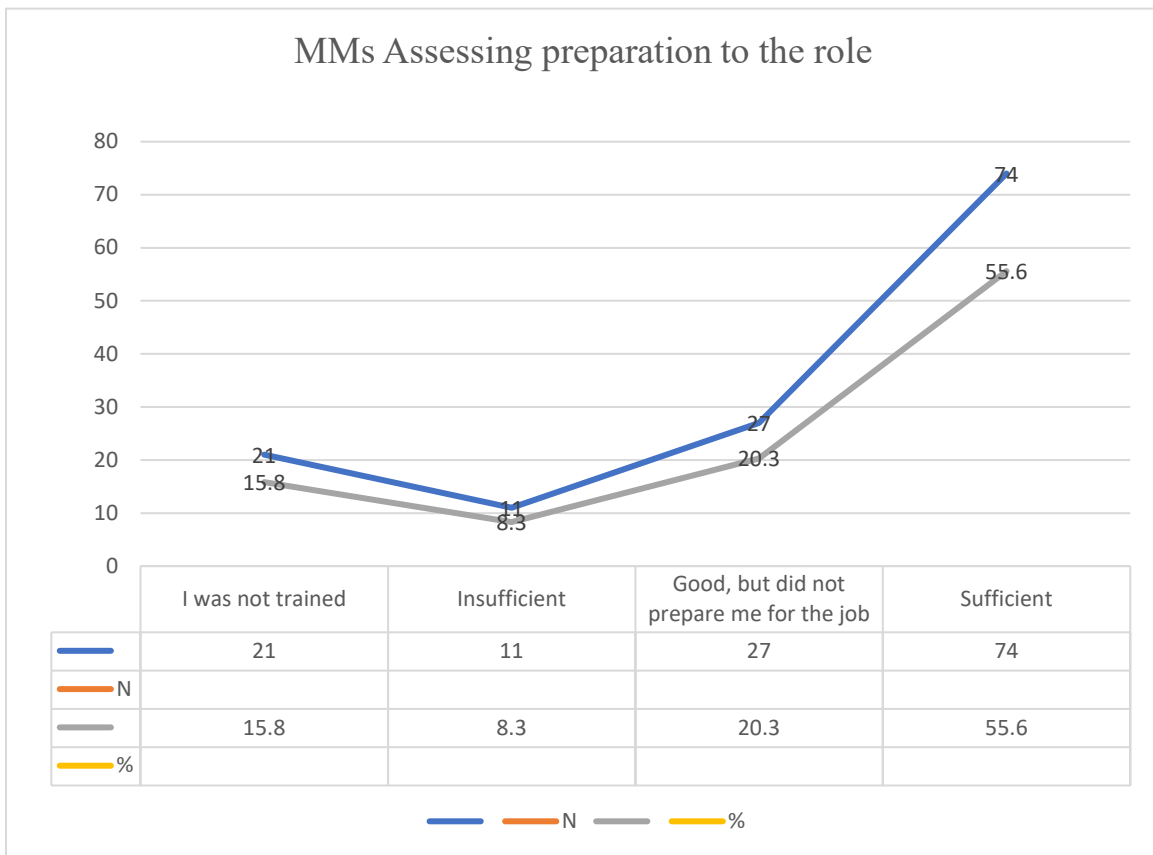
Chart 17: MMs assess their preparation for the role

These results emphasize previous findings. Whereas formal roles defined by the MOE and require formal preparation, other roles do not get proper sufficient preparation.

6.5.   Perceptions of useful resources to assist MMs carry out their tasks

Realization and recognition of the necessary competence resources of a role develops gradually, after taking the role. MMs' reports of required competence resources shed light on what MMs think that they need more to better carry out their job. Consequently, it indicates what MMs actually do and do not do in their roles as MMs.

To investigate whether the principals and MMs differ about their perceptions of competence resources/skills, MMs were asked an identical question to that of their principals: given a list of managerial tasks, respondents were asked to tick next to each task, the extent to which they find each task necessary in order to carry out the MM's role.

Chart 18 below shows that MMs think that above all other competence resources available, they need *coordinating skills* for their role (M=3.710, SD=0.672). It is noteworthy to look at the low-rate calculation of SD (0.672) indicating small differentiation among respondents, which strengthens this finding. Next, MMs report they find planning as a useful resource for their role (M=3.62, SD=0.724). MMs respondents illustrate the required competence of implementing school pedagogic approach (M=3.49, SD=0.79).

The competence resources which were found to be the least reported required ones are *'Involvement in school politics'* (M=2.01, SD=1.351) and *'Budgeting'* (M=2.22, SD=1.448). *'Creating teams'* was another competence resource that MMs reports indicated to be the third top least required ones (M=3.49, SD=1.222). In all these three competence resources skills, SD rates are above 1, which indicates high variance among respondents.

It should be pointed out that reports of competence resources are also indicators of deficits of competence resources. Put it differently, MMs' reports of need of 'coordinating skill' implies that coordinating is something they do, and they report they are not sufficiently skilled in doing it.
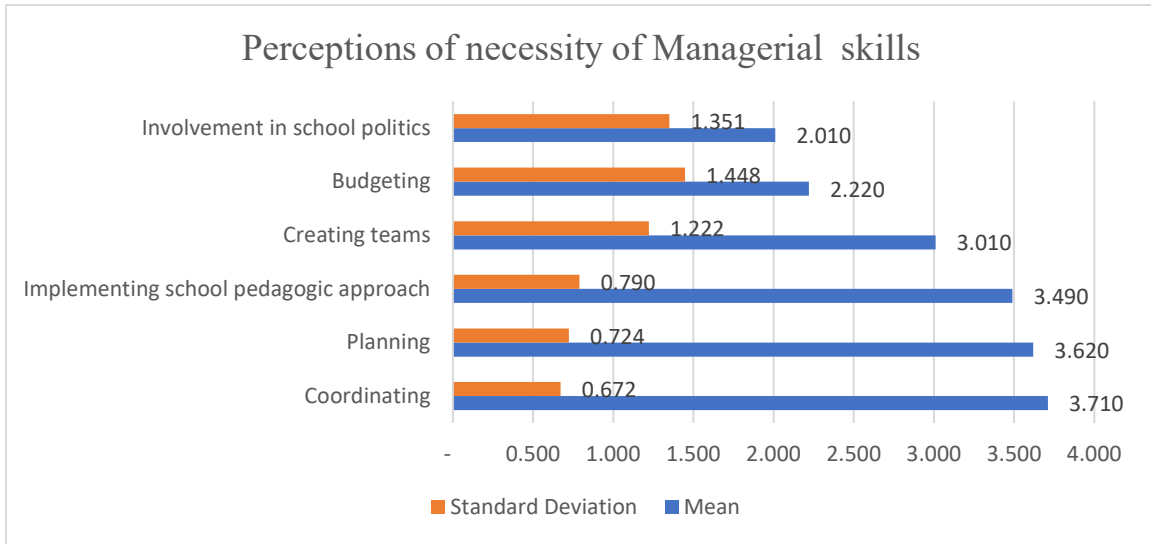
Chart 18: MMs reports of necessity of managerial skills

In addition, MMs were asked to rank the three most helpful resources that assist them carry out their tasks as MMs. Results are summarized visually in chart 19 below which presents the sum of each category, displayed with the number of ranks the category received in the first, second and third top ranks. Thus, the most helpful resource that stands out remarkably compared the second top helpful resource to assist MMs carry out their tasks is '*the principal's support*' (altogether N=117), the second most helpful resource is '*involvement in decision making processes over mattes in my responsibility*' (altogether N=89), and the third most helpful resource is '*autonomy*' (altogether N=85).
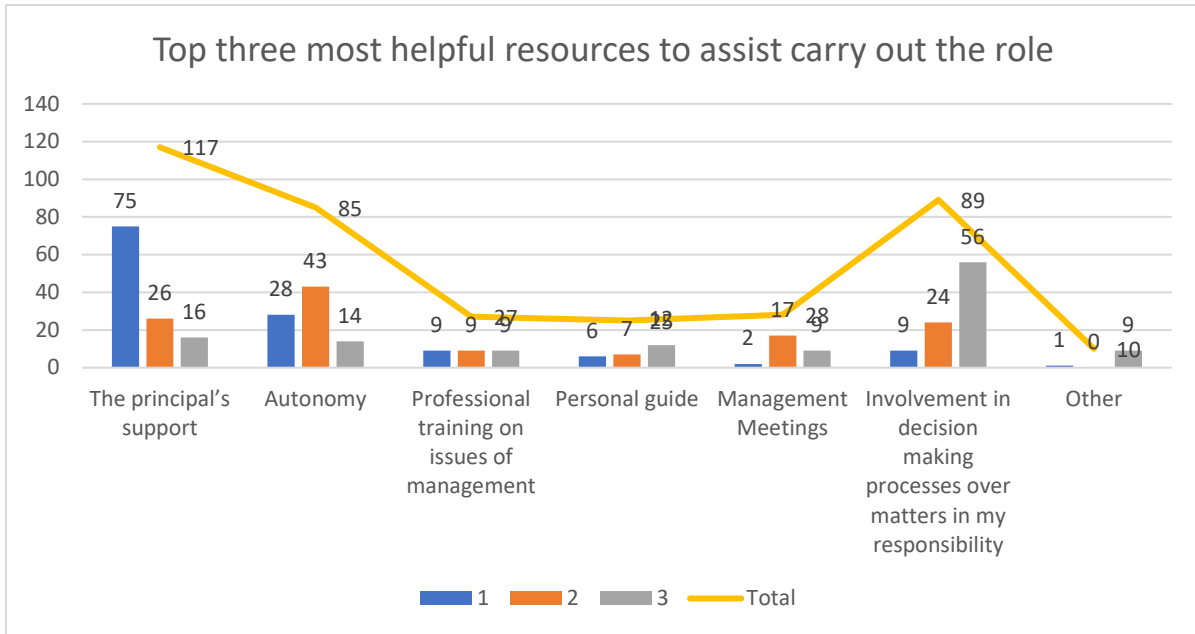
Chart 19: MMs reports of top-three most helpful resources to assist carry out the role

It is significant to note that whereas 75 respondents ranked 'The principal's support' as their first most top helpful resource, only 9 ranked 'Involvement in decision making processes over mattes in my responsibility' as their first most helpful resource. Furthermore, the third most helpful resource, 'Autonomy', was ranked first most helpful by 28 MMs, and second most helpful resource by 43 MMs.

The other three resources that ranked the lowest among the MMs are 'Management meetings' (altogether N=28), 'Professional training on issues of management' (altogether N=27) and 'Personal guide' (altogether N=25).

6.5.1. Perceptions of the principal's support as competence resources

The importance of the principal's support as a factor affecting the performance of the MMs has already been discussed in chapter 5. To investigate MMs' relationship and collaboration with their principals, as well as their perceptions of their principals' support, MMs were asked to attend to 12 general statements. Out of the total 12 statements 7 were sorted out as such that reflect forms of the principal's support. More specifically, these 7 statements examined access MMs have to their principals over professional and personal matters, trust, work meetings, and reinforcement.

Overall, results indicate that MMs perceive their principals as supporting them in all interpersonal criteria; they can contact them whenever they wish directly or indirectly (M=4.3, SD=1.206), they believe their principals think they are the right person for the job (M=4.28, SD=1.257) and trust them (M=4.22, SD=1.162) and they claim to have personal meetings to help them carry out their job (m=4.14, SD=1.327).

 It should be noted that SD in all mentioned items is above 1, which highlights a great variance among respondents. When it comes to matters of dispute, when other staff members are involved over a dispute, MMs reports are lower (*When my staff members turn to the principal on matters in dispute, the principal supports my decision/sides with me* N=3.34, SD=1.821), allegedly indicating less support. Chart 20 here-below visualizes the results of the principal's support.
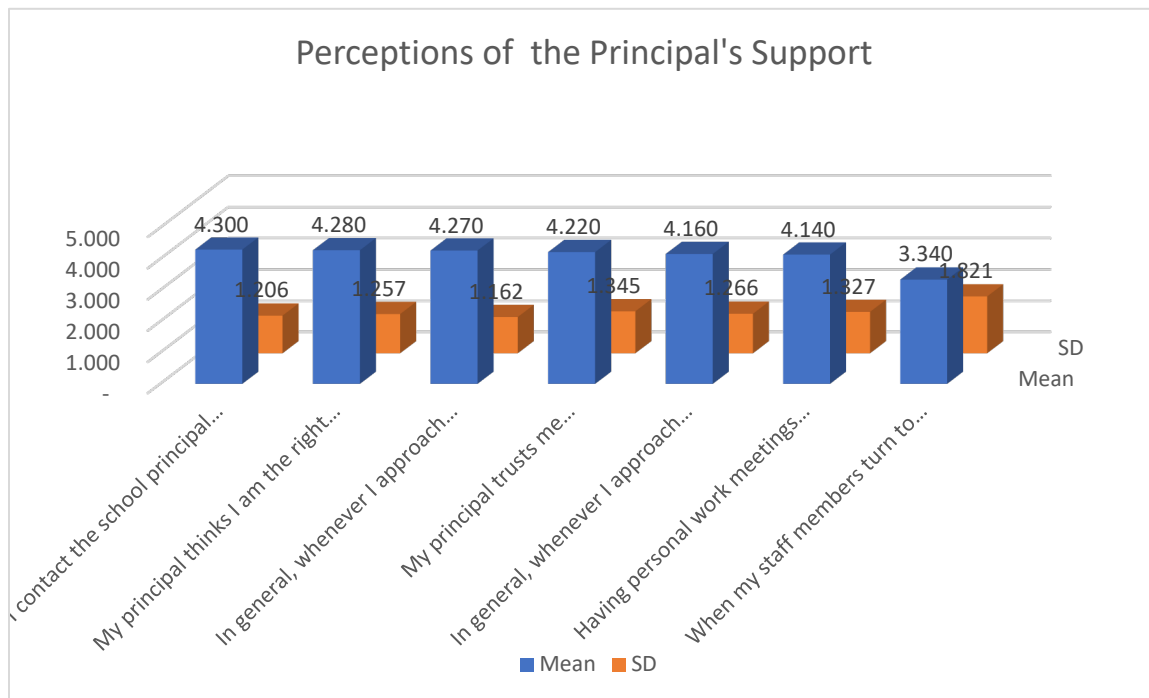
Chart 20: MMs' reports pf perceptions of the principal's support

To study the perception of MMs of their roles and the positive or negative correlation between the statements, a within-group correlation matrix was conducted for each of the 13 statements, using Pearson correlation coefficients and corresponding p-values. Results reinforce previous collected data: MMs perception of their job and their interactions with the principal are positively correlated. E.g., the data suggests, for example, that school

seminars have a positive impact on MMs' performance (r = .335, p < .001). Not only this, but also MMs believe that school seminars can enhance their performance (r = .357, p < .001). Furthermore, the data indicates that MMs who feel supported by their principals, find the principal accessible in professional (r = .281, p < .001) and personal (r = .218, p < .001) matters. Additionally, the data suggest that when there are disputes among staff members, the principal supports the MM's decision/sides with them (r = .480, p < .001).

6.5.2. Perceptions of deficits in competence resources

The contribution of PD to growth and improvement of teachers' learning and thus to promoting change in schools is acknowledged in the literature (Fluckiger et al., 2015, King & Stevenson, 2017, Tang, Bryant & Walker, 2022, Iftach, & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2023). In order to further identify the deficits MMs perceive in their competence resources and in order to study the areas of PD training that MMs find helpful to help improve their performance, MMs were asked to report two areas of PD that can help them improve their performance. As shown in the chart 21 below, MMs ranked *educational leadership* (N=90) as the first area of PD training that they conceive as helpful to improve their performance. The second area ranked was *Pedagogy* (N=76) and the third one was *Coordinating* (N=52). Administration (N=12) and *Budgeting* (N=14) are not areas of PD that MMs find as helpful to promoting their performance. Chart 21 below graphically shows the results.
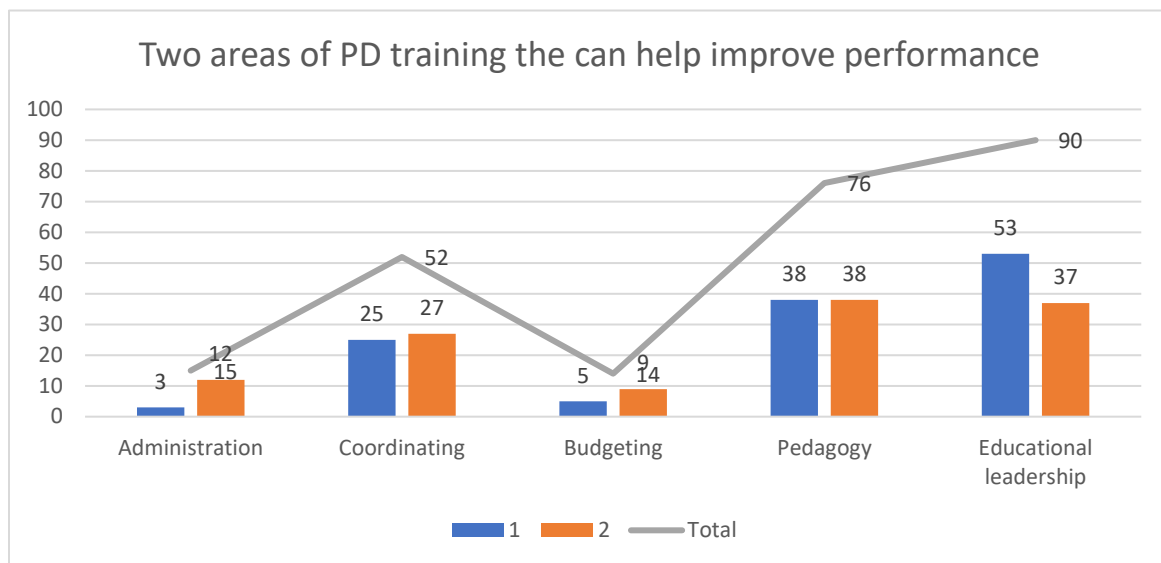
Chart 21: MMs reports of required PD training areas

It is worth reminding here, that PD scored among the three least helpful resources to assist carry out the roles of MMs. Therefore, the data analyzed regarding the two areas of PD that can help improve performance should be read with caution.

