

**TRANSFORMING RETIRED MILITARY OFFICERS INTO
SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN ISRAEL.**

Alex Schneider

Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

April 2004

School of Education

University of Leicester

Abstract

Transforming retired military officers into school principals in Israel.

Alex Schneider

Traditionally, school principals are selected from experienced teachers working in the field of education. During the last century, educational systems have gone through major conceptual changes, including changes of role for educational leaders. Modifications of the principal's role have led to broadened requirements for fulfilling the task. This may lead to a shortage of candidates for headship. In this case the recruitment of additional candidates for leadership roles may become an increasing challenge. One possible solution may be found by integrating personnel from beyond the field of education with the right qualities, abilities and capabilities willing to take this mission upon themselves.

Since existing training programmes might not provide responses to their requirements, the purpose of this thesis is to try and present an appropriate way of incorporating candidates and training them to perform their mission successfully. The training concept is based upon providing essential characteristics of principalship. These include leadership qualities, management abilities and pedagogical capabilities, designed for candidates outside the field of education to support the process of incorporating them into principalship. Examination of the training process was conducted for both schoolteachers and for retired ex-military personnel during their transfer from military duties to the field of education. The research identified requirements for pre-service training in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogy. In both courses it compared and assessed similarities and differences between the groups. Evaluation of candidates' abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills established the areas in which they needed support during their transfer to principalship.

In this research the main hypothesis was "Aspiring principals can identify tools and skills, required for their training into principal's positions, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills". The hypothesis proved valid in substantial sections; therefore a conceptual model for recruiting and training suitable candidates for principalship drawn from other professions becomes a viable proposition.

This research does not only have relevance for the educational system in Israel; the findings may provide pertinent information for other countries seeking to draw on wider ranges of recruits for teaching and headship.

CONTENTS

Chapter 1 – Introduction	1
Leadership and Vision	1
Aspiring to Future School Principalship	2
Background	11
Purpose and Significance of the Thesis – Résumé	25
Aims and Objectives of the Study	26
Preview of Research Plan	27
Summary Statement	28
 Chapter 2 – Literature Review	 30
Characteristics of School Principalship	30
Leadership	30
Management	37
Management and Leadership – Do They Differ	41
Pedagogy	44
The Personal Intelligences	47
Mid Life Change of Career	51
The Changing World of the School Principal	52
Schoolteachers for School Leadership?	59
Training for the Job Instead of Training on the Job	65
Elements in Training Models Concepts	66
The Development of Principalship Programmes	71
A Group Study	72
International Models for the Training of School Principals	75
The Search for the Best Possible Programme	90
Israel as Part of a Wider Community – Principal Training in Israel	91
Course Graduates – Guaranteed Principalship?	114
‘Officers for Education’ Programme	115
 Chapter 3 – Methodology	 122
General	122
Research Methods	123
Research Design	128
The Questionnaire – Qualities, Abilities and Requirements	138
Combining Research Methods	143
 Chapter 4 - Findings	 145
Introduction	145
Procedures	145
Respondents’ Background Data Findings	149
Questionnaire Results – Qualities, Abilities, Capabilities and Requirements	157
Interview Findings	199
Summary	217
From Findings to Understanding	218

Chapter 5 – Discussion	219
Challenges	219
A List of Abilities and Capabilities	236
Importance of Syllabus Elements – The First Step in Mapping Requirements	246
Expertise and Capabilities	261
Fundamental Themes and Main Skills	274
Future Source of Principals	286
Qualities, Abilities and Capabilities of the Principal	289
Implications	315
Dialogue and the Immediate Response	318
Summary	318
Chapter 6 – Conclusions and Recommendations	319
The Aim	324
The Research	326
A Communicated Process	334
Recommendations for the Future in the Israeli Context	337
Bibliography	338
Appendix A-The process.	360
Appendix B- Questionnaire in Hebrew.	361

TABLES

1-1	Number of graduates of 'The Officers for Education' project	24
3-1	Outline of research design 1	130
4-1	Both courses – seniority in education	150
4-2	Course participants' gender	151
4-3	Course participants' sector	152
4-4	Course participants' military background	152
4-5	Course participants' school level	153
4-6	Course participants' teaching subject matter	154
4-7	Course participants' management experience	155
4-8	Course participants' age	156
4-9	Importance of course topics – both courses' selection	158
4-10	Importance of course topics – regular teachers' selection	159
4-11	Importance of course topics – ex military selection	160
4-12	Importance of course topics – Mann Whitney test	161
4-13	Importance of course topics – correlation coefficient	162
4-14	Selection of course topics importance	164
4-15	Both courses – significant abilities selection	165
4-16	Item 2 – Mann-Whitney test	168
4-17	Aspiring principals courses – significant abilities	170
4-18	Prioritizing results of selected topics	172
4-19	Item 3 – Mann-Whitney test	174
4-20	Expertise and capabilities to be gained – priorities	178
4-21	Fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals expected to obtain from the course	183
4-22	Teachers as a future source of principals	184
4-23	Selected leadership qualities	188
4-24	Selected management abilities	189
4-25	Selected pedagogical capabilities	190
4-26	Qualities and abilities a school principal should possess	190
4-27	Qualities and abilities a school principal should possess	190
4-28	Distribution of qualities and abilities a school principal should possess (regular teachers)	191

4-29	Distribution of qualities and abilities a school principal should posses (ex military)	191
4-30	Selection of personality traits	192
4-31	Number of personality traits selected	195
5-2	Participants' characteristics	226
5-3	Both courses selection of abilities and capabilities	237
5-4	Regular teachers' selection of abilities and capabilities	239
5-5	Ex military selection of abilities and capabilities	241
5-6	Mann-Whitney test – selection of abilities and capabilities	242
5-7	Strengths and weaknesses – background abilities. Coefficient correlation (both courses)	243/247
5-8a	Selection of strengths and requirements	246
5-8b	Selection of strengths and requirements	257
5-8c	Selection of strengths and requirements	264
5-8d	Selection of strengths and requirements	282
5-9	Regular teachers' estimation of the importance of syllabus elements	248
5-10	Regular teachers – importance of syllabus elements	250
5-11	Ex military estimation of the importance of syllabus elements	251
5-12	Ex military – importance of syllabus elements	253
5-13	Mann-Whitney test – importance of syllabus elements selection	254
5-14	Coefficient correlation (both courses)	256
5-15	Regular teachers' selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities	263
5-16	Ex military selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities	264
5-17	Mann-Whitney test – selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities	268
5-18	Coefficient correlation – item 3 (regular teachers course)	271
5-19	Coefficient correlation – item 3 (ex military course)	271
5-20	Regular teachers' fundamental themes and main skills selection	277
5-21	Regular teachers' selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities	278
5-22	Regular teachers' list of expertise and capabilities	278
5-23	Ex military fundamental themes and main skills selection	279
5-24	Ex military selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities	279
5-25	Ex military list of expertise and capabilities	280
5-26	Teachers as a future source of principals – percentages agreeing with the statement	287
5-27	Teachers as a future source of principals	288
5-28	Selected items in leadership, management, pedagogy and personality traits	291
5-29	Selected leadership qualities	294
5-30	Selected leadership qualities	294
5-31	Selected management abilities	298
5-32	Selected management abilities	299
5-33	Selected pedagogical capabilities	303
5-34	Selected pedagogical capabilities	303
5-35	Selection of personality traits	308
5-36	Selection of personality traits	308
5-37	Number of traits selected	309

5-38	Fundamental qualities and abilities a principal should possess	310
5-39	Fundamental qualities and abilities a principal should possess	311
5-40	Distribution of qualities and abilities a principal should possess (regular teachers)	311
5-41	Distribution of qualities and abilities a principal should possess (ex military)	312
6-1	Ex military selection	328
6-2	Regular teachers' selection	328
6-3	Fundamental qualities and abilities that school principals should possess	331

FIGURES

5-1	The way to principalship – a route through training	223
-----	---	-----

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express thanks to my supervisor, Dr. Mark Lofthouse, for his guidance and support in my research and writing which has made the completion of this thesis possible. His friendship and kindness in uneasy times was a source of encouragement that helped me through the PhD process.

In addition, thanks to Dr. Neil Burton who guided me in my first steps on the PhD, and to Dr. Chris Comber for his support in the research.

Thanks also to Mrs. Joyce Palmer for her good advice and professional help in proofreading the thesis, and to the staff members of the EMDU and the School of Education library for their valuable support throughout the years.

In Israel I would like to thank all the aspiring and acting principals who took part in the research and the Bait-Berl research unit for their support; also Dr. Rina Bar-Kol who has been for some years now a supportive and guiding associate in the field of the research.

I should also like to thank my four sons Shachar, Yaron, Assaf and Roey who were very much involved in the writing process. Finally, special thanks to my wife Hanna, for her long-lasting understanding and support and her willingness to take upon herself a lot of the family burden.

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

Leadership and Vision

In his prologue to the National College for School Leadership, British Prime Minister Mr. Tony Blair wrote: “Leadership and vision are crucial to raising standards and aspirations across the nation’s schools. We cannot leave them to chance” (1999). According to The United States Office of Educational Research and Improvement’s *Principal Selection Guide* (1987), principals must articulate a vision and values that they can use to transform or revitalize a school’s atmosphere. They should be determined, creative and enthusiastic, willing and able to confront problems and seek opportunities to inspire their school communities towards achieving beneficial change.

The intention of raising standards and aspirations in education is an outcome of the expectation that principals will make their mark in a feasible way, not only in the school they lead but on the wider school community and society in general (Chen 1999 pp. 321-323). The challenge, therefore, is to find and train educational leaders who will translate their commitment into a vision, who will raise standards and aspirations across school, community and society. But where will these educational leaders come from? What mission will they be qualified to accomplish? What challenges will they be competent to face? (Chen 1999 p. 321).

Schoolteachers worldwide were, and remain, the main source of future school leaders. Sarason (1982 p.14) suggests that there should be some consideration that should “cause one to pause before accepting what seems obvious and reasonable” and, since there are key elements in principalship that differ from that of being a class teacher, we should be looking for school principals elsewhere. Sergiovanni (1992 and 1995) expands upon this idea and emphasises that, since school principals require qualities different to the

past, there is a need to try to recruit principals from beyond the classroom who may have developed these skills in other fields of work.

Aspiring to Future School Principalship

Within the twenty-first century

The move into the 21st century is characterized by vast and rapid communication and technological changes that affect future organizations by forcing them to develop capabilities for adaptation and adjustment to changing circumstances and environments. The structure and process of a future organization will be changed in accordance with shifts in its surroundings and its prerequisites (Friedman 2000a). Major adjustments for future organizations depend on high flexibility, full commitment by employees to both the organization and its aims, responsible and loyal workers, clever use of teams for different missions and emphasizing basic professional skills and sensitivity in order to increase variation and diversification.

The implication of these changes for the educational world was identified by Davies (1977), who stated:

"In this world the globalisation of economic systems, technological advance and the increased expectations that society has of its education system have replaced past certainties with new and uncertain frameworks. Dynamic changes have become the order of the day. How do leaders and managers meet this challenge and develop approaches in order to operate successfully in this new environment? (p. 11)

This new environment of technological changes in sectors such as medicine and engineering has accelerated changes in approach, technique and instrumentation. These did not immediately affect the world of principalship or the definition of the school principal's role, which until the last three decades had been considered traditional and conservative. However, the last thirty years of the 20th century marked

a change in educational attitudes throughout the western world, a change that intensified towards the conclusion of the 20th century with moves towards new organizational approaches such as school-based management. The need to implement these changes has produced a new and more complex set of challenges for educational leaders.

Principalship – a changing role

As we move into the 21st century, the role of the school head-teacher, in Israel and in other parts of the world, is changing in response to increased levels of devolved management and the changing role of education within society as a whole. Although the role is still recognizable from decades past, it is nevertheless changing due to conditions that require school headteachers to adapt to change. Devolved school management, within an accountability framework enforced by legislation (Friedman, 2000a), requires headteachers to perceive their school as an open organization accountable to other public and communal organizations.

In the past, the primary role of the school was to ensure a basic level of education. Today, community involvement, and parental and student expectations of school, are more substantial and more open to conflict. Schools are now expected to provide an increased variety of academic subjects, as well as a social and pastoral education, adjusted to the social values of the community. A general international shift towards school-based management enables and requires principals to address a wider spectrum of leadership activities and responsibilities. The mission of the school principal, worldwide, is becoming increasingly complex.

Formerly, they were expected to manage the curriculum, the school building and the staff within it. Devolution of management responsibilities has led to headteachers taking on roles that previously would have been performed by local or even national administrators. They may now need to demonstrate expertise in educational law, health and safety, social services provision, fundraising, public relations, parental involvement, security, management information systems and diplomacy, whilst retaining a duty to implement the best instructional programmes, curricula, pedagogical practice and assessment models. Principals, as instructional leaders, must tackle tough curriculum standards, serve an increasingly diverse student population, shoulder responsibilities that once were addressed at home and/or in the community, and then face possible termination if their schools don't show instant results (White and Carr 2001).

A wider range of responsibility

The International Principals Conference Council meetings in Cape Town in 1999 and Israel in 2000 discussed the changing role of the principal in detail. The ICP, an international association of school leaders, published a paper seeking to clarify and document the role of the school leader. The paper emphasized the increasing complexity and diversity of the principal's role. The Council identified challenges to all those charged with leadership responsibility, of guiding the education and shaping the lives of young people, demographic diversity and changing social norms, including the level of public confidence in the quality of schools. New factors create new pressures. In some cases, the accountability of the headteacher for the performance of the school is such that principals' tenures are linked to student performance on standardized tests, as in the US (Tracy and Weaver 2000).

While cultural, geographical and economic circumstances differ enormously, there are common elements of the role of the school leader that can be identified, valued and asserted. This common role of the school leader, as identified by the IPC, was based on the perception that a school leader works in a rapidly changing and diverse educational and social context. The seven key points (www. icp-online) focus on the personal role of the headteacher in ensuring a successful and effective learning environment.

As noted, leadership and vision are crucial for raising standards and aspirations across the nation's schools (Blair 1999). This led Friedman (2000a) to define the main mission of the school leaders as:

“To provide school with an educational and organizational level of a high professional quality that will ensure success and an on-going improvement of school functions, education at a high level for all students, and a high level of studies and achievements.” (Friedman 2000a, p.13)

Training and development

Significant changes in the responsibilities and duties of headteachers brought forward the need for changes in the selection process and training offered to potential headteacher candidates. Milstein (1993) claimed that it was necessary to re-examine principal training on the basis that schools should be awarded general and pedagogical autonomy, so that principal training could be re-oriented in this direction. In the past headteachers had been appointed from the teaching profession on the basis of their teaching experience and pedagogical capabilities. As their role was expected to involve only curriculum management and general staff leadership, training was limited to “training on the job” rather than pre-service training. This was a common approach in Israel, as in other countries, because it considered principals as headmasters - a chief pedagogue.

Since the change towards a more advanced system of managing school, headteachers are appointed on the basis of leadership qualities, management abilities and pedagogical capabilities. Training became the main instrument in preparing principals to perform their modified role and to fill the gap of skills expected of them in the future. In order to enable future principals to perform their modified role in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogy, they need pertinent training including elements of pre-service, in-service, mentoring and professional development. Future development emphasizes the need for extensive training in order to prepare school leaders to embrace change and develop vision.

Various countries have developed different management routes for the training and selection of new and existing headteachers. In the US, a structured Masters programme in management and educational administration must be successfully completed before application for a principal or assistant principal's post is accepted (Hillman, 1992). It was understood in the US that experienced teachers do not necessarily make effective managers much earlier than in other countries.

Daresh and Playko (1992) describe a significant difference between traditional practices of educational management in the US and the UK. In the US there is a tendency to see the role of the principal as having administrative responsibility and as being distinctly different from the role and expectations of classroom teachers. Pre-service management training programmes were tied directly to the pursuit of advanced university degrees. In the UK the headteacher was viewed as a member of an instructional team and, therefore, the relationship between classroom teachers and the headteacher was important and for many years no pre-service management

training was required. Skills development was meant to take place on the job. However, “despite these differences, there is a common appreciation of the value of induction programs and mentoring schemes that may be available for individuals in the earliest stages of their careers” Daresh and Playko (1992, p.145).

Although a number of universities in different countries have educational leadership centres, the UK Government has been the first to take the initiative in establishing a National College for School Leadership (NCSL), launched in Autumn 2000 (Bennett 2001). The establishment followed the development over the last few years of a core programme combining three elements:

- The National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) - will eventually become mandatory for all newly appointed headteachers.
- The Head’s Leadership and Management Programme (HEADLAMP) - once appointed, all new heads have access to the Head’s Leadership and Management Programme. This enables each Head to devise a tailor-made training programme, under guidance, for their induction period.
- The Leadership Programme for Serving Heads (LPSH) - the third element that provides an opportunity for reflective learning after five or more years in headship.

Twenty years earlier, in a study of educational programmes in Scandinavia, the Netherlands and France, Esp (1980) found that France provides a three-month partly residential course for teachers appointed to headship or deputy headship, while Sweden and Denmark both provide more than 20 days of training. The programmes share a common assumption that, "Leadership can no longer be exercised on the basis

of experience and natural ability alone" Hillman (1992 p. 516).

In Singapore the Ministry of Education and the National Institute of Education (NIE) developed a model which indicates the Singapore government's commitment to principalship training. Candidates for principal are given the opportunity to take the Diploma in Educational Administration (DEA) course. The Diploma is a full-time programme of one academic year's duration and is designed for selected education personnel to prepare them for school principalship. The programme content takes into account the different training needs of principalship at primary and secondary school levels. Among other things, it introduces participants to the impact it has on school management and an efficient ability-driven school system.

Candidates from elsewhere

A characteristic of the contemporary employment environment is career mobility, either within the same line of occupation or between professions, especially at managerial level. Some of these career changes are characterized as a "mid-life change of career". Change is seen as a chance to restructure professional life. Educational systems are characterized by the fact that they mainly incorporate young people at the beginning of their professional life. Since many teachers suffer from burnout, the phenomenon of leaving the teaching profession is widely accepted.

Cases of people deciding to move into education later in their life, including as a mid-life change of career, have been limited. But is it possible? Barkol (1996) suggests we try and find suitable candidates for running schools not within the educational system, but in other social groups that implement leadership and management abilities, capabilities and qualities suitable for school principal positions.

Reference to training for principalship usually applies to those already in the educational system, namely teachers. Will it be possible, with proper training, to train people from outside the education system for educational management positions? Blackman and Fenwick (2000) see that the shortage of principals may be resolved in ways that preserve the role of professional educators as leaders of the schools. They say educators need to find other educators to fill leadership positions. The challenge is to encourage the able educators to be the willing leaders.

Sergiovanni (1992 and 1995) commented on the fact that school principals require qualification and qualities different from the past. There is a need to try and recruit principals elsewhere, outside the educational world. Schoolteachers are one source for school leadership, but the changing elements in principalship raise the need for a new source to be found. Sarason (1982) comments that the norm of bringing up teachers for principalship should be re-considered.

Bar Kol (1996) raises issues which, in her opinion, might make teachers unfit for principalship, see p.60.

In an attempt to view the process of teacher development leading to headteacher positions, Daresh and Playko (1992) described the British tradition of raising teachers. Unlike the US, where administrative training was at the centre, British tradition relied primarily on the natural emergence of leadership, based first and foremost on teaching expertise and abilities, leading to natural selection. Handy (1995) described modern society as a "portfolio " society in which people are defined not by their occupation

but rather by a personal portfolio which they develop and attain within their professional life.

According to Macbeath *et al*, (1998 p. 25) teachers represent an untypical line of occupation in which they enjoy a job for life and, for most of the time, at a single place. In contrast, most people experience a series of job changes, re-training several times and learning new skills to hold down new positions.

To move up from being a teacher to a school principal requires a different set of qualities developed in a personal "portfolio " that will enable them to cope with the complex mission of a principal. The characteristic, described by Macbeath (1998), of a uni-occupation in a world that requires a multi-skill ability, is becoming a serious obstacle for teachers competing for principalship.

The concept of finding suitable candidates for principalship from other professions raises the question of what that field should be. Once found, is it possible to transfer them successfully?

Yukl (1998) raises questions about the extent to which managerial skills are transferable from one type of organization to another. According to him it is agreed that there are difficulties concerning the transfer of lower-level managers due to differences in technical skills. As to high-level management, Katz (1955, quoted in Yukl, 1998) proposes that high-level managers, possessing good human relation and conceptual skills, can be shifted easily from one industry to another without losing effectiveness. Others, such as Kotter (1982, quoted in Yukl, 1998) and Shetty and Peery (1976, quoted in Yukl, 1998), are less certain of the transferability of skills

because of variation of ownership, tradition, organizational climate and culture. Yukl (1998) thinks that conceptual and technical elements can be transferred to another organization but particular knowledge elements need to be re-learned.

There will also be a need to develop a new relevant network of external relations to replace the old network that served in the other organization. Kotter (1982, quoted in Yukl, 1998) and Shetty and Peery (1976, quoted in Yukl, 1998) argue that transfer for an executive moving to a different organization will be more difficult when the new position requires extensive expertise and a well established net of external relations. Does this apply to principalship?

Responding to the challenge

One way of responding to the challenge is by re-training and developing qualified people within the education field and beyond. But can changing competencies, developing abilities and capabilities of leadership, management and pedagogy through appropriate training, qualify persons from both the education field and from other fields for the assignment of school leaders as professional experts? This thesis will present a possible solution to this challenge.

Background

Some characteristics of the Israeli educational system

Establishing a new educational system

With the renewal of Jewish settlement in the land of Palestine (Israel) at the beginning of the 20th century, education was considered one of the key elements in fulfilling the dream of creating new Israelites. In fact, teachers and principals at that time were referred to as “educational workers” and enjoyed high social status. At the time of the

establishment of the state of Israel in 1948, the Jewish population numbered 670,000 people. During the decade 1948-1958, Israel tripled its size of population by absorbing more than 1,200,000 people, including Holocaust refugees from Europe, as well as immigrants from Middle Eastern and North African countries.

In 1951, the Israeli government decided that all teachers and principals working in elementary schools (1st to 8th grades) should become government employees supervised by the Ministry of Education. All personnel matters (e.g., hiring and firing) would be the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The existing educational systems were overwhelmed by new responsibilities, and were formally combined into a centralized system in order to achieve national educational goals. At this stage, two main authorities held general responsibility for educational systems:

1. Local Authorities - responsible for administrative matters concerning logistics, buildings, maintenance and secretariat systems.
2. Ministry of Education - responsible for all pedagogical aspects including the employment of teachers.

“Hamenahel”-the Israeli school principal

During the early days of the state, teachers and principals were considered equal and perceived as a unified group, loyal to the administration and in agreement with the aims of the social and national mission (Chen, 1999, p.306). Also at this time, Israeli principals were regarded as “Head Teachers” or “Senior Teachers” and were called in Hebrew “Hamenahel”- the manager. Actually, they did not achieve high prestige as their mission was thought to be rather simple. For its part, the Ministry of Education tried as much as possible to help with school management tasks by freeing the principals from administrative and personnel matters. Thus, principals were free to

devote most of their time and energy to the twin aims of pedagogical leadership and advancing national values.

The managerial side of the teaching mission, grouping students into classes, providing a curriculum for each teacher and for each class, appointing teachers to key positions, and seeing to it that routine performance was undertaken according to regulation, was considered to be simple compared with the proficiency expected of a teacher teaching students.

It was the government's responsibility, as part of the centralized educational system, to select school principals recommended by school inspectors. Teachers nominated themselves as candidates for the position of school principal. These nominees faced, along with other candidates, a selection committee composed of representatives from the Ministry of Education as chairs, representatives of local school authorities, and representatives of the Teachers Union. The idea of appointing teachers to school principal positions was that he/she would learn about school organization 'on the job'.

The principal was seen first as a teacher, responsible mainly for the pedagogical side of schools, and only secondarily as holding a managerial position. This was emphasised by the fact that only those with five years experience in teaching could be nominated and receive a senior appointment. Demonstrating this rule it is a fact that, even today, school principals are supposed to teach at least six hours a week in the classroom. This is now changing with the school-based management approach where principals acquire an overall responsibility for management as well as responsibility for the involvement of the wider community in the direction of the school.

Minister of Education Yegal Alon stated in 1973:

“In future we will have to expect more guiding and instructing roles from principals. The Ministry of Education think of the principal and the staff as delegates, following office policy, representing teachers’ opinions and knowledge, and being aware of students and parents’ reactions in all aspects of educational activity. The principal has a broad responsibility for his educational institution.” (Alon, 1973, p.367)

Training of principals in Israel

In Israel, until the end of 1980, there were no significant differences between the education and qualification of teachers and becoming a school principal. A teaching certificate for elementary schools was granted by the seminar, and the universities granted a diploma for high school teachers. At that time, it was enough to have teacher training, five years experience and a leadership position among schoolteachers to be appointed by the supervisor/the Ministry as a school principal. The rest of principalship knowledge could be gained through work experience, during short training sessions and through guidance by the supervisors and other experienced principals. There was no need for a progressive, valid, open process in selecting candidates; the position did not require an academic certificate proving expertise in educational management .

Chen (1999) gives the following description of a principal, “In the past, the principal gained his training on the job, when his job was extended, and educational management was developed, it was understood that the principal mission required special systematic training” (p.307). In 1977 the Deputy Director of the Ministry of Education, (Israeli 1977) devised a plan for the development and training of principals, including preparation programmes for senior educational administrators, in which he recognized that additional training was needed for aspiring principals. He recommended that all new principals should have an academic degree, or at least a

diploma, in educational administration

At the beginning of 1980 a unit for training senior staff was established by the Ministry. This has led to the establishment of headteacher training courses, both in universities and colleges, providing training in three elements; leadership, management and pedagogy. The regulation requiring new principals to have either a regular academic degree or a diploma in educational administration was first enforced in 1984. Today all principals are expected to have an academic degree therefore it is only recommended that candidates have a diploma in educational administration. Participation in the programme was, at one stage, a requirement for attending a selection committee for principal.

Chen (1966) identifies, as a target for the profession, that all those involved in principal pre-service planning should do their best to promote levels of expertise, leadership ability and the status and prestige of the future principal.

Special emphasis is placed then, in Israel, on the selection of principals with a background in educational administration (Bar-Oz 2001). During their pre-service, principals study skills in such areas as education, economics, management, manpower, decision-making processes, developing a school vision and the abilities required to integrate extra-school elements. Principals must be acquainted with the procedures of the Ministry of Education, the government and local authorities. They have to know how to manage teams and locate positive forces. They should also be acquainted with school curricula.

Bar-Oz (2001) claims there is general dissatisfaction with the training of principals because universities train present principals, while the goal should be training for the future. Some researchers criticize the training, claiming that it has a bureaucratic approach. There is a shortage of the concepts, skills and tools required for leading schools, they propose that universities begin to provide training that will lead to a change in the mental perception of the candidate. In view of this approach, the training of future principals must, in Bar-Oz's view, include a number of basic elements that constitute the foundation of a principal's future success:

1. Fostering the principal's leadership - with the aim of attaining the results appropriate for the school population.
2. Defining the management tasks according to which the future principal will be trained.
3. The inculcation of management skills together with the theoretical material. One should create a blend between theory and practice.
4. Education for openness to different approaches in different areas.
5. The development of management skills oriented towards co-operation and respect for others.
6. Establishing links between field people (principals in practice) and academicians. These links will give rise to new approaches in future management.
7. Providing skills for the learning process.
8. A great deal of knowledge in the use of technological means for realizing educational goals.
9. The provision of skills for identifying problems and providing solutions.

New directions for recruiting principals

Friedman (2000a p. 24) analysing training and selection of school principals, states that new training and selection systems are based on the assumption that successful teachers are not necessarily becoming successful principals without proper theoretical and practical training. So, if a proper theoretical and practical training can turn teachers into principals, maybe it can also do the same to transform candidates from other professions.

There are increasing difficulties in mobilizing highly qualified teachers for principal positions. A ten percent turnover in principals every year caused the Ministry of Education to look for new ways of recruiting principals (Barkol 1996).

The military establishment within Israeli society

From the military to top management positions

The Israeli Defence Army (IDF) was founded with the creation of the state in May 1948. The IDF was charged with being responsible for the sovereignty and security of the state and assisting the state in the mission of absorbing new immigrants. The IDF is based upon two main factors: first a regular army with a small number of career officers commanding units of compulsory service men and women joining the army at eighteen and serving three years for men and two years for women. Secondly, the reserve army in which every qualified man serves at least one month every year in reserve until he is 47. The service in the Army (to include navy and air forces) is compulsory. There is a collective national consensus supporting the need for conscription. The army was not, and is not, distinct from Israeli society. Indeed, it is a well-integrated and appreciated element. Compulsory service for men and women, and the reserve system, forge very strong ties between society and the military.

The military system in Israel is structured in such a way that military career personnel of all ranks can retire between the ages of 40 and 45. Unless marked for further senior promotion, after 22 to 27 years of service they are forced to retire. This system enables the military personnel to preserve the army as a young organization where the average age of colonels is 36-40 and of brigadier-generals is 40 to 45. The average rank for officers on retirement is lieutenant colonel. Since retirement is at such an early age there is a need to offer a second career option for retiring officers. This forced change of career presents a unique challenge.

During the first years, Israeli society was relatively small and intimate. The over-riding idea at that time was that all resources and the infrastructure within the state, physical or personal, were part of the overall struggle for independence. The new state viewed the military ethos as part of a new heritage and was committed to retiring officers. Enjoying high prestige turned many retired officers into politics both at national level (Moshe Dayan, Igaël Yadin, Itzhak Rabin, Haim Bar-Lev, Ariel Sharon) and local level (Shlomo Lahat) with a relative amount of success that encouraged others to follow. But, it was not only high prestige that caused military people to go into politics. A sense of mission led them to offer service to their nation.

At that time (1948-1958), appointments as directors of industrial companies were based mainly on ties with the government's leadership. Since during these years, retired military officers enjoyed a high status within the establishment and Israeli society, and since government and government affiliated organizations owned most of the large companies in the marketplace, retired military officers were appointed to high managerial positions and directorships in public organizations. Privately owned

businesses also seemed to prefer retired military officers in leadership and management positions. The results were that most retired officers from the level of colonel and above were appointed to leadership and management positions. This express route raised, at a later stage, some objections and resentment since workers at those places felt they lost chances of promotion.

Competition in an open market

After the 1973 Yom Kippur war, a shift in the attitude toward the military occurred in which the glory of being an ex-military officer was not enough. People were judged in accordance with their ability and performance. The process of positioning officers into managerial positions that had continued for almost 40 years started to raise questions. During the last decade, workers' unions openly questioned the appointment of outsiders to senior management positions. Beigelman (1999, p.32) claimed that an officer in a civilian managerial position was not necessarily the best choice and did not automatically offer success. The aura that regarded retired military personnel as the ultimate manager was reduced and, in many organizations, there was a change of attitude towards bringing managers in from external systems (Beigelman, 1999, p.32).

The last decade has emphasized the change in attitudes toward retired military personnel. Competition for managerial positions has grown and society structures have changed. The structural changes in the economy created a situation in which vacant managerial positions became scarce and harder to get.

Preparing for a new role

Since the growth in the military forces was accompanied by a large number of retiring officers, and with managerial positions becoming scarce, the IDF was forced to try and find ways of preparing retiring officers for civilian life.

A response was made at two levels. Firstly, from within the military establishment. The IDF, being a large and complex organization, operates as a great financial corporation. Deploying advanced management styles, officers from major rank and above, are required to go through a management qualification process. Many of the officers are in charge of military units with sizeable budgets and control a great number of subordinates. Upon retirement, retiring officers of high rank are usually well qualified and up-to-date with modern management tools and the abilities required to run organizations. Secondly, in preparing officers for retirement, the IDF developed a special programme for preparing retiring officers to assimilate into civilian life. The process included the completion of a BA degree and special courses to qualify them for integration into civilian systems. Being part of such a small society exposes military personnel to civil society enabling them to grasp alternative realities.

Mid-life change of career

Retirement and the transition to civil life from military service (although until the age of 50 they are required to serve at least one month per year in reserve) is a forced mid-life change of career. Doering and Rhodes (1989) emphasize the inherent challenges in this phenomenon. They identify the need to establish a set of new values different from those directing his early career, likewise there is a need to change professional qualities and attitudes when leaving their previous occupation (Bar Zohar, 1997). Yukl (1998) emphasizes extensive expertise and a well-established net of external

relations. In the case of retired officers, they may have established in their military career aptitudes and abilities relevant for work in civilian society.

Retired military officers and education

In the early years of the new state of Israel (1948-1988), only a few retired military officers chose to move into the field of education. In 1988, a combined initiative of the Ministries of Labour and Education, together with the military veteran organization, initiated a project in which a two-year re-training course was offered to retired military officers (male or female, majors to generals) qualifying them as teachers and principals.

The first year of the course is devoted to pedagogy and methodology. After the completion of a full week study programme, graduates are granted a “teaching certificate” which enables them to teach at high school level (each candidate specializing in an academic subject). In the second year of the programme candidates usually start working as teachers and they attend the school principal course for one-study day per week.

This initiative was established in order to meet two pressing needs of that time. The first was to provide employment in the civil sector for the group of early retiring highly ranked officers; the second, to address the shortage of educational leaders serving as qualified school principals in a new, challenging environment.

However, the need to fill the shortage was not the only reason. According to Barkol (1996), the educational system was interested in recruiting and re-training military officers for principalship in particular, and into education in general, for several reasons.

They had not yet experienced “burnout” because they had just entered the system. They were loaded with managerial experience as an outcome of their years of experience. They were mostly male, unlike the majority of people in education who were mainly female. Additionally, they brought with them into the field of education the status and prestige gained through military service.

Retired military officers choose to become school principals for varied reasons (Barkol 1996). Retired officers seek prospects in civil society enabling them to achieve a respectable second career. The education field enables them to contribute to what is still considered a national cause. Officers often feel that their former status as military commanders or managers is not so far from what is demanded of them as teachers and principals.

The project has currently been in operation for more than twelve years, during which time almost 300 students have completed the two elements of the re-training. More than 65 percent are teachers and about 12 percent of them are acting as school principals.

Education system felt this forced change of career offers a unique opportunity, it enables schools to recruit retired officers into the field of education as their second career, extending leadership and bringing fresh vision into schools.

Structuring the re-training course presented a challenge to the planners at Beit Berl College. The curriculum and syllabus of the course represented compromises. Constant changes in the programme, especially in the curriculum, are an outcome of the lessons learned from running the course and a result of remarks made by the graduate students.

The course should provide the knowledge and skills necessary for a school leader that differ from those required by a military leader, in order to articulate the school's mission and develop a strategic plan for the school. It is intended to try and develop in candidates an awareness of school climate and school culture.

The emphasis of the course is on both the pedagogical elements and the necessary exposure to school systems and interrelated systems. Topics such as school systems and dilemmas of school life are part of this approach. The course consists of three main elements:

1. A theoretical part with the main emphasis on school as an organization, and related elements of school leadership.
2. A semi-theoretical practical part (the praxis) that consists of workshops, simulation, role-playing.
3. A practical part for the implementation of all elements.

During the course, the students are exposed to the work of a trained principal and they follow his daily work for 72 work hours. They start to work as teachers at different schools. Some of them, even at that early stage, take upon themselves the job of class educator and the teacher in charge of a class layer or subject. Details of the number of retired officers undertaking the course, and the results, are shown in Table 1.1.

Teaching certificate				Principal course			
Year	Graduates number	Integrated in education field	Percent	Graduates number	School principals	Percent	School principals*
1993	28	21	75%	20	3	15%	11%
1994	35	27	77%	12	3	25%	9%
1995	28	22	79%	22	6	27%	21%
1996	37	31	84%	21	2	10%	5%
1997	54	37	69%	24	5	21%	9%
1998	52	34	65%	35	8	23%	15%
1999	33	23	70%	22	4	18%	12%
2000	35	24	69%	30	4	13%	11%
2001	37	26	70%	21	5	24%	14%
2002	35	22	63%	35	4	11%	11%
2003	37	-	-	31	3	10%	8%
Total	411	267	72%	273	47	19%	12%

Table 1.1 Number of graduates of “The Officers to Education” project

*out of Teaching certificate Graduates number

School principal appointments

Towards the end of the course, graduates start competing for school principal appointments. The appointment process varies with the size and level of school. In elementary and junior high school, where personnel matters are the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, the candidate for the position of school principal will answer an advertisement in the newspaper and will attend a selection committee. This committee will have representatives of the Ministry of Education as chairs with further representatives from the local authority and the teacher unions. The candidate will have to present to the committee his qualification and his educational perspective and vision. The preferred candidate selected by the committee is recommended by all three members (preferably), or at least by two of them (Ministry of Education and local authority), to the general director of Education Ministry for approval and appointment.

The same procedure applies to the selection of principals for high schools or privately owned schools, in such cases it is the local municipality or the owner who chairs the selection committee.

During the last few years mayors have become much more involved in the selection process of school principals for their towns. Involvement of mayors in the process is because their success as mayor depends very much on the performance of the educational systems in their town. School principal performance is a key element in the overall success of the educational system. Therefore, there is a tendency on the part of mayors to prefer ex-military officers to serve as school principals as they have proved their leadership and management abilities during their former career. This enables those newly re-trained retired officers to join the education system and prove their qualifications and abilities as educational leaders from a different source.

Purpose and Significance of the Thesis – Résumé

Traditionally, school principals are selected from existing experienced teachers within the field of education. During the last century, educational systems have gone through major conceptual changes, including a change of role for educational leaders. The concepts of schooling have been modified in accordance with society's sociological and technological changes. Schools have shifted from being isolated institutions to becoming open and involved in society and communities, less dependent and more independent in managing internal organization. Modifications in the role of the principal include budgeting, marketing, and external relations. This may lead to a situation where there will not be sufficient numbers of teachers capable of taking on this role, which will eventually create a shortage of candidates for this position. In this case, the requirement for additional candidates for the role, with

specific qualities, abilities and capabilities, will become an increasing challenge. One possible solution may be found outside the field of education by integrating personnel from other professions.

The purpose of this thesis is to try to find an appropriate way of incorporating candidates from other fields into the field of education as school principals, and training them to perform the mission successfully. Existing training programmes might not provide them with specific responses to their requirements. In order to do so, there is a need to locate and map their strengths, weaknesses, qualities, abilities and capabilities, and then offer them a specially designed pre-service training programme. This research will not only have relevance for the educational system in Israel but may also provide pertinent information for other countries having similar issues to contend with.

Aims and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this research is to determine the feasibility of pre-service training for aspiring principals who are coming from outside the world of education, in order to qualify them as school principals. This aim will be pursued by examining the requirements for pre-service training in preparing retired officers for principalship in Israel. An analysis of the tools and skills needed to prepare candidates adequately for leading positions in the educational system will be examined and investigated. Furthermore, an evaluation of military officers' concepts of their abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills will be conducted in order to locate the areas in which they might need support during their transfer into the field of education.

The hypothesis is based, primarily, on the following statement:

"Aspiring principals can identify tools and skills required for their training into principal's positions, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills".

The operational hypotheses are:

- 1. Aspiring principals from outside the field of education are more likely to emphasize pedagogical aspects than candidates within the profession.*
- 2. Aspiring principals from within the field of education will concentrate more on aspects of management, compared with candidates drawn from outside who have extensive management experience.*

If these hypotheses are accepted, it is possible to design a training programme for candidates from outside the field of education for principalship positions, providing tools and skills identified as required.

Preview of Research Plan

The research will be conducted through two groups of aspiring principalship candidates (each group consists of three cohorts 2001, 2002 and 2003) who went through a school principal programme. The first group consisted of experienced teachers aspiring to become principalship candidates through the pre-service process. The second group consisted of retired military officers aspiring to become principalship candidates by undertaking pre-service training.

The research intends to conduct a survey among these groups to investigate their abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills. Further, the expected contribution of pre-service training in the process of becoming a school principal will be examined. The results will then be analysed and compared between the groups concentrating on:

- Identification of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills.
- Identification of the set of tools and skills required for pre-training and performing the principal's role.

The requirements for the training of each of the aspiring groups will be measured by comparison and analysis of each group. In addition, to round out the research, interviews will be conducted with regular teachers and acting school principals who either have, or have not, gone through an earlier pre-service training programme.

Summary Statement

This thesis will present an appropriate training concept based upon essential characteristics of principalship, to include leadership qualities, management abilities and pedagogical capabilities, to support the possibility of incorporating personnel from outside the field of education into principalship. Examination of the training of both schoolteachers and retired army officers for the position of school principals will take place. The research will identify special requirements of pre-service training in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogy, in both courses, namely regular teachers and retired ex-military. The research will compare and assess similarities and differences between the groups. The evaluation of military officers' concepts of their abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical

skills, will establish the areas in which they need support during their transfer to the field of education.

If the hypothesis *"Aspiring principals can identify tools and skills required for their training into principal's positions, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills"*, is valid, it will be possible to train candidates from outside the field of education for principalship positions if the tools and skills that are identified as required are provided.

Emphasis in the research will be on what is required in the training programme for each group, this will serve to set up a conceptual model for recruiting and training suitable candidates for principalship from within other professions.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

Characteristics of School Principalship

School principalship has an intricate complexity which can be analysed through three main components: leadership, management and pedagogy. "There is an expectation that head teachers will be leaders, managers and professionals" (Campbell 1999 p-653). These fields cover the main areas in which school principals are expected to perform their role. Therefore, school principals worldwide should acquire competencies of leadership, management and pedagogical abilities.

Leadership

Terms and qualities

"Leadership is a process that involves setting new directions or creating a new vision and the building of commitment to moving in that direction or achieving that vision" (Kotter 1996 p.6).

The concept of 'leadership' has been defined in many different ways. Mintzberg (1973), Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) and Poper (1999) claim that leadership is regarded as the ability of one man to influence other people's motivations. Or, as Hoy and Miskel (2001) state:

"General agreement exists that leadership involves a social influence process in which an individual exerts an intentional influence over others to structure activities and relationships in a group or organizations." (p.425)

Influencing motivation (or leadership) is noticeable and recognizable under those circumstances in which formal authority or power control are not the main elements.

This approach has led into the route of researching and studying leadership as an interaction between leaders and those led by them.

Research in recent years (Popper 1999 p.22) has dealt with two basic levels of influence that exist between leaders and their subordinates. One is based on the understanding of mutual benefits and is known as 'transactional leadership'. According to Bass (1985), transactional leaders motivate followers by exchanging rewards for given services. This transactional act is based on a mutual benefit for both sides. The second leadership approach is the ability to create a high level of commitment that develops from strong emotional relationships between the leaders and the led. This is known as 'transformational leadership' or 'charismatic leadership' and depends on four critical elements: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Hoy and Miskel 2001). Hoy and Miskel (2001) also emphasize the important contribution of a conceptual framework of leadership to practical implications such as selecting and training educational leaders, both for acquiring new leadership positions and for implementing school improvement.

In their discussion of the nature of leadership Klein and House (1995) have chosen the metaphor of a flame created by three elements: the sparkle of the leader, the burning material of the led, and the oxygen as the circumstances. This shows leadership today more as an interactive phenomenon between the leader and the led, in many ways this description is suitable for the concept of leadership implemented in educational systems.

The approaches towards personality traits, where people with the right personal

qualities are more suitable for leadership positions, have cleared the way for a more situational approach. However, there are qualities for leaders that might not predict the ability to lead, but help in implementing leadership and make a leader more successful. Sergiovanni (2001) points out three qualities that should be mastered by leaders:

“...the capacity to synthesise, to innovate and to be perceptive. The capacity to synthesise is the ability to handle and control large amounts of information, identify the important elements and combine the knowledge together in order to reach powerful conclusions.” (p.4)

The capacity to innovate is the ability to combine known elements in new ways in order to solve problems. The ability to be perceptive is to have a skill for identifying, understanding and analysing situations and being able to determine a way to react to them.

Leadership in principalship - concepts and practice

Leadership being one of the bases for principalship guides us to explore the kind of leadership required in the field of education and how leadership is a unique kind of interaction between the principal as a leader and the school. According to Middleton (2001), "the role of leadership is to maintain the school community's energy and nurture the core purpose of increasing ability of all children and preparing students for the future" (p.130).

Leithwood (1994), studying the effects of transformational leadership in schools, concluded that, firstly, transformational leadership in school directly affects school results and attitudes. Secondly, transformational leadership affects those results in an indirect way by influencing three characteristics of staff: their perception of school, their commitment to change, and the organizational learning producing the results.

A list of tasks and roles that was developed in 1986 by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) recommends that the principal “inspire all concerned to join in accomplishing the school mission”. The first in the ten categories of proficiencies for principals is leadership behaviour.

Moos *et al*, (1998) identified five characteristics of school leadership:

"Leadership means having a clear personal vision of what you want to achieve.

A good leader is at the thick of things, working alongside their colleagues. Leadership means respecting teachers' autonomy, protecting them from extraneous demands.

Good leaders look ahead, anticipate change and prepare people for it so that it doesn't surprise or disempower them.

Good leaders are pragmatic. They are able to grasp the realities of the political and economic context and they are able to negotiate and compromise." (p.63)

Nissan (1997), trying to distinguish educational leaders from other leaders, describes leadership in education as: “...one whose work entails making decisions which can significantly affect the education of others, and also implementing those decisions" (p.7). For good educational leadership there is a need for what he refers to as "educational identity". "Educational identity is constituted through a commitment to educational endeavour, which in turn is guided by an intelligent conception of education and the good and the worthy" (Nissan 1997 p -8).

How would a principal acquire their leadership elements? Or educational identity? Are they inherent abilities that are part of his personality? Should he acquire them in an early stage of his career, or be trained for them? Is teachers’ leadership equivalent to principal leadership? Napoleon said that every soldier should carry the general’s stick in his bag. Is it the same for teachers, that every teacher is carrying the

principalship stick in his/her bag? But what is it in leadership that should be implemented in the principal's actions?

In attempting to respond to these questions it can be observed that basic characteristics of leadership apply to all fields. Does educational leadership have unique elements of its own? Lambert (1998) considered the core of leadership as the ability to perform the following activities and concepts: communal learning, collaborative and collective construction of meaning and knowledge, creation of opportunities to produce and arbitrate ideas, concepts, perceptions, values, beliefs, information and assumptions through a continuous dialogue, jointly seeking means to develop new ideas, conducting a process of reflection and realization of work done in an atmosphere of common values and up dated information. Elmore (2000) defined school leadership thus, "leadership is the guidance and direction *of instructional improvement*." (p. 13).

West (1999) suggests looking at leadership not only from the formal layout, but also from the informal perspective. He does not suggest we should, "...neglect the development of leadership qualities amongst school managers" (p.189). But points out:

"Indeed, it may be needed to remember that leadership and management are not quite the same thing, though it is generally easier to lead a well-managed organisation. However, we need to take much greater account of the informal organisation that exists within every school. It seems therefore that even at this basic level of micro political understanding, all too often school leaders display a naivety that is likely to lead to frustration and discontent for many of their staff. Deliberately seeking to increase understandings of how the formal and the informal interact, and, above all, reducing the 'area of struggle' between groups by creating a commitment to further the school's interests, rather than their own, are priorities for school leaders. Knowledge of micro politics will help." (pp.189-195)

This understanding of the informal infrastructure is an element that plays a major role in every kind of organisation. However, in education, with the growing numbers of elements involved in school systems, leadership should go behind formal structures.

School principals - educational leaders

School leadership is the ability to lead complicated and complex educational systems. These present a unique challenge deriving from their aims and missions. School principals should, according to Sergiovanni (1996), perform leadership activities to include:

“Articulating school purpose and mission; socialising new members into the school; telling stories and reinforcing myths, tradition and beliefs; explaining ‘the way things operate around here’; developing and displaying a system of symbols over time and rewarding those who reflect this culture.” (p.88)

Gardner (1986) also tries to determine what among a principal’s tasks represents the leadership elements in the role and lists the following: envisioning goals, affirming values, achieving unity, serving as a symbol, representing the group externally, and renewing. This list of tasks creates a set of activities which provide the principal with opportunities to implement leadership in his school. In his postscript to "Time for Change" Macdonald (1998) described what makes a school leader:

“A school leader is very much more than the passive acceptance of staff that they must do as the head teacher says simply because the individual concerned has been appointed to that position. A school leader at any level of the organisation has won the trust, belief and confidence of staff to a significant degree and these are assets that the staff have given to the leader.” (p.171)

Sergiovanni (1996) expands his view of leadership in schools to include the crucial element of vision as a basis for shaping the educational organisation. He explains, “it is hard to talk about school leadership without also talking about the vision of principals. ...Leaders should have vision and then work to shape the organisations

they manage in accordance with their vision" (p.82).. The ability to lead lies in the, "moral place of schools in our society, principals must be concerned with the vision of parents, teachers, and students; with the vision implicit in our democratic traditions..." (Sergiovanni, 1966 p.82-84).

While analysing the essential characteristic of leaders and leadership in schools, Kerry & Murdoch (1993) raise two key questions: What kind of leadership will schools require to help them face the next ten years? And how equipped are managers in school to provide that leadership? These two questions are still major challenges for the educational world of the future. The answer lies heavily in the training and selection of school principals

Hoy and Miskel (2001) explain that, since the school principal must deal with a large range of challenges presented by situations and people, they must achieve qualities, abilities and capabilities to lead effectively. In order to develop, enhance and strengthen these abilities aspiring leaders must qualify themselves through a proper course of training and development.

Griffiths *et al*, (1988) suggest that, in order to train future school leaders, a training programme should be based on theoretical and clinical knowledge, practiced research and supervised practical experience. Hoy and Miskel (2001) believe that implementing these elements in well-planned extensive programmes can help in developing school principals as effective leaders for the future.

Management

Terms and abilities.

Management can be defined in many ways. It is, according to one definition, " a cross road for heterogeneous knowledge, science and technology of a pragmatic nature, available for those who have to make decisions and solve problems" (Parames, 1975, p.11). Therefore, "management implies direction, planning, programming, regulating, financial, personnel and equipment management, output and time control, the conduct of meetings and upward as well as downward communication" (Parames, 1975 p.11/12).

Ball (1993) argues that different forms and purposes of educational management exist, derived from different beliefs and values. Management theory and the search for the 'one best way' to manage during the early twentieth century led to criticisms of 'managerialism' (Kydd 1997a) which focus on attempts to impose a uniform and inappropriate version of management on educational organizations. The tendency towards managerialism led Kydd (1997a) to argue that the rise of managerialism and the erosion of professionalism is inappropriate for education. Managerialism is associated with market forces, business management and economic criteria, while education is associated with curriculum and teacher autonomy. She goes on to argue that the dichotomy is not as straightforward and, in the past, 'good managers' in education were 'good teachers'. However, 'in a managerialism environment this duality is more difficult to sustain' (Kydd, 1997a p.116/17).

According to Campbell (1999), the education manager's role stretches beyond the curriculum and related topics and there is a danger that they will become less educational and less professional. This is certainly a concern but it is contentious.

Thomas and Martin (1996) and Preedy *et al* (1997) raise arguments about the need for a holistic, developed educational management and ask about the extent to which previous outcomes of educational professionalism contributed to education. In this argument Campbell (1999) concludes:

"'Managerialism' and 'professionalism' are perhaps ideal types. Although it can be argued that governments have promoted 'managerialism', in practice education management is developing in different ways and not blindly applying business practices and ideology to education." (p.652)

Bennett (1997) identified that some education professionals are 'hostile' to management (p.61), but makes clear that management in education should be about achieving educational purposes. Education management is both developing and concerned with development. Bennett suggests that what constitutes "the best way to manage is itself problematic" (p.61); there may be "many possibilities" (pp.65- 66).

Education management is complex, characterized by dilemmas and contradictory pressures. Management tends to link income and outcomes in a measurable ways and this linkage has been rejected by many educators. Levacic (1997) disputes attempts to measure the linkage between educational inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes which were emphasizing the measurable rather than the valuable.

Preedy *et al* (1997) caution:

"The complexity of the intervening processes which link financial and resource inputs to educational outputs and outcomes explains why it is relatively easy for budget management to be decoupled from educational activities and objectives." (p.8)

This decoupling, according to Campbell (1999), is at the heart of criticisms of education management which promotes 'managerialism' at the expense of education.

A resolution to the debate can be found in Campbell's (1999) suggestion that:

"Education management should emphasize educational goals rather than managerial ends. It suggests the need to explore the inter-relationship between management theory, discourse, practice and development and the implications for learning and teaching." (p.639)

Preedy *et al* (1997) propose the need for an 'interactive relationship between theory and action' (p.1) in order to develop educational management practice. Strategy, quality and resources are interconnected and must be linked with achieving aims and objectives compatible with the aims of education (Campbell 1999). At the same time external forces shape management in a pragmatic way as described by Moore *et al* (2002):

"It could be argued from this perspective that whereas discursive pragmatism serves the cause of relatively straightforward cultural and economic reproduction, casting the institutional manager in the role of compliant conduit for the implementation of mandated policy — and/or reactor to market forces — the development of strategic pragmatism has the potential to position the manager in a much more creative role." (p.188)

Management in principalship - concepts and practice

Dean (1997) indicates that the key assignment for education managers is "to organize that there is optimum learning for students by deploying people, time and space to best advantage"(p.91). This approach (Campbell 1999) links managers and teachers in enhancing education through management of curriculum, promoting pupil performance and full inclusion. Managerial aims within and beyond the classroom can have shared objectives.

Thomas and Martin (1996) claim that management and planning are "the means by which the link is made between resources and learning" (pp.33/34). They suggest managers have a clear and important role in ensuring this link is made between

resources and learning. However, educational management can be distant as it “is conceptually and practically distinct from the core activity of teaching and learning” (pp.33/34).

Everard and Morris (1990) describe management abilities in the form of stages: setting directions, aims and objectives, planning how progress will be made or a goal achieved, organizing available resources (people, time and materials) so that the goal can be achieved in the planned way, controlling the process, and setting and improving organizational standards. All this should be performed with a very clear commitment to the main mission of education. However, Bennett (1997) explains developments in management theory that have great implications for the field of education and school life. He states:

“Certain of the tasks of the rational model still have to be carried out: planning is necessary, and organizing. But instead of a language of control and demand, move us towards a set of meanings resting upon shared commitment, empowerment of the workforce, and delegation. Instead of ‘management’ being at the apex of a hierarchy, it is construed as being in the centre.”(p. 66)

This leads to education management which is school-centred (Moos and Dempster 1998), implementing interpersonal skills and abilities, judgments and values, instead of formal managerial controls and procedural approaches. Education management should have equality between the managers’ abilities and the need for the right actions for the necessary circumstance (Kydd *et al* 1997). These kinds of abilities could enable the school principal to combine both leadership and management.

Kerry and Murdoch (1993) list the key management objectives to be performed by the head in school:

- *"The generating of a high quality strategic management plan;*
- *Increased public profile of the school in the community;*
- *Improve marketing of the school to prospective pupils and their parents;*
- *Effective resource management (human, material, financial);*
- *Income generation;*
- *Appraisal of other (senior) staff performance;*
- *Quality assurance (academic and non academic);*
- *Curriculum delivery within National Curriculum guidelines;*
- *Institutional self monitoring and review;*
- *Substance of institutional morale;*
- *Professional development of staff;*
- *Introduction of innovation to ensure a ' competitive edge.'*" (p.222)

This long list leads Moller (1997) to describe educational leaders in schools thus, "they are squeezed between the intentions of the state and policy makers, what parents require, what teachers expect, and what students need" (p.98). Ouston (1997) argues that such daily tensions and practices are problematic within a confined perception of general and context-free competencies. It is proposed to emphasize managerial qualities and capabilities, in order to emphasize the essence of values, ethics and morals in educational management. In Campbell (1999) there seems to be a growing highlight on the complexity of education management. Research indicates an expectation that head teachers need good management skills (Moos *et al* 1998). Are they to rest on his pedagogical-professional abilities? Is it possible to develop a management skill that will be sensitive enough in discerning the educational systems needs and requirements? The answer lies in the ability to develop management skills and competencies as part of a pre-service training that will fit the uniqueness of the educational field.

Management and Leadership - Do They Differ

Since we refer to leadership and management as two different elements, it is important to recognise the organizational and functional differences between management and leadership. Hunt (1986) claimed that the leader's capacity is to lift

people up, to articulate purpose, to give reality to higher values, to resolve conflicting aims as a means to fulfilment of followers. In management the focus is on the practical level of persevering and maintaining. In Nathan (2000) we find difference between leaders and managers described in the following way. Leaders are innovators, developers, challenge the status quo, originators, focus on people, tend to take a long term view, have their eyes on the horizon, inspire trust, tend to ask what and why, are their own person and usually do the right thing. Managers, on the other hand, tend to administer, maintain, accept the status quo, initiate, usually focus on systems, take a short term view, have their eyes on the bottom line, rely on control, ask how and when and are usually the classic 'good soldier' that does things right.

Lloyd (1986) thinks that the terms leadership and management are frequently interchangeable, although in education heads as managers are a relatively recent development. He quotes Baron (1956) who argues that the widespread industrial philosophy of one hundred years ago influenced the Victorian concept of the traditional head's autonomy. Similarly, modern theories of industrial management are now influencing schools (Baron 1974). Lloyd (1986) goes on to suggest that the common elements in school and industry need careful definition as there are obvious limitations to the approach of industrial management in schools.

Schon (1984) explains the differences thus:

"Leadership and management are not synonymous terms. One can be a leader without being a manager. One can, for example, fulfil many of the symbolic, inspirational, educational and normative functions of a leader and thus represent what an organization stands for without carrying any of the formal burdens of management. Conversely, one can manage without leading. An individual can monitor and control organizational activities, make decisions, and allocate resources

without fulfilling the symbolic, normative, inspirational, or educational function of leadership.” (p.36)

Campbell (1999) also explains the difference between the characters of management and leadership; according to him leadership was seen, as a 'higher order activity' than management. Leaders constructed vision and strategies, while managers implemented.

However:

“...the distinctions have become blurred and changed in recent years, for example, in the National Professional Qualifications for Head teachers (NPQH) standards which combine leadership and management. It is apparent that these books are concerned with both leadership and management. All are agreed that leadership is not the sole preserve of the head teachers.” (Campbell, 1999 p.640)

Blase and Anderson (1995 quoted in Campbell 1999) present an empowering vision of leadership. They promote democratic, empowering leadership, and suggest there is a need to shift from neo conservative, disempowering notions of management and leadership. They argue, "the real challenge for educational practitioners may not be so much what they need to learn as what they need to unlearn" (p.135).

As identified earlier, Ouston (1997) selected managerial qualities and capabilities so as to identify the essence of values, ethics and morals in educational management. She suggests that management learning should advocate a more holistic educational approach that enables reflection, development of a 'theory of practice', choices and developments. Perceiving that management should not be regarded as tasks and skills to be accomplished but as a developmental, on-going learning process that requires a reflective process, Ouston's case may be a signal feature in the future development and training of new principals.

Pedagogy

Pedagogy - terms and capabilities

Van Manen (1991) explained the term pedagogue as deriving from:

"...the Greek, it refers not to the teacher but to the watchful slave or guardian whose responsibility it was to lead (agogos) the young boy (paides) to school...the adult had the task of accompanying the child, of being with the child. The pedagogue would be expected to see to it that the child stayed out of trouble, and behaved properly. This is a kind of "leading" that often walks behind the one who is led. The slave or pedagogue was there in LOCO PARENTIS." (p.37)

The Oxford English Dictionary (quoted in Alexander, 2000) has a similar definition of the origin of the term pedagogy in the term pedagogue, deriving from the Greek pedagogues, a trainer and teacher of boys, "a man having the oversight of a child or youth, an attendant who led a boy from home to school, a man whose occupation is the instruction of children or youths, a schoolmaster, teacher, preceptor" (p. 417).

"The original Greek idea of pedagogy had been associated with the meaning of leading in the sense of accompanying the child and living with the child in such a way as to provide direction and care for his or her life" (Van Manen, 1991 p.38). Teachers are expected to perform as pedagogical leaders. They practice the "caring" element in their relations with the children and they guide them while they grow through childhood and into the adult world.

Throughout the years, pedagogy has extended its meaning and is now referred to as:

"...performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, politics and controversies that inform and shape it. Pedagogy connects the apparently self-contained act of teaching with culture, structure and mechanisms of social control." (Oxford English Dictionary, quoted in Alexander 2000 p.540)

The Oxford English Dictionary (quoted in Alexander, 2000) states a meaning of pedagogy as:

- "1. The function, profession or practice of a pedagogue; the work or occupation of teaching; the art or science of teaching, pedagogic.*
- 2. Instruction, discipline, training; a system of introductory training.*
- 3. A place of instruction; a school or college."* (p. 418)

In Europe pedagogy is perceived as both the act and the idea of teaching. In Sweden it is defined, as:

"...a discipline, which extends to the consideration of health and bodily fitness, social and moral welfare, ethics and aesthetics as well as the institutional forms that serve to facilitate society and the individual pedagogic aims." (Alexander, 2000 p.542)

Pedagogy turned out to be the main role for teachers and they were referred to as pedagogues. Canon (2001) is against the use of pedagogy to describe aspects of teaching in higher education or adult learning. He refers to the work of Knowles (1984, 1990).

"The pedagogical model of education is a set of beliefs ... based on assumptions about teaching and learning that evolved between the seventh and twelfth centuries in the monastic and cathedral schools of Europe out of their experience in teaching basic skills to young boys. As secular schools started being organised in later centuries and public schools in the nineteenth century, this was the only model in existence. And so our entire educational enterprise, including higher education, was frozen into the pedagogical model." (p. 54)

Knowles suggests the use of the term andragogy for adult learners, a parallel term to pedagogy but distinct from the learning of children. According to Canon (2001) this new word provides a suitable classification for the growing body of knowledge about adult learning. The principles of adult learning have been reinforced through research and growing knowledge and now inform the arts of teaching and learning for adult learners. For principalship the term pedagogy will be used mainly as a reference to the

training and development of aspiring teachers.

Pedagogy and principalship

Selznik (1957) sees pedagogy as assimilated in principalship and explains that principals practice leadership as a form of pedagogy when they are engaged in trying to achieve their goals:

"The in building of purpose... involves transforming men and group from neutral, technical units into participants who have a peculiar stamp, sensitivity and commitment. This is ultimately an educational process. It has been well said that the effective leader must know the meaning and master the techniques of the educator. As in the larger community, education is more than narrow technical training; it teaches men to think for themselves. The leader as educator requires an ability to shape the role and character of the enterprise, to perceive and develop models for thought and behavior, and to find modes of communication that will inculcate general rather than merely partial perspectives." (pp.149/150)

The element of pedagogy is an independent element in principalship but, as in leadership and management, there are some similar elements in leadership and pedagogy that creates a symbiosis between the two.

Sergiovanni (1996) believes that principals should implement leadership as a form of pedagogy. They do so by making sure all pupils' needs are fulfilled (Heifetz, 1994). Just as in learning, a key part of leadership as a form of pedagogy is the ability of a leader to mobilize people and communities to face their problems and to make progress in solving them. Sergiovanni (1996) continues by saying that:

"...this pedagogical authority is not authoritarian in the sense that it is exercised simply because principals have more power than teachers and students, but it is authoritative. Its legitimacy comes in part from the virtuous responsibilities associated with the principal role and in part from the principal's obligation to function as the head follower of the school moral compact." (p.93)

Since pedagogy is implemented by teachers in classrooms, teachers are usually well trained and knowledgeable in this field. However, is the kind of pedagogy implemented by an individual teacher in her class suitable for the pedagogical needs of the entire school? Does pedagogy at a principalship level require different qualifications, attitudes and approaches? Since school principals also work with the staff to guide, teach and direct them is he implementing pedagogy or androgyny or both? In order to identify and understand the uniqueness of principalship pedagogy, there is a need to elaborate that field as part of the training process of aspiring principals in order to qualify them as school pedagogues.

The Personal Intelligences

Are these fields of leadership, management and pedagogical abilities the only required competencies to perform the role of principal? Should there also be an element that enables him implement the qualities and abilities mentioned earlier? An answer might be located in what is referred to as social intelligence, the ability to understand and relate to people (Ruisel, 1992), or "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls -- to act wisely in human relations" (Thorndike, 1920 p.228). Gardner (1983), in his multiple intelligence approach, claims that to lead or manage people there is a need, among other abilities, for the two personal intelligences that comprise social intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence.

"Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how they work, how to work cooperatively with them. Successful salespeople, politicians, teachers, clinicians, and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence ... is a correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life." (Gardner, 1983 p.239)

Interpersonal intelligence enables us to understand other people, to understand social dynamics and to interact effectively. It fosters enormous productivity through collaboration (Armstrong, 1994). Intrapersonal intelligence is our cognitive ability to know, recognize, understand and have a feeling for our "self." It allows us to value our being - who we are, what feelings we have, and why we are this way. These intelligences are the same kind of wisdom attributed to old people in the early days. A strong intrapersonal intelligence can guide us to the development of self-esteem and self-enhancement, and to strength of character that can be used in solving problems, leading and managing. These two personal intelligences are not easy to detect in a person but are no doubt the most important for success in any communal activity. "School and community leaders often possess interpersonal skills. What makes a person wise? What prevents it? If you want to grow to be a wise person, what might help you do that?" (Grow, [http://www. Longleaf .net / ggrow.](http://www.Longleaf.net/ggrow)) Is this the element that enables some people to perform their mission better than others?

Gardner (1983) emphasizes that relevance of a trait or skill depends on the situation, type of organization, and national culture. To lead or manage people there is a need for an organizing interpersonal intelligence. This may be defined as an ability to communicate and cooperate with other people. To be people oriented and outgoing the most fundamental interpersonal skill is the ability "to notice and make distinctions among other individuals".

School and community leaders often possess interpersonal skills well worth observing. Send students to observe labour-management negotiations, a political rally, or to interview a notable therapist or teacher. Look for nearly invisible examples of this type of intelligence, such as women who have a genius for being good mothers.

Here one can ask if love is intelligence and speak of the gift for relating. The interpersonal gifts of some people arise only during crises--such as the tiresome little woman who knows better than anyone how to comfort the bereaved.

In an attempt to answer the question of why inter-personal intelligence is important in educational leadership, West-Burnham (2002) explains that leaders are considered as “exemplar, models of appropriate behaviour” (p.2). Therefore it is vital for “school leaders to adopt a model of personal effectiveness which exemplifies the values of the school” (p.3). This is an element the ex military has been educated throughout their career to implement. Another element is the complexity of the decision-making process, which again is an on-going process in principalship. West-Burnham (2002) comments that:

“Effective brain functioning is dependent on a positive emotional environment. Anger, stress and tension will actively block appropriate brain functioning; a positive and relaxed climate will enhance the potential to learn. This applies to adults as much as it does to children. In all of the debate surrounding the concept of the learning organization (and whether schools can ever achieve that status) the importance of the emotional climate is often overlooked. This is much more than the absence of tension; it is the creation of positive self and mutual regard.” (p.3)

Intra-personal intelligence may be more difficult to locate, but looking for wise people is a fine way to spend a semester. What makes a person wise? What prevents it? If you want to grow to be a wise person, what might help you do that? More simply, students might find and write about individuals who possess unusual self-knowledge or a highly developed spiritual sense. West-Burnham (2002) claims that:

If leadership is seen as moving people from compliance to commitment, from acceptance to active engagement and from task completion to professional involvement, then inter-personal intelligence is the vital medium. It is impossible to conceptualise any model of leadership that does not have inter-personal intelligence as a key component.” (p.1)

He adds "...it is argued that central to any definitions of leadership is the concept of inter-personal intelligence" (p.1).

Concluding his essay on Inter-personal Leadership, West-Burnham (2002) recommends that we "include in any definition of leadership effectiveness a willingness to learn and an understanding of how that learning takes place". He quotes Fullan (2001) that:

"If you want to develop leadership you should focus on reciprocity, the mutual obligation and value of sharing knowledge among organizational members. The key to developing leadership is to develop knowledge and share it." (p.132)

West-Burnham (2002) sums up by saying that:

"The basis of leadership is reciprocity and sharing, which are also the basis of leadership development and they are also the simplest definition of inter-personal intelligence." (p.4)

This is the on-going process aspiring principals should be exposed to, understand and implement.

Based on Gardner's (1983) perception of multiple intelligences, Friedman (2000a p.32) developed a context of eight different intelligences required to enable the school principal to run the school:

- Contextual intelligences
- Strategic intelligences
- Academic intelligences
- Reflective intelligences
- Pedagogical intelligences

- Emotional intelligences
- Spiritual intelligences
- Moral intelligences

These forms or kinds of intelligences or skills are not particular to educational systems; they can be developed in other systems and brought into new systems.

This agrees with Handy's (1995) perception that “new organizations need new people to run them, people with new skills, new capacities and different career patterns” (p.119), people with a multi item professional portfolio who have gained their abilities by experiencing a variety of jobs or occupations and are able to implement their abilities with the proper training into new fields.

Mid Life Change of Career

The mid life change of career was the focus of research (Doering and Rhodes, 1989) that emphasized the inherent challenges in this phenomena, the need to establish a set of new values different from those that directed the person in his early career (Enock 1989), likewise there is a need for a change in professional qualifications (Bar Zohar 1997).

In Israel some research has been carried out into retiring military personnel joining the Israeli work market. Research focused on the occupational element (Mushkat 1985; Kauly 1987; Bar-Zohar 1997) as well as personality elements (Dror 1990; Nisanholz 1985; Smadar-Shor 1994) and on a more conceptual basis (Bar-Kol 1996).

Bar-Kol (1996) analysed reasons for retired military officers choosing principalship. For example, the fact that the educational field enables them to contribute to a

national cause. Additionally, earlier experience as a commander is not so far removed from what is demanded as a teacher and principal. The educational system is interested in recruiting and retraining military officers for principalship because, among other reasons, they have not been exposed to burnout, they are loaded with managerial experience, they are mostly male and they bring with them status and prestige.

Pre-service training for principals in Israel has been researched by Chen (1997), Inbar (1995), Kremer–Hayun and Fessler (1995) and Friedman (1999). The topic is still the subject of debate in Israel. Chen (1997) identifies, as a target for the profession, that all those involved in principal pre-service planning should do their best to promote the level of expertise, leadership ability, status and prestige of future principals (p.160). Ex military people might carry this with them.

The Changing World of the School Principal

The global change and the new environments

During the last century, educational systems have gone through major conceptual changes, including a change of role for educational leaders. The concepts of school developed in the 19th century have been modified in accordance with society's sociological and technological changes. Schools have shifted from being isolated institutions to becoming open and involved in society and communities. Friedman (2000a) sees it as an on-going process and forecasts that the structure and progression of future organizations will also be adjusted in accordance with changes in the environment. As a result he presents a set of required abilities for survival and development of future organizations. These include high flexibility, full commitment to both the organization and its aims, responsible and loyal workers, clever use of

teams for different missions, and emphasizing basic professional skills and sensitivity in order to increase variation and diversification. Organizations will be forced to develop capabilities for adaptation and adjustment to changing circumstances and environments. Schools, as one of these organizations, will have to adopt these characteristics in order to implement them (Friedman 2000a).

Sociological, financial, and communication and technology changes have an effect on the educational world. Future implications of these were identified by Davies (1997) who claimed that:

"In this world the globalization of economic systems, technological advance and the increased expectations that society has of its education system have replaced past certainties with new and uncertain frameworks. Dynamic changes have become the order of the day. How do leaders and managers meet this challenge and develop approaches in order to operate successfully in this new environment?"(p. 11)

Until the last three decades, principalship, to include characterization of the school principal's role, was considered traditional and conservative and was not affected as much by this new environment. The last thirty years of the twentieth century marked a change in the educational world throughout the western world, a change that was intensified towards the twenty-first century by moves towards new organizational approaches such as school based management. The change is not yet a complete change in approach, techniques and instrumentation as in other fields like Medicine or Engineering. However, the need to implement the changes produces a new and more complex challenge for educational leaders in order re-establish their modified role.

Lockwood (2002), reporting her interview with Philip Hallinger, describes his brief historical report of the principal's role in the US from the 1950s to the present.

"In the 1950s principals were viewed very much as administrators who simply managed the schools. In the 1960s, with the urbanization of education, principals began to be viewed as street-level bureaucrats, that is, people who had to get things done on the ground level even as large-scale policies were being developed and implemented by the government agencies. The significant federal efforts focused on curriculum in the 1960s and early 1970s brought the term "change agent" into the vernacular--along with heightened expectations for principals. The school effectiveness literature of the early 1980s, the classroom effectiveness literature, and the publication of A Nation at Risk, with its dire broadcast of the grim condition of American education, all synergized as a powerful and unrelenting spotlight focused on the principal. A Nation At Risk created a context in which there was a heightened perception of need for school improvement. ... Both the school effectiveness research and the classroom effectiveness research identified principals as keys to schools' ability to implement the kinds of changes that would meet this need." (Lockwood 2002)

These have led the principal to accept the role of instructional leaders as well as maintaining their previous role as school managers (administrators). Hallinger continues:

"Principals were now viewed as key to creating conditions in the school as a whole that would support improvement in student achievement. This raised the instructional leadership role of the principal from the background to the foreground. In contrast to the prior era, when principals were talked about as change agents, that role focused on managing the policy change process in the school, not exerting a leadership function over instruction." (Lockwood, 2002)

This transfer, as Hallinger describes it, for change agents to become instructional leaders has not only:

"... increased public expectation but also enlarge the amount and variety of their role . In the early 1980s, school systems, counties, and state departments of education geared up to try to provide principals with the knowledge that was thought to be important at that time."

He claims that efforts of the state and leadership academies have expanded school and classroom effectiveness research beyond its findings, which ended up institutionalizing impractical expectations of principals "as prime movers in effecting student achievement" Lockwood (2002)

As an outcome of the above the role of education within society is changing, in Israel, as in many other parts of the world. This leads to a change in the school principal's role. Existing and changing conditions require principals to develop and increase their organizational and leadership capabilities as well as their abilities to adapt to change. Brown and Irby (1996) emphasize that school principals have been seen as the most influential single factor in advancing excellence in education. This is the reason why principals have to be more accountable for their own performance, as well as for the performance of teachers, the success of their students, and the amount and qualities of parental and communal involvement.

Brown and Irby (1996) see the devolved concept of school management within an accountability framework enforced by legislation. However Friedman (2000a) argues that head teachers need to perceive the school as an open organization connected to other public and communal organizations and to act in accordance. Bradshaw (2000) highlights part of the change:

"As partnerships shift from "charitable" relationships (Cordiero and Kolek, 1996) to system wide efforts to improve conditions for students and their families, the role of the principal also changes. Instead of initiating, controlling, and managing the partnership, the principal is one of several partners who work together to define the problem, establish strategies, and structure the partnership to address its goals." (p.12)

An example is the need for collaboration as a way of life in schools:

"School administrators find themselves in new, more collaborative roles. Current and future school leaders must understand the collaboration process and develop the required skills. They must be able to involve all stake holder groups in identifying problems, exploring options, building consensus, and developing innovative solutions to improve conditions for students and their families and to support educational excellence." (Bradshaw, 2000 p.18)

Additional elements in an expanding mission

Van Cooley and Shen (1999) are extending the question by asking who will lead the schools during the twenty-first century. Today community involvement is a basic element in school activity. Parental and student expectations of school are substantial and often conflicting. Schools are now expected to provide an increased variety of academic subjects as well as a social and pastoral education, adjusting students towards social values in the community. The general international shift toward school-based management both enables and requires principals to address a wider spectrum of leadership activities and responsibilities. The mission of the school principal worldwide is becoming increasingly complex. "Whether they work in small towns or big school systems, the Education World P-Files principals repeatedly voiced the idea that the principal's job is just too big" (Hopkins, 2000 p.1).

Devolution of management responsibilities, by authorities both at local and governmental levels, has led to head teachers taking on roles that previously would have been performed by local or even national administrators. They may now need to demonstrate expertise in educational law, health and safety, social services provision, fundraising, public relations, parental involvement, security, management information systems and diplomacy, whilst retaining the duty to implement the best instructional programmes, curricula, pedagogical practice, and assessment models.

"Job descriptions are written in such a way that a principal needs to be a superhero", said Tim Messick, associate principal at Hong Kong International School. 'A principal needs to have the power and strength of Superman, the intelligence of Albert Einstein, the popularity of Princess Diana, the political savvy of a presidential candidate, the care and compassion of Mother Teresa'. '...Most of the problems the principal must manage have little to do with educating or helping children', Myers is principal at Lincoln Elementary School in Sterling, Illinois. 'Principals must handle discipline, IEP issues, enrolment, ordering and purchasing, hiring and evaluating teachers, building maintenance, the needs of parents ...', said Lolli Haws, principal at Avery Elementary School in Webster Groves, Missouri. 'Then, we're also supposed to be instructional leaders totally familiar with, and expert in leading discussions about, curriculum and teaching practices, knowledgeable about what's best in technology ...'" (Hopkins, 2000 p.2)

Principals as instructional leaders must tackle tough curriculum standards, serve an increasingly diverse student population, shoulder responsibilities that once were addressed at home and/or in the community, and then face possible termination if their schools don't show instant results. To do all that they must possess some unique abilities. In the International Principal Conference Council meetings in Cape Town in 1999 and in Israel in 2000, the changing role of the principal was discussed and a common 'Role of a School Leader' was identified by the IPC based on the perception that the school leader works in a rapidly changing and diverse educational and social context. Seven key points were developed focusing on the personal role of the head teacher in ensuring a successful and effective learning environment.

British Prime Minister Mr. Tony Blair, in his prologue to the National College of School Leadership (1999), perceives leadership and vision as crucial for raising standards and aspirations across the nation's schools. This perception had already led Griffiths *et al* (1989) in the US to recommend that, 'Bright people with proven leadership potential must be attracted to the ranks of educational administrators' (p.290).