6.6. Perceptions of cooperations with stakeholders

As part of their role, MMs interact with teachers, staff members, students and parents. MMs' perception of their role is, no doubt, affected by those interactions. To investigate the status and visibility of MMs at school, the latter were asked to report of those interactions with teachers, students and parents and how they perceive them. Additionally, MMs were asked to assess these interactions.

MMs were asked to refer to 8 statements about the MM as a professional, *the MM as a manager to whom that staff approach whenever the need arises* or *The MM as a school management member*. Furthermore, MMs were asked if they feel they are trusted, being leaders. MMs report that they are perceived as professional authorities due to their role (M=4.31, DS=0.978). Further they report that teachers consult them over professional matters (M=4.34, SD=1.072) or consult them whenever they have a problem or difficulty (M= 4.06, SD=1.16). MMs feel that their staff members comply with their requests, since they are perceived as leaders (M=4.00, SD-1.53).

According to the reports of MMs, it appears that not all of them run weekly meetings (M=3.83, SD=1.553). The lowest ranked statement was *The teachers in school perceive me as a member of the school management* (M=3.47, SD=1.67). This statement is not only the lowest ranked one, but also the one with the greatest SD, which implies great variance among respondents. Chart 22 below displays the results of perceptions of interactions with teachers.
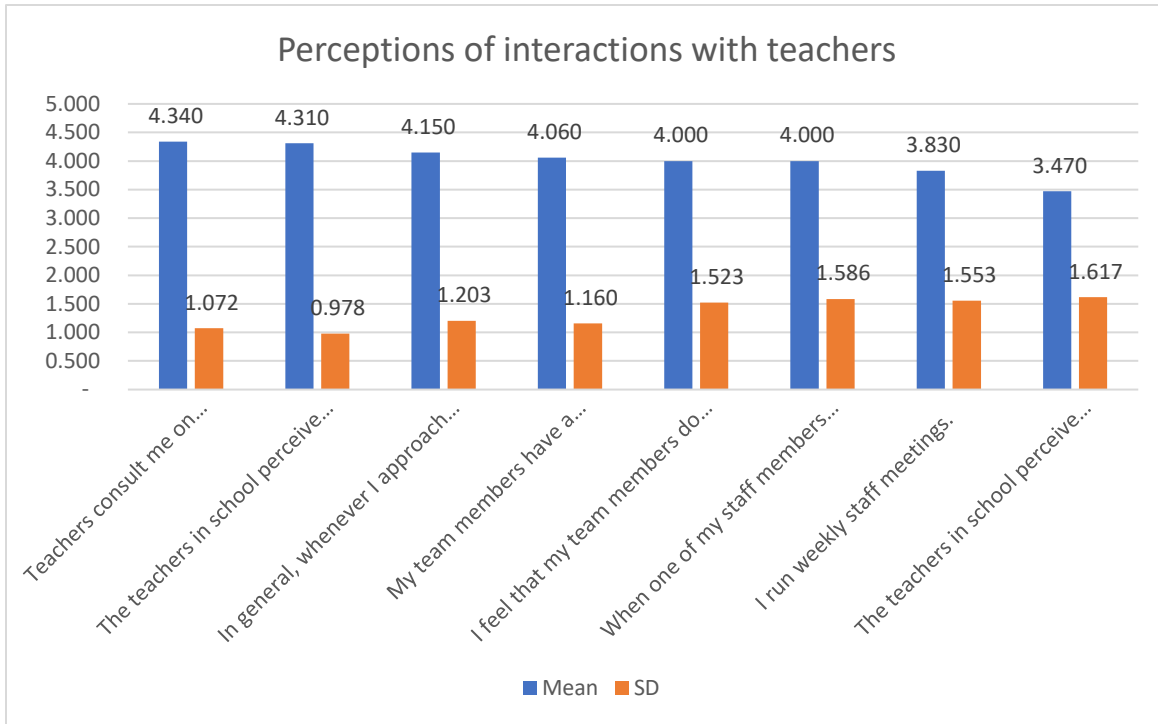
Chart 22: MMs' perceptions of their interactions with teachers

It is striking that MMs report to be perceived as professional authority to be consulted when the need arises, but not being recognized by the staff as part of the school management. This may indicate that the role of MMs as part of the school management has not been communicated by the principal, neither to the MMs nor to the school staff of teachers.

87.2% of MMs (N=116) report that the students in their schools know their role. 5.3% of MMs do not know if the students in their school know their role. Only 3% of respondents state that students in their schools do not know their role. 4.5% of respondents (N=6) report they do not see students as part of their role.

Frequency of meeting with studnets as part of being a MM

Category	N	%
Every day	58	43.6
More than once a week	20	15
Once a week	13	9.8
Once a month	9	6.8
Less than once a month	20	15
I don't meet pupils as part of my job	13	9.8
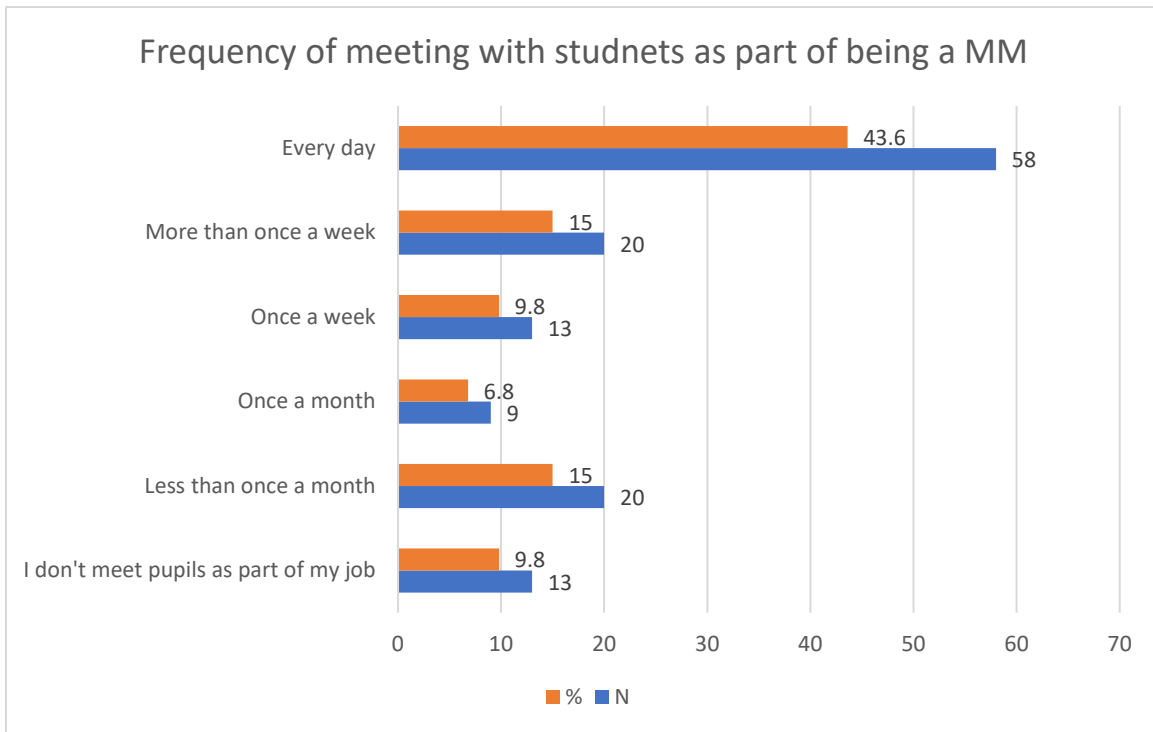
Chart 23: MMs' encounters with students as part of their role

The distribution of responses disperses when MMs are asked about the frequency of their encounter with students as part of their role. The distribution of results can be seen in the chart 23 above. 9.8% of respondents (N=13) do not meet with students as part of their role. 68.4% of respondents report they meet student at least once a week or more up to every day (N=91). This might propose that some roles assigned in schools are not directly related to students.

81.2% of MMs reported that they think it is a part of their role to connect with parents and only a minority of 9.8% (N=13) do not think so.

According to MMs reports 33.1% of them (N=44) regularly meet with parents as part of their role. The rest of reports ranges from not meeting parents as part of the job (N=6, %=4.5), to when necessary (N=54, %=40.6) to from time to time (N=29, %=21.8).

MMs were further asked, about their perception of the impact of their interaction with parents over whole school issues. 50.4% of MMs agree with this statement (N=67), which implies that the rest of 49.6% (N=66) do not think so for various reasons. Either it is irrelevant for their role (N=20, %=15), or they disagree (N=15, %=11.3%), or they do not

know (N=31, %=23.3) if it is correct that their interaction with parents affect whole school issues.

In this respect, MMs were asked about their ability to solve problems without further intervention of the principal, when they meet parents. A great majority of 85% of MMs (N=113) responded positively.

To sum up, MMs' reported perceptions of their interactions with the school's stakeholders, teachers, students and parents are positive, but their perceptions of their role in the school management and their perceptions of the impact of their role on the school as a whole is much lower.

Chapter 7: Differences in perceptions of the role of MMs in school management in the declarations of principals and MMs.

This chapter encapsulates the results of comparing and correlating the findings of the principals and MMs. Data will be utilized to draw conclusions regarding research hypothesis #2: There will be differences in the role perceptions of principals and MMs in certain aspects of the school role construct and role perception.

7.1.   Self-Efficacy among Principals and MMs

Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) is not directly related to the subject of this research, which is 'The perceptions of principals and MMs of the role of MMs in school management'. However, it was believed that to gain as much information about the respondents, it was required to study their sense of self-efficacy perception of ability and motivation to lead a change in school. Even though MMs are not school principals, their role as change agents has been discussed and researched over the last previous decades (White, 2001, Shaked, & Schechter, 2017, Bryant, Wong & Adames, 2020), Tang, Bryant., & Walker, 2022). Thus, if the people who constitute the school management are expected to lead school change, it is not less than crucial to study their self-efficacy and attitudes regards their ability to lead a change in school.

Chart 24 below uncovers and shows comparison rates of self-efficacy of both groups. Generally, the principals' sense of self-efficacy is higher than that of MMs. This finding is not remarkably surprising, as it seems natural for people who have become high school principals to believe in themselves. However, observing the figures more in depth, reveals that the smallest gap between principals and MMs is shown in the item *'ability to create a positive learning environment'*. This item receives the highest score of MMs reports (MMs' M=4.15, Principals' M=4.29). This figure is compelling, as it implies the underlying fact that MMs who interact more regularly with the "field" feel most capable (about themselves) of influencing the positive learning environment. Additionally, it may also imply that principals understand it. This assumption can be supported by the finding that principals' highest scores are in broader, more systemic items such as 'promoting the

school vision and its goals' (M=4.44), 'promoting learning in school' (M=4.43) and 'promoting a sense of belonging to school' (M=4.42).
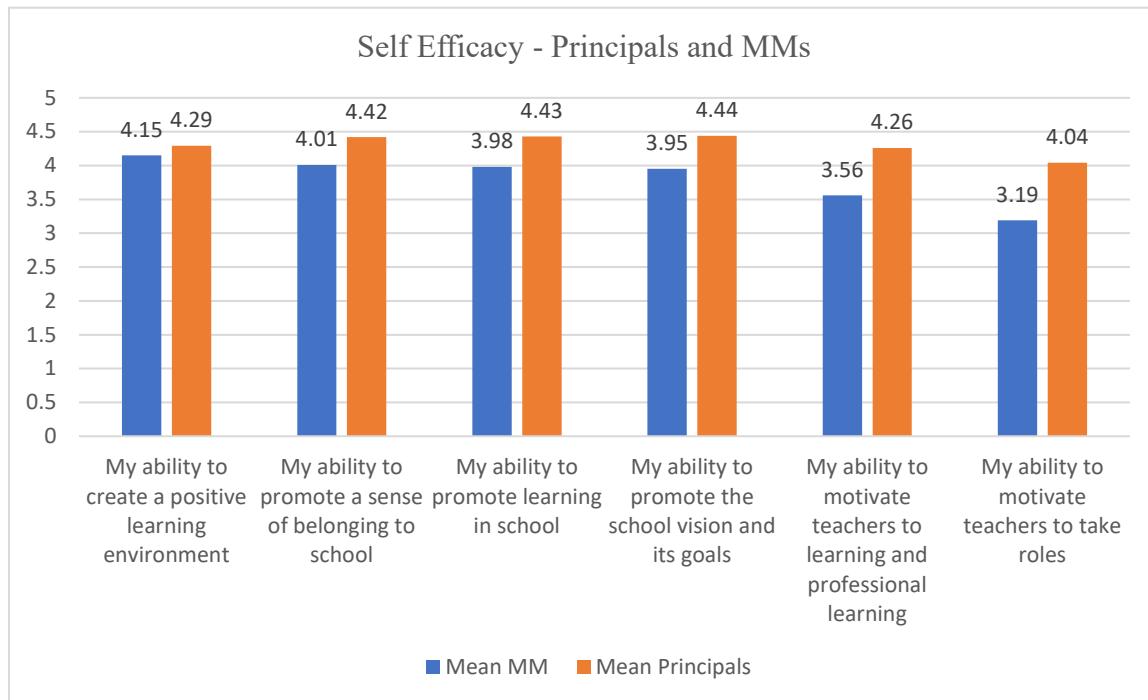
Chart 24: Principals and MMs' self-efficacy, compared

Exploration using Kołmogorow-Smirnow test showed that for both groups the distribution of tests variable differs statistically from the normal distribution. As the correlated groups (Principals N=89; and Middle Managers M=133) are uneven, it excluded the possibility of using a parametric t-student's test. Therefore, a nonparametric counterpart U Mann-Whitney procedure was administered. Results show that when it comes to self-efficacy principals and MMs differ statistically in most of the tested areas:

- I can promote learning in school ($M_{rankPrincipals}$=134.86, M_{rankMM}=95.87)
- I can make progress towards realizing the school vision ($M_{rankPrincipalss}$=136.44, M_{rankMM}=94.81)
- I can promote a sense of belonging (MrankPrincipals=136.44, MrankMM=94.81)
- I can motivate teachers to learning and professional development (MrankPrincipals=139.87, MrankMM=92.52)
- I can motivate and aspire teachers to accept roles at school (MrankPrincipals=144.16, MrankMM=89.65)

The only exception to be non-significant is *I can create a positive learning environment* which shows only a tendency (MrankPrincipals=120.24, MrankMM=105.65).

It is rather obvious and understood that in general principals view themselves more capable of leading change compared to MMs. However, as mentioned here-above the one statistically non-significant item *I can create a positive learning environment,* which reveals only a tendency piques curiosity. As MMs are teachers with additional responsibility, this statement related to the actual "doing" of teaching at school, which involves both teachers and students, whereas all other areas belong to the field of aspiration and influence, which are characteristics of leadership. It appears that both principals and MMs are aware of the extent of their influence on creating a positive learning environment at school. Principals know the crucial role of the managers in the 'field' and their own somewhat limited or dependent influence on the positive learning environment. The same goes with the MMs who are aware of the fact they are the ones who lead the way in the 'field', which is not dependent on the principal's doing, but on their own functioning. Showing only a tendency to a statistical difference ($M_{rankPrincipals}$=120.24, M_{rankMM}=105.65) highlights the probability that with the right direction, training and mentoring, MMs can increase their own sense of self-efficacy.

To conclude, the two groups were found to be statistically different as far as self-efficacy is concerned. Despite the Principals' reflecting a greater sense of self-efficacy, the group of MMs also reflected a sense of self-efficacy, even if somewhat lower, compared to the principals.

7.2.   Perceptions of tasks and responsibilities of MMs at school.

This research aims at studying the perceptions of principals and MMs of the roles of MMs in school management. As stated in the introductory section of this chapter, one research hypotheses postulate a difference in perceptions between the two groups of respondents, in some respects. Therefore, both principals and MMs were asked about the expected tasks and responsibilities of MMs at school. Results of each group were presented and discussed separately in the previous chapters. To study whether the two groups statistically differ when it comes to perceptions of the tasks/responsibilities surveyed, chi-square tests were conducted. Results of Chi-Square tests for each of the tasks/responsibilities are

summarized in Table 4 below. The table reveals the different perceptions of principals and MMs regarding the variety of tasks and responsibilities MMs should undertake at school. The percentages represent the proportion that each group believes MMs should be responsible for each for each of the tasks.