Across the world, the increasing complexity and diversity of the role constantly challenges all those who are charged with the critical responsibility of guiding the learning and shaping of the lives of our young people. Whilst cultural, geographical and economic circumstances vary enormously, there are common elements of the role of the school leader that can be identified, valued and asserted. In 'School Leaders as Learners', Hill *et al* (1999) present some of the international trends and their implications and claim that the tendency in America, Europe, and the Asia-Pacific region, to a centralized, bureaucratic and hierarchical structure of school management

and organization are being replaced by more flexible, quick to respond and enterprise-driven provision. Hill *et al* (1999) also emphasize that:

"In America, Europe and the Asia-Pacific region, centralized, bureaucratic and hierarchical forms of school administration and organization are being stripped away and replaced by more flexible, responsive and enterprise-driven arrangements. (Blackmore et al, 1996)

"School-based management has become institutionalized. The principal now has responsibility to develop an enterprise culture which sustains a vigorous process of continuous school improvement. Here the principal must adopt a team approach in working with a variety of other school leaders to harness the creative energies of school participants to the process of school improvement (Sawatzski, 1997). The environmental dynamic of schools is now so profound that principals have to take responsibility for the re-engineering or fundamental rethinking of the administration, organization and teaching programmes of schools (Davies, 1997; Caldwell, 1997)." (pp. 25/26)

In research conducted by Friedman (2002) an attempt was made to map the common work-related stressors encountered by principals in order to assess their relative weight in terms of predicting school principals suffering exhaustion. Based on a sample of 821 elementary and secondary principals, both male and female, a questionnaire was presented in which the principals were asked to complete a self-report questionnaire containing two scales: a burnout scale (measured as a three-dimensional concept consisting of exhaustion, de-personalization, and accomplishment), and a role-pressures scale.

"Findings show that burnout was affected mostly by pressures stemming from teachers and parents, and to a lesser extent, from overload (qualitative and quantitative). Differences between elementary and secondary school principals were noted. The findings imply that principals who feel that their leadership is challenged or rejected feel strongly stressed and eventually burned-out." (Friedman, 2002 pp.229)

Based upon the facts presented by Friedman (2002), that the school principal's professional world is characterized by vast responsibilities, confusing information, and an atmosphere of emotional anxiety, interactions with other people (teachers or parents) are the most demanding and challenging areas. In training and developing new principals that major challenge should be taken into account.

Schoolteachers for School Leadership?

A primary concept in developing future school leadership was to look at teachers as a main source for filling principal's positions with the assumption that teachers will always aspire to principalship. "Who will lead the schools during the twenty-first century? (Van Cooley and Shen 1999). This is the critical question as internal candidates appear to be reluctant to assume leadership roles.

"...it appears that head teachers require a structured programme of training and development which provides an opportunity for them to acquire and develop skills which are pertinent to the new role they must fulfil, thereby enabling them to perform their job efficiently and effectively." (McHuge and McMullan, 1995 p.25)

In achieving this efficiency and effectiveness, structured training programmes are required to offer candidates identified skills. A new perspective is identified by Elsner *et al* (2001) who point to the challenge of gender, asserting that:

"...in countries where school heads reach positions of educational leadership through long apprenticeships of teaching which ensure that they are acculturated into the values of their schools and their education systems, they often find it difficult to combine the more driven requirements for leadership in the market place with the transformative ideals held by many teachers. And it seems that women more than men often find this lack of congruence difficult to manage." (p.17)

But are schoolteachers the only source for school leaders? Sarason (1982) was among the first to undermine the norm of regarding teachers as the only source for principalship in spite of the fact that it seems obvious and reasonable. Sergiovanni

(1992 and 1995) felt that, since requirements of qualification and qualities for school principals have changed, there is a need to try and recruit principals elsewhere, outside the education world. But the changing elements in principalship raise the need for a new source of future school principals.

“The need for a different style of management in school makes demands on the training system for future leaders who need to prepare to use a collaborative, open style of leadership that is recognized as more suited for learning institutions.” (Warren and O’Connor, 2000 p. 165)

Roberts (1990, quoted in Warren and O’Connor, 2000) comments that to cultivate and develop school leaders who can meet the challenges of creating new structures and reform schools practices will require a dismantling and restructuring of the ways in which such leaders are prepared and trained.

Bar Kol (1996) raises issues that, in her opinion, may make teachers unfit for principalship, such as the need for an holistic perception of the school, the ability to diagnose its function within the environment, the requirement of both managerial and leadership skills. These pre-requisites do not exclude teachers from becoming principals (with the necessary training) but raise another possible solution. Barkol (1996) suggests that, since teachers might be insufficiently qualified to serve as school principals, maybe one can find candidates suitable for running schools elsewhere, in different social groups, not necessarily within the education system but among people who were trained for and have managerial and leadership qualities.

In the attempt to view the process of teachers’ development to head teacher positions, Daresh and Playko (1992) describe the British tradition of raising teachers to heads positions. Unlike the USA, where administrative training was at the centre, British

tradition relies primarily on the natural emergence of leadership, based first and foremost on teaching expertise and abilities leading to natural selection. “Despite these differences, however, there is a common appreciation of the value of induction programs and mentoring schemes that may be available for individuals in the earliest stages of their careers” (Daresh, and Playko, 1992 p.145).

A study was conducted among master's students enrolled in a Mid-western university's educational leadership programme to identify factors that influence their decision to apply for administrative positions. Results suggest that organizational relationships, more than any other factors, affect a teacher's willingness to seek an administrative position in a particular district. The number one factor that teachers consider in applying for an administrative position is the relationships between the board, administration, and teachers. Among the other factors were the nature of the work, poor working conditions, emotional aspects of administration, location of the district, reputation of the superintendent and the impact of the administrative position on a person's home life. Not all of these elements can be taken into account when forming a training concept, but some of them are essential, especially those referring to leadership.

New direction for recruiting principals?

Friedman (2000a p.24) analysing the training and selection of school principals, states that new training and selection systems are based on the assumption that successful teachers are not necessarily becoming successful principals without the proper theoretical and practical training. So if a proper theoretical and practical training can turn a teacher into a principal maybe it can do the same for other professions as well?

All of the above, together with growing difficulties in mobilizing highly qualified teachers for principal positions, generate a ten percent turnover of principals every year. Barkol (1996) sought new ways of recruiting principals. One possible source for recruitment is the armed forces. The idea of identifying retired personnel and re-training them for educational positions was proposed and implemented in a few countries such as Britain, the USA, Sweden and Israel. In Britain, Levis (1998) describes an initiative to recruit teachers from among retiring military personnel:

"The Teacher Training Agency was hoping to plug gaps in Britain's teacher recruitment pattern when the armed services contracted last year following the withdrawal from Hong Kong and the closures of bases in Germany. In particular, it was hoping to pick up some valuable science specialists to overcome the serious shortage of teachers. 'There are many army personnel coming to the end of their service for whom teaching is an obvious choice of career – many will be graduates or have other qualifications', a spokesman said. 'They have also developed strong leadership skills or have had experience in training and instruction.' The agency has been working with the armed forces resettlement agency to promote teaching and steer military personnel towards qualifying before they leave the service. It is also negotiating with civilian training institutions to develop fast routes into the classrooms for people from the service. But so far the take-up has not been as good as expected." (Levis, 1998, p.7)

A similar approach of trying to recruit teachers from among retiring military personnel can be found in the US, where a special programme was designed. Called the Federal 'Troops to Teachers program' (TTT) it was funded by Congress and received accolades from first lady Laura Bush. Operated by the Department of Defence, the TTT programme helps ex military personnel to reassign into public school teaching jobs.

"TTS's primary objective is to help recruit quality teachers for schools that serve low-income families throughout America. TTT helps relieve teacher shortages, especially in math, science, special education and other high-needs subject areas, and assists military personnel in making successful transitions to second careers in teaching." (<http://voled.doded.mil/dantes/ttt/overview.htm>)

The programme connects schools and districts with potential candidates and helps the military veterans navigate the complexities of teacher certification. It also provides financial assistance to its recruits, including bonuses for accepting employment in a "high-needs" school. Since the programme started in 1994 more than 4,300 retired military personnel have obtained teaching positions. During 2002-2003 it is expected to assist another 1,500 new teachers to join the education field. According to surveys of school administrators conducted by TTT from 1996 to 1998, more than 75 percent of TTT recruits were rated as above average or higher in comparison with other new teachers. Their demographics also correspond well with schools' needs, 85 percent of its members are men, and 33 percent are minority. TTT recruits are also typically older than traditional teacher prospects.

"A 1998 survey report by the National Centre for Educational Information--an advocate of alternative routes to teaching--said that 91 percent of TTT participants were between the ages of 35 and 54. 'They come to public education with a wide range of experience, unique backgrounds, leadership skills and maturity that can be valuable in their new career,' the report asserts." (Rebora, 2001 online)

Rebora (2001 online) considers the reaction to TTT to be mainly positive. Mildred Hudson, chief executive officer of Recruiting New Teachers Inc. stated that by tapping a unique source of teachers, the program 'fills an important niche'. She cited in particular TTT's record of placing male teachers in high-poverty communities.

Others, however, feel that the emphasis on programmes such as TTT detract from efforts to create more comprehensive solutions to teacher shortages. "Instead of channelling money into Troops to Teachers and other well-intentioned but short-sighted efforts," a spokesperson for the National Education Association said in an e-mail to Teacher Recruiter, "I would like to see this nation spending money on teacher

quality efforts that make a difference." The spokesperson suggested that priority should be given to improving teachers' working conditions, creating more professional development opportunities, and boosting teacher salaries. (Rebora, 2001 online).

In Sweden, according to Groth (2002), the Swedish armed forces faced large challenges recently, including a drastic cut-down that caused un-employment for thousands of officers. "These officers have a very modern and advanced leader education and many of them have long experience in leading and co-ordinating educational activities" (Groth, 2002 p.1).

Swedish schools and municipalities, in common with other places, were facing a growing problem of teacher and school leader shortages.

"Dalarna University has a long experience in education and research on school leadership. This resulted in a project commissioned by the Swedish Military Headquarters, where a number of military officers were to be educated into an occupational shift – from officers to school leaders" (Groth, 2002 p.1)

The programme was designed to provide the ex military with what seemed to be competencies required by a school principal. But an advance study showed, "...that the former officers have difficulties in working in and being able to understand school culture. They have insufficient knowledge of school activities and working methods" (Groth, 2002 p.6).

The idea was implemented in a venture custom-made by Swedish Military Headquarters:

"...where sixteen military officers - not only in Falun but all over Sweden - were to be educated into an occupational shift – from officers to school leaders.... The education period ends in January 2002. No formal evaluation has been carried out up to now, but according to the experienced group of educators at the university the former officers constitute an unusually ambitious and purposeful group of students. This seems also to be confirmed by the fact that almost all of them have achieved jobs as school leaders even before the study period is finished." (Groth, 2002 pp-8- 10)

The Israeli method of retraining military personnel will be referred to later.

Training for the Job Instead of Training on the Job

An earlier approach to principal training, implemented for more than a century, was mainly limited to in-service guidance, or “training on the job”, for the newly appointed principal. This approach was based on the assumption that a school principal, as a "Head Teacher", had acquired the necessary knowledge and tools required for the post. All they needed were a few updates to supplement their capability to perform their new tasks. The growing understanding of the changing world of the school principal and the complexity of the school principals’ role during the last two decades of the twentieth century, are international.

“Institutionalization of the school-based management approach led to an increased responsibility of the principal to expand an endeavour culture which prolongs an active constant progression for school enhancement....The environmental dynamic of schools is now so profound that principals have to take responsibility for the re-engineering or fundamental rethinking of the administration, organization and teaching programmes of schools (Davies, 1997; Caldwell,1997).” (Hill et al, 1999, p. 25)

This has led to recognition and acceptance of principalship as a profession of its own, which has led to a change in attitude toward the concept of school principal selection and the training processes offered to potential principal candidates. This conceptual development in the new modified role of the principal, created the need for extensive training in order to prepare for school leadership, to be able to deal with change and

develop a vision, and produced a requirement for creating special programmes for this purpose. In order to enable principals to perform their updated, modified role in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogy, they needed training to include pre-service, in-service, mentoring and professional development.

The need to re-examine principal training was suggested by Milstein (1993), among others, claiming that since schools are to be given general and pedagogical autonomy, principal training should be re-oriented in this direction. One fundamental change in the nature of education that impacts on principals is the element of rapidity. The slow change characterizing schools (Jones and Hayes 1991, quoted in McHugh and McMullan 1995) was replaced by a set of rapid changes, which meant the modern head teacher can no longer be a master teacher, but is first and foremost a manager (McHugh and McMullan 1995). The role of the principal has changed and elements of management have replaced pedagogical components as the principal daily consideration. For educators these are new elements they were not exposed to as teachers and therefore they needed to be introduced when transferring from the teaching arena to principalship.

Since the move towards a more advanced system of principalship required other abilities, such as leadership and management, as well as pedagogical capabilities, training for the job prior to appointment became a main instrument in preparing principals to perform their modified role and fill the 'skills' gap experienced by them.

Elements in Training Models Concepts

The need for more progressive training and development systems has led, according to Friedman (2000a), to the development of two main basic models. The first are programmes that are mainly based on theoretical training for the candidates and are usually performed at universities (the Stanford programme, for example). The second model is based on receiving more practical training in specialized institutions (such as the British programme).

Tony Bush and Keith Foreman (1998) describe international perspectives on principals' preparation. They indicate that, in the U.S., a structured Masters programme in educational administration (their term for management) must be successfully completed before application for a principal's or assistant principal's post is permitted. The recognition that good teachers do not necessarily make effective managers came much earlier in the U.S. than in Britain. Sarason (1982) said that there should be some considerations that should 'cause one to pause before accepting what seems obvious and reasonable' (p.14). These are the key elements in principalship that are different from being a class teacher. But then, in what field should we be looking for them? And how should we train them?

Educational identity

In order to provide prospective leaders with tools (knowledge, ability, skills and even personal skills), Nissan (1997) highlights the need to develop a training model which should 'emphasize the development and inculcation of the means required to achieve the aims' (p.11). Therefore he claims, this approach dictates both content and method in the training process. These should not be constantly dependent but transferable and

applicable from field to field, they should be transferred in a general abstract content without linking them to a particular subject. The approach that assumes generalized tools applicable for a variety of fields and not just for education is based on the existence of an additional required element for educational leaders, an element Nissan (1997) refers to as 'educational identity', a term 'constituted through a commitment to educational endeavour, which in turn is guided by intelligent conception of education and the good and the worthy' (p.8).

In the light of the changes and challenges school principals must face:

"the broadening of activity people engage in, the growing diversity of experience, and the frequent changes that affect our lives, it is argued insistently that training must instil skills geared to functional roles in shifting circumstances.

The inclusion of such tools and skills is conceived to be a prime aim of training, certainly in its higher level. A broad array of tools is acquired in leadership training programs - ranging from expertise in economics and administration to methods for improving instruction, and from ways to impose discipline to methods of displaying assertiveness. Many of these tools can and must be made applicable to varied occupations in many different fields (the distinctive element that qualifies the trainees as educational leaders is their "educational identity"). Thus a manager of a food market chain becomes an executive in a computer firm, before moving on to a senior position in education. People change occupation on the assumption that the skills they have accrued, developed and utilized in one field will serve them equally well in another". (Nissan 1997, p.12)

Skills transferability

This approach, skills accrued, developed and utilized in one field can be useful and serve them equally well in another, leads us to a question as to what extent both leadership and managerial skills can be transferable from one form of organization to another? According to Yukl (1998), in a transfer of lower level managers there are

difficulties due to differences in technical skills needed at that level of management that are different across functions.

As to high-level management, there are a variety of approaches. Katz (1955) proposes that high-level managers with good human relations and conceptual skills can be easily shifted from one industry to another without losing their effectiveness. Others, such as Kotter (1982) and Shetty and Peery (1976), are less certain as to transferability of skills because of variation of ownership, traditional organizational climate and culture. Yukl (1998) believes that:

'...only the general components of conceptual and technical skills can be transferred to a different situation; the unique knowledge component of those skills must be relearned. An executive moving to a different industry must develop a new network of external contacts, where the old network would still be relevant for a move to another organization in the same industry.' (p.256)

Conceptual and technical mechanisms can be transferred to another organization but particular knowledge elements must be relearned.

However, it is not only new elements of knowledge that are needed; there will also be a need to develop a new relevant network of external relations to replace an old network that served him in the previous organization. Yukl (1998) agrees with Kotter (1982) and Shetty and Peery (1976), saying that the transfer will be harder for an executive to move to a different organization whenever the new position requires extensive expertise and a well-established network of external relations.

In the field of education, the question of skills transformability is a critical element. Both teachers aspiring to principalship and individuals transferring from outside the educational field into principalship require a change of competencies. Yukl (1998)

highlights the fact that research conducted on the way organizations develop and adapt themselves to change proves that, even in the same organization, a different set of skills are needed for executive management. Referring to the dynamic changes affecting organizations and the nature of managerial work in this century discussed earlier, Yukl (1998) believes that future managers will have to “cope with these challenges, most managers may need not only more of the same competencies but new ones as well based on Conger, 1993; Hunt, 1991; Van Velsor and Leslie, 1995”.

Globalization is increasing the need for skill in working with people from different cultures. Managers will need more empathy, diplomacy and cultural sensitivity. Smaller, more flexible organizations and new forms of organizations will require more competency in inspirational leadership, team leadership, empowerment, process advising, negotiating and integrative problem solving. There will be a premium on cognitive skills such as systems thinking, cognitive complexity and behavioural flexibility to carry out strategic planning, implement changes and build learning organizations. One of the most important competencies for successful leadership in the next century is likely to be "self learning" or:

“...learning how to learn” (Argyris, 1991; Dechant, 1990). It is the ability to introspectively analyze your own cognitive process (e.g. the way you define and solve problems) and to find ways to improve them; it is more than just a cognitive skill. Cognitive complexity is required to develop better mental models, but emotional maturity is also required to learn from mistakes and flexibility is required to change assumptions and ways of thinking and behaving in response to a changing world.’ (Yukl 1998, pp.256-257)

Brundrett (2000a), referring to competence in leadership training, also emphasises the need for a higher order of cognitive ability:

‘Questions remain, however, as to how far the governmentally inspired leadership programmes have moved beyond the more reductive elements of the competence paradigm towards educational programmes that develop the kind of reflective knowing and higher order cognitive abilities that

undoubtedly will be required by leaders in the increasingly complex world of educational leadership in the twenty first century.' (p. 366)

The Development of Principalship Programmes

Various countries have developed different management routes for training and selection of new and existing principals. In many states in the U.S., a structured Masters programme in management and educational administration must be successfully completed before application for a principal's or assistant principal's post is accepted (Hillman, 1992). In early studies of educational programmes in Scandinavia, the Netherlands and France, Esp (1980) found that France provides a three-month partly residential course for teachers appointed to headship or deputy headship, while Sweden and Denmark both provide more than 20 days of training. The programmes share a common assumption that 'leadership can no longer be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone' (Hillman 1992, p.516). However, is it leadership alone that should be taught or should other elements be included in the programme? Reeves *et al* (1998) see no certainty for results in introducing qualification programmes for principals:

"There is no guarantee however that introducing qualifications will be the answer to making school more effective. In the U.S.A., where there has been a compulsory qualification for principals in some states since 1916, there is just as much dissatisfaction with the quality of schooling as there is in the U.K." (p.185)

In Singapore the Ministry of Education and the National Institute of Education (NIE) jointly developed a model, which indicates the Singapore government's commitment to principalship training. Candidates for principalship are given the opportunity to take the Diploma in Educational Administration (DEA) course, which is full-time for one academic year. It is specifically designed for selected education personnel to prepare them for school principalship. The programme contents take into account the

different training needs of principalship at primary and secondary school levels. Among other things it introduces participants to the impact it has on school management and an efficient, ability-driven school system.

A number of universities in different countries have developed educational leadership centres to answer needs at local and regional levels. In an attempt to view the process of teacher development to principal positions, Daresh and Playko, (1992) described the British tradition at that time of raising teachers to headship positions:

"The British tradition of relying on the natural emergence of leadership based primarily on teaching expertise ... the British perspective generally views school building management as the domain of teaching forces. Head teachers, as a result, are made ready for their roles as a consequence of their teaching expertise, not true participation in formal administrative training programs as in the USA." (p.148)

However, eight years later the U.K. government was the first to take the initiative on a national level to establish the National College for School Leadership (NCSL), launched in the autumn of 2000. This establishment followed the development over the last few years of a core programme combining three elements:

1. The National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) – mandatory training for all newly appointed head teachers.
2. The Head's Leadership and Management Programme (HEADLAMP) –a personalized, under guidance, training programme for newly appointed heads for their induction period.
3. Leadership Programme for Serving Heads (LPSH) – a reflective learning opportunity after five or more years in headship.

A Group Study

Barnett *et al* (2000), referring to the current situation in the U.S., claim that educational leadership programmes throughout the U.S. are undergoing an extensive modification in curriculum content, instructional delivery, field placements and student assessment practices (Milstein and Associates, 1993; Murphy, 1992 quoted in Barnett *et al*, 2000). This process is the result of growing pressure for change from both within the profession and from external groups including state legislatures, licensing agencies, and professional associations (National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration, 1987; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 1989, 1993; Van Meter and Murphy, 1997).

A major advancement in leadership programmes are student cohorts. Students are part of a study group that are directed through the programme and this approach is becoming more common at masters and doctoral degree level (Cordiero *et al* 1992; Norton, 1995). In the cohort arrangement, students take all or a significant part of their course with the same group, rather than randomly joining courses individually and at their own speed. According to Barnett *et al*, (2000) a large number of studies have been conducted concerning various aspects of cohorts, (Hackman and Price, 1995; Norton, 1995; Yerkes *et al*, 1995; Burnett, 1989; Herbert and Reynolds, 1992; Hill, 1995; Kasten, 1992; Norton, 1995; Barnett *et al*, 2000).

Barnett *et al*, (2000) claim that, as cohorts become more popular, they arouse interest in the effect this instructional approach has on students, the faculty, and programme delivery. Studying the literature on group dynamics, adult learning, and social

psychology has led them to look into various topics affected by this approach: the impact on students' learning experiences in their preparation programmes, the influence on students' practices in the workplace, the effects on programme delivery, and the disadvantages of this instructional approach.

Based on the theory of group dynamics, Barnett *et al* (2000) present the points that:

"In effective groups, members feel important, have a sense of belonging, and are accepted for their expertise and contributions (Zander, 1982); when its purpose is clear, a group has a greater probability of success (Larson and LaFasto, 1999); and members of effective groups develop a sense of purpose when their activities require mutual interaction and interdependence (Zander, 1982)." (p.259)

For that reason:

"Barnett and Muse (1993) contend that many educational leadership students choose to participate in cohorts because of their preference for working collaboratively." (Barnett et al, 2000, p.259)

As for adult learning, they claim that:

"The literature indicates that adults learn best when they can direct their own learning, influence decision making, focus on problems relevant to practice, tap their rich experiential background, and build strong relationships with peers (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999).

Social psychologists contend that groups become cohesive when participants can reflect on their accumulating experience, evaluate their own learning, and rely on others in the group for support. "When programs are developed with these principles in mind, cohort members become active learners, trusting in their individual capabilities and depending on each other for guidance (Basom, Yerkes, Norris, & Barnett, 1996, p. 102)." (Barnett, et al, 2000, p. 259)

And they sum up by saying that:

"Perhaps Murphy (1993) summarizes the impact of cohorts best by proclaiming "the cohort structure promotes the development of community, contributes to enhanced academic rigor, and personalizes an otherwise anonymous set of experiences for students ." (Barnett et al 2000, p. 260)

Based on Milstein and Associates, (1993, p.200) Barnett *et al* (2000) claim that as graduates they can help each other to find vacant positions and also act as a support group to provide both emotional and practical support in solving daily dilemmas and crises. The intensive cohort interactions build up close and supportive relationships. Barnett *et al* (2000) also claim "that some reports suggest the cohort experience can directly affect students' leadership practices in the workplace (Basom *et al*, 1996/1997; Norris *et al*, 1997).

Although there is speculation that cohort students "have experienced empowerment as adult learners and are more aware of the need to practice collaborative leadership as school administrators" (Milstein and Associates, 1993, p.201), Barnett and Muse (1993) claim the field needs empirical research documenting the effects of cohorts on the professional skills and practices of graduates. One step in this direction is a study by Leithwood *et al*, (1995). The researchers discovered a positive relationship between the cohort experience and graduates' successful leadership practices as principals as perceived by their teachers.

Barnett *et al* (2000) conclude that, based on Basom *et al* (1996/1997); Herbert and Reynolds (1992); Hill (1995); Leithwood *et al* (1995) ; Milstein and Krueger (1993), cohort students:

"Are better prepared to assume leadership roles. The strong interpersonal relationships that develop in cohorts through group collaboration, community , and affiliation can influence students' leadership development...the professional contacts and networking that often occur in cohorts provide an ongoing source of support not only as program graduates seek new positions but also after beginning new leadership roles." (p.278)

International Models for the Training of School Principals

As a result of different needs, such as national or gender requirements, a variety of programmes throughout the world have been designed, with the understanding that the process of principal training should be "tailor made" as a response to particular requirements of different populations. An example of this is the specially designed concept as a response to challenges presented to women in educational management developed by the International Project for Women in Educational Management (IPWEM). The two main challenges were: principal shortages and the misrepresentation of women in principalship positions. The project relies on the concept that, even though women form the greater part in most sectors of education, they are still in the minority in educational management. The EU co-funded project was established with the aim of developing approaches and resources to be used by trainers for courses throughout Europe. The strategies and materials are "women friendly" and are different from those generally used in courses with a male majority. They are based on strategy and pedagogy especially designed for women. Elsner *et al* (2001) claim that:

"The factors which account for the under representation of woman in Educational Management are complex. The program focuses on some of these factors and in particular on the fact that theories of management and leadership have tended to be developed from a male perspective and consequently have led to a masculine style of management with emphasis on control rather than negotiation and on a competitive rather than a collaborative approach to problem solving.

Researchers have noted that women who have decided not to seek leadership roles, viewed the models of leadership that surrounded them as the only models available and considered those models unsuited to their preferred style of leadership. One important factor has been the recognition that the theory of career development had not hitherto taken account of the experiences of women. Choices and outcome can begin to be analyzed and unnecessary career blocks removed. It is within the framework of these recent theories that IPWEM has developed." (p.127)

The project makes use of expertise from four countries, Finland, the U.K., Ireland and Poland, to try and enhance the representation of women in management positions and to develop in every country a programme of strategies and materials to be used on courses "which will offer opportunities to women in education to acquire skills and experience a pedagogy and learning style which has been found more suitable for many women" (Elsner *et al*, 2001, p.128).

The process of re-training is as follows:

"Each member of the core team brings to the project expertise in education, expertise of providing courses for women in management, as well as the skill in organization, administration, course design, research and evaluation, and pedagogy. Team members organize the work to maximize the expertise available. The methodology underpinning this project is that of Kolb's cycle of experimental learning. This allows for critical reflection to follow action, then analysis leading to a further cycle of reflection of reflection and action, where the learner's professional experience is recognized and built on. A range of pedagogical approaches are being explored as part of the workshop programme, with the underlying theory that adults learn best when they are involved, recognize that the programme meets a need, experience a variety of methods in a supportive environment, when they are enjoying themselves and when they feel empowered. " (Elsner *et al*, 2001, p.128)

The aims of the three-year IPWEM project were to enhance the opportunities for women to take on management responsibilities in education through a series of in-service training strategies. Three stages of the programme included: development of a net for exchange of experience and materials, development of a course model across Europe, and a national management programme. Emphasis in this programme was on shaping a suitable style of leadership for women in order to turn them into "aspiring principals". This process, founded upon requirements based on gender, present us with a demonstration of structuring a concept of enhancement in which, by identifying elements that should be developed and strengthened, the process of retraining is rebuilt.

The concept of especially designed programmes-Ireland

Based upon the IPWEM, a specially designed programme for a particular population was developed in Ireland (O'Connor and Warren 2000) as a pilot leadership training programme for women in education. This was in response to the perceived need for women to view leadership roles in education in a positive light. The aim of the programme was:

“To facilitate participants in their professional development by allowing them time and space, to recognize their skills, knowledge and their potential contribution to educational management. To develop a management vision and styles true to their values and a clear vision of themselves as managers. To develop an empowering open process which allows the sharing and development of skills, knowledge and strategies about management.”
(O'Connor and Warren, 2000, p.83)

The three-day residential programme was modelled on a leadership development programme of the Institute of Education at London University (Gold 1993). The programme included 20 women in the first cohort and 14 in the second, all from first and second level schools. The focus was on the development of the participant's personal management style in order to help them clarify their values in relation to education. In addition, a model style of cooperative working, communication and reflection was included that might be transferred to leadership situations they might face. The course design was based on adult learning, with the emphasis on personal involvement as a key element, dealing with topics required by the learners, study in a supportive environment and the use of many methods. The process the participants went through, not necessarily the subject matter, was the most important thing and was based on participation, sharing, exploring, analysing, experience, reflection and planning.

“Every effort was made to acknowledge and validate the professional experience of the participants...within a particular climate of trust, openness,

genuineness and a mutual respect where participants felt comfortable in discussing their varied experiences". (O'Connor and Warren, 2000, pp.84-85)

The approach and the methodology made significant demands on the programme facilitators, it demanded openness to questions, a willingness to open up to other people and to be receptive to their experience and point of view. Essential ingredients for the success of this approach are good planning, a positive team spirit, a flexibility of approach and a willingness to review and adjust the programme as necessary. Emphasis on process rather than excessive emphasis on content enables reconstruction of existing knowledge and processing this knowledge in different ways.

This specially designed programme for women in Ireland was affirmative action but it also enabled teachers to become aspiring principals prepared for change. The process the women went through was a preliminary stage that enabled them to realize their own ability to face and deal with challenges. This kind of process is required in cases where the development towards the required change, such as in the case of a mid-life change of career, is not a natural development but is due to various reasons such as the lack of equality for women in Ireland. The process, in the right supportive climate, could provide the foundation for the participant to reflect on their abilities in such a way that they are more confident in facing challenges.

In this programme, implemented in Ireland, reconstruction of existing knowledge enabled the participants to process the knowledge gathered through years of experience and then transform it into the necessary elements required for principalship. This transformation process is essential in order to acquire the ability to perform the complex role of principal.

The concept of especially designed programmes-Sweden

A specially designed Swedish programme for the re-training of retired military personnel for educational management positions was based upon identifying a different element as missing and required for a group of candidates for principalship (Groth 2002). Swedish armed forces have faced large challenges during recent years due to a drastic cut-down which put thousands of officers out of work. These officers had very modern and advanced leadership education and substantial experience in leading and co-ordinating educational activities. In Sweden, as in many other parts of the world, there is an increasing shortage of teachers and:

"Research projects showed that the school leaders' situation was difficult. Deficiency was obvious, especially concerning leadership and handling of crises. In addition the school leaders had faced a more obvious responsibility, due to decentralization in the school system. Many municipalities also had difficulties in recruiting school leaders." (Groth 2002, p.254)

As a result, and with the support of Dalarna University, the Swedish Military Headquarters designed a project in which a number of military officers were to be educated into an occupational shift – "*from officers to school leaders*". Unlike other countries, in Sweden you don't have to be a teacher to be appointed as a school principal but need to have "educational knowledge and practice"; the precise meaning of this is left to the discretion of the local authorities as employers. There is also no requirement for licensing for formal education for school leadership, therefore:

"Some universities are running programs or courses directed towards educational management and leadership - the participation is based on individual interest. After being appointed as a school leader you can furthermore participate in the state "Principal Education" programme, arranged by the National Agency for Education, which however for the moment gives no academic credits." (Groth, 2002, p.256)

According to Groth (2002), there have been links between the education system and the military since service was compulsory; many of the teachers and the school principals had military backgrounds. In 1999 there were 50 school principals from the military and many of them had no training in school principalship. In order to perform the re-training:

"A preparatory study was carried through (Fors et al, 1999) with two purposes: To enlighten and try to understand how former officers serve as school leaders, and to see how school make use of the competence brought there by officers with an extensive leadership education. The empirical material was collected by questionnaires and interviews. The case consisted of 16 school leaders with a background as officers, their superintendents, local politicians and a sample from the school staff." (Groth 2002, p.254)

The study results prove the success of the training and:

"...indicates that the officers are well suited for the role as a leader in educational work. The inquiries clearly show that the school leaders bring new perspectives and styles in the way they practice their leadership (The modern Swedish military Officer's education is not characterized by the traditional authoritarian leadership but by developing a broad competence in flexible and cooperative problem solving). The former officers bring a clearly articulated educational philosophy, good knowledge of and practical experiences in teaching, group processes, handling conflicts and leadership in difficult situations. The officers' competence is characterized by high self-assurance, structure and order, courage and tendency to come to decisions, pro-active focus on goals and outcomes and a distinct leadership presence." (Groth 2002, p.254)

The programme was designed to provide the ex military with what seemed to be competences a school principal required. However, an advance study showed:

"...that the former officers have difficulties in working in and being able to understand a school's culture. They have insufficient knowledge of school's activities and working methods." (Groth 2002 p.6)

The project was described as an "occupational shift" and was meant to be "a link between armed forces and school" (Groth, 2002 p.254). Before being admitted to the project, officers had to link to a municipality located near to where the closing-down

regiment was situated in order to be allocated an experienced school principal to act as a mentor. The re-training programme included three semesters as a form attendance activity and a distance-learning programme, all based on the outcome of the preliminary research for topics such as school culture, school activities, work methods, job descriptions and the role of the school principal.

During the implementation of the programme, the aspiring educators met at the university two or three times a semester for three or four days. The first part of the programme was based on the introductory courses for teacher education and the following two semesters were concurrent with the standard school leaders programme at Dalarna University. The first semester included topics such as tradition, society and school structure, and acquaintance and familiarization with school culture. The second included pedagogical evaluations, pedagogy and organization, steering and leadership, culture analysis, and educational law. The third semester included school economy, educational research and the student's personal composition/essay.

Additionally, in between the semesters, the students had to accomplish three kinds of activities, a research activity, a practical mission, such as monitoring class and teacher activities or practicing some school principal's activities supervised by the mentor, and a literature review mission. In this last task they were supposed to review about 10,000 pages of literature and then reflect and discuss what they had read in meeting seminars. The element of discussion was emphasised in the conceptual structure of the course based on learning by involvement, which helps the student to be involved and make use of their own experience and knowledge.

Groth (2002) concludes by saying that:

"The education period ends in January 2002. No formal evaluation has been carried out up to now but, according to the experienced group of educators at the university, the former officers constitute an unusually ambitious and purposeful group of students. This seems also to be confirmed by the fact that almost all of them have achieved jobs as school leaders even before the study period is finished." (p.8)

Organizational/school culture

This especially designed programme is a genuine response to need, the emphasis on school culture as the main element on which the re-training should be based affected the concept of the course. Groth (2002) quoted Bell and French (1995), stressing a rather common view meaning a focus on the inner life of the organization:

"Organizational culture strongly influences individual and group behavior. Culture is defined as the values, assumptions, and beliefs held in common by organization members which shape how they perceive, think, and act. Every organization has a culture. The culture must be altered if permanent change is to occur." (Bell and French 1995, p 5, quoted in Groth, 2002)

The definition of organizational culture is the subject of a debate that has been running for many years. Schein (1997) refers to it as:

"A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems." (p.12)

Schein (1997) separates organizational culture into levels; the concealed level consisting of the unconscious basic assumptions of the organization and the exposed level consisting of all the occurrences an outsider can see, hear and interact with in this foreign culture. In between there is the middle level of values, norms and behaviour. The exposed level also includes the observed elements of the organization

such as physical layout and infrastructure, products, manners, emotional expressions and unique dialogue.

Military culture being different from school culture was considered by course planners as a crucial element for retraining. The process of constructing the course with a preliminary research to evaluate the needs is the right one. Culture, or as some refer to it micro politics (Hoyle 1982, 1986; Ball 1987; Pfeiffer 1981), is an essential element in the principal's functioning ability and therefore it should be introduced to them. However, should the theme of re-training be introducing another culture? Are military personnel to forget all about the people interaction, language, norms, rules, guides, values, philosophy, organizational climate and rationale that formed the whole world of their military experience? The interaction between cultures should combine to create a new element hopefully containing the best of both worlds.

Dr Bar Kol presented at a 2002 conference, the results of research on how the organizational culture characterizing the first career of retired officers affected the professional dialogue in their second career as school principals. Based on Schein's (1997) definition given earlier, a change of careers is a cross-cultural transformation and, as such, the question arises as to how their former culture will affect the culture they develop in their new career. The research, conducted on 20 ex-military school principals over ten years, showed that metaphors and images drawn from their former military dialogue are extensively used to characterize, describe and analyse their new educational environment. The educational context is often described as a "battle field" or "war" and the processes conducted by the principals are described as "counter attack", "rescue" and "survival". The frequent and common use of these metaphors proves that the military dialogue which represents the organizational culture of the

military system trickles through to the educational dialogue of the officers and helps them in re-constructing and explaining the new reality in which they are acting. This research is very important in understanding professional development, especially in the shift from one professional context to another.

The concept of especially designed programmes - the U.S.

Another especially designed programme to develop leadership skills in school principals working in an urban community along the U.S.-Mexican border is described by Daresh and Parra (1999). The programme focused on:

“...developing and supporting visionary principals who will be dedicated to taking on the biggest challenges and risks associated with creating more effective schools for children in a diverse urban community on the U.S.-Mexican border. Preparing principals to be not only competent survivors but, more important, effective leaders and true advocates of student learning has become a powerful focus for all the district's professional development efforts”. (Daresh and Parra 1999, p.4)

This programme was based on increasing the leadership abilities of aspiring principals with the emphasis on professional development and was similar to the Irish model described above.

The Kentucky Principal Internship Program was a collaborative effort of the Jefferson County (KY) Public School District and the University of Louisville (Kirkpatrick 2000). As a result of the Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA) 1991, which aimed to raise performance standards for principals and increase the responsibility expectations for quality instructional leadership and participatory management, concerns were raised about the preparation of aspiring principals. There were signs of declining enrolments in graduate programmes for preparing principals and the feeling was that district candidates for principal were not well trained.

In order to produce changes and improvement in recruitment for the preparation of candidates for principalship, the Jefferson County Public Schools and the University of Louisville produced a new modified training plan with two stages. "Identifying and Developing Educational Administrators for Schools" (IDEAS) is the preparatory stage and "Principals for Tomorrow" is the second stage with the theme of "closing the gap between what you know and what you can do, or putting theory into practice" (Kirkpatrick 2000 p-38). Introduced in 1992 as a year-long programme with the participation of the top aspiring candidates most likely to be promoted by their principals, graduates were entitled to graduate credit and no fees were charged. Louisville University modified an existing programme for certification by integrating additional field practice to include components of written analyses of various educational activities. A central element in the programme was an internship (for eight hours a week) shadowing a principal or performing administrative tasks monitored by well-trained staff.

The goals of the "Principals for Tomorrow" programme were:

"...to improve administrative and communication skills, to increase instructional skills and knowledge, to become more proficient technologically, and to learn how to access and use central office services." (Kirkpatrick 2000 p-39)

Together with the importance of the construction of a knowledge base, emphasis was also put on the experience gained throughout the study process. This approach was not based on the notion that adult learners should be involved and consulted in the learning process. Instead, weight was put on opportunities to perform and receive feedback from peers, mentors, supervisors and trainers. According to Kirkpatrick (2000):

"The NASSP development programs were designed around the applied learning theory to build and strengthen skills. The applied learning theory works best when it can be practiced in a cyclical nature and participants can continually benefit from effective modeling, attempting new behaviors and receiving feedback, then reinforcing that feedback with additional practice. The result is the development or strengthening of skills." (p.42)

This approach differs from the one presented by O'Connor and Warren (2000) in which emphasis was put on process. Two hundred people enrolled in Principals for Tomorrow during the 2000-2001 school year. What began as one class of 19 has become two classes and nearly two thirds of the graduates have been promoted with more than 80 participants becoming principals. There is continuity and repetition in the development of aspiring principals.

The concept of especially designed programmes - Iceland

An example of a general programme of principal training based on world-wide models was designed by the Iceland University of Education in the late eighties as an outcome of a proposal by the Association of Basic School Principals, and in co-operation with the Ministry of Education. The purpose of the programme is to facilitate school improvement and professional development of principals, vice-principals and middle managers in Icelandic pre-schools, basic schools and upper secondary schools. The major emphasis is on the leadership role, school as a learning organization, educational improvement and school-based evaluation.

The programme, a combination of short seminars and distance learning with a duration of two years, is organized in two and a half or five-credit courses

emphasizing both theory and practice in administration. The courses are co-ordinated as a meaningful whole but can, at the same time, be seen as the first part in a more extensive M.Ed. or M.A. programme. The programme is run on a voluntary basis and costs about \$5,400 (for a full-time student) of which 90 percent is paid by the government. The duration of the programme is 12 months on a full-time basis and 24 months on a part-time basis. The total time the student must spend on the programme is 1200-1400 hours divided into contact-time of 240 hours and study-time of 960 hours.

Dr Laarusdottir from Iceland University of Education presented a questionnaire collecting information about principal training in several European countries and identified the following list of elements included in various programme models for principal programmes. These form a database for training programmes for school principals.

Topics related to the organization and administration of the schools

School structure and organization.

The culture of school.

Strengths and weaknesses of the school.

Information and communication within the school.

Consultation procedures within the school.

Decision-making procedures within the school.

School finance matters.

School building matters.

Establishing priorities for own work.

Time management.

Administrative tasks in relation to students.

Administrative tasks in relation to staff.

Administrative tasks in relation to financial matters.

Managing the school office, secretarial and administrative work.

Quality management.

School development.

Evaluation.

Women in management.

Information technology.

Topics related to the curriculum and student's results

Development of the curriculum/school plan.

Different areas of the curriculum.

Improving curriculum provision and resources.

Monitor-systems for the results of students.

Standards of discipline.

Learning-methods, textbooks and so on.

School policy in relation to the results of students.

Pastoral care.

Dealing with different teaching styles.

Observing work and processes in the classroom.

Coaching teachers on the work in the classroom.

Topics related to staff

Human resource management.

Team meeting within the school.

Assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the staff.

Professional development and training.

Teacher morale and commitment.

Team building.

Managing conflicts with staff.

Coping with disaffected teachers.

Supporting ineffective teachers.

Warning/dismissal/redeployment of ineffective teachers.

Regular formal appraisal of teachers.

Gaining support and co-operation of teachers with management roles.

Attracting applicants for teaching positions.

Financial or administrative restrictions of teacher recruitment.

Non-teaching duties of teachers.

Topics related to the strategic policy of the school.

Education policy of the national government.

Education policy of the local government.

School vision.

Strategic policy for the school.

Implementing new ideas and innovations.

Public Relations policy.

Marketing.

Developing good professional relationships with other schools.

Working with administrators.

Account for inspection.

Working with school governors/school board.

Dealing with parents.

Working with groups and agencies in the local community.

Dealing with unions and professional organizations.

General theories on educational management.

Transformational leadership.

The school as a learning organization.

Creating a network of professional colleagues.

Enhancing the reflective competency.

The Search for the Best Possible Programme

The international variety of programmes for principal training is an on-going process as a result of the understanding that:

"There is a long-established awareness that training is required if school leaders are to operate effectively...The international research on school effectiveness and school improvement shows conclusively that the quality of leadership and management is a major factor in determining whether schools thrive or falter. Several studies also point to the ingredients of successful leadership, including clear educational values, a strong vision of the future, good two-way communication with staff and stakeholders, a consultative style and the ability to motivate staff." (Bush and Foreman 1998, p.3)

The search for the best model of a pre-service training programme is an on-going one.

Israel as Part of a Wider Community - Principal Training in Israel

Head teacher as chief pedagogue

In Israel, influenced by the traditional European and British models, schools were run by a head teacher, responsible mainly for the pedagogical side of school. In the first

years of the State the head teacher was looked on as the "first among equals", a highly qualified teacher. This was emphasised by the fact that, in order to be appointed, they were required to have five years of active teaching experience and they were obligated to continue to teach at least six hours per week in order "to maintain and implement his abilities" (Chen 1999). Thus, their managerial positions were limited to the concept of the principal as a pedagogue and not as an organizational expert.

This was emphasised in 1994 by the official job description for a principal, "the school principal will devote most of his time to pedagogic work ..." (Chen 1999 p 308). Out of 30 hours per week 20 percent were devoted to teaching and the rest were mainly devoted to class visits and the planning and implementation of the annual and term pedagogical work plans. This process, along with international changes, directed Israel towards an approach in which principals had overall responsibility for learning, management and administration as well as involvement in and commitment to school's extended communities.

These wider responsibilities and extended roles have affected not only characteristics of this position but also led to a conceptual change in attitude toward requirements for the position. In the early days of the State principals were considered equal to teachers, the job did not have high prestige and the distance between principal and teachers was very small (Chen, 1999, p.306). The formal policy of the Ministry of Education for more than 40 years was not to involve the principal in complicated administrative and management tasks in order to free him to perform the main missions of pedagogical leadership and advancing national values.

Ministry directives and regulations directed the principal how to perform administrative, pedagogical tasks such as grouping students into classes, planning and implementing school curriculum, selecting and appointing teachers and monitoring routine performance. All of these were considered to be simple compared to the proficiency expected of the teacher directly facing the students (Chen, 1999). The process throughout Israeli society, from governmental collectivism to civil individualism, in which:

"...Values were transferred from central, national and collectivistic value society to an individualistic one, re-defines roles and power of the state versus civil society and their relationship. Limitation of state power and the increase in the position of local authorities, the central part of parents and the replacement of bureaucracy arrangements in a market mechanism are only part of this educational values and social revolution." (Dahan and Yona 1999, p.163)

The selection of the principal was the government's responsibility as part of the centralized educational system. School principals were selected after being recommended by school inspectors. Selection processes were, and still are, conducted in the following way; aspiring principals nominate themselves as candidates and face, along with other candidates, a selection committee composed of representatives from the Ministry of Education as chairs, representatives of local school authorities, and representatives of the Teachers Union. Their selection is a recommendation to the general director of the Ministry of Education and once approved the nominated principal can start working.

Principal training

In the early years of the State of Israel, following European tradition, principals gained their training on the job. Therefore it was only natural to appoint teachers as

school principals based on their knowledge of school systems on the assumption that they could fill the gaps with help from an experienced associate principal after being appointed.

Until the end of 1980 there were no significant differences in Israel between the training, education and qualification of teachers to become school principals. A teaching certificate for elementary schools was granted by the seminar, and the universities granted a diploma for high school teachers. At that time it was enough to have teacher training, five years of experience and a leadership position among schoolteachers in order to be considered by the supervisor/the Ministry as a school principal. The rest of principalship knowledge could be gained through work experience, in short training sessions and through guidance by supervisors and other experienced principals. There was no need for a progressive, valid open process in selecting candidates; the position did not require any academic certificate proving expertise in educational management.

In later years, with the expansion of the principalship role, the development of educational management and the exposure to international models, it was understood that principals required special systematic training. In 1977, Israeli, the deputy to the general director at the Ministry of Education, formed a plan for the development and training of principals. The programme, intended as a pre-service programme, included elements recognized as additional training required for aspiring principals. It was also recommended that all new principals should have an academic degree or at least a diploma from a two-year course of study in educational administration.

In 1980, a unit for training senior staff was established by the Ministry of Education,

which led to the founding of head teacher training courses, both in universities and in teacher training colleges, to provide pre service training for aspiring principals. Attendance at one of these courses is now a requirement for attending a selection committee for a vacant principal position and since 1984 regulations require new principals to have either a regular academic degree or a diploma in educational administration.

In Israel, the issue of pre-service training for principals was researched by Cohen (1997), Inbar (1995), Kremer–Hayun (1995) and Friedman (1999) and the topic is still the subject of debate. Cohen (1997) indicated that those involved in principal pre-service planning should do their best to promote the level of expertise, leadership ability and status and prestige of the future principal. Those involved in introducing ex-military personnel into the field of education claimed (Bar Kol 1996) that it is not teachers but retiring military personnel that might be carrying all these required qualifications with them.

Stating that there is general dissatisfaction with the universities' training programmes for principals in Israel, Bar-Oz (2001) suggests that the reason is that training is focused on the qualification of present principals, while they should be training them for the future. Other researchers, in criticizing university training programmes, claim that they have a bureaucratic approach, there is a shortage of the concepts, skills and tools required for leading school. They propose that universities begin to provide training that will lead to a change in the mental perception of the candidate.

In Israel special emphasis is placed on the selection of principals with a background in educational administration (Bar-Oz 2001). During their pre-service, principals

study skills in such areas as education, economics, management, manpower, decision-making processes, developing a school vision and integrating extra-school elements. Principals must be acquainted with the procedures of the Ministry of Education, the government and local authorities. They have to know how to manage teams and locate positive forces. They should also be acquainted with school curricula. In view of this approach, Bar-Oz (2001) suggests that the training of future principals must include a number of basic elements that constitute the foundation of the future principal's success. These include the encouragement of the principal's leadership skills (leadership), inculcation of management skills and tasks (management), development of skills for the learning process (pedagogy) and the institution of links between the field (principals in practice) and academics. This suggestion goes back to the three basic elements of principalship, leadership, management and pedagogy, as the main elements for the construction of the principal.

Israeli models for pre-service training

In November 1993 a committee was formed by the Ministry of Education to recommend the re-structuring of the Jerusalem model for principal courses. The committee outlined the requisites for future principals as follows:

- *Enlarged emphasis on leadership in management.*
- *Decentralization of management functions, the principal as a chief coordinator.*
- *The ability to control information systems and make use of varied information.*
- *The ability to run a complex system.*
- *The ability to promote school prestige among the local community, knowledge in public affairs, and ability to seek and allocate funds efficiently and effectively.*
- *The knowledge of strategic planning.*
- *The principal as a source of resources for his staff and with an enabling approach.*
- *The ability to form a school vision and implement it.*
- *The ability to see ahead, direct school and integrate between school needs and staff wishes.* (Sever 1994, pp. 11-12)

The committee concluded by saying that the principal will lead a system of second level management, the emphasis in principal expertise will be transferred from specific knowledge to "expert thinking", the ability to search and locate relevant information and make a proper use of it for the system he runs.

Recommendations of the committee for the re-structuring of the Jerusalem model principals course were as follows:

- *The program will last three years to include either a practice year or leadership development program for acting principals.*
- *The academic part of the course for the first two years will include a professional knowledge database and modules of principalship matters.*
- *Professional skills will be taught in workshops by professional experts.*
- *The third year will be either a practice year for aspiring principals or a leadership development program for acting principals. The first two years will consist of 22-26 academic hours. (Sever 1994, p.21)*

These recommendation were presented to the Ministry of Education in 1994, four years later in 1998, the Ministry decided to re-consider principal training and did not open the course that year. However, in 1999 the course was renewed for three years as a one-year course of 420 hours.

Principal training as principals see it

Research conducted in 1997 by the Szold Institute (Friedman *et al*, 1997) surveyed 369 acting principals (male and female), at elementary, junior and high school level on the following topics:

- Principal training - personal experience and training evaluation.
- Additional requirements for principal training.
- Preferred in-service training programmes.
- Essential challenges in principalship.

In comparing training topics and additional requirements for principal training it was discovered that the congruent elements are all connected to teamwork, leadership,

work relations, decision-making and solving problems and conflicts. Topics that were not required in training programmes but were very much emphasised in preferred in-service training programmes were curriculum, school evaluation, budgeting and public relations.

In comparing essential challenges in principalship and additional requirements for principal training, it was discovered that team work and staff training (professional educational guidance) were the most frequently mentioned, both as a principal challenge and as topics in a preferred in-service training programme. Conflict solving was not mentioned as often, but principals indicated that they wanted to include it in their preferred in-service training programme, probably because when a conflict occurs it affects the principal very much and therefore he feels he should be well prepared to deal with it.

Some additional topics were mentioned as daily challenges but do not appear in preferred in-service training programmes, such as the teachers' union regulations, lack of backing from local authorities, poor budgets and parental involvement. This could be because these topics can only be learned through experience.

The comparison between the response of principals from different backgrounds to essential challenges in principalship and required in-service training programmes raises a few interesting points. The more senior the principal the less he needs training in pedagogical elements and the more he needs training in management topics. The work of the elementary school principal is much more constricted and inspected, high school principals are much more independent, but they need more additional training than elementary principals in almost all areas.

Teachers that emerged from the field of education need additional training in content elements such as curriculum. Principals who gained their experience outside the field of education wish to be trained in what they believe (based on their experience) is more important in advancing the organization (conflict solving, budgeting, marketing). From this finding two types of principal emerge – “the organizational school principal” who attributes importance to economics and organizational elements more than to content elements (principals with experience outside the field of education tend to be included in this group) and the “educational principal” who attaches more importance to content and educational process and less to management qualifications and organizational and economic topics.

Senior principals see manpower, community, parents and the need for support and backing as more troublesome topics. Elementary school principals emphasise management skill problems because the majority of them are former teachers selected to be school principals, some of the senior ones were not qualified in that area. High school principals are more interested in solving manpower problems because they are responsible for that area. A final observation was that the more senior the principal is the more he is troubled with daily school dilemmas and with the practicality of things rather than with educational process and management skills.

As a result of the researches Friedman *et al* (1997) recommend that:

“In principal training, basic management qualities that might suit every factory manager should be incorporated to include leadership, change, problem solving and decision making and the affective activation of workers. More than that aspiring principals should be updated in educational developments, curriculum updates as well as economic management skills and public relations. They also recommend a stage period of one year with one experienced principal, and after the formal training process to plan a set of short training sessions with experienced

principals and academy experts.” (pp.31-32, translated from Hebrew)

The 12 models of the 600 hour, two-year programme

In 2001 twelve institutions were approved to take part in a modified 600 hour, two-year course. The institutions were:

- Tel Aviv University.
- The Kibbutzim College.
- Beit Berl College
- Bar Ilan University.
- The Technion - Ort.
- Jerusalem College
- David Yelin College.
- Achava College.
- Kay College.
- Gordon College.
- Oranim College.
- Haifa University

From 2001 each of the training institutions conducted the two-year course for 20-24 students. Each institution designed an independent syllabus with different aims, emphasis and rationale and these are all described in the draft of the Ministry of Education’s “Principal Training Courses 2003” released in September 2002.

A brief description of each institution's programme follows:

Tel- Aviv University. The course at Tel Aviv University was designed with the aim of developing competencies and abilities required for a good principal, with an emphasis on both educational leadership and organizational management. Course themes present various aspects of the responsibilities and accountabilities concerning principals and educational leaders such as moral, politics, bureaucracy, legal, professional expertise and marketing (based on Adams and Kirst 1998). The rationale of integrating theory and practice in the course is to enable the student to develop a state of mind that will help him deal with complex problems that exist in unstable zones and vague conditions (Sergiovanni, 1995).

The course is based on continuing dialogue between practice and theory (Milstein 1990), acquiring knowledge, implementing it and returning to theory as required (Wilson 1971). The course is considered to be very academic in nature, and can be regarded as part of a Masters' degree programme in educational management. Most graduates are high school principals and therefore dealing with larger schools (Ministry of Education, 2002)

The course emphasises both educational leadership and organizational management in order to develop competencies and abilities required for a principal in such schools. Out of the three elements in principalship, leadership, management and pedagogy, management is the key factor in this programme's approach and determines the course syllabus.

The Kibbutzim College. The Kibbutzim College concept of the developing principal training programme is based on Sergiovanni (1995), identifying five acting forces at school that a school principal should be qualified by the course to assume control of:

- *Technical leadership - the ability to plan, organize and coordinate school activity as well as the efficient use of school resources (time, information and finances).*
- *Human leadership - the ability to develop human relation, inter-personal abilities and motivate people.*
- *Pedagogical leadership - the ability to deal with pedagogical processes at school, fostering teachers, and the promotion of teaching qualities.*
- *Symbolic leadership - the ability to develop school vision, convey this vision to all participating elements, recruit them and implement that vision.*
- *Cultural leadership - the ability to establish school culture based on norms and traditions in order to achieve school aims and targets.* (Sergiovanni 1995, quoted in Ministry of Education 2003, p141)

The course is designed to enrich the students, not only with all those scholarly elements required by principals, but also with the ability to deal with the transformation of knowledge to required competencies.

The rationale of forming the course is based on these basic assumptions:

- Global and Israeli society changes and conflicts affect education systems.
- Developments in western societies elevate fundamental questions concerning education systems.
- Educational leaders as community leaders.
- School principals are not business managers and therefore should not be trained and qualified as such.

Consequently it is presumed that educational concept, self-awareness and social sensitivity are basic requisites for educational leadership and as a result should act as milestones for designing training programmes (Ministry of Education, 2002).

The Kibbutzim College training approach is more humanistic in nature. The concept that school principals are not business managers and therefore should not be trained and qualified as such is not a common approach in principal training today. Management theories are well established on the business world and, as such, they try and dress the principal in a businessman's suit. Most principals trained in the Kibbutzim College are elementary school principals usually in small-scale, intimate schools where this approach is appropriate.

Beit Berl College - Beit Berl College was the first institute, in 1979, to provide regular school principal courses. In 1987 the "Officers for Education" programme started to operate as an additional programme for school principal training.

Both training and development at Beit Berl College are based on the following assumptions drawn from theory and practice in the field:

- The principal is the most dominant and influential individual at school.
- School principalship is a complex, complicated and demanding line of work.
- Principalship is a profession that requires separate training and is not an extension of the teaching profession.
- The principal is alone at the top even though he is surrounded by supportive staff.
- In an era of change there is a need for a "Life Long Learning" process throughout his professional career.

Based on the above the aims of the Beit Berl training programme were designed:

- To provide the school principal with a "Life Long Learning" programme to include pre-service and on-going updating and renewal programmes.
- To provide the students with a second degree academic level programme.

- To provide education system with principals with both:
 - *"Vision and effective ability to deal with change.*
 - *Transformative leadership based upon educational, social and humanistic concepts.*

With the appropriate managerial knowledge". (Beit Berl program p-2)
- To integrate both theory and practice into the programme.

Programme developers at Beit Berl were aware of issues of debate in the field of principal training and development such as:

- In era of school based management is the principal primarily an educational leader, or is he an administrator?
- Based on the claim that principal training "Does not provide the proper merchant" we find in the literature, how is it possible to bridge the gap between theory and practice?
- Based on present school reality, how we should train future principals?
(Ministry of Education, 2002).

Beit Berl, as a pioneer in the field of principal training, has developed an approach based mainly on the appropriate mix between theory and practice. In order to achieve a course the college introduces the aspiring principals to real life, enables them to be aware and sensitive to the requirements and needs and dynamically respond to these requirements. Beit Berl College train school principals both for elementary schools and for high schools.

Bar Ilan University - Bar Ilan University, as a religious university, considers its aim to be training and developing principals as educational leaders for the Israeli Jewish education system. (This is a separate section of the national education system.) The rationale of the programme is based on considering the principal's educational leadership and vision as a main element in principalship and therefore the programme includes the following components:

- General educational component.
- Jewish educational component.
- Holistic administrative component.
- A practical component for management qualifications (Ministry of Education, 2002).

The course is designed for a very distinct section of religious educators and, as such, concentrates on the unique challenges facing these groups.

The Technion (High Institute for Technology) - Ort (Colleges & Schools For Advanced Technologies & Science). Co-operation between the Technion and Ort produced an exclusive training programme for the Ort organization school principals.

The rationale for the course was the complexity and difficulty of the principal's role and the growing demand from the State, community, parents and the teachers' union. "The ability to navigate school through these turbulent storms and pressures requires a campus with vision and values to enable the principal to advance" (Ort 2002).

The course emphasises:

- The need to promote and market schools, to include school activities in a competitive arena
- Budgetary and economic considerations, to include school input and output and school evaluation.
- Legal aspects of school life to include students' rights.
- Recognition of personal abilities and personal development for the advancement of school.

As the programme is a co-operation between Ort and the Technion the programme is aimed at training school principals, both acting and aspiring, for technological, scientific high schools.

The Jerusalem College - The Jerusalem College is a religious college and, as such, its aim is to train a manager-leader with a clear vision and the ability to integrate relevant aims and goals fitted for the religious educational system. Emphasis is placed on the questions, dilemmas and challenges presented to the religious educator today.

The course graduate will be qualified both as a leader and an administrator and a pedagogue to implement school vision. Since leaders at such institutions are responsible to a religious authority they are mainly males qualified as Rabbis.

David Yelin College - David Yelin College has selected a training programme based on Schachar (1995) designed to nurture and develop educational leaders that:

"... Should have a clear and transmittable vision that creates enthusiasm that carries his followers on its wings to unknown frontiers. The leader should

translate the vision into a concrete managerial process with which he can implement the vision." (Ministry of Education 2002, p.79)

The college sees the principal as an educational leader, a scholar with educational personality, a man of culture (both international and Jewish), a man with high morals, open and patient. An educational leader should be able to set aims and advance them professionally and with courage to validation.

The training programme is based upon three foundations:

Theoretical core - that deals with theoretical knowledge and updated research.

Value, Moral and Emotional core - that construct and define the educational viewpoint.

Practical core - that deals with the development of management tools for decision making and implementing administrative procedures.

The developers of this programme believe the design will give its graduates a better chance of personal progress, increased understanding of organizational and management developments and enable them to acquire the required qualifications. The programme emphasises the principal as an educational leader and all elements of the programme are designed to achieve that goal.

Achava College - Achava College consider the development of educational leadership as the college's main theme and therefore the principal training programme is an essential element in its academic activities.

The course is built on the following rationale:

- Principalship is a profession.
- The principalship profession is different to the teaching profession.

- Vision and understanding of school culture are essential for a principal's background but successful teaching is not necessarily a requirement.

The idea behind the course design is to develop the candidate as an educational visionary who accepts responsibility and commitment for the combining of his strengths and those of his subordinates. He should be able to utilize intellect and the human capital at school, and lead the organization to constant growth and prosperity while achieving his own goals.

In order to implement these ideas, participants will be provided with theoretical and practical tools in order to understand the leadership process of school principals as a complex practice of motivation. Classic theories from various disciplines connected to management are integrated with updated relevant research. This will develop the ability of the aspiring principals to examine management and leadership procedures from various aspects, and explore their ability and suitability to contribute to school effectiveness and development. At the same time there will be an attempt to lead the participants to act as a combined team for mutual learning, partners to in on-going dialogue "in the journey for the acquaintance of each participant with his strengths and weaknesses as a leader leading his colleagues for fulfilling the goals" (Ministry of Education, 2002).

The development process of the aspiring principal will be directed in two layers: The professional stratum and the personal stratum.

"We believe that the principal should be an expert in the management of an expert team, and at the same time he should have the integrity to depend upon his own personal strength in order to recruit those experts and lead them as a team on his way to implementing the vision." (Ministry of Education, 2002)

The emphasis of Achava College on both the professional and personal layers stresses the leadership element as a focal point in their training concept.

Kay College - Key College's key assumption for their training programme is based on the following:

- Pre-service training should qualify the aspiring principal to efficiently and cleverly deal with the complex reality and contradiction of the education system.
- School principalship is a profession.
- A school principal is a leader.
- The shift from teaching into principalship is hard because both are different professions.
- Including acting principals in the course planning and incorporating them in the course itself can contribute both to the aspiring principals and to the acting principals.
- Practicing various aspects of the principal role guarantees a better understanding of the role.
- Liaison between theory and practice enables the construction of a multi-level image of the principal role.
- The process of reconstruction of knowledge and a constant observation of a principal's activities encourages professional personal development.

The rationale of the programme is to provide the aspiring principal with "encounters" with complex management dilemmas, in order to develop the ability to deal with a large variety of ideological, social, political, cultural, educational, ethical, managerial and organizational challenges in the field.

Gordon College - Gordon College sees the principal as:

- A school and community leader; his leadership affects school systems, staff, students and their parents and through them the whole community in achieving social and educational goals.
- Having a vision and being able to implement that vision in achieving the school's goals.

Educational leadership is based on the perception of professional management and management qualifications. Therefore the programme is based on three elements:

- The ability to establish an educational managerial concept.
- The development of managerial abilities and capabilities.
- Establishing managerial experience.

In order to achieve the programme Gordon College developed a unique element; every six to eight students are provided with a mentor to assist them throughout the whole process. His experience and abilities provide the students with a managerial guide throughout the two-year process.

Oranim College - Oranim College's rationale is based on the assumption that aspiring principals accepted to the programme have proven pedagogical ability and knowledge, together with leadership and management potential, and the programme is designed to increase these abilities.

The programme consists of four elements:

- Personal development - personal assessment of values and abilities in management.

- Team development - the ability to work within a team, create teams and operate them.
- Organizational knowledge in general and educational systems in particular.
- Field implementations - practice, control and assessment.

Principalship is going through a process of change into becoming a profession that requires new insights into a different kind of knowledge. This led the programme developers to set four targets as plan bases:

- Introducing school as an organization acting in an influencing environment and influenced by it.
- The creation of the distinction between daily routine management to change management, understanding that being a principal means being an initiator of change.
- Developing the ability for teamwork and team management.
- Developing learning ability in order to continuously improve principalship abilities.

The college uses Kolb's (1984) model of experimental learning while implementing the "action learning" principle of Schon (1991). This concept involves small groups of learners in solving real life dilemmas, taking into account the amount and content of the learning process, as well as how the personal learning process affects each one of the group and the organization in general. This is implemented in the praxis portion of the course.

Haifa University - Haifa University's opening rationale statement is that "there is nothing more practical than a good theory". This is based on the outcome of research

conducted on principal courses where it was found that, as time passes, graduates tend to attribute more importance to theoretical issues rather than to their personal practice.

They quote Staff Wertheimer, one of Israel's leading industrialists:

"...young people learn management and business management before they ever managed anything...the truth is that you cannot really teach management; you can develop management traits in a man but not teach them. What is actually management, someone who is taking responsibility and leads something, that's a manager, like an animal leading the herd. It is truth that the term "management" has changed throughout the years, in the 50s it was more Zionist than today, meaning there were more tears, blood and sweat. In 1975 it was directed by a Japanese American approach and today it aspires to be both Israeli and multi-cultural. What is the management of a productive factory today? If the factory challenges are mainly financial then the finance director is the manager. And when marketing is required, then the marketing director is the factory manager. But if they have the right market but don't know how to produce, the production director is the factory manager. It is the need that determines the manager." (Wertheimer, 1998, p.12)

As an outcome of this concept, the aims of the programme are as follows:

- Principalship training should combine theory and practice with vision.
- Providing both knowledge and tools along with the development of self-awareness and the development of sensitivity tools for educational and social needs.
- Establishing leadership that will generate a leader characterized by creativity, professionalism, innovativeness, quality, efficiency, effectiveness, excellence and accountability, all in an era of instability and rapid change.
- Examining Israeli society and its educational systems.
- Developing awareness of leadership initiatives and implementations in the education field.
- Creating "constructivist unrest" in order to create within the aspiring principals the urge to act as change agents, leaders with vision.
- Developing autonomous principals with a set of qualities such as high moral values, initiator, responsiveness, involvement, learning and guiding abilities, leading and participating capabilities, openness for change and innovation.

- Developing awareness of the principal's role at school and in the community, both at local and national level, and his role as a public leader involved in the community.
- Establishing educational ideology, both social and managerial, based on the knowledge of Israeli society and the role of educational systems.

Describing the concept of practicum (practical training) implemented in principal training, Yahav (2002), programme co-ordinator at Haifa University, highlights the two different leading concepts in practical training, the skill/competencies approach and the empowerment approach. The skill/competencies approach presumes that management principles in all areas are identical, and therefore it emphasises skill/competencies implemented in management in general and in business, health, welfare and military systems in particular. The spirit of self-based management that overtook educational systems strengthened this approach.

The empowerment approach is based on leadership bases for management. Its aim is to create an influential principal with a well-established status in the wider community, a principal with intellectual, pedagogical and moral qualities. This approach intends to bring the aspiring principal to revolutionize their way of thinking, from an implementing teacher to a leader principal; from a narrow focused point of view to a wide spectrum, future-oriented point of view, from a school principal to a community leader with vision and an expert in his field.

The reason that the skill/competencies approach is more common is due to the fact that it is much easier to understand and implement; it provides some instant recipes and it suits the Ministry's view of the principal as an implementer of its plans and policies.

This is emphasized by what Yahav (2002) considers as the instability and inconsistency of Ministry of Education decision makers, which leads to a too short selection and qualification process, which, in turn, leads to an instant transfer from a teacher position to principalship.

Course Graduates – Guaranteed Principalship?

A survey, conducted by the Center for Educational Development (2003), examined the contribution to school principalship made by graduates of principals' courses. It showed the following results:

1. During 1996-2000 (5 year period) 1541 students joined one of the aspiring principals programmes, 97 percent (1491) graduated, 77 of them were already acting principals and 369 were appointed principals after graduation. Therefore 446 (30%) of the course graduates were acting principals.
2. Out of the 1,122 other graduates, 724 responded to the survey, which showed that:
 - 48 of them experienced principalship for a short time, replacing principals on sabbatical, or being replaced after one or two years, (tenure period in Israel is three years).
 - 26 experienced different kinds of management (local authority institutions)
 - 285 were appointed as deputy principals.
 - 26 had retired and three had passed away.
 - 336 continued as regular teachers.

Of the 724 that responded to the survey:

- 206 had applied for principalship (through selection committees).

- Four had applied for principalship (not through selection committees).
- 285 had not applied for principalship.
- 101 were not interested in applying for principalship.

In total 35 percent of the graduates of the principals' course experienced principalship, an additional 19 percent acted as deputy principals. More than 50 percent of graduates were in school management positions.

As for the characteristics of the participants in the principals' courses for regular teachers during 2002 and 2003, data from the Center for Educational Development show that 68 percent of the participants (246 in 2002 and 313 in 2003) were women; ten percent were younger than 30; two and a half percent were between 50 and 60; 20 percent were from the Non Jewish sectors. Seventy five percent of the students were elementary school teachers and more than 30 percent of them held a master's degree. This background data includes the Beit Berl principals' course for regular teachers and therefore correlates with background data of school participants.

The reservoir of candidates from the field of education is theoretically unlimited but practically, as in the case of Israel, out of 120,000 teachers only 0.5 to 0.75 percent of educators are presenting themselves as candidates for the course and only 0.25 percent are selected. The number of participants per year is approximately 300-400, which is ten percent of the 4000 acting principals.

“Officers for Education” Programme

The training programmes described above are present training programmes implemented by the various institutions and were designed as independent programmes with different aims, emphasis and rationale (Ministry of Education, 2002). All of the programmes are designed for acting educators aspiring to principalship.

One special programme designed for personnel outside the education field was the “Officers for Education” programme designed as a response to some of the challenges presented above. The programme was established in 1988 as a combined initiative of the Labor and Education ministries together with the military veterans organization; it was designed for retired military officers from the rank of major and above and was organized as a two-year re-training course offering retired military officers qualification as teachers and principals.

The first year is designed to enable the student to acquire a “teaching certificate” in a full weeks study programme (for other university graduates the teaching certificate is a two-year course). This year of the course is devoted to re-training as teachers, and deals mainly in pedagogy and methodology. At the end of the year graduates are granted a teaching certificate which qualifies them to teach at high school or junior high level.

During the second year they attend the school principals’ course for one-study day per week, at the same time they are expected to start working as teachers at various schools. Structuring the principal element of the course presented a challenge to the

planners at Beit-Berl College and the curriculum and syllabus of the course signify that challenge. Constant changes in the curriculum are an outcome of the lessons learned from running the course and as the result of remarks made by graduates.

The course should, according to its planners, provide the knowledge and skills necessary for a school leader that differ from those of a military leader; to articulate the school's mission and to develop a strategic plan for the school, to acquire knowledge to create the proper school climate and become accustomed to school culture. It is intended to try and develop effective and particular leadership for school leaders. The emphasis of the course was on both the pedagogical elements and the necessary exposure to school systems and interrelated systems. Topics such as school systems and dilemmas of school life are part of this approach.

The course consists of three main elements:

- A theoretical part with the emphasis on the school as an organization and theoretical bases for leadership, management and pedagogy.
- A semi-theoretical, practical part that consists of workshops, simulation, role-playing and practical implementation of the theoretical elements.
- An implementing part, in which students are tutored by an experienced school principal who monitors their activity, this part is concluded by creating a portfolio to present the training process the student has undergone.

During the year they begin work as teachers in different schools, some of them, even at this early stage, take upon themselves the job of class educator and teacher in charge of a class layer or subject.

In a survey conducted by Bar Zohar (1997), in which he examined the way retired officers evaluated the re-training project at Beit Berl, results showed that the retired officers clearly evaluated the programme positively. The good atmosphere and the exposure to both theoretical study and practical elements contributed highly to their satisfaction with the teaching certificate part. However, some claimed that the principal training phase of the programme did not fulfil their special needs, being qualified as managers but unfamiliar with the systems (Bar Zohar, 1997). They indicated that the programme did not form their decision to move into the education field; this decision had probably been reached before they started the re-training programme and there was no need to reinforce this decision (Bar Zohar, 1997).

As noted earlier, the programme was established for two main reasons, the need to provide employment in the civil sector for a group of early retiring officers and the need to meet the shortage of educational leaders. However, Bar-Kol (1996) claims that the need to fill the shortage was not the only reason for recruiting and retraining military officers. She identifies several reasons such as:

"... these new recruits to the system have not yet experienced 'burnout' and are considered to be fresh leaders in the field, they have, as high ranking officers, managerial experience as an outcome of their years of experience, they are mostly male, unlike the majority of personnel in education who are female. And, since military service enjoys status and prestige in the Israeli society, they bring this with them, among other things, to the field of education."(Bar-Kol 1996, p.55)

Zohar (1997), in a research of retired officers moving into education, claims that researches indicate that occupations considered to be feminine are characterized as low-status occupations, therefore it is not surprising that feminisation of an occupation lowers its status (Touhery, 1974; Coverman, 1989). This might lead to an emotional, cognitive whirlpool on a personal level and resentment on a social level, which might

lead men not to commit themselves to this line of occupation (Rivrin –Simard,1990; Pfof and Fiore, 1990). Nevertheless, men might be welcome in an occupation considered feminine because miscalculation of the system might promote its prestige, especially when those joining are mature men of high status with an image linked to a muscular profession (Bar Zohar, 1997).

Bar-Kol (1996) also lists the reasons she believes retired military officers choose education in general and school principalship in particular as a new way of life. Firstly because it enables them to form a respectable second career and to contribute to what is still considered a national cause. Secondly, officers often feel that their former status as military commanders or managers is not so far from what is demanded of them as teachers and principals and they are attracted to that field.

Other reasons given by graduates refer to the fact that there is no relation between efforts and pay; both in the military and at school you have to believe in what you are doing and you should love your people. In a survey conducted by Bar Zohar (1997) he lists the five leading reasons that attracted ex military personnel into education; the desire to contribute to society, the belief that a good commander is also a good educator, the search for an intellectually challenging line of occupation, the belief that success in military service will lead to success in education, an attraction to teaching.

An interesting correlation was found between the rank in retirement to the answer concerning the belief that "a good commander is also a good educator", the agreement with that statement rose with rank. Therefore, Bar Zohar presumes that this belief is the way to anticipate that success in a military career will lead to success in education,

i.e. that self ability that was that was proven once will be proven again (Bandura 1977 quoted in Bar Zohar 1997). Bar Zohar (1997) concludes that:

"The retiring IDF officers have chosen education as their second career because they want to contribute to society. They also believe that that a good commander is also a good educator and were attracted to teaching." (p.44)

Bar Zohar (1997) also presumes that their tendency as young males at the beginning of their way in life to sign up as career officers for many years in order to serve the nation encourages them, at their mid-life change of career, to continue to contribute to society through activity in the educational system. This kind of activity enables them to continue to provide destiny and meaning to their life (Frankel 1982). Bar Zohar (1997) also outlines the search for a challenging occupation and the attraction to teaching related to Maslow's theory (1954). This suggests that managing and teaching in the field of education are ways that enable retired officers to fulfil themselves in the second chapter of their professional life.

Referring to a "professional self" in a second career, Bar Kol (2002) conducted research into re-training retired military officers as teachers and principals and discovered that dimensions of the professional self in a first career are transferred to a second. The research concentrated on graduates of the "Officers for Education" programme and Bar Kol (1996) claims that mid-life is often associated with major career changes. This was based on Schein (1993) who showed that the choices of first and second careers are often guided by a career anchor that has crucial impact on professional decisions. Bar Kol was trying to discover whether retired military officers were guided by a career anchor when making the transition to education and principalship in mid-life. The research included 15 retired middle-aged, male military officers retrained as principals in the Beit Berl "Officers for Education" programme.

Findings from the research showed four consistent themes. Bar Kol (2002) claims that:

"These dimensions of the group's collective professional self comprise a sense of mission and total devotion transferred from a military career to education, care and commitment towards young soldiers transferred to students at schools, a critical attitude towards women teachers who are judged according to the male principals' former military work norms, and a perception of principalship as a battlefield. The first theme (i.e. a sense of mission and total devotion) can be interpreted in terms of Schein's service/dedication anchor, which is manifested in inter-personal relations with others, the second and third themes relate to students and women teachers. In addition, this anchor can further shed light on the theme of principalship as a battlefield (i.e. the fourth theme) where the former officers retrained as principals are ready to fight for their mission." (Bar Kol 2002 in a panel conducted on the discursive construction of the professional self)

The discursive construction of the professional self in a second career, often perceived as a new field, use anchors from the previous career for the new career to set approaches and activities.

An essential part of the shift towards education is being appointed as a school principal. Towards the end of the course the graduates begin competing for principal appointments by answering principal job proposals in the newspaper. After selection, the process through which the new principal is integrated into the school system begins. The project has currently been in operation for more than eight years during which time almost 350 students have completed the two re-training elements. More than 65 percent are teachers and about 12 percent of them are acting as school principals, another eight to ten percent are acting as heads of educational departments in local authorities and heads of informal educational systems. This case presents the implementation of a concept that enables the recruitment of experienced personnel from other fields and, through a re-training process, transfers them to management positions in the field of education.

CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

General

The aim of this research is to determine the feasibility of pre-service training for aspiring principals coming from outside the world of education in order to qualify as school principals. It is achieved by examining the contribution made by training in preparing retired officers for principalship in Israel, compared to a group of regular teachers aspiring to be principals. An analysis of the tools and skills needed to prepare these candidates sufficiently and adequately for leading positions in the educational system was undertaken. An evaluation of military officer's concepts of their abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills was conducted in order to locate the areas in which they might need support during their transfer into education.

The hypothesis was based primarily on the following statement:

"Aspiring principals can identify tools and skills, required for their training into principal's positions, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills".

The operational hypotheses are:

- 1. Aspiring principals from outside the field of education are more likely to emphasize pedagogical aspects than candidates within the profession.*
- 2. Aspiring principals from within the field of education will concentrate more on aspects of management, compared with candidates drawn from outside who have extensive management experience.*

If the hypotheses are accepted, it is possible to train candidates from outside the field of education for principalship positions, providing tools and skills identified as required for those leading positions.