The Chi2 value and asymptotic significance indicate a significant difference in the perceptions of Principals and MMs regarding the tasks and responsibilities. Additionally, the Phi/Cramer's value suggest a moderate association between the two variables.

As can be learnt from table 1, there are statistically significant differences in all the surveyed tasks and responsibilities between the two groups of respondents. In general, when it comes to the tasks and responsibilities surveyed, principals more often expect them from their MMs, than their MMs claim that these tasks and responsibilities are expected from themselves as part of their role. These results clearly indicate a difference in perceptions between the two groups.

Table 4: Principals and MMs' perceptions of tasks and responsibilities correlated (source: author's own research)

Task/Responsibility	Princi pals %	MMs %	chi² value	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Phi / Cramer's Value
Manage staff of teachers	59.7%	40.3%	65,769a	<,001	0.544
Make decisions for use of budget	44.9%	14.9%	50,306a	<,001	0.476
Schedule relevant school calendar	89.3%	10.7%	136,167a	<,001	0.783
Write annual work plan	81.9%	18.1%	118,742a	<,001	0.731
Set and conduct weekly staff meeting	71.7%	28.3%	95,632a	<,001	0.656
Visit staff's classrooms	97.3%	2.7%	154,529a	<,001	0.834
Set annual goals	90.2%	9.8%	136,179a	<,001	0.783
Assist staff members professionally	68.9%	31.1%	88,683a	<,001	0.632
Assist staff members in personal problems	91.4%	8.6%	112,191a	<,001	0.711
Operate team/stage/students routine	63.3%	36.7%	67,693a	<,001	0.552
Comply with school policy	88.4%	11.6%	161,506a	<,001	0.853
Monitor staff's performance	90.1%	9.9%	132,924a	<,001	0.774
Take part in school management meetings	79.4%	20.6%	121,479a	<,001	0.740
Teaching subject	62.7%	37.3%	62,009a	<,001	0.529
Take care of discipline issues	80.5%	19.5%	88,352a	<,001	0.631
Evaluate staff's performance	98.3%	1.7%	116,130a	<,001	0.732
Induction of new staff	90.1%	9.9%	108,873a	<,001	0.700
Sustain school regulation	96.6%	3.4%	189,893a	<,001	0.925
Constructing learning groups/classes	90.2%	9.8%	87,810a	<,001	0.629
Accountable for students' outcomes	84.8%	15.2%	130,657a	<,001	0.767
Build annual social work plan	92.1%	7.9%	98,929a	<,001	0.668
Liaising with parents	83.8%	16.2%	142,387a	<,001	0.801
Conduct difficult conversations	97.2%	2.8%	141,666a	<,001	0.799
Check students' attendance	98.2%	1.8%	107,992a	<,001	0.697
Participate in school's seminars	97.3%	2.7%	154,529a	<,001	0.834
Feedback staff for performance	100%	0%	140,357a	<,001	0.795

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 31,27.

A detailed analysis of Table 4 reveals several instances of tasks and responsibilities where a significant discrepancy between the two groups is evident. Notable examples include providing staff feedback on performance, which was reported by 0% of MMs compared to 100% of principals. Other examples with remarkable differences include checking student attendance, participating in school seminars, conducting difficult conversations, and visiting staff classrooms. All of these tasks were reported by fewer than 3% of MMs.

7.3.   Perceptions of necessity of managerial skills

The factors enhancing and inhibiting the performance of MMs are one of the main themes researched and discussed in literature of MM (Tang, Bryant, & Walker, 2022). To investigate the possible difference in perception between the principals and MMs regarding the necessary managerial skills required for a MM, both groups were given an identical question that was based on Sergiovanni's (1995) list of seven work areas/ managerial skills. Sergiovanni illustrated a number of tasks that are a part of the administrative processes at school. Among which are planning, coordinating, staffing, reporting, budgeting. In addition, a list of 74 skills and capabilities that constitute realms of proficiencies in school management was introduced in a number of categories.

Chart 25 below compares results of both groups regarding the tasks surveyed. In both groups the three top necessary tasks found were coordinating (Principals M=3.78, MMs M=3.71), Planning (Principals M=3.78, MMs M=3.62) and applying the school pedagogical approach (Principals M=3.55, MMs M=3.49).
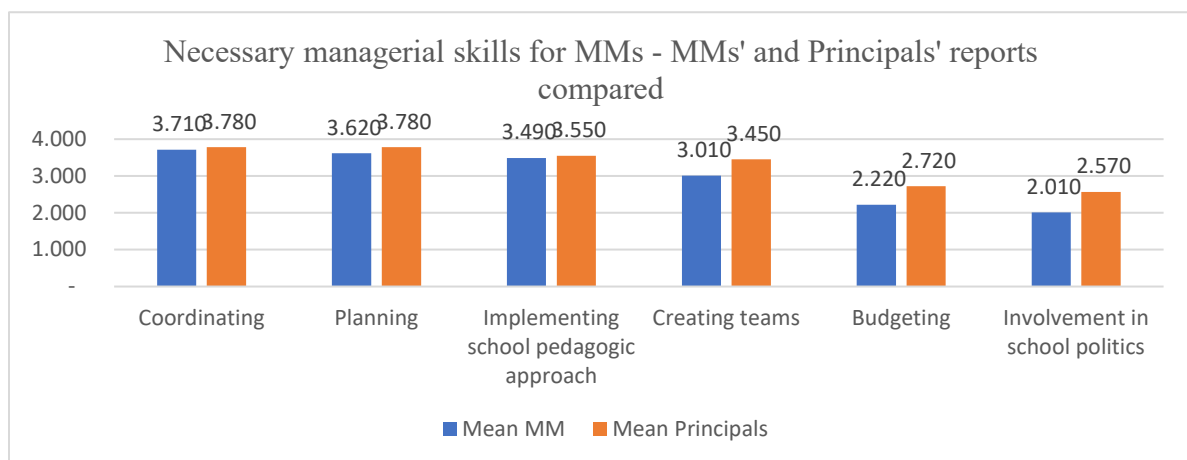
Chart 25: Necessary managerial skills for MMs - MMs' and Principals' reports compared

A U Mann-Whitney test was conducted to compare the perceptions of principals and MMs regarding the necessary managerial tasks of MMs. The results showed that principals and MMs have statistically significant differences in their perceptions of the necessary tasks. Principals perceive a greater necessity for planning (MrankPrinciples=121.91) than their MMs (MrankMM=104.53): (U=4992; p<0.01). In addition, Principals claim that the necessity of coordinating is higher than what MMs think (MrankPrinciples=119.01, MrankMM=106.47): (U=5259; p<0.028). The same pattern repeats itself when it comes to staffing/creating staffs: Principals find it a necessity task for their MMs (MrankPrinciples=128.12), more than their MMs think so (MrankMM=100.38): (U=4439.5; p<0.001). Implementing the school's pedagogic approach is another task which reflects statistical differences between the two groups (MrankPrinciples=120.8, MrankMM=102.61): (U=4824; p<0.008). The last task in question over which principals and MMs statistically differ in their notions is involvement in school politics (MrankPrinciples=131.01, MrankMM=98.45): (U=4182,5; p<0.001).

The perceptions of principals and MMs regarding the necessity of budgeting were found to be similar. A U Mann-Whitney test showed no statistically significant difference between the two groups (MrankPrinciples=119.01, MrankMM=106.47): (U=5233.5; p=0.131).

To sum up, the results showed that principals and MMs have statistically significant differences in their perceptions of the necessary tasks such as planning, coordinating, staffing/creating staffs, implementing the school's pedagogic approach, and involvement in school politics. However, the perceptions of principals and MMs regarding the necessity of budgeting were found to be similar with no statistically significant difference between the two groups.

7.4. Perception of the importance of the role of MMs in school management

This research found that MMs consider their role to be significant (M=4.43, SD=0.8), they report to comply to school policies (M=4.40, SD=0.75), and see themselves as contributors to the school's success (M=4.31, SD=0.8). The importance that principals place on the role of MMs is based on their expectations of them. For example, if a principal expects their MMs to advance the school's vision or communicate decisions made by the SMT, it indicates that they view them as crucial to achieving positive outcomes for the school.

Chart 26 illustrates that there are similarities between groups in terms of advancing the school's vision (Principals M=4.19, MMs M=4.23), mediating SMT decisions (Principals M=4.18, MMs M=4.24), being the school's ambassadors (Principals M=4.09, MMs M=4.22), and promoting student achievements (Principals M=4.09, MMs M=4.09). In other words, both Principals and MMs have comparable views on these aspects of their roles. However, there are two areas where their perceptions differ: while Principals reported a mean of 4.02 for participating in school decision-making processes, the mean for MMs was 3.55. Additionally, while Principals reported a mean of 4.01 for managing teams, the mean for MMs was 3.62. These results suggest that Principals have higher expectations than MMs regarding these two aspects of school management. In other words, MMs report less involvement in decision-making processes and team management than their principals expect.
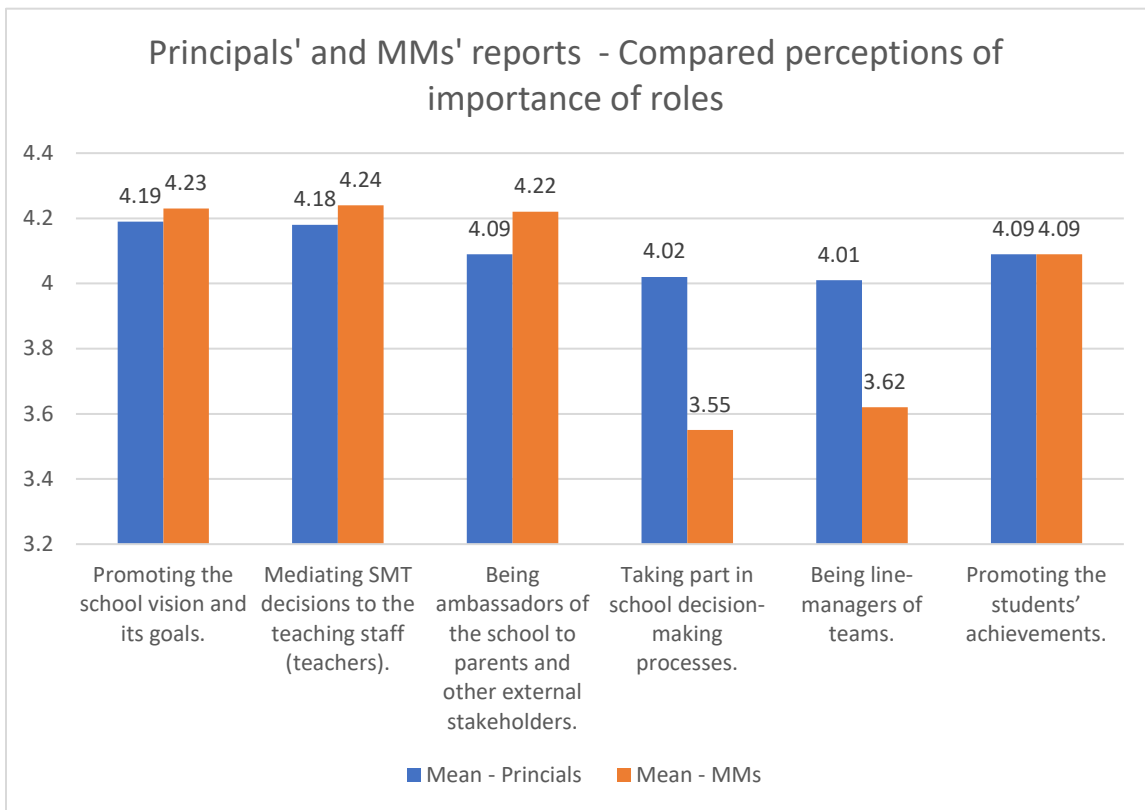
Chart 26: Principals' and MMs' compared perceptions of importance of roles

A U Mann-Whitney test was conducted to investigate the correlation between groups regarding their perceptions of the role of MMs in school management. The results showed statistical significance for two statements:

1) MMs' participation in school decision-making processes (U=4801.5, p<0.05, Mprincipals=124.05 > Mmm=103.10)

2) MMs' authority as line-managers of their teams (U=4987.5, p<0.05, Mprincipals=121.96 > Mmm=104.50).

These findings suggest that there are differences in how principals and MMs perceive the importance of the MM role in school management. Specifically, there is a gap between what is stated and what is done regarding MMs' participation in decision-making processes and their authority as line-managers.

7.4.1. Perception of the role of MMs as a member of the school management team

As previously mentioned, there is a significant difference in the perceptions of principals and middle managers (MMs) regarding MMs' involvement in school management and their knowledge of senior management team (SMT) decisions before other teachers. This research also highlights the crucial role of principal support in building the capacity and visibility of MMs as members of school management. The importance of MMs being informed about SMT decisions before other teachers cannot be overstated. To further explore this topic, both principals and MMs were asked to respond to two additional statements:

1. "My MMs are informed about SMT decisions before other teachers" / "As an MM, I am informed about management decisions before other staff members."
2. "My MMs participate in decision-making processes at school" / "As an MM, I take part in decision-making processes."

Chart 27 below shows the compared results of the first statement. There are clear differences between the two groups regarding their knowledge of management decisions. 82% of principals report that their middle managers (MMs) know about management

decisions before other teachers (48.3% strongly agree, 33.7% agree). In contrast, only 55.6% of MMs report being informed about management decisions before other teachers (26.3% strongly agree, 29.3% agree). More than a quarter of MM respondents (27.8%) somewhat agree with this statement, while 16.6% disagree, compared to only 3.3% of principals.
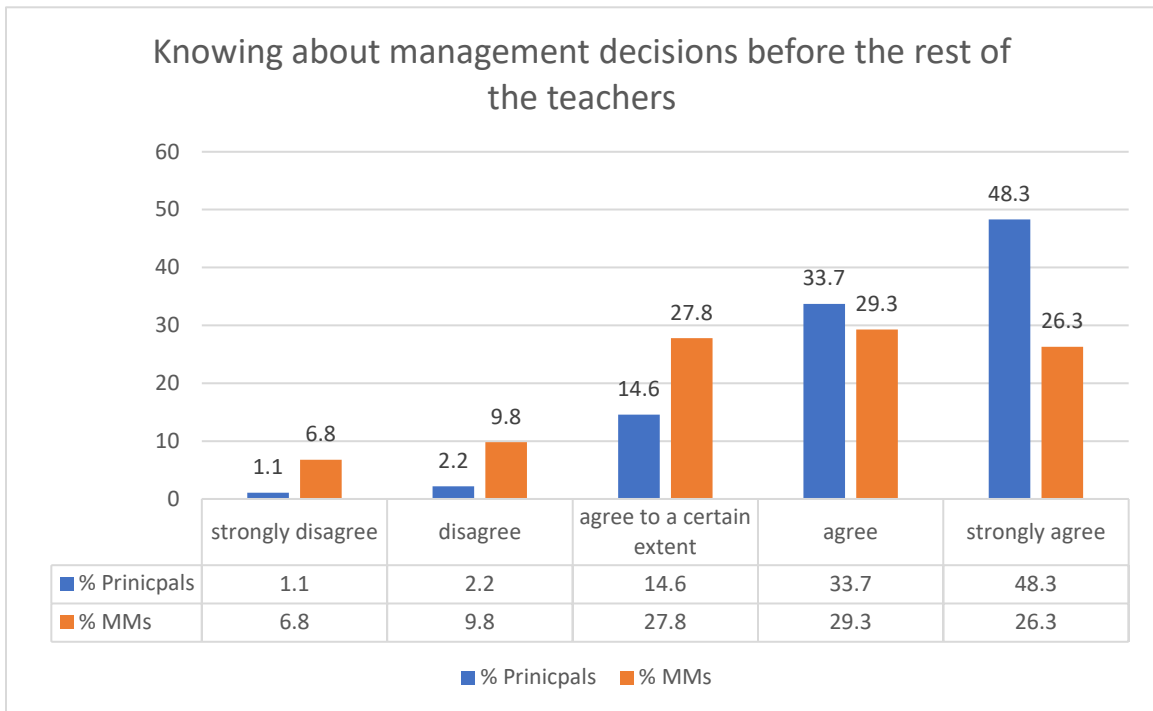
Chart 27: Differences in perceptions between the Principals' and MMs' reports regarding knowing about management decisions before the rest of the teachers

There are also noticeable differences between the two groups regarding their participation in decision-making processes. While 71.9% of principals agree that their middle managers (MMs) take part in decision-making processes, only 48.9% of MMs report agreeing with this statement (24.8% strongly agree, 24.1% agree). 36.1% of MMs somewhat agree with the statement. The difference between principals and MMs becomes more apparent when considering the percentage of MMs who disagree with the statement (19.6%), compared to only 1.1% of principals. These findings are illustrated in Chart 28.
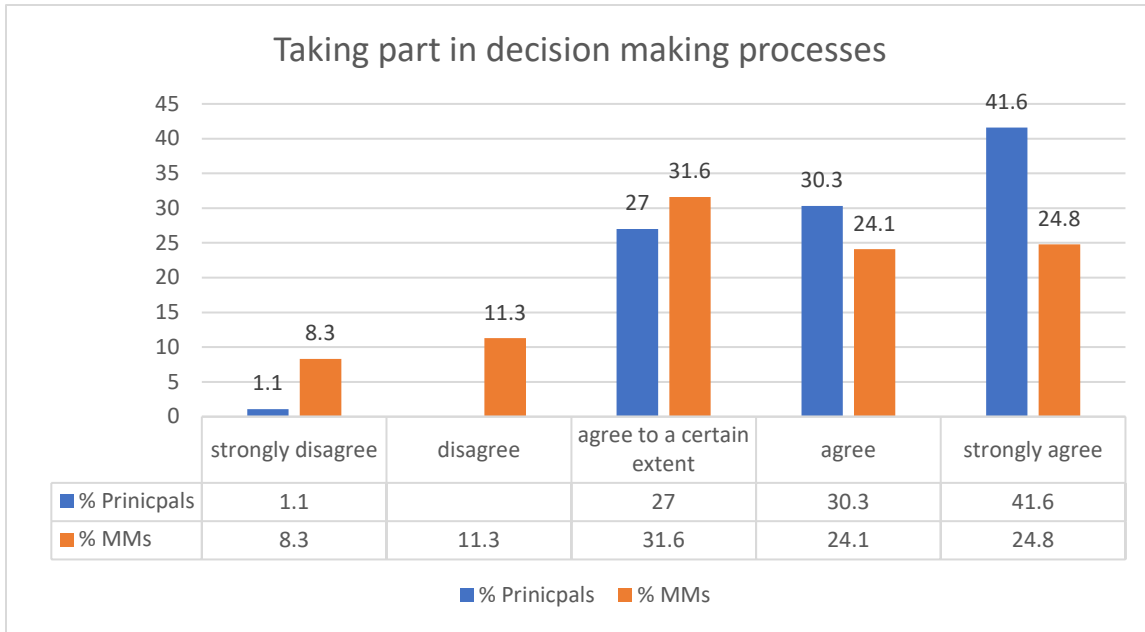
Chart 28: Differences in perceptions between the Principals' and MMs' reports regarding knowing about management decisions before the rest of the teachers

To determine if the differences in responses between the two groups regarding these two statements were statistically significant, a nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. The results showed statistically significant differences between the two groups. Principals reported higher levels of agreement than their middle managers (MMs) about MMs knowing about senior management team (SMT) decisions before other teachers (MrankPrincipals=133.58), while MMs reported lower levels of agreement (MrankMM=96.73); U=3953.5; p<0.001. Similarly, principals reported higher levels of agreement than their MMs about MMs' participation in decision-making processes (MrankPrincipals=131.65), while MMs reported lower levels of agreement (MrankMM=98.02); U=4125; p<0.001.

These results indicate differences in perceptions between the two groups regarding the role of MMs as members of school management.

7.5. Perceptions of collaboration and power share between Principals and MMs

Support and trust, reflected through collaboration and power sharing, are frequently cited as factors that enhance the performance of MMs and their overall impact on the school. In

this research, MMs view their principals as supportive and trustful. The feedback and evaluation meetings between principals and MMs during the year were compared to the MMs' reports of their meetings with their principals for feedback and evaluation during the current year (when the questionnaire was taken). The results for each group are shown in charts 29 and 30.
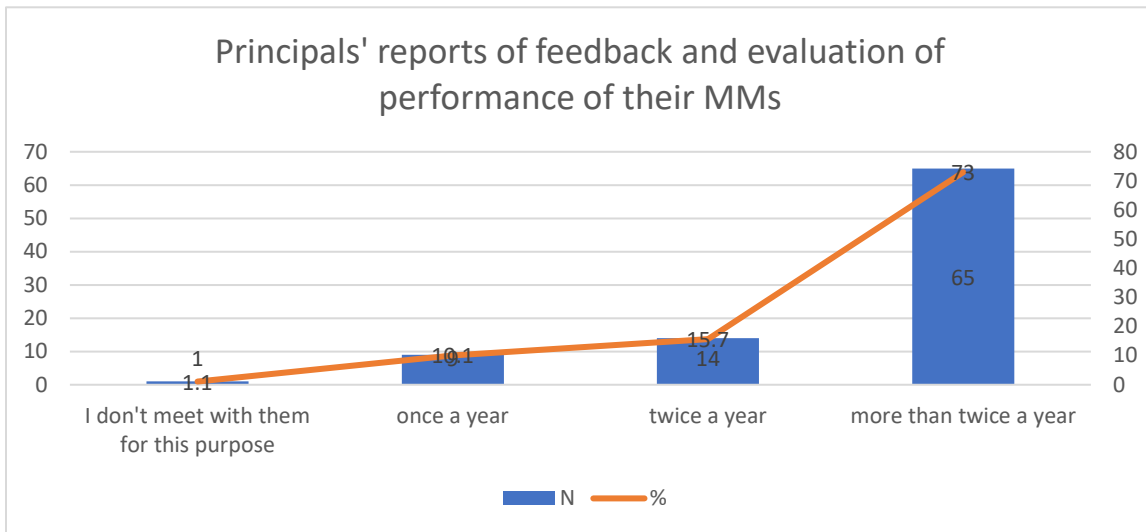
Chart 29: Principals' reports of feedback and evaluation of performance of their MMs
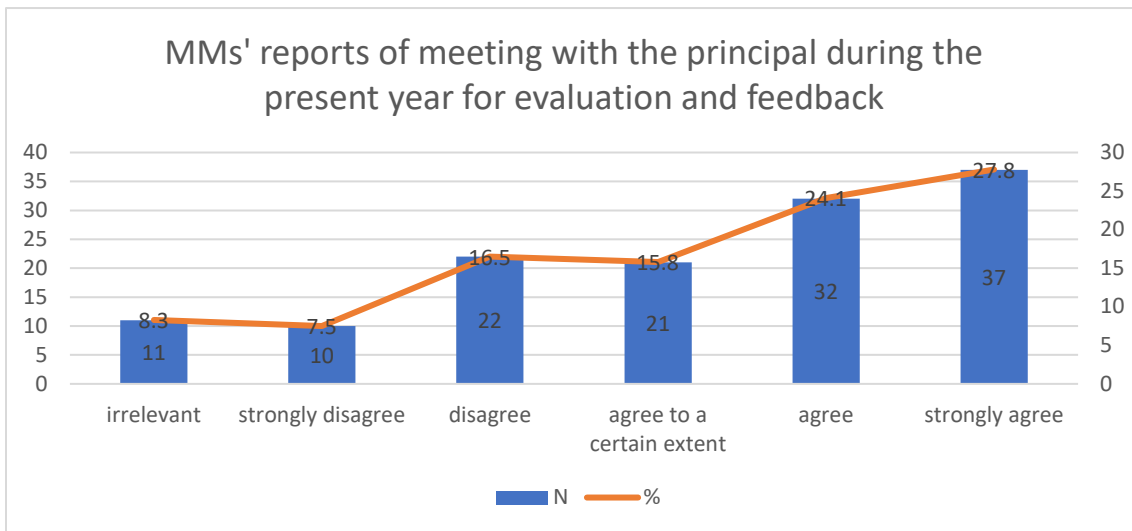
Chart 30: MMs' reports of meeting with the principal during the present year for evaluation and feedback

According to the data, 73% of principals (N=65) have feedback meetings with their MMs more than twice a year, and 15.7% meet with their MMs for evaluations and performance twice a year. In total, 90% of principals report having meetings twice a year or more.

However, MMs report differently. When asked about their feedback meetings with their principal during the year the questionnaire was taken, chart 25 shows that 32.2% of MMs disagree with the statement, indicating they did not meet with their principal for feedback and evaluation that year. This highlights a discrepancy between principals and their MMs.

The necessity of involvement in school politics was also studied to compare and correlate responses between the two groups. Charts 31 and 32 show the distribution of reports from principals and MMs regarding their perceptions of the necessity for MMs to be involved in school politics as part of their required managerial tasks.
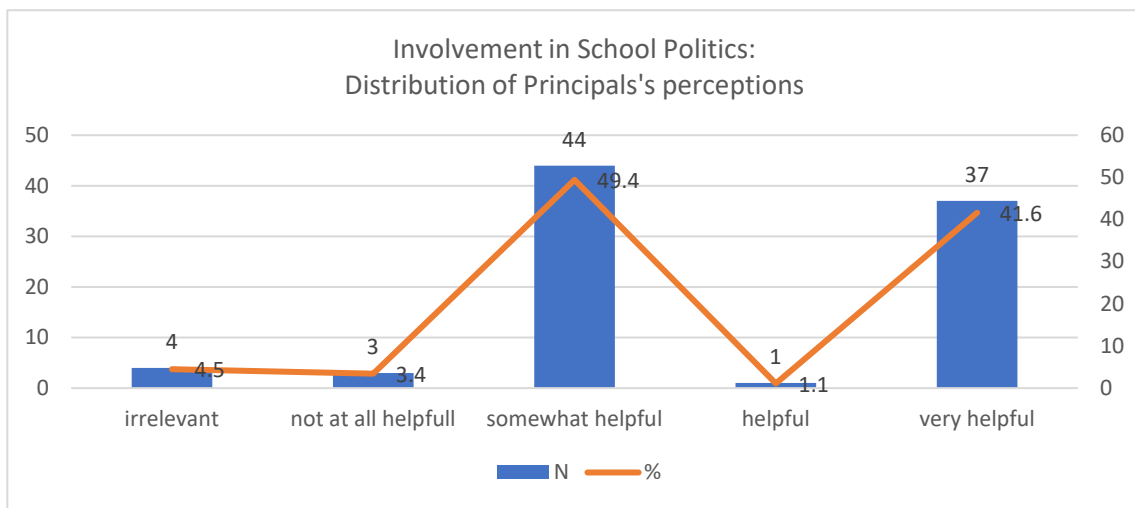
Chart 31: Involvement in School Politics: Distribution of principals' perceptions
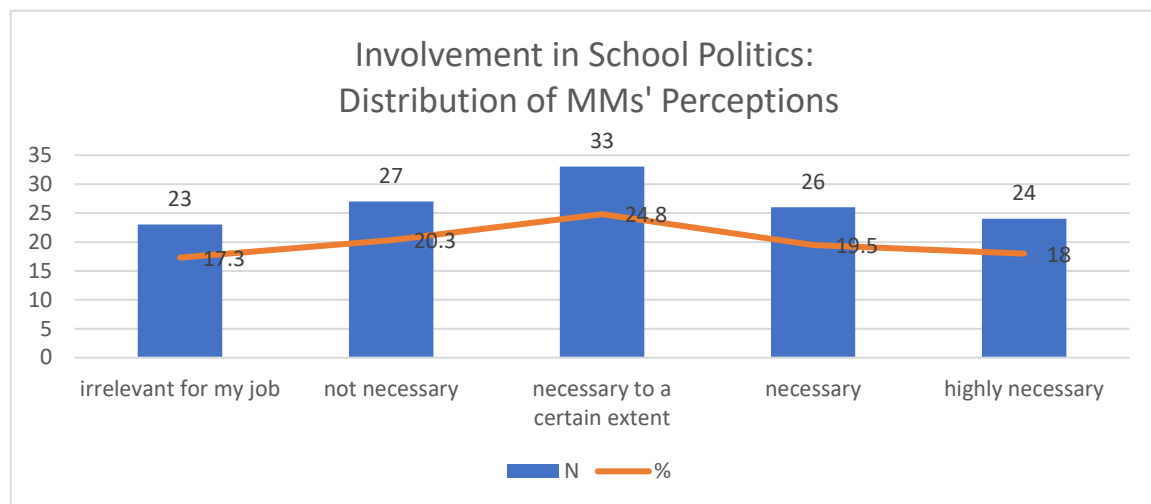
Chart 32: Involvement in School Politics - Distribution of MMs' Perceptions

Principals seem to be divided on whether it is necessary for their MMs to be involved in school politics. While 41.6% of principals (N=37) consider it a highly necessary managerial task for their MMs, 49.4% (N=44) chose the neutral option of 'somewhat helpful', which may indicate a lack of opinion. The results for MMs show a bell-shaped Gaussian distribution, with 24.8% (N=33) choosing 'necessary to a certain extent', again indicating a neutral or lack of opinion.

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to determine if the difference between the two groups was statistically significant. The results show a statistically significant difference (p<0.001), with principals perceiving the involvement of their MMs in school politics as more important (Mprincipals=131.01) than their MMs (Mmiddlemanagers=98.45). This indicates that the perceptions of principals and MMs differ significantly when it comes to the necessity of involvement in school politics as a required managerial task for MMs and when comparing reports of the frequency of feedback and evaluation meetings.

Chapter 8: Discussion

8.1. Introduction

This study explores the perceptions of Israeli high school principals and MMs regarding the role of MMs in school management. It addresses two research questions: how principals perceive the role of MMs in their school management and how MMs perceive their own role in school management. The results of the study are discussed below, highlighting the perception of both groups and the differences between them.

This chapter is organized in four sections:

8.1. Introduction

8.2. The perceptions of principals of the role of MMs in school managements

8.3. The perceptions of MMs of their role in school managements

8.4. Comparing and contrasting results of principals and MMs.

8.2. The principal's perception of the Role of MMs' in the school's management

Leadership sharing varies across schools (Hallinger & Murphy, 2013). The way principals perceive the role of their MMs in school management is influenced by the goals, values, and norms of the local national context of the school (Shaked, Benoliel, & Hallinger, 2021). In an era of educational reforms (OECD, 2015), school principals must make sense of top-down education policies and reforms dictated by the MOE and form their own policies (Bell & Stevenson, 2006). With accountability being central in education, Spillane et al.'s (2002) assertion that school principals use sense-making frameworks to interpret their roles still holds true. Shaked (2018) reaffirms that school principals serve as local policymakers and often choose their areas of focus based on their own vision and values.

The results discussed below not only highlight the perceptions of principals regarding the role of their MMs in school management but also the changing role of Israeli high school principals. This role aligns with international trends (Drysdale, Gurr & Goode, 2016) while also being influenced by the unique characteristics of the Israeli context and culture.

8.2.1. Structure of Israeli high school managements

Israeli high school principals assign roles to their school management based on formal roles defined by the MOE and the two state reforms, Ofek Hadash and Oz La'Tmura (Geva et al., 2016). In addition to these formal roles, principals have the autonomy to enact their vision and pedagogical agenda by appointing other roles that reflect their vision and agenda. This research uncovered a wide range of "other" roles, revealing unique and varied structures of Israeli high school management. Principals exercise their autonomy to construct their school management in a way that aligns with their agenda and vision and prioritizes the school's needs. As a result, there is no single school management structure that can be defined. This finding aligns with the MOE's policy of encouraging schools to specialize and develop their uniqueness (Oplatka & Lapidot, 2018). It is worth noting the existing knowledge base that outlines the variety of roles and responsibilities held by MMs (Harris et al., 2019).

8.2.2. Principals' perceptions of tasks and responsibilities

The Israeli high school principals who participated in this research showed a wide range of expectations for the tasks and responsibilities of their MMs, indicating a positive perception. Over 90% of principals expect their MMs to manage a staff of teachers, comply with school policy, maintain school regulations, liaise with parents, provide professional assistance to staff members, conduct weekly staff meetings, manage teams/stages/students/routines, and participate in school management meetings. These expectations suggest that principals view their MMs as managers in terms of their expectations.

However, the results also reveal a potential discrepancy between these expectations and the actual authority given to MMs. Only 44.9% of principals expect their MMs to make decisions regarding the use of the budget, highlighting a gap between declared expectations and the delegation of decision-making authority over budget matters. This finding raises questions about the ambiguity surrounding the role of MMs.

The literature emphasizes the importance of involving teachers in decision-making processes, particularly those related to budgeting. White (1992) suggests that empowering teachers through involvement in budgeting decisions can increase their sense of ownership and responsibility for the school's success, potentially leading to improved educational outcomes for students. Oyier & Odundo (2017) argue that involving science teachers in budgeting for instructional resources not only decentralizes secondary school management but also shows appreciation for the role of science in instructional management and enhances the utilization of teaching and learning resources. Therefore, the fact that only 44.9% of principal respondents in this study expect their MMs to participate in budgeting decisions suggests that the potential for MMs to make a difference in this area has not yet been fully realized.

8.2.3. Principals' perceptions of competence expectations and necessary managerial skills

As discussed earlier in chapter 5, competence expectations can be interpreted as expectations of responsibilities, tasks, and abilities. Results show that principals expect their MMs to have the competencies of coordinating, planning, and implementing the school agenda. These findings suggest that principals expect their MMs to possess both managerial skills (coordinating and planning) and leadership skills (implementing the school agenda). This raises questions about whether MMs have these skills and whether they have received appropriate preparation before taking on the job.

In line with previous findings, principals do not consider budgeting to be a necessary competence or skill for their MMs. Principals also report that involvement in school politics is one of the least required skills for their MMs. Eliot (1959) suggested that public schools are political institutions and argued that the complexity of school politics is shaped by factors such as the organization of the school system, interest groups, and the influence of social and cultural forces that negotiate their interests and influence decision-making processes within schools. Malen (1994) explored the concept of micro-politics in education and suggested a framework for analyzing micro-politics at schools that includes three main dimensions: the distribution of power, the exercise of power, and the effects of power. It is important to consider Malen's framework when discussing the results of this study, which

indicate that involvement in school politics is the second least expected managerial skill for MMs (preceded only by budgeting).