Research Methods

Survey

The transfer of society from an "industrial society" to a "data society" has transferred the focus from commodities, production and services to a need for a flow of information on preferences, requirements and actions of the public, in order to react to demands. This need has created a large variety of tools and research methods from which the most commonly used in social science is the survey. In daily use, survey is described as a method of collecting information from part of the population in order to determine preferences, requirements and actions, or a method of primary data collection based on communication with a representative sample of individuals. This methodology is used for descriptive research but can also be combined with other information for research (Sabar Ben Yehoshua, 1990).

According to Johnson (1994) survey activity is defined as "eliciting equivalent information from an identified population" (p.13). The purpose of the survey method is to collect information and provide the researcher with a basis for comparison to include facts, attitudes or opinions, reflecting current information. Hoinville and Jowell (1978) claim that survey should "be regarded essentially as the means by which we can document, analyze and interpret past and present attitudes and behavior patterns. By exposing trends they will certainly provide clues about the future, but they are only clues" (p.184 quoted in Johnson 1994 p.13).

Surveys can be conducted in two main ways: questionnaires and interviews. Questionnaires use written forms as instruments; these are completed by the respondent. Interviews are performed by an interviewer who records the respondent's reaction.

The most common kind of questionnaire is the mail survey but questionnaires can also be administered in a group format. A group of respondents are brought together and asked to respond to a structured series of questions. Usually questionnaires are administered in this way for convenience, this would provide a high response rate and if the respondents were unclear about the meaning of a question they could ask for clarification.

The difference between a group set questionnaire and a group interview is that in a group set questionnaire each respondent is handed an instrument and asked to complete it while in the room. In the group interview, the interviewer facilitates a session of a group of people that work together, listening and reacting to each other's comments and to the questions presented while the interviewer takes notes. This is a group activity; attendees cannot complete an interview individually. In this research both systems were used.

In order to determine the appropriate research tool for this investigation, two approaches were examined:

- Personal or group interviews of both the aspiring principals (regular teachers compared with ex military retired officers) and acting principals.
- Questionnaire of the aspiring principals (regular teachers compared with retired ex military officers).

Both methods allow for data to be collected qualitatively and quantitatively.

Interviews

Personal interviews are a way of obtaining first-hand, in-depth and inclusive responses from the participants on the subject matter. This approach involves one person interviewing another person for personal or detailed information. There are a variety of interview types in which the interviewer, in person or via communication technology, will ask questions from a written questionnaire and write down or tape-record the answers. The interview consists of a list of topics that the researcher wants to discuss with the interviewee.

Personal interviews, because of their expense, are usually used only when subjects are not likely to respond to other survey methods, or when the research group is very small. It is difficult to conduct interview surveys on a large-scale basis. A survey of this type is usually qualitative in nature but it may use a method that allows the gathering of quantitative data that can be easily analysed and is capable of producing definite statistics. Both these approaches can produce valuable results and each has a particular strength depending on the type of investigation taking place.

The technique of group interviewing enables the assembly of a group of interviewees to conduct a conversation on related topics, the interaction usually brings up not only answers to the presented questions but also new ideas that might not be brought up in a regular interview.

One possible challenge is the tendency to drift away from the presented questions. The conductor of a group interview should be very strict in conducting the session.

Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) recommend that, in order to achieve this, interviewees should be asked to speak only when and if they have a definite attitude to the topic in question. They also worry about other types of 'interference', such as the possibility of one person dominating the others. A second danger is in the composition of the group; the group should be as homogeneous as possible to prevent dominance of one particular group over others. The size of the group should be between eight and twelve people.

Questionnaires

A more suitable method of conducting research among a large number of people is the questionnaire. Questionnaire methods are based on a set of questions or statements presented to a respondent in written form. This method is conducted on a less personal level than an interview. However, it can be conducted with a large number of people at the same time. For this reason, it is the most widely used tool in social research as it can provide a very efficient method for the collection of data from large numbers of people.

Questionnaires are sent by post, presented by e-mail or handed out. Since mail questionnaires have a low response rate it is preferable to present questionnaires in person, this allows the collection of more detailed results, making use of the subsequent interview to gain more information.

Questionnaires used for large numbers of people rely on a developed set of tools for analysis. Some of the questions call for the respondent to choose one of a number of specified answers, others may ask them to list a set of items, or respond to a

statement. Closed answers such as these allow the response to be coded, enabling rapid processing using a computer programs.

Using a questionnaire for conducting a survey has the following advantages:

- Simplicity
 - In handling large sample sizes or large geographic areas;
 - Data entry and tabulation can be easily achieved with many computer software packages;
 - Tools exist to analyse the data.
 - Most people are familiar with questionnaires.
- Cost effectiveness
 - The number of research questions is increased compared to face-to-face interviews.
- Reliability
 - Questionnaires reduce bias as uniform questions are presented and there is no middleman bias;
 - Questionnaires are less intrusive than telephone or face-to-face surveys;
 - The research instrument does not interrupt the respondents.

There are disadvantages to using questionnaires for conducting a survey (Kane 1985).

These include:

- The inability to explore responses;
- Questionnaires are structured instruments;
- Little flexibility for the respondent with respect to the response format;
- Not allowing enough space for comments;

- Not using visual communication;
- Lack of personal contact may have an impact on sensitive issues;
- May be responded to by somebody else or not responded to at all;
- Not suitable for everyone.

Research Design

This research is conducted on two groups of aspiring principalship candidates (each group consist of three cohorts, 2001, 2002 and 2003) who went through a school principal programme. The first group consisted of experienced teachers aspiring to principalship via the pre-service process. The second group consisted of retired military officers aspiring to principalship via the pre-service process.

The researcher will conduct a survey among the groups identified so as to map concepts of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills, Additionally, the contribution of pre-service training to becoming a school principal will be investigated. The results will then be analysed and compared between the groups:

- To identify concepts of their abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogy;
- To identify their concept of expected requirements in a pre-service training in leadership, management and pedagogy;
- To identify areas requiring amendment in order to qualify them to perform the principal's role.

The requirements for training each of the aspiring groups will be measured and compared to the other group, pointing out differences in their concept of tools and

skills required for performing as a principal. Amendments will then be recommended in order to fill the gaps in knowledge, qualities, abilities and capabilities needed to prepare them to become school principals.

In order to triangulate the survey findings and to further examine topics that were presented in the questionnaire, interviews, group interviews and discussions were conducted with three different groups with the intention of confirming research findings by trying to comprehend the attitudes of each group to elements of the process. The three groups included:

- A group of fifteen regular teachers familiar with a principal's activities but not yet exposed to principalship theories.
- Ex military and former regular teacher principals from elementary and high schools. They either have, or have not, gone through an earlier pre-service training programme.
- Graduates of the "officers for education project" at the end of the study year.

This research examines pre-service training requirements. It is based on a questionnaire presented to six groups of aspiring principalship candidates who went through a school principal programme in 2001 (G1 and G4), 2002 (G2 and G5) and 2003 (G3 and G6). The G1, G2 and G3 groups consisted of experienced teachers aspiring to principalship through the pre-service process. The G4, G5 and G6 group consisted of retired military officers aspiring to principalship through the pre-service process. Both groups are divided into three-year groups, 2001, 2002 and 2003. The two groups were compared to each other; the three cohorts in each group were also compared.

The questionnaire consisted of four parts:

- A) background details;
- B) knowledge/abilities acquired by the candidate prior to the pre-service training;
- C) school principal qualities and abilities;
- D) knowledge/abilities gained through the pre-service training.

129 aspiring principals took part in the research; it included all aspiring principal students at Bait Berl College during 2001-2003.

An outline of the research design is presented in Table 3.1.

Aspiring Candidates in Pre-Service Training

	2001	x	G1 (N=28)
<u>Experienced Teachers (N=69)</u>	2002	x	G2 (N=20)
	2003	x	G3 (N=21)
	2001	x	G4 (N=12)
<u>Retired Military Officers (N=60)</u>	2002	x	G5 (N=22)
	2003	x	G6 (N=26)

Table 3.1 Outline of Research Design 1

Research Design 1 addresses the following questions:

- 1) Is there a difference in the identified tools and skills required for training for principal's positions between the two groups of aspiring school principals undergoing pre-service training?
- 2) If there are differences, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills:

- a. In what areas do these differences exist?
 - b. Can these differences be related to one of the three main elements in school principalship; leadership, management or pedagogy?
- 3) There is no difference between aspiring candidates in the two groups.

Variables

The independent variables are:

- Type of course.
- Period of employment in education (seniority)
- Gender.
- National Sector.
- Military background.
- School level.
- Teaching topics.
- Managerial background.
- Age.

The dependable variables in the questionnaire are:

- Bases of knowledge/abilities (contributing to the performance of a school principal) brought with the candidate prior to the pre-service training;
- Bases of knowledge/abilities (contributing to the performance of a school principal) gained by the candidate through the pre-service training;
- The extra tuition required to better prepare them for a leading position in the educational system.

The research is conducted in 'survey outline'. However, in the research there is at least one comparison between two groups that are different in their independent variable in an outline similar to an experimental outline. This outline cannot be regarded as an experiment, as it is missing some of the components characterizing an experiment – variable control and variable manipulation. Neither can it be regarded as a quasi-experimental design in which:

"...the groups with which an educational researcher works are likely to be 'intact' groups i.e. groups constituted by means other than random selection, such as a member of a class, or the staff of a college department." (Cohen and Manion 1980 p.188 quoted in Johnson 1994 p.30)

Since the aspiring principals course is only the frame in which the survey is conducted it cannot be regarded as a manipulation Therefore our research, although it has experimental elements, is conducted as a survey.

Interviews

Please refer to p.146* for details of teacher groups and how investigations were conducted. In addition to the experimental research design, structured and semi-structured interviews (in Hebrew) were held with the three groups. The topics and contents of the interviews are presented in Chapter 4.

Research method

In the survey, a comparison of two groups of aspiring principals was conducted. In order to observe if differences between the two groups exist and, if they exist, if they were real or just a probability difference driven by the normal variation within the measurements, a statistical analysis was required.

There are two statistical techniques commonly used for comparing two groups if measurements of the groups are normally distributed:

- The Independent Group t-test - designed to compare means between two groups where there are different subjects in each group;
- The Paired t-test - the same subjects are observed twice, before and after an intervention. In this case the subjects for the two groups are the same or matched.

For the independent group T test:

"Once the data are collected and the assumptions to performing the t-test are satisfied, the means of the two groups are compared. A statistical data analysis programs may perform the mathematics for the t-test. The determination of whether there is a statistically significant difference between the two means is reported as a p-value. Typically, if the p-value is below a certain level (usually 0.05), the conclusion is that there is a difference between the two group means. The lower the p-value, the greater 'evidence' that the two group means are different. It is the p-value that is usually reported in journal articles to support a researcher's hypothesis concerning the observed outcomes for the two groups." (WINKS 2002a)

T-tests are easy to understand and usually easy to carry out. There are, however, a few concerns to be aware of:

"...such as the need, in the Independent Group t-test for example, if the variances are not equal then a variance stabilizing transformation or a modification of the t-test should be performed – usually Welch's t-test (a t-test for unequal variances.) This version of the Independent group t-test takes into account the differences in variances and adjusts the p-value accordingly." (WINKS 2002a)

Mann-Whitney test

If data is not normally distributed there is a need for a different kind of comparison – a non-parametric test. In the case of Independent Groups, the non-parametric test usually performed is the Mann-Whitney test. Where there are more than two groups in

the research, a T test cannot be implemented since it destroys the meaning of the p-value and might lead to a mistake. In such cases there are alternative statistical approaches for multiple group analysis, namely the analysis of variance approach.

The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric independent two-group comparison used to compare two independent groups of sampled data. Unlike the parametric t-test, this non-parametric test makes no assumptions as to normality or equality of variance in the distribution of the data but, since this test does not make a distribution assumption, it is not as powerful.

In the Mann-Whitney test:

" the hypotheses for the comparison of two independent groups are:

(1)Ho: The two samples come from identical populations

(2)Ha: The two samples come from different populations

The hypothesis makes no assumptions about the distribution of the populations. These hypotheses are also sometimes written as testing the equality of the central tendency of the populations.

The test statistic for the Mann-Whitney test is U. This value is compared to a table of critical values for U based on the sample size of each group. If U exceeds the critical value for U at some significance level (usually 0.05) it means that there is evidence to reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis". (WINKS 2002b)

The Mann-Whitney test was used in the research to analyse the two groups of aspiring principals concerning their priority of elements in the first three items of the questionnaires.

Kruskal-Wallis test

In the Mann-Whitney test, a z-value can be used to approximate the significance level for the test. The calculated z is compared to the standard normal significance levels.

The U test is usually performed as a two-tailed test; however, some text will have

tabled one-tailed significance levels for this purpose. If the sample size is large, the z-test can be used for a one-sided test. When there are more than two groups in this comparison, the test becomes a Kruskal-Wallis test.

The Kruskal-Wallis test is a non-parametric independent group comparison used to compare three or more independent groups of sampled data. Unlike the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) parametric independent group (one way ANOVA), the Kruskal-Wallis test makes no assumptions as to normality or equality of variance in the distribution of the data. The test, as a non-parametric test, uses the ranks of the data and not raw values to calculate the statistic. The test is not as powerful as the ANOVA since it does not make a distributional assumption.

In the Kruskal-Wallis test:

"The hypotheses for the comparison of two independent groups are:

(1)Ho: The samples come from identical populations

(2)Ha: The samples come from different populations

The hypothesis makes no assumptions about the distribution of the populations. These hypotheses are also sometimes written as testing the equality of the central tendency of the populations.

The test statistic for the Kruskal-Wallis test is H. This value is compared to a table of critical values for U based on the sample size of each group. If H exceeds the critical value for H at some significance level (usually 0.05) it means that there is evidence to reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis. When sample sizes are small in each group (< 5) and the number of groups is less than 4 a tabled value for the Kruskal-Wallis should be compared to the H statistic to determine the significance level. Otherwise, a Chi-square with k-1 (the number of groups-1) degrees of freedom can be used to approximate the significance level for the test." (WINKS 2002c)

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to confirm reliability of the questionnaire by comparing the results of the three yearly cohorts for each group. Items that were found to be different among the cohorts were noted. In general, consistency was found in differences among the groups but not among the cohorts.

The survey

The survey was conducted during 2001-2003 and included cohort 2001 (G1 and G4), cohort 2002 (G2 and G5) and cohort 2003 (G3 and G6) aspiring principal courses.

Each of the respondents was categorized by the following criteria:

- Type of course – Regular teachers (RT) or Ex military (EM);
- Seniority in education systems - number of years service (experience) in the field of education (1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25, 26 and above);
- Gender – Male, Female;
- Sector - Jewish, Moslem or Christian;
- Military background - no service, compulsory service, career service;
- School level - elementary, junior high and high school;
- Teaching topics - the respondent's specialist subject;
- Managerial position - held by respondent (at school or elsewhere);
- Age of respondent - 20-30, 30-40, 40-50, 50 and above.

Each of the criteria present us with a different dimension of the respondent's background, as detailed below, these can later be used to examine possible explanations for existing differences.

Type of course

- The criterion of the type of course is the main criterion distinguishing between the two groups: regular teachers or ex military.

Years in education

- For regular teachers the minimum years of experience in education required for the course is five years; the average is between 12 and 15 years. For the retired officers, their seniority in the service is counted as experience in education for the course. However, in the questionnaire only their actual experience of classroom teaching was considered.

Gender

- Courses had both male and female students, the majority among the RT were women and among the EM were men.

Sector

- During 2001, 2002 and 2003, EM students were all from the Jewish sector while RT students were Jewish, Moslems and Christians.

Military background

- This criterion distinguished the two groups. In the RT there was no service or compulsory service only, while among the EM all participants were retired military officers.

School type

- Members from both courses taught in all types of schools, elementary, junior high and high school.

Teaching topics

- The teacher as subject specialist, what does he teach and in what field?

Managerial position

- Responses to the question about whether the participant had held any managerial position at school, or elsewhere, differed between the two courses. All members of the EM had held managerial positions in the past, among the teachers there were few that did not have this kind of managerial experience.

Age of respondent

- In the RT group the age varied between 32-55, in the EM group it varied between 42-47.

In many ways the EM group was the more homogeneous group, the RT group was more heterogeneous.

The Questionnaire – Qualities, Abilities and Requirements

The questionnaire included six elements, three ordinal components, a statement and two open questions.

Aspiring principals course - topics of importance

In the first item aspiring principals were presented with various topics covered in courses and were asked to list the topics in accordance with the importance they attributed to them and from which they benefited the most. The course topics included:

- Leadership in theory and practice

- Organizational theories - general and educational
- Self governing school, school autonomy
- School structure and organization
- Visiting various types of school
- School curriculum - design and implementation
- Educational policy
 - Daily school dilemmas
 - School evaluation
 - Educational law
 - Special education
 - Future schooling
 - School discipline

Abilities and capabilities

The second item included a list of abilities and capabilities. Aspiring principals were asked to list which abilities and capabilities they thought they possessed and brought with them to the principals course. Additionally, they were asked to list the topics in accordance with the importance they attributed to them. The list included the following abilities and capabilities:

- The ability to work in a team, both as a member and as a supervisor
(Teamwork)
- The ability to organize elements and systems (Organizational)
- The ability to conduct and maintain appropriate work relationships
(Work relationships)
- The ability to conduct public affairs activity (Public affairs)

- The ability to conduct pedagogical activities (Pedagogy)
- Ability to conduct and perform professional educational guidance (Professional educational guidance)
- The ability to conduct a conflict resolving process (Conflict resolving)
- The ability to conduct budgeting activities (Budgeting)
- The ability to conduct marketing activities (Marketing)

Specialized elements

The third item included a list of areas the aspiring principals were hoping to specialize in during the course. They were asked to list the topics in accordance with the importance they attributed to them. The list included the following areas:

- Pedagogical abilities
- Knowledge of educational systems
- How to plan and manage curriculum
- Organizational theories and implementation methods
- Budgeting theories and implementation methods
- Marketing theories and implementation methods.
- Public affairs
- Work relationships
- Teamwork
- Professional educational guidance
- Educational laws
- Conflict resolution.

Fundamental themes

The fourth item was an open question in which aspiring principals were asked to list five fundamental themes they expected to gain an expertise in during the course.

Among the themes identified were the following:

- Formal and informal duties of the principal
- How to succeed in the principal selection process
- Daily routine
- Curriculum
- Conflict resolving
- Budgeting ability
- Daily school dilemmas
- Educational law
- How to handle discipline
- Lesson schedule
- Educational systems
- External school systems - local authority , ministry of education, work union
- Future schooling
- Inter personal relationships
- Leadership
- Marketing ability
- Managerial tools
- Organizational
- Pedagogy
- Professional educational guides
- Public affairs
- School climate
- School curriculum

- School vision
- Fund raising
- Change construction
- Decision making
- School evaluation
- School structure
- Self governed school
- Special education
- Teamwork
- Work relation

Future principals

In the next item the candidates were presented with the following statement:

***Until today schoolteachers were the natural largest reserve for school principalship.
In the light of changes in the school system, do you think that teachers will
continue to be the main reserve for school principalship?***

The respondents were required to agree or disagree with the statement. It was presented in order to try and examine basic attitudes to the possibility of integrating candidates from outside the field of education into principalship and to discover whether there were significant differences between the groups in their responses to the statement.

Fundamental qualities and abilities of school principals

The last item was an open question in which the candidates were asked to list five fundamental qualities or abilities they expected a school principal to possess. Among those identified were:

- Budgeting ability
- Charisma
- Credibility
- Creativity
- Educational law and knowledge
- Educational systems
- Hard worker
- Initiator
- Honesty
- Flexibility
- Intelligence
- Leadership
- Listening ability
- Open to change
- Marketing ability
- Managerial tools
- Organizational
- Professional educational guides
- Persuasive
- Pedagogical knowledge
- Public affairs
- Curriculum knowledge
- School discipline
- Teamwork
- Work relations

Combining Research Methods

A combination of the questionnaire and the interviews enabled us to use both survey methods to identify, by statistical means, differences and similarities between the two groups. And, by using interviews to define details of attitudes and feelings, the combination is more than just a triangulation of the data. In many ways it enabled us not only to cover a larger area, but also to cover it in greater depth, as in the case of the regular teachers. The technique of group interviewing enabled us to research two groups of principals randomly selected. With these groups a conversation was conducted on related topics. The interaction brought new insights and ideas on some areas not covered by the questionnaire data.

CHAPTER 4 - FINDINGS

Introduction

As referred to earlier, this research attempts to determine the feasibility of developing a specific pre-service training programme to qualify school principals from outside the world of education. This is done by examining a concept of pre-service training on two groups of aspiring principals; retired ex military officers and regular teachers. In the survey the tools and skills needed to prepare these candidates adequately for leading positions in the educational system were identified. An evaluation of the aspiring principals' concepts, abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills was also carried out in order to locate the areas in which they might require training during their transfer into the field of education. The key issue is whether aspiring principals from outside the field of education can identify the need to improve their abilities in those areas of this field that are linked to education.

If the hypotheses presented earlier, can be proved to be valid it should be possible to train candidates from outside the field of education for principalship positions, providing they are presented with the tools and skills identified as specific to their needs.

Procedures

In order to examine the hypotheses, the research conducted included a questionnaire, a set of individual interviews and group interviews.

The questionnaire

The questionnaire was presented to students on two aspiring principal courses conducted at Bait Berl College; a course for regular teachers aspiring to become

principals (RT) and a course for ex military (EM). The research was conducted on three yearly cohorts, 2001, 2002 and 2003, and the questionnaire was presented during the first semester of the course (November-December each year). The questionnaire was answered by 129 respondents in total, 69 regular teachers and 60 ex military personnel. These were divided among the cohorts as follows: 2001 - 28 regular teachers and 12 ex military, 2002 - 20 regular teachers and 22 ex military, 2003 - 21 regular teachers and 26 ex military.

The students were asked to complete the questionnaire and were presented with the aims and purposes of the research, they could choose whether to answer the questionnaire or not. In fact, all course students attending chose to answer. The students could also choose whether to identify themselves on the questionnaire or present it anonymously. Presenting the questionnaire and answering it was, at a later stage, the basis for a discussion on professional development and principal training. At all stages of the course students were encouraged to comment on the course syllabus, aims and concepts.

Items in the questionnaire were selected from existing aspiring principal course syllabi; the Bait Berl syllabus and a collection of other Israeli principal training programmes. They included a variety of topics proposed as required qualities, abilities and capabilities in leadership, management and pedagogy as recommended by aspiring principals, experienced principals and training programme developers.

Lists of items divided into categories of management leadership and pedagogy were presented to aspiring principals in years prior to the research at various stages of the training, for example, identifying abilities and expectations at the beginning of the

course, and themes and fields of expertise at a later stage. The questionnaire, based on this list of items that were already used and validated, was modified and set as a concentrated, defined questionnaire to include six items, three ordinal items, two open questions and a statement. The structure of the questions cover areas included in the "principal training process" as developed in Israeli principal training programmes for both regular teachers and ex-military personnel.

Questionnaire results were analysed using SPSS. For items 1-3 both Mann Whitney and Kruskal Wallis tests were conducted and a correlation coefficient, as an extra statistical test, was conducted among components of each item in the questionnaire. In items 4 and 6 the numbers of items selected in each category were analysed and Chi square tests were conducted. In analysing item 5 a Pearson's Chi Square was conducted, and a correlation coefficient to other elements was also carried out.

Reliability of the consistency of the questionnaire was confirmed by using Kruskal Wallis tests of the three cohorts of both groups. In general, consistency was found in differences among the groups and not among the cohorts. In the first item a significant difference between the yearly cohorts was found in only one element, Organizational theories ($P < .01$). In item 2 a difference was found in Public affairs ($P < .05$) and in item 3 there were differences in Teamwork, $P < .01$ and Organization $P < .05$). Items that were found to be different among the cohorts were noted.

Interviews

Interviews and group interviews were conducted in order to triangulate and confirm survey findings by trying to comprehend the reference of each group to elements in the process, and further examine topics that were presented in the questionnaire. One group of interviews was conducted with a group of 15 regular teachers from all

over the country at various stages of seniority and from different school levels. Interviews were conducted in April 2003 and were structured interviews in which two set questions were presented to each interviewee, together with an open question in which the interviewee could address any topic related to principalship

.
A second group of interviews, which included personal as well as group interviews, was conducted during the period November 2002 to April 2003. These were with ex military and former regular teacher principals from elementary and high schools. Eight personal interviews were conducted, the interviews were semi-structured and based on the questionnaire, but enabled the interviewees to refer to other related topics. The group interview (eight participants, some of whom were interviewed personally) was conducted during a meeting of the “Principals Club” in March 2003.

The third group of interviews consisted of two group interviews conducted two months after the end of the study year. The August 2001 meeting consisted of 15 graduates and the August 2002 meeting consisted of 14 graduates. In the group interviews the groups were presented with a set of guiding questions which they were requested to refer to.

Participants in the second and the third groups of interviews showed great interest in the topic after being presented with the aim of the research. All interviews were analysed to identify key references to research topics.

Respondents' Background Data Findings

In this section of the chapter, we present the background data of the respondents and associated findings from the research.

Population distribution

Based on the respondents' type of course and year of course attendance the following background variables were analysed:

- Seniority in education systems.
- Gender.
- National sector.
- Military service.
- School level.
- Teaching subject matter.
- Management experience.
- Age

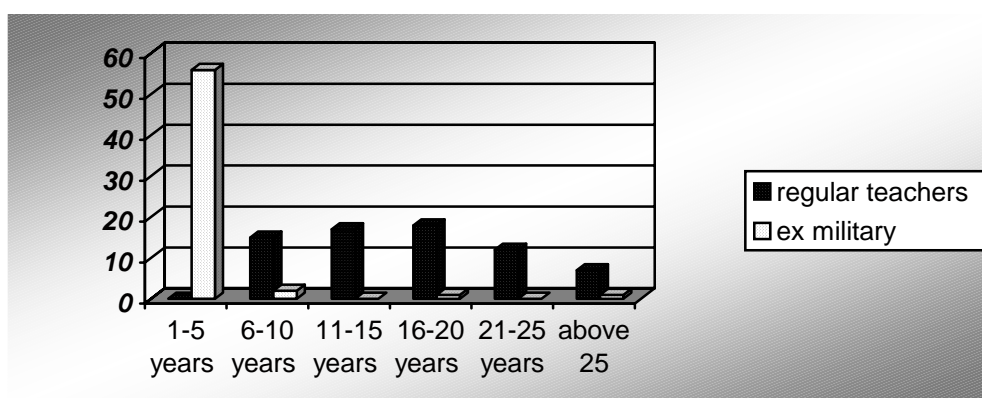
The type of course is the main criterion to distinguish between the two groups: (RT) regular teachers aspiring to become principals or (EM) the ex military group aspiring to become principals.

Seniority in education systems

The number of years experience in the field of education (1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 20-25, 26 and above).

According to employment laws in Israel, seniority in military service is counted as experience in education therefore; most of the EM participants have formal experience of 25 years on average. The questionnaire participants were asked to write down only their actual experience in classroom teaching or in schools as their experience in the field of education, therefore, 56 (out of 60) of EM categorized themselves as having only 1-5 years experience.

As for regular teachers, since the preliminary requirement for participating in a principals' course is at least five years experience, the student distribution was: 15 participants had 6-10 years experience, 17 had 11-15 years experience, 18 had 16-20 years experience, 12 had 21-25 years experience and seven had 25 years and above. (See Table 4-1)



Tab 4-1 Both courses - seniority in education

In an X^2 test, relationship was found between seniority and course type ($P < .01$).

Gender

Since the majority of military service people in the Israeli Defence Forces are male, 51 participants in the EM course were male, more than 76 percent, compared to only 14 percent female. In the RT course, on the other hand, since the majority of elementary and junior high principals and staff are female, candidates for principalship are female, therefore, 76 percent of course participants were female and only 14 percent were male (see Tab 4-2).

Since there is a significant difference in gender between the two groups, in analysing the responses to the questionnaires, gender was kept under control to

make sure that the significant differences found in some of the responses were not because of gender but because of the course type. Among regular teachers significant differences between male and female were found in four items while among ex military a significant difference between male and female was found in only one.

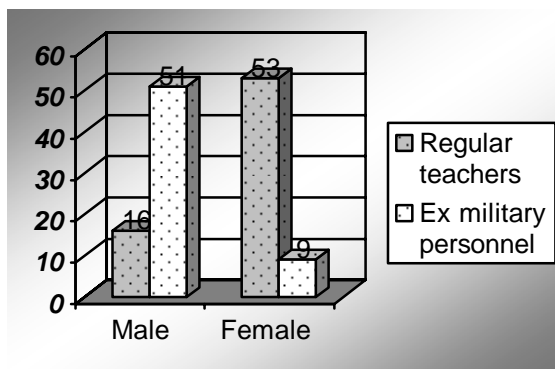


Table 4-2 Course participants' gender

In an X^2 test, relationship was found between gender and course ($P < .01$).

Sector

The majority of the population in Israel is Jewish, but there are also Moslem or Christian Arabs as citizens within the country. Moslem or Christian Arab populations have their own schools as part of the national education system with teachers from their sectors. Bait Berl College has within it an Arab Teachers College; however, Arabs aspiring to become principals acquire their principalship certificate at a regular principal's course. Therefore Jewish, Moslem and Christian students attend the course in the following proportions; 75 percent Jewish, 25 percent Moslem and Christian.

In the Israeli Defence Forces there are a very small number of non-Jewish (non-Jewish compulsory service only includes Druze, however, Moslems and

Christians can also volunteer for service) therefore, on the EM course, less than two percent are non-Jewish, the rest are Jewish (see Table 4-3).

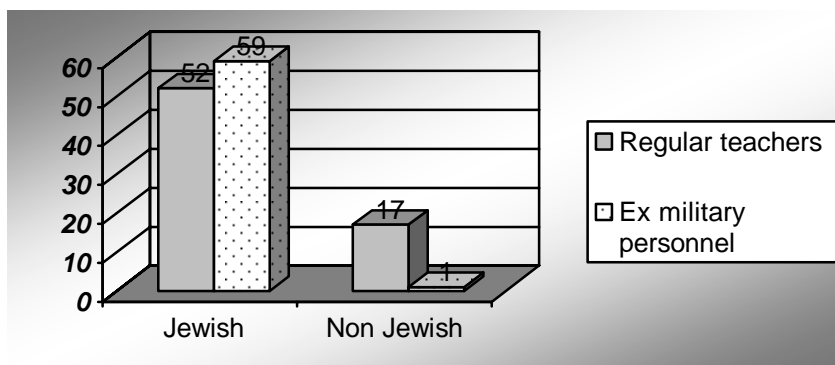


Table 4-3 Course participants' sector

In an X^2 test, relationship was found between sector and course type ($P < .01$).

Military service

This background question distinguished between course participants with no service or compulsory service only (for those who did not choose the military as their career), or career service for ex military personnel. These criteria differentiate the two groups since, among the EM; all participants were ex military retired career officers while in the RT group there was no service or compulsory service only (see Table 4-4).

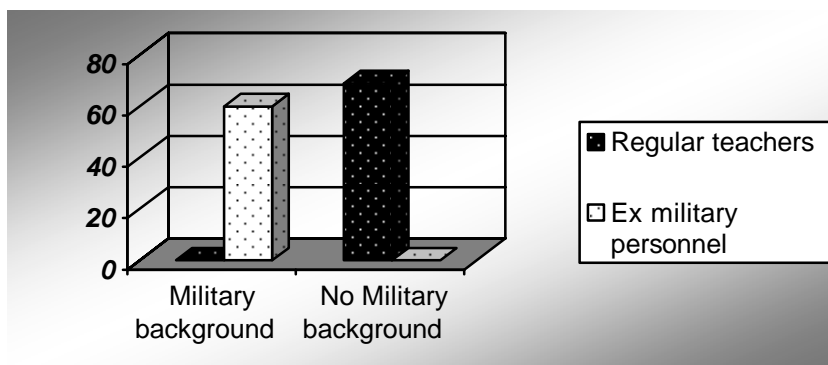


Table 4-4 Course participants' military background

In an X^2 test, relationship was found between military service and course type ($P < .01$).

School level

Aspiring principals are trained for principalship for all levels of schooling: elementary school, junior high and high school. Most of the regular teachers tend to choose and compete for principalship at their school level. Since high school teachers receiving their teaching certificate from universities tend to join principals courses at universities, only 20 percent of regular teachers are from the high school level. Principal courses at Bait-Berl College, as an elementary and junior high school teacher training centre, are more popular among teachers at those levels. Therefore, 48 percent of the regular teachers are elementary school teachers and 32 percent are junior high school teachers.

As for the ex military, their teaching certificate is for junior high and high school levels, Bait-Berl is the only training centre for ex military teachers. Therefore, among the ex military there are no elementary teachers, 33 percent are junior high school teachers and 66 percent are high school teachers (see Table 4-5).

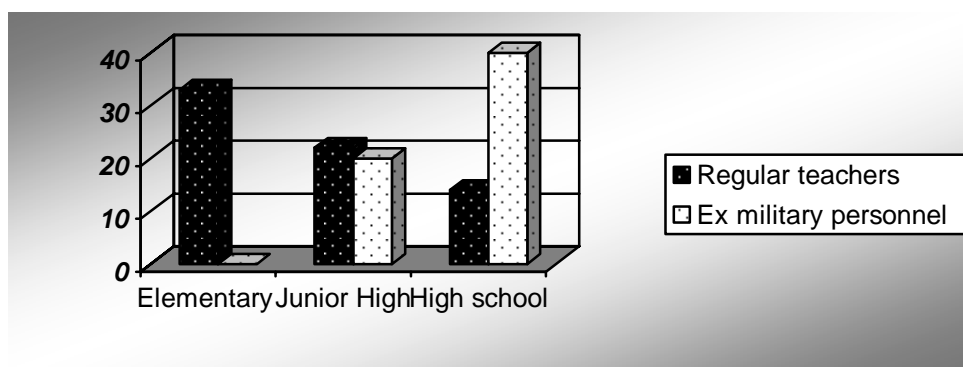


Table 4-5 Course participants' school level

In an X^2 test, relationship was found between school type and course type, ($P < .01$), between school type and course year ($P < .01$) and between schools types, course type and course year ($P < .01$).

Teaching subject matter

Aspiring principals came from different fields of interest and knowledge from which they selected their teaching subject. For this research the teaching subjects were divided into five groups: Science, Humanities, General and Special Education, Languages and Others. Among regular teachers 18 percent are Science teachers, 18 percent Humanities teachers, 18 percent General and Special Education teachers, 13 percent Language teachers and 8 percent teachers of other subjects.

Among the ex military 57 percent are Humanities teachers (History is the recommended subject for officers' Bachelor degrees), 23 percent Science teachers, 17 percent General and Special Education teachers and three percent Language teachers, none teach other subjects (see Table 4-6).

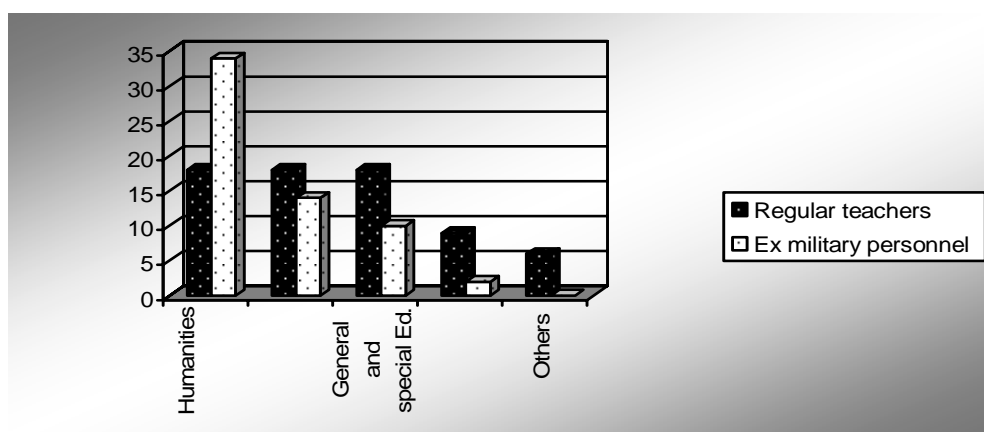


Table 4-6 Course participants' teaching subject matter

In an X^2 test, relationship was found between teaching subject matter and course type ($P < .01$).

Managerial position

Regular teachers aspiring to become principals were selected for the course based on recommendation, professional history and teaching experience, with a preference for some kind of managerial experience, therefore, 70 percent of the course participants have managerial experience. The question of whether the participants had held any managerial position at school or elsewhere was mainly relevant to the regular teachers' course because a requirement for the EM course was retirement at major rank and above, therefore, all (98 percent) EM course members had held managerial positions in the past (see Table 4-7).

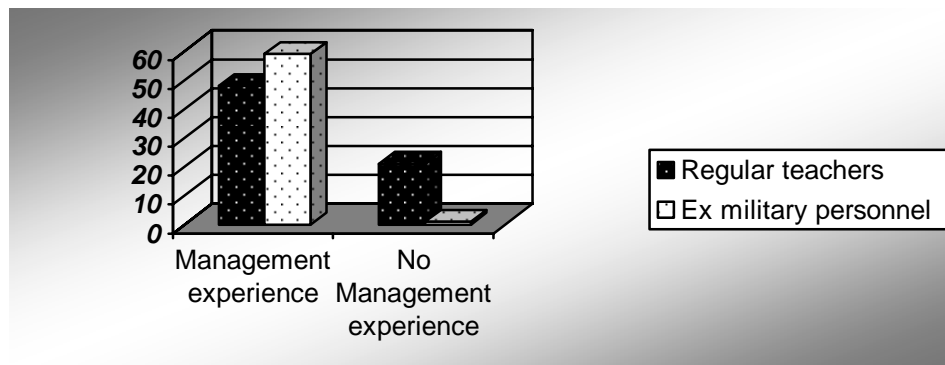


Table 4-7 Course participants' management experience

In an X^2 test, relationship was found between managerial position and course type ($P < .01$).

Age

The respondents' ages were divided into four groups 20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51 and above. Regular teachers, with the requirement for at least five years of experience, had less than six percent in the 20-30 age group; the majority was divided equally between the 31-40 (45 percent) and 41-50 (45 percent) age groups while only four percent were older than 51. As for the ex military, since retirement age for the Israeli Defence Forces is between 40 and 45, more than 78 percent are

in the 41-50 age group, eight percent are less than 40, but there are larger numbers in the over 51 age group (13 percent) than the regular teachers (see Table 4-8).

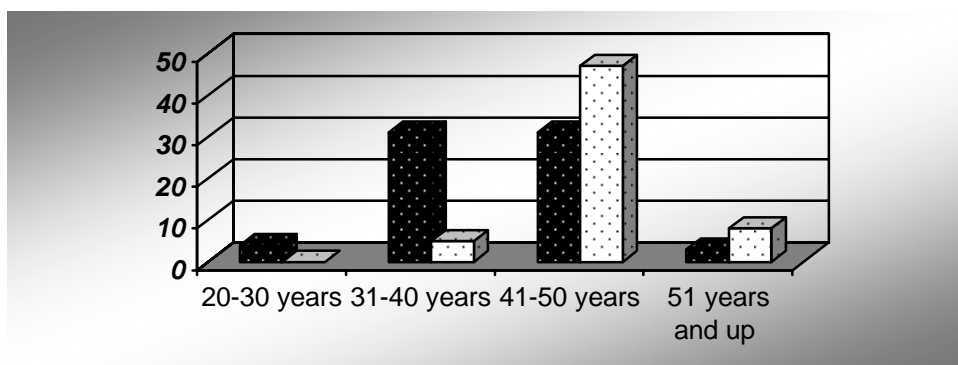


Table 4-8 Course participants' age.

In an X^2 test, relationship was found between age and course type ($P < .01$).

Two clearly different groups

The background data on course participants demonstrates the sources for the two courses; in short, they are two different groups with the same aspirations to become school principals. The regular teachers represent aspiring principals coming from the educational world, while the ex military officers represent aspiring principals coming from outside the educational world. As can be seen, the ex military group is a more homogeneous group while the regular teachers are a more heterogeneous group. This affects the ability to identify needs and requirement of this group and provide it with the necessary amendments. As mentioned earlier, the gender element was kept under control to triangulate that differences were the results of course type.

Questionnaire Results – Qualities, Abilities, Capabilities and Requirements

Item 1 - Aspiring principals course - importance of syllabus elements

In the first item, aspiring principals on both courses were presented with a list of topics covered in the course syllabus and asked to list the topics in accordance with the importance they attributed to them and from which they would benefit most. Each of the topics was a leadership, management or pedagogical topic.

Course topics included:

- Leadership topics:
 - Leadership in theory and practice.
 - Daily school dilemmas.
 - School discipline.
- Management topics:
 - Organizational theories- general and educational theories.
 - School based management -school autonomy.
 - School structure and organization.
 - Future school.
 - Educational laws.
- Pedagogical topics:
 - Visiting various types of schools.
 - School curriculum-designing and implementing.
 - Educational policy.
 - School evaluation.
 - Special education.

Responses - both courses

Both courses (N=129) rated the items in the following way, this represents the preferences of aspiring principals in general (see Table 4-9).

	Mean Rank	STD
Daily school dilemmas	5.49 Out of 13.	3.398
Leadership	5.5/13	4.167
School structure	5.54/13	3.164
School visits	5.99/13	3.842
School curriculum	6/13	3.395
School based management	6.44/13	3.756
Educational policy	6.99/13	3.571
Organizations	7.13/13	4.125
School evaluation	7.26/13	2.954
Educational laws	7.51/13	3.386
Future school	7.53/13	3.605
Special education	7.86/13	3.443
School discipline	9.31/13	3.774

Table 4-9 Importance of course topics - both courses' selection

Regular teachers

Regular teachers (N=69) selected the following items as their priorities:

- Leadership-Leadership (rated 3.28 out of a choice of 13)
- Organizations-Management (5.15/13)
- School structure-Management (5.82/13)
- School based management-Management (5.84/13)
- Daily school dilemmas-Leadership (6.16/13)

All items were rated in the following way (Table 4-10)

Regular teachers	Mean rank	STD
Leadership	3.28	2.724
Organizations	5.15	3.628
School structure	5.82	2.741
School based management	5.84	3.699
Daily school dilemmas	6.16	3.497
School visits	6.78	3.753
School curriculum	6.85	3.187
Educational laws	7.37	3.638
Future school	7.66	3.72
School evaluation	7.67	2.47
Special education	7.85	3.105
Educational policy	7.88	3.67
School discipline	10.36	3.687

Table 4-10 Importance of course topics - regular teachers' selection

Their selection of the importance of the course topics was as follows:

- Management topics (6.37/13) first,
- Leadership topics (6.60/13) second,
- Pedagogical topics (7.41/13) last.

Ex Military

The ex military (N=60) selected the following items as their priorities:

- Daily school dilemmas-Leadership (4.73/13)
- School curriculum-Pedagogy (5.05/13)
- School visits-Pedagogy (5.10/13)
- School based management-Management (5.12/13)
- School structure-Management (5.22/13)
- Educational policy-Pedagogy (6/13)

All items were rated in the following way (Table 4-11)

Ex military	Mean rank	STD
Daily school dilemmas	4.73	3.139
School curriculum	5.05	3.392
School visits	5.1	3.777
School based management	5.12	3.733
School structure	5.22	3.589
Educational policy	6	3.205
School evaluation	6.78	3.388
Future school	7.38	3.493
Educational laws	7.66	3.1
Special education	7.87	3.811
Leadership	8.07	4.086
School discipline	8.13	3.544
Organizations	9.41	3.444

Table 4-11 Importance of course topics - ex military selection

Their selection of the importance of the course topics was as follows:

- Pedagogical items (6.16/13) first,
- Management topics (6.96/13) second,
- Leadership topics (6.98/13) last.

Mann-Whitney test

A Mann-Whitney test of the two groups, conducted to discover if there was a significant difference between the two groups in their response, found that, in prioritizing the course topics, there was a significant difference in eight out of 13 topics. The results were as follows:

- In the field of Leadership:
 - Leadership (P<. 01: RT < EM)
 - Daily school dilemmas (P<. 05: RT > EM)
 - School discipline (P<. 01: RT < EM)
- In the field of Management:
 - Organizational theories (P<. 01: RT > EM)
 - School based management (P<. 05: RT < EM))
- In the field of Pedagogy:
 - Schools visit (P<. 05: RT < EM))
 - School curriculum (P<. 01: RT < EM))
 - Educational policy (P<. 05: RT < EM))

All items were rated in the following way (Table 4-12).

Mann-Whitney (N=127)	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymptote. Sig. (2- tailed)
Organizations	775	-5.81	0.000
Leadership	718	6.119	0.000
School discipline	1195	-4	0.000
School curriculum	1348	3.214	0.001
Educational policy	1392	2.994	0.003
School visits	1447	-2.6	0.009
Daily dilemmas	1515	2.271	0.023
School based management	1602	-1.98	0.048
School evaluation	1617	-1.62	0.105
School structure	1661	1.406	0.160
Future school	1858	-0.42	0.672
Educational laws	1912	-0.32	0.750
Special education	1984	-0.13	0.898

Table 4-12 Importance of course topics - Mann-Whitney test

Correlations

In correlation coefficient between the prioritized items of both courses the following results emerged:

	Daily school dilemmas	Leadership	School discipline	Future school	Organizations	School based management	School structure	Educational laws	Educational policy	School curriculum	School evaluation	School visits	Special education
Daily dilemmas	1	c-	c+		c-		c+						
Leadership	c-	1	c-		c+	c+		c-	c-	c-	c-		
School discipline	c+	c-	1		c-	c-				c+			
Future school				1		c+			c-				
Organizations	c-	c+	c-		1					c-		c-	
school based management		c+	c-	c+		1	c-		c-	c-			
School structure	c+					c-	1						
Educational laws		c-						1	c+				
Educ. policy		c-		c-		c-		c+	1				
School curriculum		c-	c+		c-	c-				1	c+		
School evaluation		c-								c+	1		c-
School visits					c-							1	
Special education			c+								c-		1

Table 4-13 Importance of course topics - correlation coefficient

In correlation coefficient, correlation higher than 0.25 was found for both courses between the prioritized items and the following results emerged:

- Educational policy to Educational laws ** (0.254) and Future school ** (-0.265).
- Leadership to School curriculum ** (-0.350), Daily school dilemmas ** (-0.250), School discipline ** (-0.308) and Organizations ** (0.541).
- Organizations to School curriculum** (-0.266) and Daily school dilemmas ** (-0.285).
- School curriculum to School visits *(0.272).
- School based management to School discipline ** (-0.311), School structure * (-0.267) and Future schools ** (0.255).

For RT course:

- Educational laws to Leadership * (-0.287), Educational policy * (0.273) and Future school * (-0.260).
- Educational policy to School visits (-0.313).
- School based management to Future school * (0.274), School discipline * (-0.285) and Daily school dilemmas * (-0.268).
- School visits to curriculum ** (0.272).

For EM course:

- Daily school dilemmas to Organizations * (-0.263), Educational policy * (0.312), School structure * (0.328) and Organizations ** (-0.263).
- Educational policy to Educational laws * (0.263), Future school** (-0.388), and School based management ** (-0.388).
- Leadership to School discipline * (-0.263), School evaluation ** (-0.279), Daily school dilemmas ** (-0.250), School curriculum** (-0.400) and Organizations ** (0.478).
- School discipline to School visits * (-0.332) and Special education * (0.260).
- School structure to School based management * (-0.307).
- School visits to Educational laws * (-0.339).

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2 tailed)

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2 tailed)

Summary

The first item in the questionnaire was presented to the aspiring principals on both courses with a list of topics covered in the course syllabus. They were asked to list the topics in accordance with the importance they attributed to them and from which they would benefit most. Each of the topics was a leadership, management or pedagogical

topic. Both courses results prioritised course topics; the results, in the leadership, management and pedagogy categories, are presented in Table 4-14.

ITEM 1 - COURSE TOPICS IMPORTANCE REQUIREMENTS	REGULAR TEACHERS	EX MILITARY
Leadership	2	3
Management	1	2
Pedagogy	3	1

Table 4-14 Selection of course topics importance

Item 2 Aspiring principals course – significant abilities

In the second item, the aspiring principals on both courses were presented with a list of abilities and capabilities they felt they possessed and brought with them to the course. The respondents were asked to list the abilities and capabilities, in accordance with the significance they attributed to that ability. Each of the abilities and capabilities was in the field of leadership, management or pedagogy.

The list included:

- Leadership abilities and capabilities:
 - Work relations - the ability to conduct and maintain appropriate work relations.
 - Teamwork - the ability to work in a team, both as a member and as a supervisor.
 - Conflict resolving - the ability to conduct conflict resolving processes.
 - Public affairs – the ability to conduct and implement external relations and activities.

- Management abilities and capabilities:
 - Organizational ability - the ability to organize elements and systems
 - Budgeting ability - the ability to conduct budgeting activities
 - Marketing ability - the ability to conduct marketing activities
- Pedagogical abilities:
 - Pedagogical ability - the ability to conduct pedagogical activities
 - Professional educational guidance – the ability to conduct and perform professional educational guidance.

Responses -both courses

Both aspiring principal courses (N=129) selected the following abilities as their significant abilities; these represent the preferences of aspiring principals in general (see Table 4.15).

	Mean Rank	STD
Teamwork	(2.53/9)	Leadership
Organizational ability	(3.26/9)	Management
Work relation	(4.46/9)	Leadership
Pedagogical ability	(4.47/9)	Pedagogy
Conflict resolving	(5.16/9)	Leadership
Professional Educational guidance-	(5.22/9)	Pedagogy
Public affairs	(5.25 /9)	Leadership

Table 4-15 Both courses - significant abilities selection

Regular teachers

Regular teachers (N=69) selected the following six abilities as their significant abilities:

- Teamwork–Leadership (rated 2.40 out of a choice of 9)
- Organizational ability–Management (3.40/9)
- Pedagogical ability–Pedagogy (3.97/9)
- Work relations -Leadership (4.46/9)
- Ability to provide Professional educational guidance-Pedagogy (4.97/9)
- Public affairs-Leadership (5.15/9).

The three items selected last were:

- Conflict resolving-Leadership (5.49/9)
- Marketing abilities–Management (6.66/9)
- Budgeting abilities–Management (7.42/9)

In listing the abilities and capabilities they felt they possessed and brought with them to the course, regular teachers listed:

Pedagogical abilities and capabilities (4.33/9) – first,
Leadership abilities and capabilities (4.36/9) – second,
Management abilities and capabilities (5.8/9) - last.

Ex military

Ex military (N=60) selected the following six abilities as their significant abilities:

- Teamwork–Leadership (rated 2.68 out of a choice of 9)
- Organizational ability–Management (3.10 /9)
- Work relation –Leadership (4.47/9)
- Conflict resolving-Leadership (4.78/9)
- Pedagogical ability–Pedagogy (5.25/9)
- Public affairs-Leadership (5.30/9).

The three items to be selected last were:

- Ability to provide Professional educational guidance-Pedagogy (5.50/9)
- Marketing abilities–Management (6.03/9)
- Budgeting abilities–Management (6.46/9)

In listing the abilities and capabilities they felt they possessed and brought with them, the ex military listed:

Leadership abilities and capabilities (4.30/9) - first,

Management abilities and capabilities (5.20/9) – second,

Pedagogical abilities and capabilities (5.47/9) - last.

Mann-Whitney test

In a Mann-Whitney test of the two groups it was found that, in selecting their significant abilities, a significance difference was found in only two out of nine topics as follows:

- In the field of Management: Budgeting ability ($P < .05$: EM= RT <BC)

- In the field of Pedagogy: Pedagogy ($P < .01$: EM > RT)
- In the field of Leadership: None (see Table 4-16).

Mann-Whitney	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymptote. Sig. (2-tailed)
Pedagogical	1344	-3.226	0.001
Budgeting ability	1397.5	-2.65	0.008
Conflict resolving	1589	-1.916	0.055
Marketing ability	1674	-1.352	0.176
Pro. Edu. Guides	1719.5	-1.114	0.265
Organizational	1796.5	-1.035	0.301
Teamwork	1880.5	-0.624	0.532
Public affairs	1868.5	-0.511	0.609
Work relation	1971.5	-1.168	0.866

Table 4-16 Item 2 - Mann-Whitney test

Correlations

In correlation coefficient, correlation higher than 0.25 was found for both courses between the prioritised items, the following results emerged.

For both courses:

- Budgeting ability, correlation was found to Marketing ability * (0.228) and Professional educational guidance** (-0.296)
- Marketing ability, correlation was found to Professional Educational guidance ** (-0.291)
- Organizational, correlation was found to Budgeting ability * (-0.326), Teamwork ** (-0.327), Professional educational guidance ** (-0.296) and Conflict solving ** (-0.311)
- Pedagogical, correlation was found to Budgeting ability ** (-0.326), Marketing ability ** (-0.339), Work relations ** (-0.321) and Professional educational guidance ** (0.355).
- Public affairs, correlation was found to: Professional educational guidance ** (-0.274).

- Work relations, correlation was found to Professional educational guidance ** (-0.274).

For the regular teachers' course:

- Budgeting ability, correlation was found to Professional educational guidance * (0.294).
- Marketing ability, correlation was found to Pedagogical ** (-0.368) and Professional educational guidance * (-0.250).
- Organizational, correlation was found to Team work ** (-0.282), Professional educational guidance ** (-0.296) and Conflict resolving ** (-0.324)
- Pedagogical, correlation was found to Marketing ability ** (-0.368), Work relations ** (-0.420) and Professional educational guidance ** (0.346).
- Work relations, correlation was found to Professional Educational guidance ** (-0.322).

For the ex military course:

- Marketing ability, correlation was found to Public affairs ** (0.283) and Professional educational guidance ** (-0.289).
- Pedagogical correlation was found to Budgeting ability ** (-0.375) and Professional educational guidance ** (0.315).
- Organizational, correlation was found to Team work ** (-0.363) and Conflict resolving ** (-0.378).

- Public affairs, correlation was found to Professional educational guidance ** (-0.289).
- Teamwork, correlation was found with Conflict resolving *(0.266).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)

Summary

Item 2 presented to the aspiring principals on both courses a list of qualities, abilities and capabilities and asked them to select the ones they believed they possessed and brought with them to the course as part of their own personal qualities. It was found that there was a difference between the two aspiring groups (see Table 4-17).

<u>Item 2 Aspiring principals course – significant abilities</u>	REGULAR TEACHERS	EX MILITARY
Leadership	2	1
Management	3	2
Pedagogy	1	3

Table 4-17 Aspiring principals courses – significant abilities

Item 3 - Expertise and capabilities to be gained

In the third item, aspiring principals from both courses were presented with a list of areas of expertise and capabilities to be gained in the training process and asked to prioritise them. Each of the areas was a leadership, management or pedagogical area and included:

- Leadership areas:
 - Work relations – the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting and maintaining appropriate work relations.

- Teamwork - the area of theories and implementing methods of working in a team, both as a member and as a supervisor.
- Conflict resolving - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting conflict resolving processes.
- Public affairs - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting public affairs and public relations activities.

- Management areas:
 - Organizations - the area of theories and implementing methods of organizing elements and systems.
 - Budgeting - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting budgeting activities.
 - Marketing - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting marketing activities.
 - Educational systems – the area of theories, structures and the construction of educational systems.
 - Educational laws - the area of knowledge and understanding of educational laws.

- Pedagogical areas:
 - Pedagogy - the area of theories and methods in conducting pedagogical activities.
 - Professional educational guidance - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting and performing professional guidance in educational systems.

- Curriculum - the area of theories and practice of establishing and implementing the curriculum.

Responses - both courses

Both courses (N=129) selected the following items as their priority selection (see Table 4–18).

	Mean rank	Area
Educational systems	(3.83/12)	Management
Organizations	(4.24/12)	Management
Educational laws -	(5.15/12)	Management
Pedagogy	(6.25/12)	Pedagogy
Budgeting	(6.26/12)	Management

Table 4-18 Prioritizing results of selected topics

Regular teachers

Regular teachers (N=69) selected the following areas as their priorities:

- Organizations – Management (3/12)
- Educational systems - Management (4/12)
- Educational laws - Management (5/12)
- Budgeting - Management (6/12)
- Marketing ability - Management (6/12)

In their selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities to be gained at the course regular teachers prioritised:

- Management areas (5.09/12) first,

- Leadership areas (6.62/12) second,
- Pedagogical areas (7.60/12) last.

Ex military

Ex military personnel (N=60) selected the following items as their priorities:

- Educational systems - Management (3/12)
- Pedagogy – pedagogy (5/12)
- Educational laws - Management (5/12)
- Organizations – Management (5/12)
- Curriculum - Pedagogy (6/12)

In their selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities to be gained at the course ex military personnel prioritised:

- Management areas (5.36/12) first,
- Pedagogical areas (6.20/12) second,
- Leadership areas (7.52/12) last.

Mann-Whitney test

In a Mann-Whitney test of the two groups (see tab 400-19), it was found that, in prioritizing areas of expertise and capabilities to be gained from the course, a significant difference was found between the two groups in five out of 12 areas as follows:

- In the field of Leadership:
 - Work relations (P<. 05: EM> RT)
- In the field of Management:
 - Educational systems (P<. 05: EM> RT)
 - Organizational theories (P<. 05: EM> RT)

- In the field of Pedagogy:
 - Pedagogy (P<. 05: EM> RT)
 - Curriculum (P<. 05: EM> RT)
 -

Mann-Whitney	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymptote. Significance. (2-tailed)
Pedagogy	1211	-3.639	0.000
Curriculum	978	-4.809	0.000
Work relation	1370	-2.962	0.003
Organization	1461	-2.68	0.007
Educational sys.	1496.5	-2.503	0.012
Budgeting	1577.5	-1.818	0.069
Pro. Educ. Guides	1606	-1.799	0.072
Teamwork	1599	-1.563	0.118
Marketing	1790.5	-0.892	0.372
Public affairs	1778	-0.821	0.412
Educational laws	1821.5	-0.444	0.657
Conflict resolving	1856	-0.27	0.787

Table 4-19 Item 3 - Mann-Whitney test

Correlations

In correlation coefficient, correlation higher than 0.25 was found for both courses between the prioritised items, the following results emerged:

For both courses:

- Budgeting, correlation was found to Marketing** (0.405), Professional educational guidance ** (-0.278) and Teamwork ** (-0.256).
- Curriculum, correlation was found to Public affairs** (-0.250) and Professional educational guidance ** (-0.189).
- Educational systems, correlation was found to Curriculum** (0.261), Work relations ** (-0.361) and Conflict resolving (-0.313).

- Marketing, correlation was found to Public affairs** (0.480) and Teamwork* (-0.289).
- Organization, correlation was found to Educational laws * (-0.322).
- Pedagogy, correlation was found to Educational systems** (0.330), Curriculum** (0.467), Marketing ** (-0.256), Public affairs** (-0.285) and Professional educational guidance ** (-0.256).
- Professional educational guidance, correlation was found to Teamwork ** (0.383).
- Work relations, correlation was found to Teamwork* (-0.372).

For regular teachers:

- Budgeting, correlation was found to Marketing** (0.352), Professional educational guidance * (-0.255) and Teamwork ** (-0.329).
- Curriculum, correlation was found to Pedagogy * (0.290) and Public affairs * (-0.256).
- Educational systems, correlation was found to Work relations ** (-0.351).
- Marketing, correlation was found to Public affairs** (0.480) and Teamwork * (-0.395).
- Organization, correlation was found to Teamwork ** (-0.370) and Educational laws ** (-0.355).
- Pedagogy, correlation was found to Curriculum * (0.290) and Public affairs * (-0.303).
- Teamwork, correlation was found to Conflict resolving * (0.279).
- Work relations, correlation was found to Educational systems ** (-0.351) and Teamwork * (0.404).

For ex military personnel:

- Budgeting, correlation was found to Marketing ** (0.420) and Professional educational guidance ** (-0.380).
- Curriculum, correlation was found to Marketing * (-0.266), Educational laws * (0.263) and Conflict resolving ** (-0.373).
- Educational systems, correlation was found to Curriculum ** (0.392), Marketing * (-0.262), Educational laws * (0.303) and Conflict resolving * (-0.313).
- Teamwork, correlation was found to Educational laws * (-0.308).
- Marketing, correlation was found to Public affairs ** (0.512).
- Pedagogy, correlation was found to Curriculum ** (0.448), Organization * (-0.288), Marketing ** (-0.344), Public affairs * (-0.324), Professional educational guidance ** (-0.361) and Educational laws * (0.306).
- Professional educational guidance, correlation was found to Teamwork ** (0.383) and Conflict resolving ** (0.344).
- Public affairs, correlation was found to Educational laws * (-0.306).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)

Summary

In this item, aspiring principals from both courses were presented with a list of areas of expertise and capabilities to be gained from the training process and asked to prioritise them in accordance with the significance they attributed to them. Each of the areas of expertise and capabilities was in the field of leadership, management or

pedagogy. It was found that there was a difference between the two aspiring groups as to areas of expertise and capabilities they expected to achieve (see Table 4-20).

ITEM 3 - EXPERTISE AND CAPABILITIES TO BE GAINED - PRIORITIES	REGULAR TEACHERS	EX MILITARY
Leadership	2	3
Management	1	1
Pedagogy	3	2

Table 4-20 Expertise and capabilities to be gained - priorities

Item 4 -Fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals expected to obtain from the course.

The content and structure of the school principal course is a central and essential element in the process for the aspiring principals. Item 4 asked them to select themes and skills they felt they needed to acquire to qualify them for the role of principal. All research participants were asked to list five themes and skills that they thought were the most essential for fulfilling the role of a principal and which they expected to obtain from the course.

This item was an open question in which the aspiring principals of both courses listed the five fundamental themes and main skills he/she expected to gain from the course, in total 21 categories were selected.

The themes and skills chosen by the participants were categorized (by the researcher) into Leadership, Management or Pedagogical themes and skills. The aspiring students selected elements were as follows:

Leadership

- Conflict resolution—means of resolving disagreements at various levels.
- Public affairs-tools to set up conduct and perform a net of external and internal relations.
- Teamwork-instruments to set up a team instruct it and direct it.
- Work relations-tools with which to create and maintain good work relations with staff, students and parents.
- Daily school dilemmas-a set of means to confront and solve the challenges arising on a daily basis at school.
- Leadership—practical tools for leadership implementation at school and community level.

Management

- Budgeting ability-the means to set up, maintain and implement the budgeting process.
- Managerial tools-variety of methods to be used when dealing with managerial topics.
- Organizational tools-variety of generic implements to handle organizational substance.

- School structure-the means to understand, plan, design and establish educational systems.
- School based management-understanding the concept of self-governing management and implementing it.
- Marketing tools-to establish and maintain the marketing process of systems, approaches and ideas.
- Educational laws-knowing, understanding and implementing the complex educational laws.
- Educational systems—a set of tools to improve the capability of knowing and understanding the complexity of educational systems.

Pedagogy

- School curriculum—understanding the essence of a school study programme and being provided with the means to execute it.
- School evaluation-a toolbox for evaluating various elements at school such as teachers' performance and students' achievements.
- Future school-the means to implement theories of advancing education and improving school.
- Special education-understanding the meaning and requirements of learning disabilities and children with special needs.
- Pedagogy-practical tools for the implementation of pedagogical approaches at school and community level.
- Professional educational guidance-enhancing the capability to provide professional guidance in all areas concerning pedagogical activities.

Responses - both courses

Both courses (N=129) selected the following items as their priorities:

- Educational systems (68%) Management
- Educational laws (45%) Management
- Pedagogy (35%) Pedagogy
- Budgeting ability (32%) Management
- Daily school dilemmas (32%) Leadership
- School evaluation (28%) Pedagogy

Regular teachers

The regular teachers (N=69) selected six elements as their priority selection of fundamental themes and main skills they expected to obtain from the course as follows:

- Team Work (51%) Leadership
- Budgeting abilities (47%) Management
- Educational laws (45%) Management
- Organizational (40%) Management
- Leadership (35%) Leadership
- Work relations (32%) Leadership

In their selection regular teachers placed Management elements (31%) first, Leadership elements (27%) second and Pedagogical elements (10%) last.

In Leadership the top three were:

- Teamwork 51%
- Leadership 35%

- Work relation 32%

In Management the top three were:

- Budgeting ability 47%
- Educational laws 45%
- Organizational 40%

In Pedagogy the top three were:

- Professional educational guidance 20%
- Pedagogy 16%
- Curriculum 15%

Ex military

The ex military (N=60) selected seven elements as their priorities as follows

:

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------|------------|
| ○ Educational systems | (60%) | Management |
| ○ Educational laws | (39%) | Management |
| ○ Leadership | (32%) | Leadership |
| ○ Daily school dilemmas | (30%) | Leadership |
| ○ Curriculum | (27%) | Pedagogy |
| ○ Budgeting ability | (27%) | Management |
| ○ Managerial tools | (21%) | Management |

In their selection ex military personnel placed Management elements (28%) first, Pedagogical elements (21%) second and Leadership elements (19%) last.

In Leadership the top three were:

- Daily school dilemmas 32%
- Teamwork 22%
- Work relations 20%

In Management the top three were:

- Educational systems 68%
- Educational laws 45%
- Budgeting ability 32%

In Pedagogy the top three were:

- Pedagogy 35%
- School evaluation 28%
- Curriculum 28%

Low priority elements

As it was an open question and selection was free, it is important to note those elements that were selected by less than ten percent of respondents.

In Leadership - only seven percent of the ex military selected Leadership and Conflict resolving; 13 percent of the regular teachers chose Public affairs, Daily school dilemmas and Conflict resolving, but no item was selected by less than ten percent of the teachers.

In Management - eight percent of the ex military selected Future School and marketing abilities; nine percent of regular teachers selected School structure.

In Pedagogy – four percent of the ex military selected Special education, six percent Professional educational guidance and eight percent School evaluation; six percent of regular teachers selected Special education and four percent selected Professional educational guidance and School evaluation.

Number of tools selected in each category -Chi Square tests

In a Chi square test there was no relation found between the number of tools selected in each category and the type of course. A second Chi square test found no relation between the number of tools selected in each category and the year of attendance.

Summary

The selection of fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals expected to obtain from the course was consistent with selections made in earlier items. Regular teachers selected Management elements first, Leadership elements second and Pedagogical elements last as before. Ex military selected Management elements first, Pedagogical elements second and Leadership elements last. The selection is consistent and the differences are clear.

ITEM 4 -FUNDAMENTAL THEMES AND MAIN SKILLS ASPIRING PRINCIPALS EXPECTED TO OBTAIN FROM THE COURSE.	REGULAR TEACHERS	EX MILITARY
Leadership	2	3
Management	1	1
Pedagogy	3	2

Table 4-21 Fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals expected to obtain from the course

Item 5 - The source of future principals

In the fifth item, the respondents were presented with the following statement: "Until today school teachers were the natural largest reserve for school principalship, in the light of the changes in the school system, do you think that teachers will continue to be the main reserve for school principalship?" The respondents were asked to agree or disagree with the statement.

Responses

The percentage of students agreeing with the statement was regular teachers 58 percent and ex military 40 percent, the distribution among the cohorts is presented in Table 4-22. In essence, it appeared that there was a difference in attitude toward the future source of principals and there was also a tendency for that difference to be greater with the later cohorts. Pearson's Chi square test (value 1.549^b.DF -1 and Asymptote significance (2 tailed) 0.213) shows no relation between the two groups as to the way they responded to the statement.

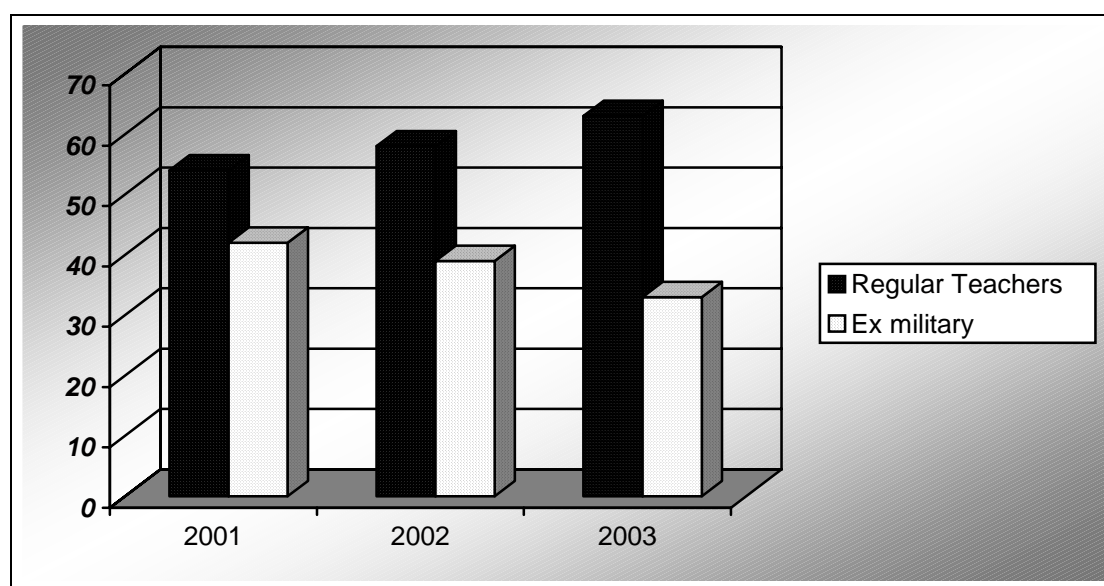


Table 4-22 Teachers as a future source of principals

A negative correlation was found between the future source for principalship (item 5) and leadership in the fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals expect to obtain from the course (item 4) ($r = -.19$ $p < 0.05$). There was no correlation found between future source for principalship (item 5) and the selection of pedagogical items ($r = -.05$ $p < 0.5$) or management qualities ($r = -.05$ $p < 0.5$) in item 4.

Summary

The statement was presented to the respondents for two reasons: firstly, to examine basic attitudes regarding the possibility of integrating candidates from outside the field of education into principalship and secondly, to discover whether there is a significant difference between the groups in their response to the statement. The phenomena of "bringing in" principals from elsewhere was known to both courses, certainly to the ex military but also to regular teachers who were aware of the "Officers to Principalship Project".

It was predicted that, by examining basic attitudes, there would be greater agreement with the statement by regular teachers who will tend to consider teachers as the natural source for principalship and a greater tendency among ex military not to accept the idea. It was also expected that there would be a significant difference between the two courses in responding to the statement.

Item 6 - Fundamental qualities and abilities a school principal should possess

The sixth item was an open question which requested the aspiring principals of both courses to list five fundamental qualities, abilities and capabilities they expected a school principal to possess. The concept of school principal characteristics is an important element in the process for aspiring principals, a model to look up to and a role concept to adopt.

The question was an open question and all research participants were asked to list five characteristics that they thought the most essential for a school principal to possess. The characteristics of a school principal were chosen by the participants and they selected 24 categories in total. Each of the elements was categorized (by the researcher) into Leadership, such as charisma and leadership, Management abilities, such as managerial tools, marketing and organizational abilities, or pedagogical capabilities such as the ability to provide professional educational guidance. A fourth category of personality traits, selected as characterizing the ideal type of principal, which could be divided into the three elements, was kept as an independent selection.

Responses

The students selected elements as follows:

Leadership

- Leadership qualities-a variety of generic qualities recognized as leadership qualities.
- Teamwork ability-the ability to establish a team and lead it.
- Work relations–the ability to create and maintain good work relations with staff, students and parents
- Charisma –possession of charisma.
- Public affairs–the ability to set up, conduct and perform a net of external and internal relations.
- Open to change–the ability to consider, evaluate and accept new ideas, theories and approaches.

Management abilities

- Organizational ability-a variety of generic abilities recognized as organizational tools.
- Marketing ability-the ability to establish and maintain the marketing process of systems, approaches and ideas.
- Managerial tools-a variety of tools acknowledged as managerial tools.
- Educational systems-knowing and understanding the complicated educational system.
- Educational laws-knowing, understanding and implementing the complex educational laws.
- Budgeting ability-the ability to set up, maintain and implement the budgeting process.

Pedagogical capabilities

- Pedagogy-a variety of generic capabilities recognized as pedagogical tools.
- Professional educational guidance-the capability to provide professional educational guidance in all areas concerning pedagogical activities.
- School curriculum-the capability of knowing, understanding and being able to implement the complex school curriculum.

Personality traits

- Initiator–the ability to enhance the implementation of new initiatives.
- Listening ability-the ability to demonstrate, patiently and considerately, a caring and thoughtfulness for other people’s needs.
- Credibility-possessing the following characteristics: trustworthiness, reliability and integrity.
- Creativity-possessing the following characteristics: originality, imagination, inspiration and inventiveness.
- Hard worker–a readiness to devote many hours and great efforts to enhancing the mission.
- Flexibility-being able to adapt to changing situations.
- Intelligence-being clever with the ability to use brainpower.
- Honesty-being sincere and truthful.
- Persuasive–being influential and able to convince others.

Selection

Leadership qualities

		Charisma	Open for changes	Public affairs	Teamwork	Work relation	Leadership	Leadership selection
Regular Teachers	Total	0.26	0.33	0.19	0.54	0.65	0.49	0.41
Ex military	Total	0.15	0.25	0.20	0.48	0.47	0.45	0.33

Table 4-23 Selected leadership qualities.

The selection of the top six leadership qualities (see Table 4-23) was identical in both groups but in a different order. The order chosen by the regular teachers was:

- Work relations.
- Leadership qualities.

- Teamwork ability.
- Charisma.
- Public affairs.
- Open to change.

The order chosen by the ex military was:

- Work relations.
- Teamwork ability.
- Leadership qualities.
- Open to change.
- Public affairs.
- Charisma.

Management abilities

		Budgeting ability	Educational systems	Organizational	Managerial tools	Educational laws	Marketing ability	Management selection
Regular Teachers	Total	0.08	0.15	0.30	0.25	0.03	0.10	0.15
Ex military	Total	0.15	0.10	0.42	0.21	0.04	0.15	0.18

Table 4-24 Selected management abilities

The selection of the top six management abilities (see Table 4-24) was almost identical in both groups in the items chosen and their order. The only difference was in educational systems which was rated almost as twice as high by regular teachers, who put it third, while the ex military put it last.

Pedagogical capabilities	Leadership qualities:	Management abilities:	Pedagogical capabilities
Regular teachers	63%	23%	14%
Ex military	58%	32%	10%

Table 4-25 Selected pedagogical capabilities

The selection of the top pedagogical capabilities (see Table 4-25) was very similar in both groups with the regular teachers making a higher selection of pedagogical items. Summaries of the selection of the qualities and abilities a school principal should possess are shown in Tables 4-26 and 4-27.

		School curriculum	Pedagogy	Pro educ. Guides	Pedagogy selection
Regular Teachers	Total	0.09	0.25	0.28	0.20
Ex military	Total	0.04	0.14	0.10	0.09

Tables 4-26 Qualities and abilities a school principal should possess

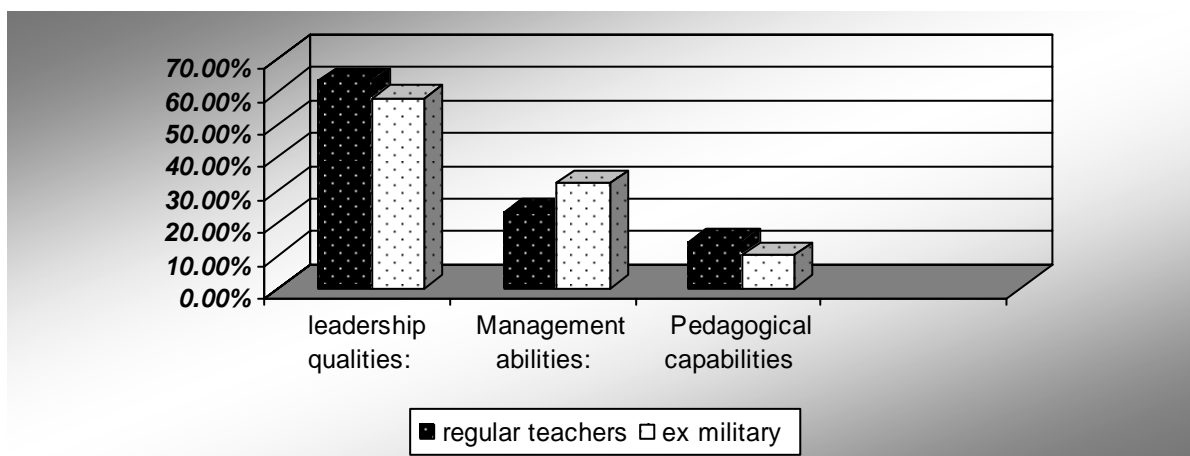


Table 4-27 Qualities and abilities a school principal should possess

In assessing the qualities and abilities a school principal should possess there were similarities in the final selection. The regular teachers divided those qualities and abilities the following way (see Table 4-28)

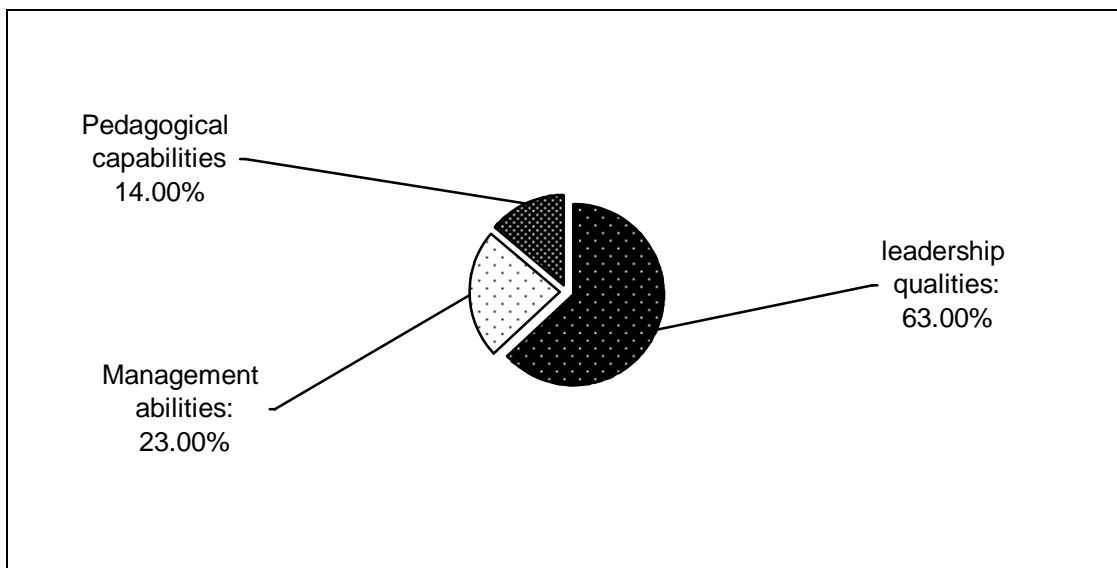


Table 4-28 Distribution of qualities and abilities a school principal should possess
(regular teachers)

The ex military divided the qualities and abilities in the following way (see Table 4-29).