Blasé (1989) examined the micro-politics of schools and how teachers develop everyday political orientations that affect their relationships with school principals. Blasé found that open principals were perceived by teachers as effective, while closed principals were perceived as ineffective. Openness was defined in terms of expectations, honesty, communicativeness, participation, collegiality, informality, and support. These characteristics are consistent with an interpersonal leadership style rather than a managerial style. Data from Blasé's study suggested that teachers and open principals collaborated to create and maintain exchange and reciprocation processes.

In light of this data and the results from this study, it appears that principals' perceptions of their MMs' competence expectations are more focused on managerial skills such as coordinating and planning and less on budgeting and involvement in school politics. If principals state that their necessary competence expectations for their MMs are planning and coordinating but to a much lesser extent involvement in school politics and budgeting, it clearly indicates that they perceive the role of their MMs to be more administrative than strategic or leadership oriented.

This insight is supported by results showing the prioritized competencies expected by principals from their MMs. The top priority competence expected from MMs by their principals is 'managing ability' (M=4.48, Md.=5, Dominant=5). The principals in this research did not prioritize instructional competencies over managing ability (Academic/Professional ability: M=2.54, Md=3, Dominant=3, SD=1). This finding reinforces Shaked's (2018) research which found that Israeli principals do not follow policy makers' expectations or professional recommendations and rarely engage in instructional leadership. It also supports Leithwood's (2016) distinction between middle leaders who focus on instruction, teaching, and learning and those whose role is managerial. Leithwood claims that the latter have little impact on teaching.

8.2.4. Principals' perceptions of competence resources to assist MMs perform and succeed in their role

In the unique structures of Israeli high school management, 91% of the principals in this study reported including their MMs in their EMT. Elevating a teacher to the school management level empowers the teacher and fosters a sense of belonging that enhances motivation. It also reflects the principal's support, which, as discussed in previous chapters, is a crucial factor in the success of MMs. Leithwood (2016) suggested several ways for principals (and SMT) to support MMs: allocating time for leadership functions and instructional responsibilities, sharing decision-making and delegating responsibilities, developing capacity, and providing a clear role definition that allows time for instructional activities and is not overwhelmed by administrative tasks. Gurr & Drysdale (2013), on the other hand, identified factors that can hinder the effectiveness of the MM role, such as lack of understanding and support from senior leaders, lack of preparation and leadership development, and underdeveloped professional knowledge.

Based on the reports of principals in this study, it appears that Israeli MMs are recognized as part of the school management and are perceived as collaborative partners in school improvement processes. However, it is important to note that participation in the school EMT does not necessarily represent empowerment if it remains superficial and does not include participative management (Brown, Boyle &, Boyle, 1999).

Results from this study indicate that Israeli principals establish and maintain collaboration with their MMs and are approachable when needed. MMs can contact their principals directly through any available means. To better understand the perceptions and practices of Israeli principals, it is relevant to refer to Shaked, Benoliel & Hallinger, (2021), who noted that Israel has a "low power distance" culture where all individuals are considered equal. This leads to an informal atmosphere in Israeli workplaces with direct communication among individuals on a first-name basis (p.448). Additionally, principals support their MMs through feedback meetings and by maintaining interpersonal relationships on both professional and personal levels.

8.2.5. Principals' perceptions of decision making at school

Principals worldwide seem to believe that they provide increased opportunities for decision-making in schools (Brezicha et al., 2020). However, using data from the OECD from 29 countries, Brezicha et al. (2020) found a gap in perceptions between teachers and principals. While principals believe they provide increased decision-making opportunities, teachers feel they are not included in such processes. Additionally, Brezicha et al. found a statistically significant correlation between teacher involvement in decision-making opportunities at school and their job satisfaction. The researchers concluded that principals have not yet fully understood the culture of shared decision-making.

The literature emphasizes the importance of involving teachers in shared decision-making processes to improve school outcomes and efficiency (Weil et al. 1984, Heck 1993, Hallinger & Heck 1999, Gurr and Drysdale 2013, Leithwood 2016, Benoliel & Barth 2017). In this study, principals were asked about their perceptions of their MMs' involvement in decision-making processes. Despite having structures in place to empower and develop the capacity of their MMs, the complexity and ambiguity of the MM role becomes more apparent when considering the findings regarding MMs' knowledge of SMT decisions before the rest of the teachers. While principals expect their MMs to promote the school vision and mediate SMT decisions to the teaching staff, only 82% of principals reported that their MMs know about SMT decisions before the rest of the teachers. Furthermore, when it comes to MMs' participation in decision-making processes at school, the figures continue to decrease.

These findings should be considered in light of Brown, Boyle & Boyle's (1999) study which examined whether collegiality in educational management is attainable. The researchers identified three types of schools: one that shows complete commitment to collegiality with heads of departments practicing shared decision-making based on the principal's view of them as experts and integral members of the school management team; a second type with less frequent opportunities for collaboration with other heads of departments and some involvement in the school development plan; and a third type with little formal collaboration between heads of departments and little or no cooperative working with other staff colleagues or consultation on whole school decisions. Brown,

Boyle & Boyle (1999) concluded that MMs are increasingly seeking a greater say in school decisions and want bureaucratic approaches to leadership to be replaced by distributed leadership throughout the school.

The results from this study align with Brown, Boyle & Boyle.'s findings, showing differences among principals regarding their level of commitment to participative management in their schools. It is therefore reasonable to suggest that not all MMs participate in whole-school decision-making processes and that it is not a universal practice for MMs to know about SMT decisions before the rest of the teaching staff. This reality undermines the status, visibility, and impact of MMs as members of school management among teachers at school. As such, principals should work towards minimizing the gap between their declared perceptions of their MMs' role in school management and their implementation and execution of these perceptions at school.

8.2.6. Principals' perceptions of power share at school

Hersey, Blanchard & Natemeyer (1979) explain the relationship between leadership and power: while leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group, power is the leader's potential to influence. To influence others, a leader must utilize their power. Sharing power at school means sharing the potential to influence others and is crucial for the success of MMs and, indirectly, for the success of the school (Leithwood et al., 2020). However, power sharing is complex and controversial (Stein & King, 1992) as it is dependent on culture and context and requires a commitment to collegiality translated into everyday practices and a belief in shared leadership. When power is genuinely shared at school, authentic collaboration develops, people are empowered, motivation and sense of belonging to the school increase, job satisfaction improves, and ultimately there is a higher level of commitment to school outcomes.

Principals in this study were asked about their perceptions of power sharing at their schools, specifically regarding role definitions, staff recruitment, and the authorities that determine school policy. Results show that role definitions at schools vary among respondents. 66.3% reported that the principal determines role definitions at school, indicating less authentic power sharing than expected based on other reported perceptions in this study. 12.4% reported following formal dictated role definitions, which does not allow for interpretations

of power sharing. Only 14.5% reported having special forums that jointly determine role definitions at school. Overall, results regarding decision-making over role definitions at school do not indicate power sharing.

Results are slightly different when it comes to establishing staff policy. 95.5% of principals reported that staff policy in their schools follows the school's general policy. However, this total comprises two optional statements: "The staff policy in my school is determined according to the school's general policy" (37.1%) and "The staff policy in my school is determined according to the school's general policy which the MMs are partners in setting" (58.4%). This indicates a relatively high extent of shared decision-making regarding staff policy. A broader interpretation of these findings suggests that principals are aware of the importance of power sharing (integral to opportunities for shared decision-making) and often practice it when it comes to matters concerning staff policy.

This interpretation is tentatively supported by results regarding staff recruitment. Out of 82% of principals who reported being involved in recruiting staff members either by doing it on their own (M=24, %=27) or together with an MM or someone else (N=49, %=55.1%), 8% (N=7, %=7.9%) reported that their MMs do it on their own, which is a manifestation of power sharing. Chart 33 below visualizes these results.
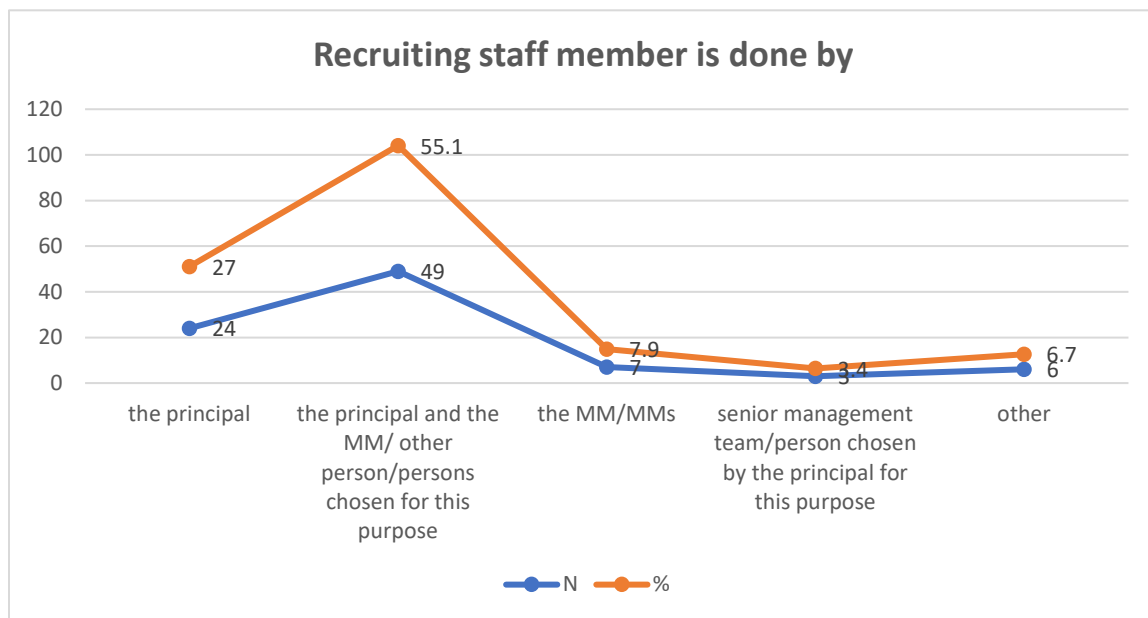
Chart 33: Distribution of results for recruiting a staff member.

The results discussed above shed light on some of the reasoning behind principals' practices of power sharing at school. Principals, who have the power to enact internal and external policies in their schools (Koyama, 2011; Shaked, 2018), exercise power sharing variably based on their values that influence their perceptions and practices (Law et al., 2003). According to the results of this study, they tend to be more power sharing in "local" matters where the shared entity is directly related to and affected by the act. In contrast, in more "systemic" matters that concern the whole school, they are less likely to share power.

8.3. The perceptions of MMs of their role in school management

As discussed in previous chapters, MMs have significant potential to positively influence school improvement and outcomes. However, this potential has not yet been fully realized despite the existence of theoretical models and recommendations in the field. The gap between internal or external policies and the actual routine practices implemented at schools to promote school improvement and outcomes in times of uncertainty (Drysdale & Gurr, 2017) still needs to be reduced. This is even more true now than before, when the significant role of MMs is widely recognized by supporters (King & Stevenson, 2017). At the heart of this gap lies the complexity of the MM role, which this research seeks to explore in order to gain insights into the perceptions of the role of MMs in Israeli high schools.

8.3.1. Roles MMs perform at school

There are several common roles performed by Israeli high school MMs. The findings of this research align with recent relevant literature (Iftach & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2023), which outlines a variety of formal roles defined by the Israeli MOE as well as local roles that depend on the specific context of the school. In practice, MMs who perform pedagogical roles such as subject coordinators also engage in administrative tasks as part of their role. Farhi & Tubin (2019) noted that administrative activities contribute to organizational stability and include tasks such as designing and coordinating curriculum, scheduling tests, passing on administrative information, and monitoring students' scores and teachers' attendance (p.374).

The common roles of MMs in Israeli high schools include subject coordinators, grade coordinators, counselors, pedagogical coordinators, and social education coordinators. Chart 34 below shows the distribution of these roles in percentages. It is worth noting that 24.5% (N=54) of the Israeli high school MM participants in this research are also homeroom teachers. Three main roles constitute the majority: subject coordinator (N=69, %=29.1), grade coordinator (N=31, %=14.1), and "other" (N=29, %=13.2). As mentioned earlier, "other" roles suggest local roles appointed by principals that reflect their agenda and the school's local needs. For example, when a principal appoints a Project Coordinator and includes this role in their school's middle management, it indicates the importance of projects in that specific school and highlights the school's pedagogical agenda. Similarly, when a principal appoints a Behavior Modification Coordinator, it points to a specific challenge that needs to be addressed by a person in charge who coordinates the subject at school and writes programs to be implemented.
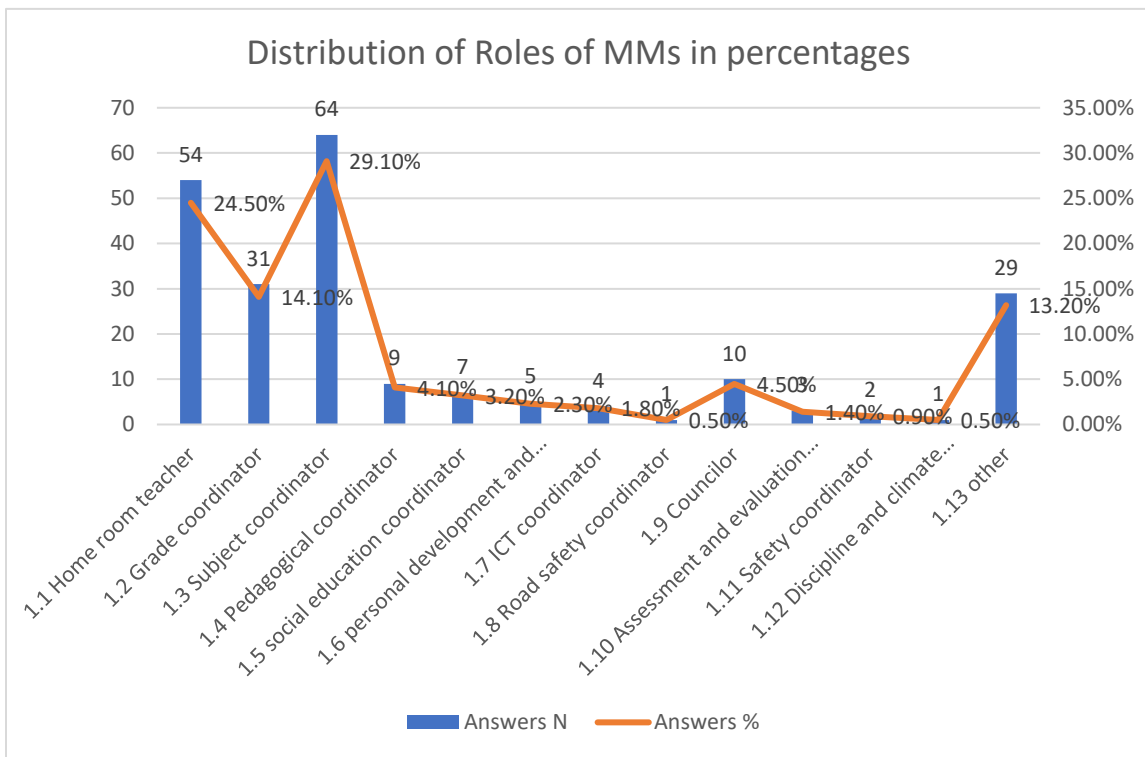
Chart 34: Distribution of Roles of MMs in percentages

The job seniority of MM participants in this research is varied and not homogeneous. Table 5 below shows the distribution of job seniority among MM participants. The majority of

MM participants in this research are novice teachers with 1-5 years of experience (48% of valid responses). A quarter of participants have 6-10 years of job seniority, and 27.4% have more than 11 years of experience.

Table 5: Distribution of job seniority among MMs participants (source: author's own research)

Job seniority	1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-30 years
% Of valid	48	25.1	11.1	5.6	10.4

These findings may suggest that MMs do not remain in their role for more than 10 years. This could be due to their own choice, burnout, or possibly being replaced by their principals. Another explanation could be that some of them become principals.

8.3.2. MMs' perceptions of Tasks and responsibilities performed by MMs based on the time allocated to performing each task/responsibility

Lack of time and workload are often cited as challenges for MMs (Iftach & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2023). The top three time-consuming tasks reported by MMs can provide insight into their actual performance. Results from this study show a discrepancy between the reported tasks and responsibilities and the top three time-consuming tasks reported by MMs. The top time-consuming tasks were: 'complying with school policy' (M=2.50), 'assisting staff members professionally' (M=2.38), 'liaising with parents' (M=2.37), 'monitoring staff performance' (M=2.30), 'setting and conducting weekly staff meetings' (M=2.26), 'checking students' attendance' (M=2.26), 'being responsible for students' outcomes' (M=2.22), and 'supporting school conventions and rules' (M=2.17).

Despite its relatively low rank, 'managing a staff of teachers' (M=2.14) was reported as the top time-consuming task by MMs (observed %=44.6, N=58, %=15.1), followed by 'operating team/stage/student routines' (observed %=36.2, N=47, %=12.3) and 'assisting staff members professionally' (observed %=28.5%, N=37, %=9.7%). All three top time-consuming tasks are more administrative than pedagogical. These findings align with the literature that highlights the imbalance between administrative and pedagogical tasks for MMs (Farhi & Tubin, 2019), which has been found in less effective schools.

185

On the other hand, the least attended tasks reported by MMs were 'evaluating staff performance' (observed %=0.8%, N=1, %=0.3%), 'checking students' attendance' (observed %=0.8%, N=1, %=0.3%), 'visiting staff classrooms' (observed %=1.5%, N=2, %=0.5%), and 'conducting difficult conversations' (observed %=1.5%, N=2, %=0.5%). These least attended tasks highlight the challenge of role conflict, reflecting the tension MMs experience in balancing their managerial duties with their collegial values (Iftach & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2023).

8.3.3. MMs' perception of the importance of role at school

Results from this study indicate that MMs generally perceive their role as important and view themselves as partners in school success. They report complying with the school's policy and, as the ones who implement school policies and work with teachers and pupils, it is likely that they view their role as central at school. However, when it comes to being partners in decision-making processes or having authority as line managers, results differ, reflecting a gap between MMs' general perception of their role and their personal experience regarding their actual participation in school leadership.

Saleem et al. (2020) draw on Path-Goal Theory to explain that directive principals who provide task directions do not involve teachers in policy-making or major administrative decision-making in schools. Furthermore, they claim that the directive leadership style is favorable in high-pressure work environments with demanding targets and goals. In the same vein, results can be interpreted in light of Yukl's (2012) hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behaviors that influence team performance. If MMs report limited participation in school decision-making processes, it may suggest that principals are more prone to exhibiting task-oriented behavior in their relationship with MMs. This is an unfortunate reality that exemplifies the unrealized potential of the MM role (Gurr & Drysdale, 2013). Results show a school life reality where members of school management who perceive their role as crucial and important remain focused on task-oriented behaviors and cannot transition to change-oriented behavior (Yukl, 2012) to become real school leaders who actively participate in decision-making processes.

These results also align with Brezicha et al.'s (2020) findings that uncovered a gap between teachers' and principals' perceptions regarding decision-making opportunities provided by

school principals and job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. While principals reported increased decision-making opportunities for teachers, teachers reported not being included in such processes. Shaked & Schechter (2017) found that Israeli MMs had a holistic view and system thinking ability to view the components of a school as a whole. Increased opportunities for authentic shared decision-making processes may be a means to promote school efficiency and outcomes.

Results further emphasize the complexity of the MM role at school in general and in school management in particular. Whether due to workload (Oplatka, 2017) or time constraints (Leithwood, 2016), Israeli high school principals have not yet fully utilized the potential embodied in their MMs to enhance and improve school outcomes by engaging them in decision-making processes.

8.3.4. MMs' perception of preparations for the job and professional development

Results from this research indicate inconsistent preparation of MMs for their role. While 38% of MM respondents reported undergoing preparation for their role before starting it, 14.3% reported not being prepared for their role. 28% of respondents underwent preparation at school by the principal, a senior manager, or another MM. However, for formal roles such as social affairs coordinator or ICT coordinator, the MOE requires formal training and preparation as a prerequisite for taking on the role. Thus, the results showing that 38% of respondents underwent professional training do not necessarily indicate that these individuals would have undergone preparation if it had not been required by the MOE and if a preparation program had not been available. Furthermore, 45% of MMs reported insufficient or no preparation for their role. These findings align with Harris et al. (2019), who found that MMs receive limited training.

Although MMs in this research ranked professional development (PD) as one of the three least helpful resources to assist them in carrying out their role, when asked to report two areas of PD that could help them improve their performance, they identified educational leadership and pedagogy as the top two necessary areas. Choosing these areas may indicate that they recognize a need for further professional development in these areas to improve their performance. Alternatively, it may suggest that they want to focus more on the

leadership aspect of their role or prepare themselves to become principals. Either way, choosing these areas highlights a declared need that should be addressed.

Furthermore, while MMs did not consider PD to be a central helpful resource, it is possible that this finding is related to the insufficient preparation Israeli MMs undergo. If one did not receive sufficient preparation for their role, they may not consider PD to be a helpful source. It is not unreasonable to suggest that MMs look to their principal for guidance and if their principal does not make it clear that preparation, training, and PD are important for their success and quality of performance, then MMs may follow suit.

8.3.5. MMs' perception of interactions with teachers, students and parents

Like any other teacher in Israel, MMs interact with teachers, students, and parents. Maintaining relationships and sustaining communication are two ways MMs perform their role (Tang et al., 2022). MMs develop their perceptions of cooperation with these three populations based on their interactions with them. In this research, MMs were asked about their perceptions of their interactions with teachers, students, and parents to study their perceptions of cooperation with each population separately and their perceptions of the impact of their role on the school as a whole, as reflected in their relationships and communication with these populations.

8.3.5.1. Perceptions of interactions with teachers

Results from this study indicate that MM respondents perceive themselves as professional leaders who are consulted by teachers when needed. However, scores are much lower when it comes to MMs' perception of themselves as members of the school management in the eyes of teachers. Having a formal role in the school hierarchy and being a line manager is a recurring theme in the literature on MMs (Lipscombe, Tindall-Ford, & Lamanna, 2023). Results from this study suggest that the position of MMs in Israeli high schools is complex and not well-defined among teachers and staff. Additionally, results highlight some of the tensions and inhibiting factors experienced by MMs, as discussed in the literature (Tang, Bryant, & Walker, 2022). While MMs must maintain relationships with their teams and teachers, they also have to harmonizes the tension between their collegiality with their team and their obligations to the school's senior management.

Furthermore, as argued by Bryant & Walker (2022), based on documented literature since the 1990s, MMs flourish when principals define and communicate their roles (p.520). Therefore, when MMs in this study report hesitantly that teachers perceive them as part of the school management, it suggests that their principals have not adequately defined their MMs' roles and have not communicated them appropriately to the school staff.

8.3.5.2. Perceptions of interactions with students

The potential impact of MMs on student learning outcomes is significant and can lead to school improvement (Angelle & DeHart, 2016; Harris et al., 2019). Middle leaders, whose positions mostly involve teaching, interact with students daily as teachers. It is interesting to examine whether students are aware of the role and responsibilities of their MM teachers at school. While some primary roles, such as grade coordinators, are well known to students because they interact with them regularly in various forums, it is uncertain whether students know the school's subject coordinators if they do not have a personal issue or request. "Other" roles, such as local ones, may be less present in students' daily routines.

If MMs are to impact student learning outcomes, they must do so directly. For this reason, this study examined how often MMs meet with students as part of their role. Results show that while about 70% of respondents meet with students at least once a week or every day, approximately 30% of MM respondents do not regularly meet with students as part of their role. These results may highlight the different roles and responsibilities of MMs; some roles involve managing and coordinating people while others involve coordinating an area of school improvement or change and do not necessarily require regular meetings with students. For example, an ICT coordinator would likely meet with more students more often than a youth-at-risk coordinator who is responsible for developing programs, meeting with officials, mapping, documenting, and analyzing educational data. Students may need to approach the ICT coordinator when a problem arises, while the youth-at-risk coordinator would naturally meet with fewer students less often and only when needed after treatment has been obtained.

However, it is suggested that MMs in "other" roles can integrate the essence of their role into their teaching and thus indirectly impact students even without meeting with them regularly.

8.3.5.3.   Perceptions of interactions with parents

De Nobile (2018) proposed a theoretical model of middle leadership in schools that consists of four components, one of which is relationship building. This component expects MMs to build relationships with all stakeholders in the school, including parents. MMs interact with parents regularly as part of their role and are approached by parents. Results from this study show that 81.2% of MM respondents believe that interacting with parents is part of their role, which aligns with De Nobile's model. However, only 50.4% of respondents believe that their interactions with parents impact whole-school issues. This finding may suggest that MMs do not generally believe that their role affects whole-school issues or, more specifically, that they do not believe their role is about whole-school issues. Both interpretations reveal a narrower, functional perception of the role rather than a leadership view.

Findings also show that 85% of MMs reported positively that they are able to solve problems without further intervention from the principal when they meet with parents. This suggests that MMs are able to solve problems on their own within their area of expertise but still do not believe that it impacts whole-school issues.

8.3.6. Perceptions of the principal's support

MMs require support to succeed in their role and have an impact that can improve and change the school as a whole. Researchers broadly agree that the principal's support is the primary and most significant factor affecting MMs' success and impact on the school (Leithwood 2016; Bryant, 2019; Gurr, 2019; Tang et al., 2022; Lipscombe et al., 2023). Results from this study align with contemporary literature. MMs were asked to rank the two most useful resources to assist them in performing their role, and the top helpful resource reported was the principal's support. The principal's support can be granted in various ways that together shape the MM's perception. This research examined several components that constitute the perception of the principal's support: approachability of the principal (open, consistent communication), trust, empowerment (as reflected by supporting the MM's decisions and participation in seminars for enrichment and development), and mentoring/coaching (having personal meetings).

Results reinforce MMs' positive perception of the principal's support. Specifically, MMs report that their principals are approachable, trust them professionally, empower them through seminars and by supporting their decisions, and mentor them through personal meetings and feedback. It should be noted that high rates of standard deviation were observed (ranging from 1.206-1.821), indicating variance among respondents.

Pearson correlation indicated statistical significance among the statements examined and explored the strength and direction of the relationship between them. Overall, results suggest that attending school seminars for enrichment and development, having personal meetings with the principal, and having the principal's trust in the MM's professionalism are all positively correlated with perception of the role. These findings imply that the principal's support, trust, mentoring, and empowerment are indeed factors that enhance MMs' performance.

8.4. Principals and MMs' results contrasted

It was hypothesized that there would be differences in the perceptions of principals and MMs regarding some aspects of the school role construct and role perception. Previous sections of this chapter explored the perceptions of the MM role held by principals and MMs separately. This section uncovers the perception gaps revealed between the two groups.

Results showed statistically significant perception gaps between principals and MMs in the following areas: self-efficacy, expected tasks and responsibilities of MMs, necessary managerial skills, and perception of the MM role as part of school management as reflected by participation in school decision-making processes, having authority as a line manager of a team, and being informed about management decisions before other teachers.

8.4.1. Self Efficacy of principals and MMs

Both groups of respondents were asked to respond to six statements to assess their perceptions of self-efficacy:

1) My ability to create a positive learning environment.

2) My ability to promote a sense of belonging to school.

3) My ability to promote learning in school.

4) My ability to promote the school vision and its goals.

5) My ability to motivate teachers to learn and engage in professional development.

6) My ability to motivate teachers to take on roles.

It should be noted that all of these statements reflect a perception of self-efficacy in leading by influencing others, which is a higher level of perception of the role compared to the perception of one's ability to perform a task.

Based on the results from this study, it can be generally argued that both groups showed relatively high self-efficacy. However, it was not surprising that principals' self-efficacy rates were higher than those of their MMs. Additionally, five out of the six statements were found to be statistically significantly different between the two groups, implying that principals showed a greater sense of self-efficacy. The only statement with no statistical difference but a tendency was "I can create a positive learning environment," where principals and MMs did not differ statistically.

Fisher (2020) discusses the notion of professional self-efficacy, which consists of two aspects: one's belief in the profession's potential to lead change and affect others and one's belief in their personal competence to perform the profession's tasks and control their professional life. Thus, the high self-efficacy of both groups (even though they differ statistically) indicates their belief in themselves to perform their tasks and their belief in the potential of the profession to effect change or their own potential to affect others (Fisher, p.3).

MMs are not school principals. However, since they belong to the school management, their results are interpreted in the same way as principals'. Therefore, MMs' perception of self-efficacy is indicative of their belief in their competence to perform their tasks and responsibilities and their belief in their capability to affect others and lead change.

Federici (2013), who studied principals' self-efficacy, found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and perceived job autonomy, which were positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to contextual constraints such as financial and administrative

constraints. In other words, job autonomy positively affects self-efficacy and leads to job satisfaction, while constraints negatively affect job satisfaction. High self-efficacy among both groups can thus be interpreted as indicating job autonomy and job satisfaction, while low rates of self-efficacy may be related to constraints imposed on individuals while performing their job. More specifically, the weaker sense of efficacy observed among MMs may reflect less job autonomy and less job satisfaction. Constraints such as too many tasks or too little time may also lead to less job satisfaction.

8.4.2. Expected tasks and responsibilities of MMs:

Principals in this research reported having high expectations for their MMs and, for most tasks and responsibilities, the majority of principals agreed on their expectations. However, two tasks stand out as being expected by less than 60% of principals. One such task is 'managing a staff of teachers' (P=59.7%, MMs=40.3%). This figure should not be ignored. If only 60% of principals expect their MMs to manage a staff of teachers, it suggests that 40% of principals in this study do not perceive their MMs as part of the school management or have members of the school management who manage projects or areas of school work rather than staff. However, even if this is the case, if MMs are not perceived as managers, how can they be expected to lead school change without being acknowledged by the school staff as managers? This finding illustrates a gap between principals' declarations that MMs are part of the school management and their actual role as part of the school management.

The second task that stands out as being reported by a minority of principals as expected from their MMs is 'making decisions for use of budget' (P=44.9%, MMs=14.9%). This topic has been discussed earlier.

As hypothesized, statistically significant differences in perceptions were found between principals and MMs regarding the expected tasks and responsibilities of MMs. This primarily indicates a gap in the role definition of MMs. The importance of clear role definitions and expectations as factors affecting the success of MMs is acknowledged in the literature (Leithwood, 2016; Gurr, 2019). It appears that, like school principals around the world, Israeli high school principals have not managed to overcome this hurdle faced by MMs, thus inhibiting the impact of their work on the school as a whole.

8.4.3. Perceptions of necessary managerial skills

Perceptions of principals and MMs regarding the necessary managerial skills for MMs were correlated and showed statistically significant differences in five out of the six managerial skills tested: coordinating, planning, implementing the school pedagogic approach, and involvement in school politics. In general, principals reported expecting more from their MMs than their MMs perceived as necessary. Furthermore, despite the statistical differences revealed, it is interesting to note that both groups ranked the necessary skills in the same descending order but with a statistical difference. Figures are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Principals and MMs descending order of ranking necessary managerial skills (source: Author's own research)

	Coordinating	Planning	Implementing the school pedagogic agenda	Creating teams	Budgeting	Involvement in school politics
P_{mean}	3.780	3.780	3.550	3.450	2.720	2.570
MMs $_{mean}$	3.710	3.620	3.490	3.010	2.220	2.010

These figures clearly show that despite differences in the extent to which each group views each of the necessary skills surveyed, both groups think alike when it comes to prioritizing the skills in a descending order. This may highlight some agreement between the groups regarding the necessary skills in general but also highlights a gap when it comes to the extent to which MMs view managerial skills as necessary for their role.

White (1992) suggests that involving teachers in budgeting decisions can empower them and enhance school improvement. It is interesting to note that budgeting was the only task that did not reveal a statistically significant difference but rather a tendency. In this case, principals and MMs reported having similar perceptions regarding the necessity of this skill, which is low and not statistically significant.

Blasé (1989) found that teachers employ political strategies when interacting with their principals and experience perceived equity from their political interactions with open school principals. However, Blasé's findings indicate that teachers operate individually in

their political relations with principals. In this research, involvement in school politics was ranked as the lowest necessary skill among the six skills surveyed by both groups and was found to be statistically different. However, while principals seem to be divided among themselves regarding the necessity of this skill for their MMs, their MMs reveal a normal distribution in their perception of the necessity of involvement in school politics as part of their role (see Chapter 7). The distribution of reports from both groups regarding this skill highlights the gap in perceptions between the two groups but also points out once again the need for clear role definitions or clarity about the role and responsibility (Hack & Hallinger, 2010) and the need for framing the boundaries of the MM role.

8.4.4. Perception of the the role of MMs in school management

While MMs in this research generally perceive their role as important, reporting compliance with school policy and considering themselves partners in school success (as indicated in Chapter 7), results reveal statistically significant differences in the perception of the MM role in school management between principals and MMs in two areas: participation in school decision-making processes and being line managers of teams. Hallinger & Walker (2017) argue that among a number of practices, power-sharing at school involves a collaborative decision-making culture, empowering teachers, and building trust. The authors discuss the need for more collaborative approaches to leadership and decision-making in schools. Similarly, Koyama (2011) argues that principals who practice a top-down approach and do not share decisions with teachers experience a lack of support for school policy.

The gap evidenced among principals and MMs who participated in this research regarding shared decision-making and being line managers of teams highlights the informal power relations that exist within organizations and are pervasive in the Israeli educational system (Berkovich, 2020). Thus, results indicate that while MMs may be considered by school principals as members of the school management, if they do not report participating in school decision-making processes as their principals do, it may suggest that MMs do not perceive their role as important in school management. This argument is supported by the finding that principals in this research view their MMs as line managers of teams more than their MMs view themselves as such. Therefore, it can be argued that if MMs are not

partners in school decision-making processes and view themselves less as line managers than their principals do, they may only be claimed to be part of the school management but are not active partners.