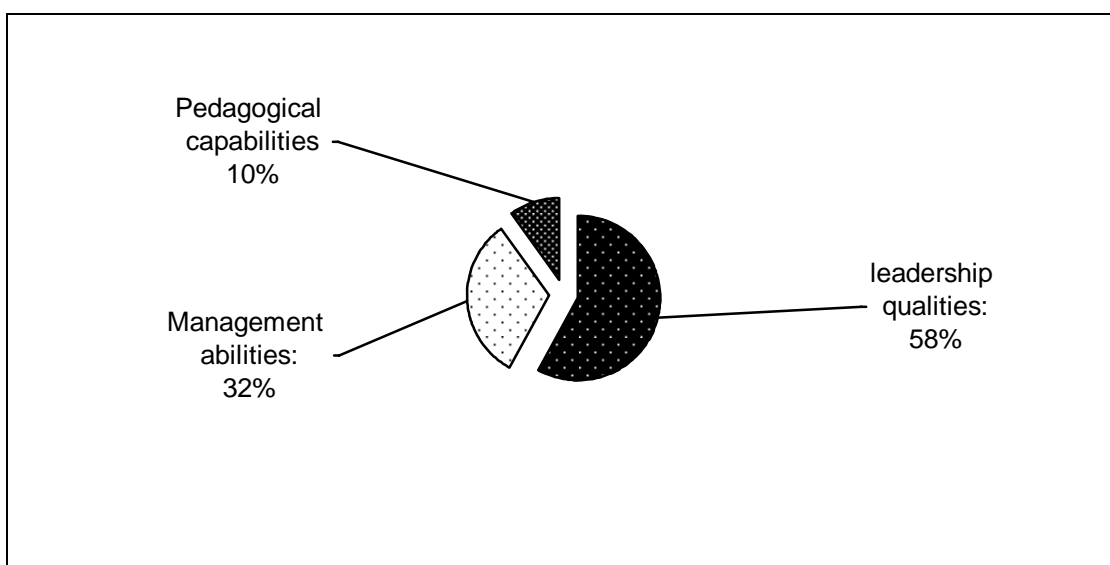


Table 4-29 Distribution of qualities and abilities a school principal should possess (ex
military)

Since school principal characteristics are important, the participants formed a list of 24 characteristics for an effective school principal. Some were selected from the previous questionnaire questions and some were based on their concepts and models. It was expected that the choices would fall into one of the categories used (Leadership, Management and Pedagogy) but categorizing each of the elements presented the need for a fourth category of personality traits (see Table 4-30) which included almost twice the number of elements as the other three categories. Indeed, a relationship was found between the type of course and the number of selected categories in personality traits.

The tendency of ex military personnel to see different personality traits as more important elements in the characteristics of school principals than regular teachers was very prominent.

		Credibility	Creative	Flexibility	Hard worker	Honesty	Initiator	Listening ability	Trait selection
Regular Teachers	Total	0.05	0.23	0.16	0.10	0.07	0.22	0.23	0.15
Ex military	Total	0.19	0.12	0.09	0.21	0.21	0.22	0.08	0.16

Table 4-30 Selection of personality traits

Both courses regarded 'initiator' as the most important trait. After this the ex military saw honesty, hard work and intelligence as the top traits, while regular teachers saw listening ability and creativity as the top traits.

The four top items were selected by both courses.

Topic:	Regular teachers	Ex Military
• Work relations	51%	44%
• Leadership qualities	43%	39%
• Teamwork ability	43%	43%
• Organizational ability	33%	33%

Three out of the four are leadership qualities with single management ability.

The fifth item was different, 31 percent of the regular teachers selected Charisma while only 15 percent of the ex military made this selection. The ex military selected three traits at the same level:

- Initiator 21% (selected by only 18 percent of regular teachers)
- Managerial tools 21% (selected by only 20 percent of regular teachers)
- Open to change 21% (selected by 26 percent of regular teachers)

There is some similarity in the priorities of the two groups; their selections indicate that there is not much difference in the way both courses see the qualities and abilities school principal needs to possess, although there was some difference in the weight attributed to each of them.

Pearson's Chi Square test

A Pearson's Chi Square test between the numbers of items selected for each of the categories (leadership, management, pedagogy and personal traits) gave the following results:

Between the type of course and the number of selected categories in leadership, value was 9.075^a *DF* 5 and Asymptote significance (2 tailed) 0.106, there is no difference between the two types of course in the number of leadership qualities selected.

Between the type of course and the number of selected categories in management, value was 1.137^a *DF* 3 and Asymptote significance (2 tailed) 0.768, there is no difference between the two types of course in the number of management abilities selected.

Between the type of course and the number of selected categories in pedagogy, value was 3.939^a *DF* 2 and Asymptote significance (2 tailed) 0.140, there is no difference between the two types of course in the number of pedagogical capabilities selected.

Between the type of course and the number of selected categories in personality traits, value was 9.536^a *DF* 4 and Asymptote significance (2 tailed) 0.049, there is a relationship between the type of course and the number of personality traits selected.

Therefore, it was only in the area of personality traits that there was a relationship between the types of course and the number of personality traits selected (see Table 4-31). This is not a relationship between the items that were selected but between the numbers of items selected. Ex military personnel tended to include a larger number of personality traits in their selection than the regular teachers.

Number of personality traits selected	Regular teachers	Ex military
None	34.1%	20.9%
One	13.2%	10.9%
Two	4.7%	8.5%
Three	1.6%	3.9%
Four	0	2.3%

Table 4-31 Number of personality traits selected

Correlation

In trying to find correlations between future sources of principals (item 5) and selections of qualities and abilities a school principal should possess (Item 6), there was no correlation found between future sources of principals and the selection of leadership qualities (-.05), or management qualities (-.08). However, there was a negative correlation identified between future sources of principals and the selection of pedagogical qualities (-.19) and a positive correlation between future sources of principals and the selection of personality traits (.24).

Summary

The resemblance in the majority of the elements presented during the interviews to those mentioned already by respondents in the survey represents wide agreement. The fundamental qualities and abilities a school principal should possess are widely agreed upon. The same similarities were found in the ways both courses selected the qualities, abilities and capabilities a school principal should possess. Leadership qualities were considered as the most essential; in the two courses the dominance of

leadership (over 63 percent by regular teachers and 58 percent by ex military) was almost identical.

A second set of abilities for school principals were management oriented with the ex military showing a preference of ten percent for this selection. The ex military attributed 32 percent to management ability compared to 23 percent of regular teachers.

In the third selection, of pedagogical capabilities, there was a small preference shown by regular teachers who attributed 14 percent to pedagogical capabilities compared to ten percent of ex military. There was also a similarity in the weight attributed to personality traits, although there was a difference in the number of personality traits respondents thought a school principal should possess with the ex military personnel showing a preference for these. The results show that the fundamental qualities, abilities and capabilities a school principal should possess are very much alike in the opinion of both courses.

Validity

The validity of the questionnaire was based on two elements:

- Content validity – items were selected from existing aspiring principal course syllabi, the Bait Berl syllabus and a selection of other Israeli principal training programmes. The items included a variety of topics proposed as required qualities, abilities and capabilities as recommended by aspiring principals, experienced principals and training programme developers.

- Structure validity – there was an overlap between the structure of the questions and those areas that form the "principal training process" as developed in Israeli principal training programmes for both regular teachers and ex-military personnel. The tools used should continue to be validated by additional activities, convergent validity and discriminate validity.

Reliability

The reliability of the research was confirmed by using Kruskal Wallis Tests of the three yearly cohorts of both groups. Items that were found to be different between the cohorts were noted, in general, consistency was found in differences between the groups and not between the cohorts.

Interview Findings

Talking about principalship

In order to triangulate the survey findings and to further examine topics that were presented in the questionnaire, interviews and group interviews were conducted with three different groups with the intention of confirming research findings by trying to comprehend the reference of each group to elements in the process.

The three groups were:

- A group of 15 regular teachers, familiar with a principal's activities but not yet exposed to principalship theories.
- Ex military and former regular teacher principals from elementary and high schools that either have or have not gone through an earlier pre-service training programme.

- Graduates of the “Officers for Education Project” at the end of their study year.

Regular teachers’ talk

A group of 15 regular teachers, familiar with a principal’s activities but not yet exposed to principalship theories, were interviewed. The group consisted of males and females of various ages, from Jewish, Christian and Muslim sectors. None were graduates of a principal course.

Fundamental themes and main skills

The emphasis of the discussion of fundamental themes and main skills they expected to obtain from a principal course was mainly on two areas, management and leadership.

Management, to include administrative and organizational tools: “Managerial tools as a fundamental element” (SN). Or, as KL says: “Practical management tools are required for principal training based on theoretical knowledge; those useful tools for management should be provided to the aspiring principals”. Another practical tool in that area was requested by BA, who concentrated on management and hoped to: “*Develop the ability to establish a database of knowledge and experience in this area*”. The term management was described as a very wide area of activities that are to be implemented in managing schools, but the emphasis on practical implementation of activities (such as personnel management) was very prominent.

Leadership skills included mainly teamwork and work relations, “*The principal’s ability to lead a team as a main theme*” (ON): “*Leadership tool of team work conducting and guidance*” (AP). Leadership in education in all its forms was mentioned but not emphasized as a major requirement.

The inclusion of pedagogical elements was not very common and the request for training in the field of special education by RG was an exception. SN also included some elements that are considered as pedagogical, such as preventing violence, activation of a children’s society, educational measurement and evaluation, and the need for updates in educational theories.

A much wider set of fundamental themes and main skills was presented by HO to include basics in educational philosophy, educational organization, bureaucratic tools and techniques, introduction to educational procedures, school visits, and personal development and management. This can be explained by his exposure to external systems (Friedman *et al*, 1977) since most of his career had been in informal education. Another unique requirement was the expectation of FH that a set of tools to deal with co-existence should be included in the training process.

Inter-personal relationship abilities also appeared in the responses, the means of developing those abilities was mentioned at least twice. And some (LK) highlighted inter-personal activity dilemma solving and personnel management as key factors for principal qualification.

The ideal type of principal

In order to triangulate the survey findings on the characteristics and qualities required by principals as perceived by regular teachers, the question was presented to the same group.

The ideal type of principal included clear vision and team leadership (LK); caring was very much emphasized as an initial requirement for principalship. Respondents in the survey had already mentioned most of the elements presented during the interviews but there were some elements that were new, such as maturity and ambition, or very much emphasized, such as attitudes towards teachers.

Variations were found in maturity and ambitions as element that were not mentioned in the survey but appeared more than once in the interviews. This may have been because aspiring principals consider them as pre-requisites for applying for principalship.

Enlarged emphasis was found in the interviews on attitudes towards teachers on a personal level: “...to understand and cooperate with teachers as much as the ability to show appreciation and affection to them” (ON); or “...the ability to act pleasantly” (SO); “...caring is very important as an initial requirement for principalship” (LK). This emphasis can be explained by their position as teachers within the system and the importance they themselves attribute to their relationship with the principal.

A unique characteristic referred by SN was anticipating that the school principal should be a "main streamer" but this might be explained by her view on the need for social recognition of the principal and that formal social acknowledgment was an essential element.

Another element presented in the interviews, which differed to the survey, was a clear reference to domination (to include control).

“A principal should practice elements of domination as part of his leadership, domination that should be based on a humanistic approach. Reference to domination should not only include power elements but also mentoring elements as well.” (KL)

Control was mentioned earlier but among the aspiring principals there was no obvious emphasis on the "power" element of principalship.

Principals' talk

To round out the research, another set of discussions and interviews were conducted with principals. The majority of the group were ex military as regular teachers were interviewed earlier. Most of the participants chose to reply by referring to the feasibility of appointing ex military principals and the very complicated situation it creates within education systems.

“Management ability is the most crucial point”

A very strong trigger to the discussion was an article concerning the integration of ex military officers as school principals published around the time of the discussions; interviewees were very much influenced by it. Some of our research interviewees were interviewed for the article and are quoted in the research. In the article (Aaronitz- Rineholtz, 2002) Erez, Head of the High School Teachers Union, rejected the direct appointment of ex military to principal positions without a training process.

He emphasized that pre-service principal training is a requirement and a pre-requisite for principalship.

“It is not everyone who is entitled to be appointed as a school principal, there is a need for special training programs, and there should be a selection board that determines who fits the job and who does not. Only those who went through the training process are qualified to compete.”
(Aaronitz-Rineholtz 2002, p.44)

Kanig, Head of the Raanana municipality education department, looked at things in a different way and said:

“When we are selecting a candidate, his management ability is the most crucial point, if he is not an expert in teaching, there are always experts that can help him in that field and perform those duties for him”.
(Aaronitz-Rineholtz 2002, p.44)

Fogell, a sociologist, claimed that understanding the concept of principalship this way is a complete misunderstanding of the essence of educational organization. In order to activate people there is a need to understand them, and to know teachers and students.
“Kanig’s approach is an insult and insanity. Would it be possible to manage a financial company without knowledge of economy?” (Aaronitz-Rineholtz 2002, p.45).

Dunski, representing the Teachers Work Union, agreed and said:

“For principals to be able to talk to teachers at the same level, to understand the meaning of their requirements and to know how to deal with students they should experience teaching”. (Aaronitz-Rineholtz 2002, p.44)

That statement made RN ask, *“What about all our years in the military, are they not a solid experience of educating people?”* (Aaronitz-Rineholtz 2002, p.44).

“An educational leader”

An example of a direct appointment is the case of HN, a retired colonel who was a major participant in the article mentioned above. He was appointed through a formal

selection committee, headed by the Raanana municipality, as principal of a large and well-established institute in a suburb of Tel Aviv. After 20 years service in the Israeli Air Force as a squadron commander, he had no teaching or educational background and did not attend the Beit Berl “Officers for Education Program”. He claimed that the reason for his choice of education as a second career was because he liked young people. He saw a lot of similarities between schools and military service. Some of his close family members were school principals so he was exposed to educational and teaching matters at home. When he retired it was very clear to him that he needed to pursue an educational career.

HN went through a selection committee and was selected as the director of the school but not as principal because he did not, at that time, have a teaching certificate. So, without a teaching certificate or any other formal pedagogical background, but, as he sees it, with well-established leadership abilities, he started what he considered “*the mission*”. HN believes that he acquired his actual managing abilities not just during his military service. He sees himself as an educational leader, not as an administrator, and believes in the contribution of ex military to education systems not because of their managerial abilities but because of their leadership.

A similar example was the way AH, a retired lieutenant colonel, was appointed. He went through the training process but did not complete it; he is the principal of a private high school not far from Tel Aviv. Retired from the position of an infantry deputy brigade commander he was offered the opportunity to join the Beit Berl “Officers for Education Program”. After some serious consideration, he reached the conclusion that throughout practically all of his military service he had been dealing

with educating young people and he decided to implement this experience and knowledge.

“After only six months as a high school teacher the general director of the schools net saw me as a suitable candidate for principalship and appointed me as deputy school principal. Three months later I was appointed as school principal, that happened when I was only halfway through the principal course, which formally I did not completed until today – but I don’t need it any more I am already an acting principal”.

(AH)

In a response to this question ZA, an ex military school principal, explained the tendency for aspiring principals, or the newly appointed for that matter, to regard leadership as a general phenomenon and *“...only later, through the process of practicing does he get the feel for what it really means to be an educational leader”* (ZA). He claimed that in leadership, as implemented in the army, each one develops his own unique style of educational leadership based upon early life experiences, personality and the circumstances. Some of it is acquired through a principal course, in an adjustment process, through the theory and praxis. However, the process of acquiring that ability is an on-going one and it is only formed when you are able to implement it.

“The deep understanding then of the essence of leadership happens in the principalship phase. Leadership as a wide set of concepts can only be properly comprehended through the process of implementation and performance”. (ZA)

ZA referring to gaining leadership in school said “...it is not an immediate act, and it took the teacher's time to accept me but I felt it was the most important one”. YL, an elementary school principal, agreed that gaining leadership at school is a time consuming process but clarified that:

“...leadership in principalship is the most important element for teachers to look up to; it is not the principal's managerial knowledge or abilities that count for teachers but his leadership qualities.”

She added:

“...unlike leadership, which I cannot convey to someone else, the management work can be done by my assistants and I will still be considered an excellent principal”.

Leadership, she believes, is the key element in principalship.

“The need to back the teachers' authority...”

One of the factors facing newcomers is their relationship with teachers. RN, an ex military elementary school principal, agreed with H regarding the integration of the ex military; he thought that the distance between the teacher's role and the principal's role was a growing one, Today principalship includes elements that principals a few years ago were not familiar with, such as budget control, team management, marketing and public affairs. There is no extra requirement that a principal should be an ex teacher, this attitude affects relations between ex military principals and regular teachers.

RN believes that, in order not to upset regular teachers, there is a need to develop a special programme that will enable teachers to implement their professional

excellence in other ways. HN feels that one of the problems that come up in schools run by ex military is a lack of backing for teachers and their work.

“My open attitude was misunderstood as softness; only later both teachers and students understood it does not necessarily mean compromise. It is true that, in the beginning, I tried to implement my educational philosophy brought with me from my squadron to school. It took me time to understand the differences, the need to back the teachers’ authority and the complicity of positioning both students and teachers at the same level. Once I understood that it was easier for me to establish good and trustful relations with the teachers.” (HN)

He feels that the first few years are always hard for an ex military school principal in dealings with both teachers and students. Teachers consider that an outsider got a very desirable position; further, that outsider may not necessarily understand the micro politics of the staffroom. It is also a challenge for the students to cope with the principal speaking in a different language. Openness does not necessarily bring the expected results. HN admitted: *“I did not understand the teachers’ code in spite of the fact I was very much occupied with it”*.

A thinks that the backing of teachers "against" pupils is not necessarily an outcome of a military background; he thinks that both parents and students should be regarded as clients and not the teachers. School should supply the teachers with work but not necessarily an absolute backing.

The topic of backing teachers arose very often in discussions on establishing the ex military principal’s relations with teachers. It is expected that a regular teacher

appointed as principal after being a teacher himself, will tend to provide more backing for his staff. A claimed that not only does he provides his teachers with a lot of support but he also tends to be more extreme with punishments.

This brings us to another hot topic that affects relations at school, namely how to deal with discipline. H did not believe in “*strong discipline and severe punishments, the students are aware of my punishment authority and that is enough, in case of a physical dispute, I am strong enough to stop the fight*”. He claimed that the discipline he implemented in his squadron during his military service was "educational". DO's approach to discipline was that “*a strong good manager can run his school without strong discipline, school uniform represents a lack of confidence, in my school there is no formal uniform, there is no distance beyond what is required and the door to my room is always open for every one.*” For A “*Discipline is a milestone in my educational approach, misbehaviour, violence or being late are things I take very seriously*”. He believes it is very important for him to give an example of good personal behaviour in proper responsible work and proper dressing. He meets the students daily at the school gate and listens to them because he believes that dialogue is an element in preventing violence.

A main point of reference was what the ex military brought with them. MD believes that the ex military carry with them an integration of a variety of elements they have been exposed to since childhood and, based upon that, he established his unique abilities.

“Full commitment and ready to learn”.

Concerning the training process, A said: *“I did not necessarily use tactics acquired at Bait Berl College but based my approach on military experience as well.”* As a response to whether ex military had fixed ideas about values and work regulations or were open to adopt new attitudes, abilities and capabilities, RN, an ex military elementary school principal, answered:

“Today the approach in the military is less target-oriented and more towards caring and personal involvement. The army is not a fixed structure closed system therefore officers develop new abilities that do not depend on hierarchy. The fact is that officers who select education as their new way of life are forced to be more aware of differences between the two systems. We do bring with us leadership tools, full commitment to staff and students and a caring and responsible approach. I am reachable for school and community members after official school hours; graduates consult me as to their future plans. As for the managerial skills, I brought with me abilities in budget planning, strategic planning and organizations.” (RN)

H claims that he brought with him leadership and management abilities that are oriented to: *“full commitment to my students with personal example and responsibility”* but at the same time he admits he tends to concentrate activities under his control *“education people have a tendency to postpone things to the last minute and hope things will take care of themselves”*.

In answering the question regarding the process of integrating "non educationalists", former teachers responded that the tendency of society to integrate ex military into

managerial positions in all fields makes it natural that they also join education. SS, a former regular teacher elementary school principal, believes that some were glad to see some males in the system:

“Since education is mainly feminine there is a need for incorporating male figures into this field and ex military are suitable candidates. It would have been even better if male figures could have joined the education system earlier; we would have been very glad if young talented men had chosen an education career instead of a military career.” (SS)

ES, a former regular teacher high school principal, claims that the main mission for today's principal is in marketing and he sees no special reason for an educator to do that. He also comments that the system is very demanding and wears candidates down. Therefore, every new person joining should be welcomed.

“The unknown world of school”

As to the challenge of how to get into the system, ZA, a retired officer who is now running his second high school as a principal, emphasized that this is the most important thing for the new principal; the ability to understand how the system operates. Once you understand the system, you are able to analyse it, appreciate its strengths and weaknesses, and only then can you gain full control over it. This is even more important for those principals coming from an external system such as the military. As every system has its characteristics, you cannot manage/run the school until you fully understand how the system operates, the system in this case covers a very large area to include school culture. The unknown world of school and the importance of understanding the system, including underground streams, is indeed the

main mission of any school principal, particularly those who come from outside the education world.

Acting principals considered the training process as a short stage in their route to principalship, they emphasized the need for a training process based mainly on areas they had not been formally exposed to in the early stages of their career. They showed confidence in their ability to respond to the challenge based mainly on their belief in leadership as a main theme. During the discussions the existence of management abilities was appreciated but it was leadership abilities that were considered the most valuable qualities the ex military bring with them to the educational system.

Graduates talk

Two meetings with graduates of the “Officers for Education Project” were conducted. These meetings took place two months after the end of their study year. The August 2001 meeting consisted of 15 graduates and the August 2002 meeting consisted of 14 graduates.

Students were used to having this kind of group meeting to discuss course topics as the reflections of students on the course affected the structure of the next year’s course. The dialogue between students and course designers was very productive and was based on the principle that participants of a principals’ course are mature and able to identify and understand their own requirements and needs.

The meetings were conducted as group discussions and dealt with the following topics:

- Reflections on the course, to include:
 - Quality of particular lecturers.
 - Relevance of course topics to principalship.
 - Exposure to schools.
- Mid-life change of career, to include the need for an interval between the teaching certificate and the principals' course.

“I got better tools to be able to do my job”

In general the students reflected satisfaction with the balance of course topics. They emphasized the importance of pedagogy and educational management as new elements for them.

“Pedagogy as a whole was not a new topic for me, but the unique involvement of the principal in pedagogy, as well as elements of educational management were very important to me. I feel I got better tools to be able to do my job.” (MD)

“We only now understand what we got at the course and it is very much appreciated. We thought at the beginning it was too much theory, but now we understand the relevance, especially in educational management, we thought we were very well qualified in management and discovered that there is a new world out there that we are not very familiar with.” (MH)

GH said that she felt very confident in her leadership qualities and management abilities when she joined the course but felt unsure about her capabilities in pedagogy.

“I feel much better now, I don't know all about pedagogy, and I am sure there will be

teachers in my school that will know more, but I know now what question I should ask and where to look for the answers”.

Some graduates, like EY, requested more practical tools to be provided on the course. He felt that practice part of the course did not provide enough operational tools for practicing principalship: “...it is a new area for me, and once I am appointed I will have to start working, therefore I need some more tools fitted for school principalship for my tool box”. However, on the other hand, BK, who was already an acting principal, felt the course made a real contribution in providing him principalship tools.

“The course was for me a time off from all the pressure of principalship and at the same time provided me with the right perspective for what I was doing. I think that already being a principal enabled me to determine what was really important and what was not, I do feel the course contributed to my success.” (BK)

Others agreed, and added:

“The course final paper, “The Portfolio” I had to submit at the end of the course, was a very good and practical tool that helped me in preparing for principalship. It helped me to reflect on what I received through the process and only then did I realize how much I had acquired.” (BS)

However, others were critical and asserted that the training process could not respond to all factors required for principalship. It is such a large gap to fill at once, therefore it should be understood that it is not the end of the process, but just the beginning.

There were a large number of suggestions for additional training areas; GR felt that *“there is a need to try and pay more attention to the way education should be implemented in the future to include new initiatives and developments in the field of education, especially since we are expected to be initiators more than the others ”*. PR, who was appointed as the head of an education department at a local authority in the middle of the course, felt that since school evaluation was an important factor in school life, aspiring principals should be better trained for that and therefore the course should provide more on that topic.

Not all students were happy with the concept of the training. AS claimed he wanted a different kind of training, more personal and intimate, in the shape of a mentoring process. He felt that would provide him with better tools since studying in a large group makes it difficult for individual students. There was common agreement in the appreciation of the way students were treated: *“...we enjoyed the course and appreciate the way we were treated as adult learners”* (S.L). *“The fact that we were treated on the course as adults helped us to go through the process of climbing the step from an outsider into principalship”* (DL).

“A wealth of knowledge”

Students felt that the course was designed with a lot of sensitivity to their needs and requirements. Treating them as adult learners and taking into account their remarks made them more involved and helped them to go through the process, which, as a mid-life change of career, was not an easy one. YK emphasized the importance of course participant’s backgrounds on their ability to distinguish their requirements. A characteristic of this particular course was that members also contributed by providing much of their personal experience to each other. *“I learnt as much from my friends as*

from my teachers, we do carry with us a wealth of knowledge that, by sharing, everybody can gain from.”

In general, those graduates who were already in management positions were more specific in their comments in accordance with the role they were performing. The rest referred to standards and the quality of particular teachers. The students in general wanted more exposure to schools which they felt was required for their professional future.

“No need for any more time”

Discussing the need for one year of practical teaching before going into principalship, Z thought that there should be at least one year of practical teaching: *“...experiencing teaching and knowing school as a teacher gives you a different dimension that we lack, we should have a “time off” before resuming the hard mission of principalship to assimilate what we have studied.”* MS did not want to waste any time: *“...we are well qualified and we do not have any time to spare, therefore we should start trying to get principals positions immediately. Like any position we got in the army, we have to accept it and be able to perform it at once, the process of training was long and there is no need for any more time”*. SL, already acting as a deputy principal, also thought that it was best to go directly into principalship. He felt he was provided with the right tools for principalship and, along with him performing the job of deputy principal, he felt he was receiving the required elements for the job.

UT felt that there was a need for an in-depth acquaintance with school life and the whole education system before trying to be appointed as a school principal. He agreed it was a very personal thing: *“...it has to do with what stage of the process you are*

at, along with the professional development process it is the build up of confidence as well. Only when that ends are you ready for your mission”.

“The missing elements”

Students at the mid-life change of career phase do not usually have the benefit of a long period of training free from any other responsibilities in the same way as younger people at the beginning of their career. They have to try and combine training with other activities, which affects the way training should be established. DG emphasized the need for gaining experience in the education field before going into principalship. The training phase for a mid-life change of career should, in his opinion, be short and concentrated: *“It is understood that we will need to acquire some of the missing elements in the future”*. He requested the need: *“To balance between a long process of acquaintance with the education world on one hand and the need for returning as fast as possible back to the field on the other hand”*. His suggestion that: *“It should be understood that we will need to acquire some of the missing elements in the future”* should be considered very seriously as part of a life long learning process.

The transfer to a new area of occupation requires not only the basic training, but also an on-going development and learning process throughout professional life. The training process forms the basis of knowledge to accept the mission but, in order to be able to perform the mission; there is a need for a long and continuous process of acquiring new abilities and capabilities. The question should not be: *“What do you know about?”* but *“Are you capable of acquiring more information in that area?”* This should be the direction of establishing the training concept.

“A beneficial process”

As for presenting this opportunity to ex military to join the field of education, it was very much appreciated, but it was mentioned that it was for the benefit of both sides:

“It does give us an opportunity for a new career, but the fact that we chose that field is also a great contribution for the other side. We bring with us a lot of experience in many fields and areas, not just how to conduct a war. Being responsible for the lives of other people develops in us a sense of sensitivity and responsibility that we carry with us, which could be very beneficial to any organization and especially to schools.” (AL)

The understanding of the mutual benefit enables the “newcomers” to feel they are appreciated, which affects their motivation.

“They did not know how to accept me; I was a male, older than most of them, with a well-known military background, and yet very enthusiastic. It was not easy, but slowly I gained their trust, especially when I was ready to take responsibility for trip safety and a security issue which they felt was a burden.” (UM)

Graduates were also aware of what FS described as ‘elements that are threatening school’; inspectors, counsellors, as well as processes such as establishing work or action plans, things ex military are very familiar with but which might be a problem for teachers: “...so when we get in, we are also considered threatening outsiders and it takes time to accept us” (EM).

The fact that those who do not achieve principalship are appointed as subject leaders or class leaders is also very important: “...it shows me that I am appreciated and my

abilities are recognized” (AM). It is understood that competition for those positions is not easy and yet these sub principal positions do serve as a compensation/compromise.

“Those who freely choose, stay”

The process of transfer from the military to education is a major change that occurs in a relatively short time. The training period should provide its graduates with the required confidence in their ability to face the challenge; again, the on-going dialogue can help in providing this confidence. The fact that the graduates are mature grown-ups with proven successes in the past is a benefit but they should still be encouraged and supported during the training phase. The graduates described the way that they were regarded with a lot of suspicion at schools in the beginning but, when time had passed and they were better known, they were very warmly accepted and appreciated. Since more than 90 percent of the project’s graduates, even if not appointed as school principals, remain in the field of education both participants and the authorities consider the project to be a success.

Summary

The research was based on the survey and interviews. In general, similarity was found between the two approaches. Analysing the data statistically presented us with a very clear picture of the results but the interviews were much more sensitive in enabling respondents to open new areas that were not revealed in the statistical analysis. The interview, intended to triangulate the data, was used for a wider purpose and served as a source of vital information and a spotlight on new areas for thoughts and research. The combination of both systems was very fruitful.

From Findings to Understanding

In this chapter we presented the questionnaire results relating to the qualities, abilities, capabilities and requirements for school principalship. The data presented provides an in-depth insight into the world of aspiring principals from two different sources, regular teachers and ex military. Each of the groups provided background information.

The first significant item presented was the importance of syllabus elements as seen by the aspiring principal course participants. A valid difference was found between the two groups. Difference was also found in the second item on major abilities, strengths and weaknesses, and we also found significant differences in the third and fourth items concerning areas of expertise and capabilities to be gained from the course and fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals expected to obtain from the course during their training period. Different tendencies (see Table 4-22) but no significant difference was found in examining the source for future principals and almost no difference was found between the two courses regarding the fundamental qualities and abilities a school principal should possess.

The research attempts to determine the feasibility of developing a specific pre-service training programme to qualify school principals from outside the world of education. The data presented endeavoured to identify the tools and skills needed to prepare candidates sufficiently for leading positions in the educational system. An evaluation of their concepts, abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills was conducted to locate areas in which they might require training during their transfer into the field of education.

CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION

Challenges

Across the world the role of school principal is rapidly changing, because social and educational contexts are changing. A constant increase in the extent of responsibilities ascribed to principals is evident. In short, principalship is subject to a new order. The requirement for principals in these extended roles demands commitment to both community and to society. Chen, in 1999, emphasized the need to find and train educational leaders, able to translate commitment into vision and to raise standards. In order to do this there is a need to find these educational leaders and qualify them to face challenges and accomplish missions (Chen 1999).

Schoolteachers were and remain the main source of school leaders, but are they the only suitable source? Following Sarason's suggestion, there is a need to seek school principals elsewhere. Sergiovanni (1992 and 1995) elaborated on this idea, arguing that, since school principals acting in their modified role require different qualities from in the past, there is a need to try to recruit principals from beyond the classroom, to find a source of suitable personnel who might have developed skills in other fields of work. Once they are found, there will be a need to train and qualify them for their mission.

Training for principalship is intended to be an adaptation and empowering process for the aspiring principals in those areas where they lack knowledge and experience. The fact that most aspiring principal candidates were regular teachers shaped and influenced the ways training processes were organized and designed. Characterized in many shapes and forms, training processes were developed with a variety of emphases as pre-service or in-service programmes. They were shaped as top-down training programmes, by the training authorities, national, local or academic

institutions, concentrating and focusing on training and qualifying educationalists into principalship.

If this is correct it might be possible to develop a suitable training programme for a non-educationalist group providing tools and skills needed to prepare these candidate sufficiently and adequately for leading positions in educational systems are provided at the right time and to sufficient depth.

The model shown below as Table 5-1 is presented in order to analyse, understand and evaluate the principal training concept as a transition process, with the intention of examining the feasibility of incorporating personnel from outside the world of education into principal positions.

The model. "**The way to principalship – a route through training**" presents a feasible process which will enable the incorporation of personnel from outside the world of education. As Campbell (1999) has noted "There is an expectation that head teachers will be leaders, managers and professionals" (p.653).

The model is based on three phases:

- Source or origin phase - a preliminary phase that presents the reservoir from which principals might be drawn.
- Training phase - acquiring strategies, the central and significant part in which, founded on the bases of knowledge, qualities, abilities and capabilities of the candidates, shortages and requirements are identified in order to be addressed in areas of leadership, management and pedagogy in the theory, praxis and practice stages.
- Principalship phase - implementing strategies, the stage in which the course graduates, after appointment, are able to implement the strategies acquired.

Principalship Phase

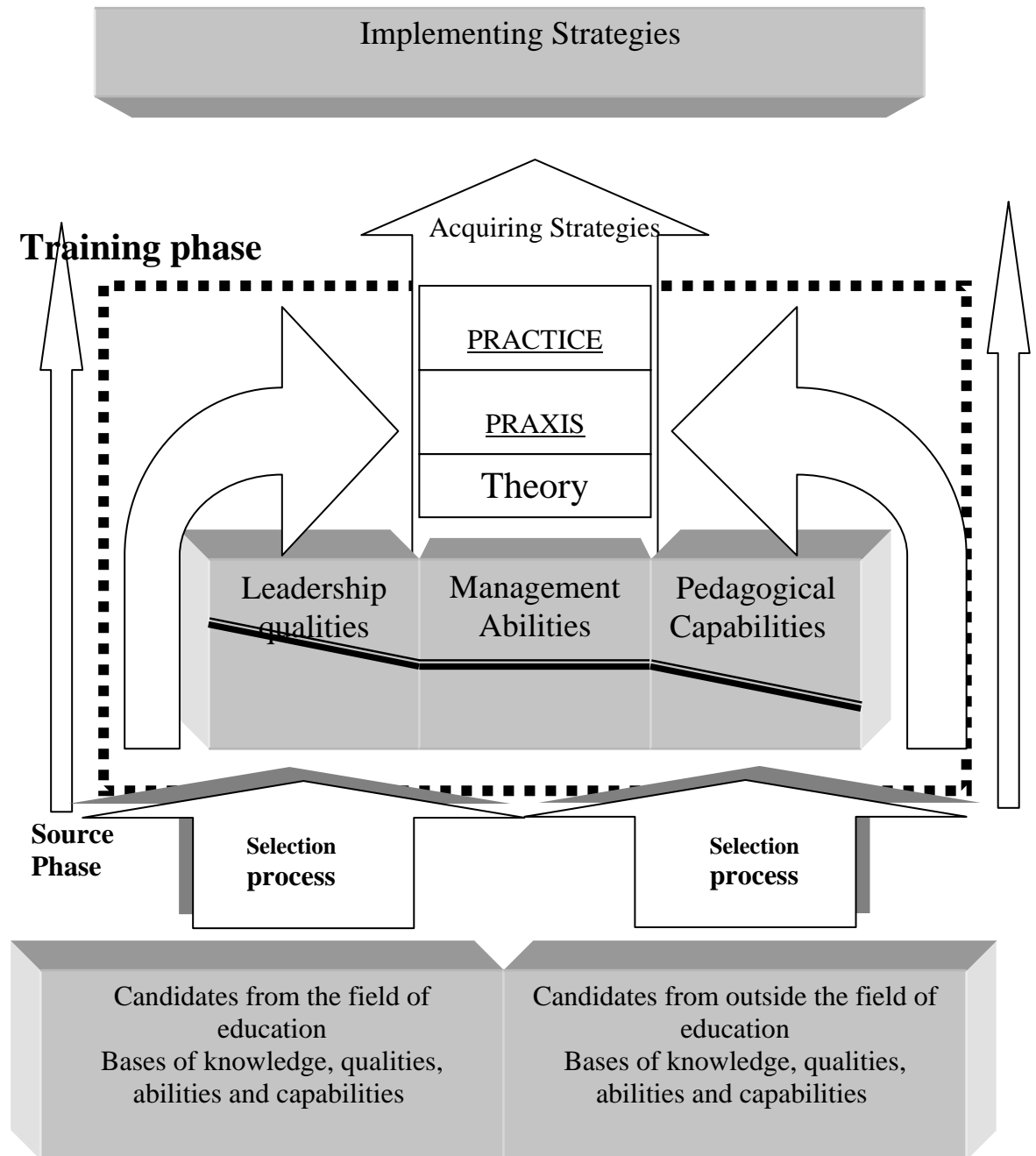


Figure 5-1 The way to principalship - a route through training

The model does not require a fixed structure of training; it can facilitate the use of a range of training techniques. In our research, based upon the model, an attempt was made to discover the necessary balance between elements of leadership, management and pedagogy, to determine the possibility of integrating ex military officers into the educational system and qualifying them as school principals. This was done by an evaluation of the aspiring principal's own concept of their qualities, abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills, and, by locating their strengths and weaknesses, mapping areas in which they might need empowerment during their transfer into the field of education.

The source – where candidates might come from

The preliminary stage "the source" identifies the origin of candidates for principalship and can be roughly divided into two categories; candidates from the field of education, such as regular teachers, counsellors and professional instructors who have teaching experience, and those coming from outside the field of education, such as ex military personnel as in our case, who have no formal pedagogical education and whose qualifications are in other fields.

From this point there are two routes into principalship, one that goes through a training process and one that leads directly into principalship. The option of direct appointment to principalship was common practice prior to the development of training routes. An earlier approach to principal training, implemented for more than a century, was mainly limited to in-service guidance, or “training on the job”, for the newly appointed principal. This approach was based on the assumption that a school principal, as a "Head Teacher", had acquired the necessary knowledge and tools required for the post during his career as a teacher and all he needed was a few

updates to supplement his capability to perform the mission. This was also based on the concept of the principal as a chief pedagogue "the school principal will devote most of his time to pedagogic work ..." (Chen 1999, p.308), the necessary upgrading for the job is dealt with during the performance of the job.