Chapter 9:   Conclusions

9.1.   General remarks

This research was guided by two research questions:

1. What are principals' perceptions of the role of MMs in school management?

2. How do MMs perceive their role in school management?

It was hypothesized that a positive correlation would be found between principals' perceptions of the role of MMs in school management and the roles and responsibilities they assign to their MMs, their expectations of them, their support, and power-sharing. Additionally, it was hypothesized that there would be differences in the role perceptions of principals and MMs in certain aspects of the school role construct and role perception. Both hypotheses were supported by the data collected.

Conclusions in this chapter are mostly based on the results from this research and updated academic literature but cannot be completely detached from my personal knowledge and experience as an Israeli high school principal.

At the heart of understanding education policy implementation lies the fact that schools are closed systems on which nations impose educational policies (Sarason, 1996). There is also perceived tension between school leaders' values and national policies (Wilkins, 2002). In this vein, Shaked (2018) argues that Israeli principals scarcely apply in practice the predominant expectation placed on school principals to serve as instructional leaders due to upholding a different definition of schools' major goals than the one prioritized by Israeli policymakers. Nevertheless, any conclusion drawn regarding the perceptions of principals and MMs in general and specifically Israeli ones must bear in mind the culture and sociocultural norms that impact school people and stakeholders. Shaked, Benoliel & Hallinger (2021) found three sociocultural norms that affected Israeli principals' adoption of instructional leadership: low power distance, clan culture, and incomplete identification of principals with their school's academic mission. The authors concluded that the national context indirectly influences the implementation of instructional leadership. It is suggested to filter and interpret any educational theoretical model and practical recommendations

through the lenses of the various contexts suggested by Hallinger (2018): institutional, community, national-cultural, economic, and political.

The significant role and potential impact of middle managers on schools have been discussed and elaborated throughout this dissertation. Academics recommend directions for future research in this area (Gurr & Drysdale, 2013; Harris et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2022) due to a paucity of research despite the agreed conception that the potential of MMs has mostly not yet been realized. This research examined the main topics of inquiry that have been studied in the field so far, such as roles and responsibilities of MMs, expectations from MMs, collaboration between MMs and their principals, and power-sharing at school. However, an additional focus was directed at the perception of the MM role as part of school management.

The wider literature suggests a set of conditions and elements that can enhance support for and promote the role of MMs. Among these elements are time allocation, principal support, development of leadership capacity, and clear role definition (Gurr & Drysdale, 2013; Leithwood, 2016). Therefore, it was decided to highlight an additional angle on the topic by studying whether those considered to be school MMs are perceived by principals and MMs as part of school management. There is a semantic difference between being titled an MM who is part of the school's extended management and being an active partner in school management. Thus, an additional constituent was added to the topic of research: the perception of the MM role as part of school management.

9.2. General Conclusions

1) The role of MMs in school management: A role not demonstrated through actions

In Israel, school principals assign roles based on formal guidelines set by the Ministry of Education (MOE). These roles are mandatory, and principals must appoint individuals to be responsible for specific areas that align with the country's educational goals. These individuals must participate in ongoing professional development and submit regular reports. Some roles, such as pedagogical coordinators, are considered part of the school management team (SMT), while others are at the discretion of the principal to include in

the management structure. Examples of such roles include safety coordinator and road safety coordinator.

By not explicitly defining school management structures, the MOE grants principal's autonomy in constructing their local school management. This allows principals to appoint additional roles that reflect the specific needs of their school. However, this policy can also lead to ambiguity and confusion regarding the responsibilities and expectations of these roles.

Principals in Israel have high expectations for their middle managers (MMs). Out of 26 tasks and responsibilities, 25 were reported as expected by more than 62% of principals. The least expected task, 'making decisions for use of budget,' was reported as expected by 45% of principals. Above all other competencies, principals expect their MMs to promote the school vision and communicate decisions made by the SMT to the teaching staff. Only then do they expect their MMs to possess managerial skills.

This suggests that principals expect their MMs to be both managers and leaders, responsible for administrative tasks such as managing a staff of teachers as well as leadership tasks such as promoting the school vision and its goals. When asked to prioritize expected competencies, principals ranked managing ability and charisma as the top two expected competencies, followed by academic/professional ability and disciplinary expertise.

It is interesting to note that principals prioritize managing ability and charisma - a trait associated with leaders - over academic/professional ability and disciplinary expertise. This implies that when assigning roles, principals prioritize the role over teaching responsibilities. If this assumption is accurate, it suggests that principals have high regard for their middle managers (MMs) and may not prioritize the expectation set by policy makers and the Ministry of Education (MOE) for MMs to serve as instructional leaders (Shaked, 2018).

Collaborative leadership (Hallinger & Heck, 2010) and distributed leadership (Harris, 2004) are commonly discussed in literature as effective styles for promoting school improvement. These leadership styles involve collaborative decision-making, delegating

responsibilities, and building leadership capacity. A successful middle management structure is a key component of collaborative/distributed leadership. When perceptions of principals and MMs differ regarding practices that reflect power sharing and shared leadership, it suggests that there is no real distributed/collaborative leadership in place.

Support from the principal is frequently cited in literature as a crucial source of support for MMs (Gurr & Drysdale, 2013; Bassett & Shaw, 2018; Tang, Bryant, & Walker, 2022). This support can take various forms, including power sharing, shared decision-making, and collaboration. This research examined these forms of support to understand principals' perceptions of the role of MMs in school management.

Establishing frameworks for shared decision-making can build capacity and enhance the self-efficacy of MMs. Authentic shared decision-making is an expression of power sharing. However, questions arise about who participates in the school's decision-making processes and with whom the principal shares power. Busher (2005) argues that achieving genuine collegiality in schools is difficult due to the inherent power dynamics within the organization. Brown, Boyle & Boyle (1999) emphasize the complexity of decision-making in schools and advocate for involving stakeholders in the process.

If MMs are responsible for implementing and executing decisions, they should be included in the decision-making process or at least be informed before other members of the teaching staff and stakeholders. Based on the results reported by principals in this research and in line with findings by Daniëls, Hondeghem & Heysteks (2020), it is concluded that principals perceive themselves as being more supportive than they actually are when it comes to power sharing through shared decision-making processes at school.

2) MMs' perception of their roles in school management: A positive perception of role, not clearly communicated to the staff and hindered by time pressure

A person's professional identity is influenced by their personal history and values (Busher, 2005). Interactions with superiors, colleagues, and others also shape their perceptions of their professional identity. Therefore, any conclusions drawn from this research about middle managers' (MMs) perceptions of their role are based on how MMs interpret their interactions with principals, team members, students, parents, and their own personalities.

In this research, 41% of MM respondents were also homeroom teachers. This suggests that discussions about MMs should distinguish between those who are homeroom teachers and those who are not. In other words, the term 'school MM' encompasses a diverse group of individuals with varying roles, responsibilities, power, and authority within schools. MMs are not a homogeneous group.

In Israeli high schools, MMs spend most of their time teaching in classrooms. The time allocated to performing their MM role depends on the specific role and the principal's perception of its importance to the school. In reality, MMs' roles are often underpaid and may not involve any weekly hours at all. Instead, they are paid as a percentage, leaving the MM with the same teaching hours and no time to perform their role. Principals must find ways to compensate MMs with hours so that they can reduce their teaching load and devote time to their role. Based on personal knowledge and the results of this study, it can be concluded that time pressure affects the performance of Israeli MMs.

MMs in this research have a positive perception of their job and view it as important and influential. A statistically significant correlation was found between the statement 'my job is central and indispensable at school' and several other statements such as 'My work as an MM promotes school effectiveness', 'As a team leader I influence others at school,' and 'I am a school ambassador to parents and other external stakeholders.' MMs' positive perception of their role is also shaped by reports that they are viewed as professional authorities by teachers who consult them when needed. However, even though MMs report that their teams view them as leaders, results indicate that they are not perceived as members of the school management. It can be tentatively concluded that the principal and SMT do not clearly communicate or demonstrate through actions that MMs are members of the school management.

MMs report prioritizing their time to comply with the school vision and provide professional support to their staff members. This suggests that MMs view themselves as professional figures who are part of the school management. Like their principals, MMs do not perceive budgeting as part of their role. However, unlike their principals, MMs do not view visiting staff classrooms as part of their role. These two tasks consume the least amount of time for MMs and indicate that they do not have autonomy over budget decisions

for their teams or staff. This implies that while MMs function as role holders, they are not granted autonomy or express a desire to become autonomous leaders when it comes to budgeting for their staff.

Additionally, the tension discussed in literature regarding MMs being caught between the SMT and teaching staff is somewhat addressed by avoiding performing classroom visits.

3) Differences in perceptions among principals and MMs due to a combination of factors.

Statistically significant differences were found between principals' and middle managers' (MMs) perceptions of certain aspects, including self-efficacy, perceptions of MMs' tasks and responsibilities at school, perceptions of the necessity of managerial tasks, perceptions of the importance of MMs' role in school and as members of the school management, and perceptions of collaboration, shared decision-making, and power sharing. Results were compared and correlated, revealing differences in perceptions between the two groups of respondents as hypothesized. Daniëls, Hondeghem & Heysteks (2020) argue that when school leaders' and teachers' perceptions align, school leaders are more likely to be successful.

When discussing commonalities and differences in perceptions between principals and MMs, it is important to consider the different needs involved: the needs of the school, the principal, the MM, and the relationship between the principal and MM.

Principals' perceptions of MMs' role have changed significantly over recent decades. With growing recognition of MMs' potential contribution to school change and improvement (Lipscombe, Tindall-Ford & Lamnanna, 2023), expectations placed on MMs have also increased. This meets the school's need for successful MMs to promote improvement and change. From the perspective of principals, who must build vision and set directions, develop people, shape the organization, and manage teaching and learning programs (Tubin & Farhi, 2021), appointing professional MMs in schools serves both the needs of the school and their own needs. Additionally, principals must respond to external contexts (Gurr & Drysdale, 2020), so they need to manage their time effectively with the assistance of MMs to handle everyday school routines. It is impossible for one person to manage a high school's daily routine alone; distributed leadership through MMs is necessary.

From the perspective of MMs, there may be various reasons for taking on a role in school. These may include opportunities for professional growth, motivation to influence students and the school, career advancement opportunities or personal fulfillment. The need for support and recognition from the principal is among the factors that support MMs (Gurr, 2019). Exercising an MM role in school can be complex but also empowering and fulfilling.

From the perspective of the relationship between the principal and MM, trust is a key factor. Berkovich (2020) argues that teachers' trust in their principal increases their ability to promote change and is crucial for school improvement. In this research, MMs perceive their principals as supportive and trustworthy.

Given the different needs of principals and MMs, it is not surprising that they have different perceptions regarding expected tasks and responsibilities. Principals place higher expectations on their MMs than MMs do on themselves. After analyzing the results, it can be concluded that differences in perceptions regarding tasks and responsibilities stem from a combination of factors such as unclear or undefined role definitions or attempts by MMs to navigate tensions between their role as intermediaries between SMTs and teachers by avoiding certain tasks such as providing performance feedback or conducting difficult conversations.

Statistically significant differences were also found between the two groups in their perceptions of necessary managerial skills. Despite a similar pattern where principals place higher expectations on middle managers (MMs) than MMs do on themselves, both groups ranked the necessary managerial skills in the same order. This suggests that principals influence their MMs in a way that MMs' behavior and practices reflect the principal's leadership modeling.

Both principals and MMs perceive the role of MMs as important and share similar perceptions regarding promoting the school vision, being school ambassadors, and promoting student achievement. However, statistically significant differences were found regarding participation in school decision-making processes and having authority as a line manager of a team. In these areas, principals had stronger perceptions than MMs. These results suggest that there is a gap between principals' stated perceptions and their actual

practices and behaviors when it comes to shared decision-making in schools. Principals should be aware of what support means to MMs and how it can be provided to improve collaboration.

Another conclusion is that while principals view MMs as line managers, MMs do not perceive themselves as such. This implies that principals do not clearly communicate this expectation to teachers and MMs and may not have defined it when setting expectations with their MMs. It is also possible that when asked directly about their MMs, principals provide a general notion about the matter (in this case, their perception of MMs as line managers of a team) but their behavior and practices may indicate otherwise. Another tentative conclusion is that MMs may not have agreed to become line managers when they accepted their role.

Involvement in school politics is another area where statistically significant differences in perceptions were found between principals and MMs. Bassett & Shaw (2018) argue that maintaining relationships is a significant part of an MM's work and one of the most challenging aspects of the role. As with other cases where differences in perception were found, principals expect MMs to be more involved in school politics than MMs perceive themselves to be. It can be concluded that to navigate positional tensions (Bassett & Shaw, 2018), MMs tend to avoid involvement in school politics while their principals have high expectations for their involvement.

9.3. Practical recommendations to principals and policymakers

This section of the conclusion will shift from general conclusions about MMs to principals and policy makers to specific recommendations to Israeli principals and policy makers.

1) Labeling: Middle Managers/Middle Leaders, Interchangeable?

Labeling is often considered a technical matter, but it is also political and serves a political purpose (Gunter, 2004). As previously argued, labeling is not just a matter of terminology but also reflects agendas, power dynamics, and education policy. In the case of middle managers (MMs), labeling is crucial if change is sought in realizing the potential of their role in schools.

In an era when school management is commonly referred to as school leadership, this labeling serves a purpose. It communicates to school principals the importance placed by academics and policymakers on the leadership aspect of school management. Gunter (2004) notes that changes in labeling in the field correspond with the shift from management to performance leadership since 1988. The label 'MM' is rarely found in recent literature; instead, 'middle leader' (ML) is used. This suggests that there may be an attempt to skip the 'management' stage and move directly to the 'leadership' aspect of MMs' role before the former has been fully established. It is well known in education that processes take time to incubate and implement. The results of this research align with existing knowledge about MMs and suggest that principals, academics, and policy makers should first establish and implement the managerial aspect of MMs' role before adding to the leadership aspect, to the already complex and demanding responsibilities of MMs.

2) School Management Structure

We are currently in an era of educational reforms where countries are striving to adapt their education systems to meet contemporary societal needs and school leadership has become a priority on international education policy agendas (OECD, 2008). School principals, as key players in this political landscape, determine the composition of the school management team (SMT) or extended management team (EMT) by assigning roles to individuals who will help promote the school's goals. The workload and intensification of the principal's role necessitate the distribution of roles and responsibilities. As a result, middle managers (MMs) take on a variety of roles and responsibilities, from teachers with additional responsibilities to discipline/subject coordinators, grade coordinators, and vice principals who manage and lead the school's daily routine.

It is crucial for school principals to clearly define the school management structure and its members - including the SMT, EMT, teachers, and stakeholders - which is increasingly referred to as the management/leadership avenue. To do so, principals must ask themselves several questions:

? Who constitutes the school management?
? Why?

205

? What are the roles and responsibilities of the school management?

? What differentiates SMT from EMT?

The answers to these questions should be communicated to the school management, staff, and stakeholders to eliminate ambiguity about roles and responsibilities within the school.

3) School Middle Management

It is beneficial that the Ministry of Education (MOE) does not intervene in the structure of school management, allowing principals to construct local management teams that meet the specific needs and goals of their school. However, when assigning a role, principals should ask themselves why the role is necessary and what needs it addresses. Additionally, the principal should outline a general structure for the school's middle management and determine which role holders are part of the school management and which roles are not part of the school management.

It is crucial for the principal to differentiate between the various roles assigned at school and their objectives, determining which roles should participate in the school's middle management. Similarly, when defining the school management structure, the principal should consider the following questions:

? Who constitutes the school middle management?

? Why?

? What functions does the school middle management serve? Managing or Leading?

? What differentiates SMT from EMT?

Once the management structure has been defined, information should be communicated to the teaching staff and school stakeholders. The school's middle management should function as a professional community with a unique training program that focuses on developing both professional and managerial skills. This community should be led by the principal and meet regularly to share updates, solve problems, make decisions, and support one another.

Policymakers should formally recognize the existence of school middle management structures and develop specialized programs for both principals and middle managers

(MMs). Principals should receive training to become leaders of learning communities while MMs should receive professional development in pedagogy, educational management and leadership, and communication.

4)   School middle managers / role holders

MMs are teachers who take on additional responsibilities for specific aspects of the school (De Nobile, 2021; Lipscombe, Tindall-Ford & Lamnanna, 2023). However, it is not always clear whether all role holders in a school are considered MMs or members of the executive management team (EMT). One factor that adds complexity to the role of MMs is the lack of clear role definitions or, in some cases, the absence of any role definition at all. Even when a role is defined, it is often not formalized whether the role holder becomes a member of the EMT. Furthermore, even if this is formally declared, there is usually no formal definition of the EMT's role. All of this, combined with the fact that role holders often have more than one role, can create ambiguity and confusion for MMs when performing their duties at school.

Defining roles in schools can be complex (De Nobile, 2021). However, clear role definitions and realistic expectations are essential elements of support for MMs. When assigning a role in school, the principal should consider whether the role holder should become a member of the school's middle management and communicate this clearly to the role holder, the SMT, and the rest of the teaching staff.

Below is a set of possible questions to help principals plan a role description.

?   What purpose does the role of MM serve?
?   Why is the role required? What need/s does it answer?
?   What is the essence of the role? Administrative/pedagogic/combined/a line manager?
?   What are the role expectations?

When accepting a role, it should be agreed upon whether the role involves responsibility for managing a staff of teachers and what expectations for change or improvement are associated with the role.

5) Differential Expected Outcomes

Middle management roles in Israeli high schools are diverse and hierarchical. The size of the school determines the number and seniority of roles. Since principals have autonomy in constructing their school management teams, the result is often local management structures without formal role descriptions. This can create ambiguity and confusion that disrupts educational work and sometimes leads to trust issues among staff members. Furthermore, some roles involve managing people while others involve managing projects or specific aspects of the school.

To address the complexity and diversity of middle management roles in schools, it is recommended that principals categorize roles and set different expected outcomes for each category. De Nobile (2021) identified six role-based categories that principals can use: 'student-focused,' 'administrative,' 'organizational,' 'supervisory,' 'staff development,' and 'strategic.' This approach can help clarify confusion among different role holders and make it easier to assess outcomes.

6) Building the knowledge base of principals

It is recommended that policy makers establish and regularly update a knowledge base for principals on the latest developments in the field. This should be an integral part of the professional development programs that principals participate in as part of their training.

7) Combining theory and practice

It is recommended that policy makers establish regular opportunities for professional meetings between academics and principals to develop practical models based on both theoretical and practical knowledge. This would allow academics to gain greater access to the 'field' while also providing the 'field' with theoretical knowledge and the opportunity to contribute to the development of models for use in schools.

9.4. Limitation of Research

This research provides insights into the perceptions of Israeli high school principals and MMs regarding the role of MMs in school management. The study involved 89 principals and 133 MMs, so generalizing the findings to all Israeli high school principals should be

done with caution. Additionally, the role of national and cultural context is crucial when researching schools, so any generalization of conclusions from the Israeli context to other national contexts should also be done with caution. Furthermore, the study's methodology offered limited control over potential discrepancies between reported and authentic perceptions. In other words, the data was self-reported and therefore subject to bias.

9.5. Implications of research

The findings of this study generally support existing literature on the importance of MMs role in school outcomes. However, this study also highlights an additional aspect of MMs' role: their role in school management. Future research could verify the findings of this study by using a larger population of principals and MMs and conducting focus group interviews with both groups to learn more about MMs' roles in school management. This would enable academics and practitioners to better define school management structures and the specific roles of MMs. For policy makers, it is recommended to develop specialized programs for principals to become community leaders and unique professional development programs for MMs.

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Appendix

Principal's Questionnaire

Dear Principal,

This questionnaire is part of the empirical research for my PhD study on "The Perceptions of High School Principals and Middle-Managers of the Role of Middle-Managers in School Management ". Names of principals and Middle Managers will not be mentioned and due care will be taken to avoid any identification of participants. I am grateful for your cooperation.

For any question, You may contact me via my email: saryar4@gmail.com or call 0506478285

Sarah Oved

1) On a Likert scale (1-strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree) tick to what extent do you assess your ability as a principal:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	disagree	I don't have an opinion	agree	Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1.1 I can promote learning in school					
1.2 I can make progress towards realizing the school vision					
1.3 I can promote a sense of belonging					
1.4 I can create a positive learning environment					
1.5 I can motivate teachers to learning and professional development					
1.6 I can motivate and aspire teachers to accept roles at school					

2. In the table below are listed school tasks and responsibilities. Tick the ones you believe to be expected by your MMs, as part of their role:

Middle managers: teachers responsible for an aspect of school work that lead staff/have line management responsibilities for other staff.

2.1 Manage a staff of teachers	
2.2 Make decisions for use of budget	
2.3 Schedule relevant school calendar	
2.4 Write annual work plan	
2.5 Set and conduct weekly staff meeting	
2.6 Visit staff's classrooms	
2.7 Set annual goals	
2.8 Assist staff members professionally	
2.9 Assist staff members in personal problems	
2.10 Operate team/stage/students/ routine	
2.11 Comply with school policy	
2.12 Monitor staff's performance	
2.13 Take part in school management meetings	
2.14 Teaching subject	
2.15 Take care of discipline issue	
2.16 Evaluate staff's performance	
2.17 Induction of new staff	
2.18 Sustain school regulation	
2.19 Constructing learning groups/classes	

2.20 Accountable for students' outcomes	
2.21 Build an annual social work plan	
2.22 Liaising with parents	
2.23 Conduct difficult conversations	
2.24 Check students' attendance	
2.25 Participate in school's seminars	
2.26 Feedback staff for performance	

3. Below is a list of formal roles in junior high and high schools (as defined by the Ofek Hadash and Oz La'Tmura). Please tick the roles you consider to be your middle management.

3.1 Home room teacher	
3.2 Grade coordinator	
3.3 Subject coordinator	
3.4 Pedagogical coordinator	
3.5 ICT coordinator	
3.6 Road safety coordinator	
3.7 Councilor	
3.8 Assessment and evaluation coordinator	
3.9 Safety coordinator	
3.10 Discipline and climate coordinator	

3.11 Other (mention a role not mentioned in the table above – if available): _____

4. Below is a list of school work areas. Label them (1-very hlpful to 5- irrelevant) according to how you perceive their necessity for the role of a MM in your school.

Area	Very helpful	Helpful	Somewhat helpful	Not al all helpful	Irrelevant
4.1 planning					
4.2 coordinating					
4.3 staffing					
4.4 reporting					
4.5 budgeting					
4.6 Implementing school pedagogic approach					
4.7 School politics					

5. Rank (1-Necessary, 6- Irrelevant) your perception of the necessity of the following competencies in your MMs?

1	2	3	4	5	6
Necessary	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not important	Irrelevant

	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.1 Promoting the school vision and its goals.						
5.2 Having managerial ability.						
5.3 Mediating SMT decisions to the teaching staff (teachers).						
5.4 Being ambassadors of the school to parents and other external stakeholders.						
5.5 Offering personal initiatives.						
5.6 Taking part in school decision-making processes.						
5.7 Being line-managers of their teams.						
5.8 Making decisions regarding budgeting.						
5.9 Being knowledgeable, professional models.						
5.10 Promoting the students' learning.						

5.11 Promoting the students' achievements.					
5.12 Lessening learning gaps among school students.					
5.13 Maintaining contacts with external stakeholders like parents.					

6. Among the expectation and competencies expected from MM, rank the following in priority order for MM (1-The most important – 5 The least important):

☐ Managing ability

☐ Academic/professional ability

☐ Disciplinary expertise

☐ Continuous professional development

☐ Charism

7. I meet MMs to feedback their performance.

☐ Once a year

☐ Twice a year

☐ More than twice a year

☐ I don't meet with them for this purpose.

8. My MMs are part of the managerial level of school

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ Some of my MMs are part of the managerial level of school.

9. In general, I perceive my MMs as the extended management of school.

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ I don't have an opinion over this issue

10. My MM communicate/contact with me whenever the need arises.

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ My MMs contact their line-managers, not me.

☐

11. In the table below tick the most suitable option to describe the frequency of communication between you and your MMs.:

	More than once a week	Once a week	Once a month	Less than once a month	Whenever the need arises	irrelevant
11.1 My MMs contact me via mail						
11.2 My MMs contact me via phone						
11.3 My MMs contact me via whatsapp messages						
11.4 My MMs contact me via my secretary (not directly)						

11. Extended management meetings **with MMs** take place:

☐ At least once a year

☐ Twice a year

☐ Three times a year

☐ More than three times a year

☐ Not even once a year

☐ My MMs do not take part in management meetings.

12. MM are summoned to workshops, seminars and training programs for empowerment purposes:

☐ At least once a year

☐ Twice a year

☐ Three times a week

☐ More than three times a week

☐ Not even once a year

13. In my school general staff meetings (for all the teaching staff) occur

☐ once a week

☐ Once a month

☐ Less than once a month

☐ Whenever a need arises

☐ There are not staff meetings

☐ Other:_____

14. In my school, staff meetings are integrated into the school's timetable

☐ Yes

☐ No

15. Recruiting staff member is done by

☐ The principal

☐ The principal and the MM/ other person/persons chosen for this purpose

☐ The MM/MMs

☐ Senior management team/person chosen by the principal for this purpose

16. Staff policy is determined according to

☐ The school's general policy

☐ The school's general policy, which the MM are part of setting it

☐ Staff choice

☐ There is no staff policy

☐ Other: _____

17. The role definition of the MM in school is determined by

    ☐   The principal

    ☐   There are no written role definitions

    ☐   Director general circular

    ☐   Staff coordinator

    ☐   Irrelevant

    ☐   Other: _____

18. To what extent do you agree with the following statements (1-strongly disagree-5-strongly agree):

Personal backgrounds:

1) Gender

	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	disagree	Somewhat agree	agree	Strongly agree
My MMs know about SMT decisions before the rest of the teachers					
My MMs participate in decision making processes at school					

    ☐   Male

    ☐   Female

2) Level of educational qualification:

    ☐   Bachelor of education

    ☐   Master of education

    ☐   PhD

    ☐   Other: _____

3) Number of years in teaching: _____

4) Number of years in principalship: _____

5) Post:

       ☐   Junior high principal

       ☐   School principal

6) Number of students in school: _____

7) Sector:

       ☐   Jewish-general public

       ☐   Jewish - religious

       ☐   Non-Jewish

Thanks for your participation and for filling out the questionnaire.

MM questionnaire

Dear Middle Manager,

This questionnaire is part of the empirical research for my PhD study on "The Perceptions of High School Principals and Middle-Managers of the Role of Middle-Managers in School Management". Names of principals and Middle Managers will not be mentioned and due care will be taken to avoid any identification of participants. I am grateful for your cooperation.

For any question, you may contact me via my email: saryar4@gmail.com or call 0506478285

Sarah Oved

1) Below is a list of formal roles in junior high and high schools (as defined by the Ofek Hadash and Oz La'Tmura). Please tick the role/s you perform at school:

1.1 Home room teacher	
1.2 Grade coordinator	
1.3 Subject coordinator	
1.4 Pedagogical coordinator	
1.5 ICT coordinator	
1.6 Road safety coordinator	
1.7 Councilor	
1.8 Assessment and evaluation coordinator	
1.9 Safety coordinator	
1.10 Discipline and climate coordinator	

1.11 Other: _____

2. In the table below there is a list of school tasks and responsibilities. Next to each task/responsibility please tick the appropriate column that best depicts the time you allocate for it in your daily routine.

1- Low priority – I am rarely busy doing this task/responsibility
2- Certain priority – I am sometimes busy doing this task/responsibility
3- High priority – consumes most of my time as a MM
4- Irrelevant – I don't do it (it's not a part of my role definition/what I do as a MM)

	1	2	3	4
2.1 Manage a staff of teachers				
2.2 Make decisions for use of budget				
2.3 Schedule relevant school calendar				
2.4 Write annual work plan				
2.5 Set and conduct weekly staff meeting				
2.6 Visit staff's classrooms				
2.7 Set annual goals				
2.8 Assist staff members professionally				
2.9 Assist staff members in personal problems				
2.10 Operate team/stage/students/ routine				
2.11 Monitor staff's performance				
2.12 Take part in school management meetings				
2.13 Teaching subject				

2.14	Take care of discipline issue				
2.15	Evaluate staff's performance				
2.16	Induction of new staff				
2.17	Constructing learning groups/classes				
2.18	Build an annual social work plan				
2.19	Liaising with parents				
2.20	Conduct difficult conversations				
2.21	Check students' attendance				
2.22	Participate in school's seminars				
2.23	Give feedback to staff for performance				

3. Out of above list of tasks and responsibilites rank the three top tasks/responsibilities which demand most of your time.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. On a Likert scale (1-strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree) tick to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly disagree	disagree	Somewhat agree	agree	Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
4.1 I comply with school policy.					
4.2 I view myself accountable for the students' outcomes.					
4.3 I view myself as a partner in school outcomes.					
4.4 I promote the school vision and its goals.					
4.5 My role is central and indispensible at school.					
4.6 I mediate SMT decisions to the teaching staff.					
4.7 I am a school ambassador to parents and other external stakeholders.					
4.8 My work as a MM promotes school effectiveness.					
4.9 As a member of the school management I am a part of decision –making processes at school.					
4.10 I have authority as a line-manager of a team.					
4.11 I am a partner in lessening the gaps amongst students in school.					
4.12 As a team leader I influence others at school.					
4.13 I am a change agent at school.					
4.14 I am responbile for maintaining the daily routine of my staff/students.					
4.15 I determine the annual objectives of my staff/students.					

5. On entry to your role as a MM, what training did you receive?

       ☐   None

       ☐   School based training

       ☐   In service training course

       ☐   School based guide by SMT

       ☐   School based guide by onother MM

       ☐   Other: _____

6. How do you assess your preparation/training to your role?

   ☐   I did not have any preparation/training.

   ☐   It was appropriate.

   ☐   It was insufficient.

   ☐   It was good, but it did not prepare me for the role.

7. As a MM I am invited to workshops, seminars and training programs for enrichment and empowerment purposes.

       ☐   Less than once a year

       ☐   At least once a year

       ☐   Twice a year

       ☐   Three times a year

       ☐   More than three times a year

8. In the list below rank (1-top helpful, 2-second top, 3-third top) the three most helpful resources to assist you carry out your tasks as a MM.

   ☐   The principal's support

   ☐   Management meetings

   ☐   Autonomy

   ☐   Professional training on issues of management

   ☐   Personal guide

   ☐   Involvement in decision making processes over matters in my responsibility

   ☐   Other: _____

9. In the list below tick the three resources you **lack** in your routine that you find potentially helpful in carrying out your tasks as a MM ?

- ☐ The principal's support
- ☐ Management meetings
- ☐ Autonomy
- ☐ Professional training on issues of management
- ☐ Personal guide
- ☐ Involvement in decision making processes over matters in my responsibility
- ☐ Other: _____

10. I feel I am quaified for my role.

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No ⟶ Please state what PD could have helped you improve your performace.
- ☐ Professional training could help me perform my job better.

11. Please tick two areas of PD training that could have helped you best improve your performace:

- ☐ Administration
- ☐ Coordinating
- ☐ Budgeting
- ☐ Pedagaogy
- ☐ Educational Leadership
- ☐ Other: _____

12. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree	irrelevant
1	2	3	4	5	6

	1	2	3	4	5	6

12.1 School seminars for enrichment and development promote me as a MM.					
12.2 Better training on entry of my role could have prepared me better to my role.					
12.3 When I was asked to take responsility for my job I was aware of my role expectations and extra responsiblity.					
12.4 Afer gaining expereience as a MM, I think more PD can help me develop and improve in performing my role.					
12.5 Having personal work meetings with the prinicpal isssential to help me carry out my role successfully.					
12.6 In general, whenever I approach the school principal with professional matters, the principal finds time for me.					
12.7 In general, whenever I approach the school principal with personal matters, the principal finds time for me.					
12.8 During the present year, the principal met me to evaluate and feedback my performance.					
12.9 I contact the school principal whenever I want, by phone, mail or a meeting.					
12.10 My principal trust my professionality.					
12.11 My principal thinks I am the right person for my role.					
12.12 When my staff members turn to the principal on matters in dispute, the principal supports my decision/sides with me.					

13. As a MM you collaborate with teachers. On a Likert scale (1-strongly disagree, 5-strongly agree) tick to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree	irrelevant
1	2	3	4	5	6

	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.1 The teachers in school perceive me as a professional authority due to my role (as a MM).						
13.2 The teachers in school perceive me as a member of the school management.						
13.3 Teachers consult me on professional matters.						
13.4 In general, whenever I approach a teacher in my team and ask them to do some task, they do it. e.g., show records or plans.						
13.5 My team members have a professional problem/difficulty they first consult me.						
13.6 I run weekly staff meetings.						
13.7 When one of my staff members has to miss a staff meeting, they let me know about it in advance.						
13.8 I feel that my team members do what I wish/ask because they trust my leadership.						

14. The students at my school know my role.

   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No
   ☐ I don't know
   ☐ I don't meet with students as part of my role as a MM.

15. I meet students as part of my MM role (not as their teacher).

   ☐ Every day
   ☐ More than once week
   ☐ Once a week
   ☐ Once a month
   ☐ Less than once a month

☐ I don't meet students as part of my role

16. As part of my role I oversee records of teachers' tests.

☐ On a regular basis

☐ Occasionally

☐ I don't oversee teachers' results

☐ Whenever the need arises

17. As part of my role I am in touch with parents.

☐ On a regular basis

☐ Occasionally

☐ I am not in touch with parents as part my role

☐ Whenever the need arises

18. My conncections with parents affect whole school issues.

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ I don't know

☐ Irrelevant

19. I think it is part of my role to connect with parents.

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ I don't know

20. When I meet parents I manage to solve problems without further need to reach the prinicpal.

☐ Usually Yes

☐ Usually No

☐ Parents generally wish to talk to the principal, not to me.

☐ Irrelevant

Personal background:

8) Gender

     ☐ Male

     ☐ Female

9) Level of educational qualification:

     ☐ Bachelor of education

     ☐ Master of education

     ☐ Ph.D

     ☐ Other: _____

10) Number of years in teaching: _____

11) My role/s at school is: _____

12) Number of years in my role: _____

13) My line manager is (mention a role or leave blank if irrelevant): _____

14) Number of staff members I am responsible for: _____

15) I teach in:

     ☐ Junior high School

     ☐ High school

     ☐ Both Junior high and high school

16) Sector:

     ☐ Jewish

     ☐ Non-Jewish

Thanks for your participation and for filling out the questionnaire.

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