However, can this still apply in today's changing world? According to Handy and Aitken (1986), quoted in McHuge and McMullan (1995):

"...the assumption underlying promotion within schools is that the best teachers make the best managers. Given that the job of "teacher" and "manager" are extremely different key skills and abilities, the correctness of this assumption must be questioned. It might be suggested that, as the changes within education require head teachers to be first and foremost 'managers' as opposed to 'teachers', those who have been recruited initially on the basis of their talents as teachers must now be able to perform a different role and use different skills." (pp.24-25)

This change in the school world goes hand in hand with Handy's (1995) perception that "new organizations need new people to run them, people with new skills, new capacities and different career patterns" (p.119); people with a multi item professional portfolio (p.148-9) who have gained their abilities by experiencing a variety of jobs or occupations and are able to implement their abilities with the proper training into new fields. Regular teachers do not fulfil that pre-requisite and there is a tendency to look at school not as a "new organization" but rather as an old one with some modifications, this leads to regular teachers being regarded as the main source for principals.

There were other cases where persons outside the field of education, usually with achievements in other fields, were appointed to principal positions without any formal pre-training process, but it is still rare. There is a need to look for a different concept

in recruiting principals: where should we be looking? Nissan (1997) seems to have an answer:

"A manager of a food market chain becomes an executive in a computer firm, before moving on to a senior position in education. People change occupation on the assumption that the skills they have accrued, developed and utilized in one field will serve them equally well in another." (p.12)

This is based on the notion that skills acquired in one field are good bases to operate in any field. In our model we use this approach and make use of skills acquired, developed and utilized in one field which can be useful and serve equally well in another. The question of to what extent both leadership and management skills can be transferable from one form of organization to another is partly answered by Yukl (1998). He distinguishes between a transfer of lower level managers, where due to differences in technical skills there might be difficulties at that level of management, and the higher probability of success in high-level management. Katz (1955, quoted in Yukl 1998) claims that high-level managers with good human relations and conceptual skills can be easily shifted from one industry to another without losing their effectiveness. Others, such as Kotter (1982) and Shetty and Peery (1976) [both quoted in Yukl 1998], are less certain as to the transferability of skills because of variation of ownership, tradition, organizational climate and culture. As described by Yukl (1998) they believe that:

"Only the general components of conceptual and technical skills can be transferred to a different situation; the unique knowledge component of those skills must be relearned, moreover an executive moving to a different industry must develop a new network of external contacts, where the old network would still be relevant for a move to another organization in the same industry." (p.256)

In this research the two groups that were examined represent two distinct and different groups. The first are the regular teachers, a group of 69 aspiring principals, 53 females and 16 males in three yearly cohorts (28 students in 2001; 20 students in

2002; 21 students in 2003). The groups are heterogeneous and are made up of 75 percent from the Jewish sector and 25 percent from the non-Jewish sector. As for their educational background, the majority of participants (48 percent) are elementary school teachers, 32 percent are junior high school teachers and 20 percent are high school teachers. For other characteristics see Table 5-2.

The second group are retired ex military personnel, members of the 'Officers to Principalship Project'. This group is more homogeneous, it consists of 60 aspiring principals, nine females and 51 males, in three yearly cohorts (12 students in 2001; 22 students in 2002; 26 students in 2003). Ninety-three percent of this group had only 1-5 years of experience in education as they have just retired from the military. The group was made up of 98 percent from the Jewish sector and only two percent from the non-Jewish sector. As for their teaching background, the majority of these participants are high school teachers (66 percent), none are elementary school teachers and 33 percent are junior high school teachers.

All course participants had some kind of managerial experience before starting the course and, as a pre-requisite, all participants are postgraduates. These two groups demonstrate our ability to incorporate into the process candidates from different sources.

Cohorts		Regular teachers	Ex-military personnel	Total
Seniority in education	*1-6 years	15	58	73
	*6-10 years	17	0	17
	*11-15 years	18	1	19
	*16-20 years	12	0	12
	*21-25 years	7	1	8
Gender	Male	16	51	67
	Female	53	9	62
Military background	Military background	0	60	60
	No Military background	69	0	69
School level	Elementary	33	0	33
	Junior High	22	20	42
	High school	14	40	54
Teachers subject matter	Humanities	18	34	52
	Science	18	14	32
	General & special Ed.	18	10	28
	Languages	9	2	11
	Others	6	0	6
Management experience	Management experience	48	59	107
	No Management exp.	21	1	22
Age	20-30 years	4	0	4
	31-40 years	31	5	36
	41-50 years	31	47	78
	51 years and up	3	8	11

Table 5-2 Participants' characteristics

Seventy five percent of the students were elementary school teachers and more than 30 percent of them hold a Master's degree.

The selection processes to participate in the course vary from workshops through selection committees to an automatic acceptance of those applying to join the course. In Israel, regular teachers wishing to participate in principal training courses need the recommendation of their superintendent and face a selection committee, usually one out of two or three candidates is accepted. Theoretically, the reservoir of candidates from the field of education is unlimited, but practically, in the case of Israel, out of the 120,000 teachers only 0.5 percent to 0.75 percent are presenting themselves as

candidates for the course, from these only 0.25 percent are accepted. The number of yearly participants is between three and four hundred, ten percent of the number of acting principals (4000). The selection process for the ex military is based upon their rank and education and, following an interview, they are accepted.

Training phase - the need for a new modified training concept

The recognition and acceptance of principalship as a profession of its own during the last two decades of the 20th century (Davies, 1997; Caldwell *et al*, 1997; Hill *et al*, 1999) led to a change in attitudes toward the concept of school principal selection and the training processes offered to candidates. McHuge and McMullan (1995) emphasize that:

“It appears that head teachers require a structured programme of training and development which provides an opportunity for them to acquire and develop skills which are pertinent to the new role they must fulfil, thereby enabling them to perform their job efficiently and effectively.” (p.25)

They place emphasis on the fact that it must also be acknowledged that all those applying for the post of head teacher are teachers with relatively few possessing additional qualifications in management, or having experience as managers, therefore:

“It would be expected that, in accordance with good human resources management practice, new appointees should be provided with a structured training program designed to permit them to acquire knowledge and skills which are essential for good job performance as head teachers.” (p.25)

The understanding that this recent “customized role” of the principal creates a need for far-reaching training programmes is noted by Warren and O’Connor (2000):

“The need for a different style of management in school makes demands on the training system for future leaders who need to prepare to use a collaborative, open style of leadership that is recognized as more suited for learning institutions.” (p.165)

To cultivate and develop school leaders who can meet the challenges of creating new structures and reforming schools practices, there is a requirement for a dismantling and restructuring of the ways in which such leaders are prepared and trained. Such factors led some authorities to establish a large variety of training programmes that will enable future principals to perform their updated, modified role in principalship based on their qualification in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogy. Pre-service training is one element of the process which also includes forms of in-service mentoring and professional development activities.

The training activity phase as proposed is an outcome of all the changes and developments aimed at providing new capabilities. The model does not require the use of any particular set or fixed structure but enables the use of various training concepts and different perception prototypes. The uniqueness of the model is based on the shifting distribution of emphasis between the three bases of principalship, leadership, management and pedagogy, with the intention, after identifying weaknesses and strengths, of focusing on areas that need reinforcement.

The configuration of emphasis of each of the elements in the training syllabus should be prepared with the active involvement of the participants, especially when incorporating into the educational system elements from outside the system and qualifying them as school principals. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) claim that adult learners perform best when they can direct their own learning, influence the way decisions are made, feel that there is a focus on problems that are relevant to practice, use their rich experiential background , and build strong relationships with peers. This should guide us in our approach to establishing the training process.

Educational identity

Since the aim of the training process is to provide prospective leaders with the necessary tools such as knowledge, ability, personal and professional skills, there is a need for a suitable training concept to be applicable to general management like the one presented by Nissan (1997). He claims that the training needs to "*emphasize the development and inculcation of the means required to achieve the aims*" (p.11). This approach dictates the use of both contents and methods in the training process. These should not be constantly dependent but transferable and applicable from field to field. They should be transferred in a general abstract content without linking them to a particular subject. This approach enables the use in the proposed model of a variable and adaptable approach based on existing knowledge and the acquiring of new knowledge.

The approach presented by Nissan (1997) assumes that generalized tools are applicable to a variety of fields and not just to education. For educational leaders there is a need in an additional required element, for "educational identity", a term "constituted through a commitment to educational endeavour, which in turn is guided by intelligent conception of education and the good and the worthy" (Nissan 1997, p.8). This should be achieved, in his view, in the training process. Acquiring an element of "educational identity" is of additional importance for those coming from outside the educational field. In the light of the changes and challenges of schools today:

"The broadening of activity people engage in, the growing diversity of experience, and the frequent changes that affect our lives, it is argued insistently that training must instil skills geared to functional roles in shifting circumstances." (Nissan 1997, p.12)

These skills should direct allocation of the right tools for training.

"The inclusion of such tools and skills is conceived to be a prime aim of training, certainly in its higher level. A broad array of tools is acquired in leadership training programs - ranging from expertise in economics and administration to methods for improving instruction, and from ways to impose discipline to methods of displaying assertiveness. Many of these tools can and must be made applicable to varied occupations in many different fields; the distinctive element that qualifies the trainees as educational leaders is their "educational identity". (Nissan 1997, p.12)

Entering mid-life and developing intra-personal intelligence enables candidates to locate and identify those areas and themes that require accomplishment, empowerment and strengthening in order to be properly qualified. Brundrett (2000a) adds another dimension by asking:

"How far the governmentally inspired leadership programs have moved beyond the more reductive elements of the competence paradigm towards educational programs that develop the kind of reflective knowing and higher order cognitive abilities that undoubtedly will be required by leaders in the increasingly complex world of educational leadership in the twenty first century." (Brundrett 2000, p.366)

Involvement of the students in this process is contributing to developing higher order cognitive abilities.

The proposed model presents a process in which the aspiring principals are incorporated into a training process by being involved in identifying their strengths and weaknesses and are led through the process that was mutually established, in order to shape their qualities, abilities and capabilities on their way to principalship. This concept goes along with Hoy and Miskel (2001) who claim that, since school principals must deal with a large set of challenges presented by situations and people, they must achieve the qualities, abilities and capabilities to lead effectively. In order to develop, enhance and strengthen these abilities aspiring leaders must qualify themselves through appropriate and relevant training and development.

What do they require?

Former regular teachers, or others coming from the field of education, are expected to have pedagogical knowledge as their strong point. They also have leadership qualities and management abilities but basically at a class level. Leadership and management above class level, which is required for principalship, are expected to be one of their weaknesses. For this reason they should, as part of the qualification process, be guided into those areas in order to acquire the required strategies. It is important to note that this group will also need instruction in pedagogy at principal level, although their knowledge and experience in the field forms a solid ground for the necessary improvement.

This was identified by regular teachers in our survey when they were listing the required elements for training. It further correlates to a research conducted in 1997 by the Szold Institute (Friedman *et al*) that surveyed 369 acting principals (male and female) at elementary, junior and high schools. The research argued that basic management qualities that might suit every factory manager should be incorporated into the syllabi to include leadership, change, problem solving and decision-making and the affective activation of workers. More than that, aspiring principals should be updated in educational developments, curriculum updates as well as economical management skills and public relations (Friedman *et al*, 1997).

In the case of non-educationalists, the extent of the required improvement differs. In the case of ex military personnel, their particular background as former commanders and unit executives during their former military service, qualifies them officially in the field of leadership and management. As for pedagogy, there is an on-going

argument concerning the meaning of experience working with eighteen-year old soldiers and whether it can be considered pedagogy. This argument will be elaborated on later. Since the ex military are not officially qualified in pedagogy and their only formal education is the teaching certificate they obtained in the year prior to the principals' course, they should obtain the necessary training in this field. However, the need for training in pedagogy is consistent for both courses since pedagogy at a principalship level requires different qualifications, attitudes and approaches. School principals should work with staff to guide, teach and direct so as to implement pedagogy. In order to identify and understand the uniqueness of principalship pedagogy there is a need to elaborate that field as part of the training process.

This identification of required elements is based upon their own assessment of their strengths and weaknesses. Once the content of training is established the training formation is open to variations. It might be set, as is required in Israel, to include theory, praxis and practice. Griffiths *et al* (1988) suggests that, in order to train future school leaders, a training programme should be based on theoretical and clinical knowledge, applied research and supervised practical experience. It needs to include the following five elements: knowledge in theoretical models, understanding of the technical core of school administration, problem-solving abilities acquired by the use of pragmatic and active methods, and competence under supervision in real life and simulated situations.

Hoy and Miskel (2001) believe that implementing those elements in well-planned, extensive programmes can help in developing school principals as effective future leaders.

- The theory forms a base layer for knowledge, the aspiring principal should be exposed to a variety of theories in each of the fields and should be equipped with the tools to be able, in the future, to look for new and updated theories and acquire them.
- The praxis part emerges from theory and should adopt the training process as a play ground to try and implement the theories in a controlled environment. This element should include imitation of real life scenarios and simulations.
- The third part is the practice element. In this element aspiring principals practice in real life situations. The training part is the central and focal part of the model. This enables the candidate to transfer into principalship.

The principalship phase - implementing the strategies

After needs and requirements have been identified and amended, there is a need to move into the third phase of the route to principalship model, the stage in which a concept of how strategies are to be implemented as a school principal develops.

The third part, the principalship phase, the closing part of the presented model, is the part in which strategies acquired are implemented. This is the stage in which the candidates, after being appointed, are able to implement strategies acquired. This stage enables both the graduates of the training phase and those who have bypassed formal training to establish themselves as school principals. In this model this is the stage that enables the participants to build their own style of preferred leadership.

The process of being appointed is not an easy one. A survey conducted by the Centre for Educational Development (2003) to examine the contribution to school principalship of graduates of principals' courses for regular teachers, showed that during 1996-2000 (5 year period) 1541 students started the course, 97 percent (1491) graduated, 77 of them were already acting principals, 369 were appointed as principals after they graduated. In total 446 were acting as principals (30 percent). This percentage is an important element in the model since it is not only a selection process prior to the training phase, but also at the end of the training process for an appointment as a school principal. In total 35 percent of the graduates of the principals' course experienced principalship, an additional 19 percent acted as deputy principals, so more than 50 percent of the principal course's graduates were in school management positions.

Since 1993 39 ex military course graduates have been appointed as school principals, which is 12 percent of those achieving a teaching certificate and 19 percent of principal course graduates. This is a lower percentage than regular teachers but another 21 are in other educational management positions. So regular teachers on principals' courses still have a better chance of being appointed as a school principal.

In our survey, the aspiring principals sketched a concept of the desired principal model based on the three elements of leadership, management and pedagogy and established the weight they provided to each of the qualities, abilities and capabilities. The results, surprisingly, presented a similarity between the two courses.

The adaptable prototype

The presented model is an adaptable prototype that can be applied in a range of training perceptions and diverse implementation techniques. It does not require any fixed structure of training; it can facilitate the use of a variety of already developed programmes and presents a method of evaluating the route through training to principalship. The model is used in this research in order to establish a frame for analysing and understanding the process in which it is possible, by concentrating on the acquired balance between elements of leadership, management and pedagogy, to integrate ex military officers into the educational system and qualify them as school principals.

In this research we evaluate their concepts of their qualities, abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills, and locate the areas in which they might need support during their transfer into the field of education. In the following sections we will refer to the model so as to understand the research findings.

Strengths and weaknesses – background/origin abilities

Based on the source of candidates for principalship, educationalist candidates, such as regular teachers, counsellors, professional instructors, and the non-educationalists, such as ex military personnel as in our case, an attempt should be made to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each group. Since in both groups the involved population are at their mid-life, forty years old and above (more than 50 percent in the case of regular teachers and more than 92 percent in the case of the ex military) and are mature and well-established, they should be able to identify their own strengths and weaknesses, this can form a base for the course syllabus.

A List of Abilities and Capabilities

In the research the aspiring principals of both courses were presented with a list of abilities and capabilities and asked to list those they felt they carry with them. Each of those abilities and capabilities were categorized in the field of leadership, management or pedagogy (item 2). The list included the following:

The ability to work in a team, both as a team member and as a supervisor (Teamwork)

The ability to organize elements and systems (Organizational)

The ability to conduct and maintain appropriate work relations (Work relation)

The ability to conduct public affairs activity (Public affairs)

The ability to conduct pedagogical activities (Pedagogy)

The ability to conduct and perform professional educational guidance (Professional Educational Guidance)

The ability to conduct a conflict resolution process (Conflict resolution)

The ability to conduct budgeting activities (Budgeting)

The ability to conduct marketing activities (Marketing)

Selected items

The items selected by both courses are presented in Table 5-3.

	Regular teachers			Ex-military		
	N	Mean	STD	N	Mean	STD
Teamwork	68	2.4	1.394	59	2.68	1.765
Organizational	68	3.4	2.247	59	3.1	2.361
Pedagogical	68	3.97	2.572	59	5.25	2.411
Work relation	68	4.46	2.033	59	4.47	2.431
Pro. Educational guides	67	4.97	2.564	58	5.5	2.242
Public affairs	68	5.15	2.32	58	5.36	2.382
Conflict resolution	67	5.49	1.886	59	4.78	2.237
Marketing ability	67	6.66	2.042	58	6.03	2.456
Budgeting ability	67	7.42	2.297	57	6.46	2.457

Table 5-3 Both courses selection of abilities and capabilities

The first item selected by the group was leadership ability, teamwork. The regular teachers selected teamwork as the most significant ability; the process of establishing a "community of learners", both for students and teachers, as part of new teaching methods that emphasized the importance of co-operation and sharing and the incorporation of "team work" as part of a main theme. Schools have helped teachers to identify their ability in forming and implementing "teamwork" as a significant ability at two levels, for themselves as part of the teacher community and as class leaders.

Friedman (2000b) mentioned teamwork in his prospect of the future organization, emphasizing the need for adjustment. In accordance with changes in its environment, a clever use of teams for different missions, basic professional skills, and the sensitivity of those team members to increase variation and diversification, was presented among the abilities required for survival and development of future organizations. Friedman (2000b) claims organizations will be forced to develop capabilities such as teamwork for adaptation and adjustment to changing circumstances and environments.

The second selection by regular teachers was Organizational abilities. This can be explained by the fact that these abilities are required by a teacher at class level as it forms his/her ability to establish pedagogical elements such as the syllabus, set the curriculum and conduct daily class room management. The third selected item was Pedagogical ability, there is no argument as to their demonstrated ability in that field and, indeed, in a Mann Whitney test a significant difference was found between the two groups.

The next ability selected by regular teachers was Work relations. The ability to conduct and maintain appropriate work relations is made up of two different elements. One is the appropriate relationship among working associates; the second is the complex area of union arrangements and agreements. At one level, work relations might be associated with teamwork and therefore have a high priority. However, this item correlates negatively with pedagogical elements.

The next selected ability was a pedagogical ability, the ability to provide Professional Educational Guidance. This comes from the maturity and seniority of the candidates and therefore is expected from them.

The last element selected by regular teachers was Public affairs, which is relatively new to education. Teachers started being exposed to public affairs only in the last few years with the growing exposure of school and school performance to the media. A step towards progress in that area was the increasing communal role of schools, maybe that provided the teacher with the feeling of increasing ability in that field.

The three elements that were rated last were conflict resolution, marketing abilities and budgeting abilities. Conflict resolution at a class level is one of the main challenges to a teacher, it might be expected that teachers feel very confident in their ability in this field, therefore the low rating of this item is unusual. A possible explanation can be provided by the result of the correlation found between selecting conflict resolution and background variables such as seniority (0.26) and sector (0.25). This means that the more senior you get you tend to recognize your ability in conflict resolution. As for the sectors, it seems that the non-Jewish sector feel less sure of their ability in this field. The other two that were rated low were two managerial qualities, marketing abilities and budgeting abilities, teachers are not regularly exposed to these subjects.

In listing their abilities and capabilities the regular teachers presented the possession of pedagogical abilities and capabilities first, and then leadership abilities and capabilities, with management abilities and capabilities rated last (see Table 5-4).

Reg. teachers	Management	Leadership	Pedagogy
Selection	3	2	1

Table 5-4 Regular teachers' selection of abilities and capabilities

Ex military personnel also selected teamwork and organizational abilities as their significant abilities. Teamwork, as a theme, is one of the fundamental elements in the Israeli Defense Forces, especially in elite units, therefore presenting this quality or

ability as a main strength is well understood. Prioritizing organization as a top ability is also recognized.

The next three elements selected were leadership elements, work relations, conflict resolution and public affairs, all three are recognized as applied skills in a military career (regarding public affairs, the exposure of military forces to the media since the seventies has forced military personnel to develop abilities in this field).

The next quality was pedagogical ability, which leads us to question whether military reference to pedagogy is the same as teachers. This topic will be elaborated on later.

As for the three elements that were rated last, they were the ability to provide professional educational guidance, this can be understood, and two managerial qualities, marketing abilities and budgeting abilities. Regarding marketing, the same is true of military personnel as regular teachers as they are not exposed to this area and the low rate can be understood. However, budgeting is a required ability and therefore it is surprising it was rated low. The Mann-Whitney test shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups but does not explain the low rating.

In listing the abilities and capabilities they feel they possess and bring with them to the education field, the ex military personnel place leadership abilities and capabilities first, then management abilities and capabilities with pedagogical abilities and capabilities last (see Table 5-5).

Ex-military	Management	Leadership	Pedagogy
Selection	2	1	3

Table 5-5 Ex military selection of abilities and capabilities

Similarities and differences

The selection of the two groups was surprisingly alike, especially in the field of leadership. This might be attributed to the following factors; first the fact that the same terms are in used in different professions and occupations to relate to different things, this might lead to difficulty in understanding the exact definitions of each term. Therefore, terms should be more accurate and define the context in which they are used. Secondly, it might be attributable to the wide context of the term. An example can be founded in Kotter's definition of leadership as: "... a process that involves setting new directions or creating a new vision and the building of commitment to moving in that direction or achieving that vision" (Kotter 1992, p.6). This can apply to a military commander as well as a teacher.

Significant differences between the two groups are highlighted by the similarity in their selection. In a Mann-Whitney test of the two groups (see Table 5-6) it was found that in the field of leadership there is no significant difference between them. Both groups consider leadership as their strongest ability and both of them had to prove leadership ability in their performance (even though it was on different levels) and their peers recognized this ability.

In the field of management a significant difference (0.008) was found in budgeting ability, this ability was not identified by the ex military as one of their strongest abilities but was prioritized at a higher level than by the regular teachers. The significant difference between the groups might indicate that, in spite of their low rating, the ex military believe they are more able to deal with budget issues.

Mann-Whitney	N	Mean	STD	Mann-Whitney U	wilcoxon W	Z	Asymptote. Significance. (2-tailed)
Pedagogical	127	4.47	2.594	1344	3690	-3.226	0.001
Organizational	127	3.23	2.296	1796.5	3566.5	-1.035	0.301
Budgeting ability	124	6.98	2.411	1397.5	3050.5	-2.65	0.008
Marketing ability	125	6.37	2.256	1674	3385	-1.352	0.176
Public affairs	126	5.25	2.342	1868.5	4214.5	-0.511	0.609
Work relation	127	4.46	2.218	1971.5	3741.5	-1.168	0.866
Teamwork	127	2.53	1.573	1880.5	4226.5	-0.624	0.532
Pro. Educational guides	125	5.22	2.425	1719.5	3997.5	-1.114	0.265
Conflict resolution	126	5.16	2.08	1589	3359	-1.916	0.055

Table 5-6 Mann-Whitney tests - selection of abilities and capabilities

In the field of pedagogy there was also a significant difference (0.001) between the groups, here it was the regular teachers who felt that they were the more capable.

Selecting those two out of nine abilities as their significant abilities makes a distinction between the two courses. It is not a full-scale distinction but we can see that regular teachers require training in budgeting more than ex military personnel. It is a topic that a regular teacher is not normally exposed to unless they run their home budget. Ex military personnel require training in pedagogy more than the regular teachers.

In a Kruskal Wallis Test of the three yearly cohorts of both groups, a significant difference (0.049) was found between the cohorts in presenting public affairs as a significant ability. Cohorts could be distinguished by their selection of public affairs

as it is a relatively new area in education, personal experience is the main factor in rating this element. In the case of the ex military, they were more exposed to the topic since, as high-ranking officers, they had to deal with the media; they could also have personal experience. However, as mentioned earlier, there is a reliability problem with this item because of its double meaning.

In an analysis between background variables and presented abilities a negative correlation was found between pedagogy and seniority (-0.26). This can be explained by the fact that ex military, in presenting their seniority, referred only to their years in education (which is less than two years in most cases). Conflict resolution correlated positively with seniority (0.26) and with sector (0.25), which means that respondents from the Jewish sector felt more confident in resolving conflicts than the non-Jewish group. This factor requires further study because it might be connected to the Arab - Jewish conflict.

	Pedagogical	Organizational	Budgeting ability	Marketing ability	Public affairs	Work relation	Teamwork	Pro. Educational	Conflict resolution
Pedagogical	1	c-	c-	c-		c-		c+	
Organizational	c-	1	c+				c-	c-	c-
Budgeting ability	c-	c+	1	c+		c+		c-	
Marketing ability	c-		c+	1	c+			c-	
Public				c+	1			c-	

affairs									
Work relation	c-		c+			1		c-	
Teamwork		c-					1		
Pro. Education al guides	c+	c-	c-	c-	c-	c-		1	
Conflict resolution		c-							1

Table 5-7 Strengths and weaknesses - background abilities

Coefficient correlation (both courses)

Analyzing the correlation coefficient between the selected abilities found that pedagogical ability, presented by both courses as part of their strengths, was positively correlated by regular teachers to Professional Educational Guidance (0.346), which is a pedagogical ability (this is the only positive correlation). However, it negatively correlated to Marketing ability (-0.368) and Work relations (-0.420). The negative correlation to marketing ability can be explained as part of managerial qualities and therefore not too strong. The high negative correlation between pedagogy and work relations may be explained by the fact that teachers might consider work relations as part of the activity that deals with work unions, working arrangements and wage agreements and therefore feel not confident about it.

As for the ex military course, negative correlation was found with Budgeting ability (-0.375), which means that those who selected pedagogy at the top tended to set budgeting ability as low. A positive correlation was found with Professional Educational Guidance (0.315) which is explainable since it is considered a clear pedagogical quality. This does distinguish between the groups.

As for Professional Educational Guidance, within the regular teachers' course positive correlation was found with Pedagogy (0.346) and negative correlation was found with three elements of management: Organizational (-0.382), Budgeting (-0.294) and Marketing (-0.250), and also with Work relations (-0.322). It is important to remember that work relations were also negatively correlated to pedagogy and the reason for this might be that teachers see work relations partly as the ability to negotiate with work unions. Within the ex military positive correlation was found with Pedagogy (0.315), Marketing ability (-0.303) and Public affairs (-0.289) this could be explained by the idea that the more pedagogical you are the less managerial you are, and as mentioned earlier, public affairs is a new quality not yet developed among either teachers or ex military.

Within the regular teachers' group leadership elements and management qualities are not correlated among themselves. However, negative correlation was found between regular teachers and ex military in leadership and management. Examples are between Organizational with Team Work (-0.282 - regular teachers) (-0.363 - ex military) and Conflict resolution (-0.324 - regular teachers) (-0.378 - ex military) which might be explained by the thought that organizational types tend to be less cooperative or prepared to mediate. Among the ex military a positive correlation was found between Public affairs and Marketing ability (0.283) and among leadership qualities between Conflict resolution and Teamwork.

Presenting areas of strength.

	Leadership		Management		Pedagogy	
	Regular Teachers	Ex military	Regular Teachers	Ex military	Regular Teachers	Ex military
Strength (item2)	2	1	3	2	1	3

Table 5-8a Selection of strengths and requirements

The selections of abilities show differences between the groups but unexpectedly, since the two groups are coming from different sources, it also shows similarities. This might be explained by the use of the same terms to identify different things, or maybe conceptually both groups identify those abilities as theirs, or the abilities presented are connected with the final expected product of the training system. However, statistically significant differences were only found in two out of nine elements, pedagogy and budgeting abilities. This should be further investigated. In the analysis the way each of three areas were prioritized by the aspiring principals is a significant element in the survey.

Importance of Syllabus Elements – The First Step in Mapping Requirements

The second stage in mapping strengths and weaknesses is by examining priorities given to the course topics (item 1). In this item, the aspiring principals of both courses were presented with a list of topics covered in the course syllabus and asked to list the topics in accordance with the importance they attributed to them and felt they would most benefit from.

Course topics included:

1. Leadership in theory and practice – leadership theories and practical tools for leadership implementation at school and community level.
2. Daily school dilemmas - presentation of daily school life and the means to confront and solve challenges arising on a daily basis in school.
3. School discipline - theories and means designed for dealing with disciplinary challenges at various levels.
4. Organizational theories - general and educational theories and a variety of generic implements to handle organizational substance.
5. School based management - understanding the self-governing and school autonomy management concept and implementation tools.
6. School structure and organization - tools to understand, plan, design and establish school systems in general and school types in particular.
7. Future states - theories of future developments in education and the means to implement theories of advancing education and improving school.
8. Educational law – theories and practice for understanding and implementing the complex educational law.
9. Visiting various types of schools – exposure to various educational systems.

10. School curriculum – designing, implementing and understanding the essence of a school study programme and being provided with the means to execute it.

11. Educational policy - a set of tools for knowing and understanding educational policy and the means to implement it.

12. School evaluation- a toolbox for evaluating various elements at school such as teacher performance and student achievement.

13. Special education - the understanding of the meaning and requirements of learning disabilities and children with special needs.

In listing the topics according to their personal perception of their importance and contribution to their training and qualification process the students provided us with a better understanding of their needs and requirements.

item	Priority	Area
Leadership	3.28 /13	Leadership
Organizations	(5.15/13)	Management
School structure	(5.82/13)	Management
School based management	(5.84/13)	Management
Daily school dilemmas	(6.16/13)	Leadership

Table 5-9 Regular teachers' estimation of the importance of syllabus elements

The first item selected by the regular teachers (see Table 5-9) was leadership, rated 3 out of 13 choices. Teachers that consider themselves as class leaders were able to identify their need to perform and implement "leadership" not only at class level but also as leaders at school and in the community. The high rating indicates the clear

understanding of teachers of the importance of the leadership element in principalship. This will also be seen later in structuring the prototype of the ideal principal.

Their second selection, Organization, represented their abilities as teachers at class level to establish a syllabus and set the curriculum. The daily routine of classroom management is a demonstration of this ability, and was identified as a strong point by them. It was chosen as a second priority to be acquired, which suggests an understanding of the different levels of organizations. It is important to note that in a Mann Whitney test a significant difference was found between the two groups in the selection of two items, leadership and organization, which can define each of the groups.

The third selected item was School structure, another management item. This choice might be surprising since it would appear that experienced members of school should know structure and organization. However, again, as in the cases of leadership and organization, they feel that their point of view is from the bottom looking upwards and they probably feel a need to have an overview of the school.

The fourth selected item is School based management, a topic that in the last couple of years has become a point of interest and importance for that intent on becoming school principals. This is due to the intention of the Ministry of Education to implement the system all over the country. The fifth selected area, how to deal with daily school dilemmas, is in the leadership field. Again, at a class level, teachers deal with daily school dilemmas all the time and it is supposed to be part of their abilities. The choice of that element proves again the teachers' understanding of the need to

look at events from another point of view, to get the tools to be the ultimate figure and high judge at school for all those cases with students, teachers and parents that are not solved at a lower level.

It is interesting to note that this preference was also found in research conducted in 1997 by the Szold Institute (Friedman *et al*). In a comparison between training topics and additional requirements for principal training the choices in our case were very similar to the ones in the Szold research. Examples are teamwork, leadership, work relations, decision-making and problem and conflict resolution.

The three elements rated last were Special education, Educational policy and School discipline. School discipline at a class level is one of the main challenges for a teacher and therefore it is expected that they feel very confident of their ability in this area.

In their selection of the importance of the course topics, regular teachers selected management topics first, leadership topics second and pedagogical topics last. This listing correlates with the list of strengths and weaknesses (item 2) in reverse.

Regular teachers	Management	Leadership	Pedagogy
Selection	1	2	3

Table 5-10 Regular teachers - importance of syllabus elements

The ex military aspiring principals selected the following items, Daily school dilemmas, School curriculum, School visits, School based management, School structure and Educational policy. The first element selected was Daily school dilemmas; coming from a different world, their selection again proves their understanding that solving daily dilemmas in the military is different in nature to the challenges presented at school.

The next two selected items were pedagogical items, School curriculum and School visits, both essential elements for someone coming from outside the world of education.

The next two items, School based management and School structure, are based on the fact that school structures and systems are topics ex military personnel have not been exposed to, and therefore the need to understand how the systems are built and operate is an essential element for them. The next selection, Educational policy, is understood as it is an educational element that needs to be acquired (see Table 5.11).

Item	Priority	Area
Daily school dilemmas	(rated 4.73 out of a choice of 13)	Leadership
School curriculum	(5.05/13)	Pedagogy
School visits	(5.10 /13)	Pedagogy
School based management	(5.12/13)	Management
School structure	(5.22/13)	Management
Educational policy	(6/13)	Pedagogy

Table 5-11 Ex military estimation of the importance of syllabus elements

The three elements that were rated last by the ex military were Leadership, School discipline and Organizations. As for leadership, ex-military personnel receive throughout their career training sessions on leadership, both theory and implementation, therefore, they may feel confident concerning the topic. As for school discipline, this might be an example of misuse and misunderstanding of terms. In the military, discipline is a very clearly defined term, using the same term to address misbehavior at school might mislead the ex military into believing that, since they dealt with disciplinary activity at a high level, they do not have to train themselves to deal with school discipline. Clearly this can create difficulties.

Discipline as a milestone

A, a high school principal, described how he considered discipline as a milestone in his educational ideology, he regards misbehaviour, violence, or being late, as disciplinary problems to be handled very seriously. He believes that by meeting the students every morning at the school gate, and setting good examples in personal behaviour, he can solve some of the problems.

H, another high school principal, feels that one of the problems arising in schools run by ex-military is the feeling of a lack of backing for teachers in their work, especially in cases of disciplinary disagreement.

"My open attitude was misunderstood as softness. Only later both teachers and students understood it does not necessarily mean compromise. It is true that in the beginning I tried to implement my educational philosophy and

leadership to include disciplinary topics I brought with me from my squadron to school. It took me time to understand the differences, the need to back the teachers' authority and the complicity of positioning both students and teachers at the same level. Once I understood that it was easier for me to establish good and trustful relations with the teachers" (H).

O, a third principal, thinks that as for backing teachers "against" pupils, especially in disciplinary matters, it is not necessarily as an outcome of a military background, but the understanding that parents and students should be regarded as clients and treated that way. *"School principals should supply the teachers with work but not necessarily an absolute backing" (O).* As described by H, the feeling is that ex military principals are less firm and more open than regular teacher principals, which is not what is usually expected.

As for the selection of Organizations last, this can be explained again by the long experience they feel they have in the field.

Importance of the course topics

In their selection of the importance of the course topics, the ex military selected pedagogical topics first, and then management topics with leadership topics last (see Table 5.12). This listing again correlates with the list of strengths and weaknesses (item 2) in reverse.

Ex-military	Management	Leadership	Pedagogy
Selection	2	1	3

Table 5-12 Ex military - importance of syllabus elements

Elements selected in this question that presented required training or "weaknesses" demonstrates significant differences between the two groups which are much more observable than in the strengths presented in the former question.

Mann-Whitney	N	Mean	STD	Mann-Whitney U	wilcoxon W	z	Asymptote. Significance .(2-tailed)
Organizations	125	7.13	4.125	774.5	3052.5	-5.808	0.000
Leadership	125	5.5	4.167	717.5	2995.5	6.119	0.000
School structure	125	5.54	3.164	1660.5	3371.5	1.406	0.16
Daily school dilemmas	126	5.49	3.398	1514.5	3284.5	2.271	0.023
Educational law	126	7.51	3.386	1911.5	4189.5	-0.319	0.75
Educational policy	127	6.99	3.571	1392	3222	2.994	0.003
School curriculum	127	6	3.395	1348	3178	3.214	0.001
School evaluation	125	7.26	2.954	1617	3328	-1.622	0.105
Special education	127	7.86	3.443	1983.5	4261.5	-0.128	0.898
Future school	125	7.53	3.605	1858	3569	-0.423	0.672
School discipline	127	9.31	3.774	1195	3025	-3.996	0.000
School visits	126	5.99	3.842	1447	3217	-2.601	0.009
school based management	127	6.44	3.756	1602	3880	-1.98	0.048

Table 5-13 Mann-Whitney - importance of syllabus elements selection

In a Mann-Whitney test of the two groups, in eight out of thirteen elements a significant difference between the groups was found. In the field of leadership a significant difference was found in the selection of leadership (0.000), daily school dilemmas (0.023) and school discipline (0.00). The significant differentiation in all possible selections of leadership proves the awareness of strengths and weaknesses in leadership are very clear to both groups.

In the field of management a significant difference was found in the selection of organization (0.000) and school based management (0.048); two major management items that are essential for principalship.

Three items in the field of pedagogy showed a significant difference between the two groups; educational policy (0.003), school curriculum (0.001) and school visits (0.009). The significant differentiation in this selection proves again that the awareness of strengths and weaknesses in pedagogy is very clear to both groups.

In a Kruskal Wallis Test of the three yearly cohorts of both groups, a significant difference was found between the cohorts in organization, school discipline and school visits among regular teachers and in leadership and organization (prioritized as last) among the ex military. This might indicate that, in those items, in spite of clear differences between the groups, there is also some difference between cohorts of the same groups.

In an analysis between background variables and presented abilities correlation was found as follows: Organization and seniority-0.54, gender-0.46, sector-0.30, military service 0.52, school level 0.35 and type 0.50. Leadership and seniority-0.53, gender-0.39, sector-0.25, military service 0.41, school level 0.30 and type 0.38. Educational policy and seniority 0.27 and military service -0.25. School curriculum and military service 0.27. School discipline and seniority 0.26.

The difference might be attributable to the fact that, in the case of leadership and organization, the clear difference in prioritizing these elements is affected by this correlation.

	Daily school dilemmas	Leadership	School discipline	Future school	Organizations	school based management	School structure	Educational law	Educational policy	School curriculum	School evaluation	School visits	Special education
Daily school dilemmas	1	c-	c		c		c						
Leadership	c-	1	c		c	c		c	c	c	c		
School discipline	c+	c-	1		c	c				c			
Future school				1		c			c				
Organizations	c-	c+	c		1					c		c	
School based management		c+	c	c+		1	c		c	c			
School structure	c+					c	1						
Educational law		c-						1	c				
Educational policy		c-		c-		c		c	1				
School curriculum		c-	c		c	c				1	c		
School evaluation		c-								c	1		c
School visits					c							1	
Special education			c								c		1

Table 5-14 Coefficient correlation (both courses)

Analysing the correlation coefficient between the selected abilities (see Table 5-14) found that the majority of correlations, both positive (p) and negative (n), were found between Leadership and organizations (p), Daily school dilemmas (n), Educational law (n), Educational policy (n), School curriculum (n), School evaluation (n), School discipline (n) and School based management (p). Again, correlation might be attributable to the fact that, in the case of leadership and organization, each group was very clear in prioritizing those elements and they affected the selection of the rest of the topics.

Correlation with almost half of the items was found in School discipline and School based management. Correlation was found between School discipline and Organizations (n), Leadership (n), Daily school dilemmas (p), School curriculum (p), Special education (p) and School based management (n). Within the regular teachers' course correlation was found with School based management (n). Within the ex military course correlation was found with Leadership (n), Educational law (p), School curriculum (n), Special education (p) and School visits (n).

As for School discipline, correlation was found with Leadership (p), School structure (n), Educational policy (n), School curriculum (p), Future school (p) and School discipline (n). In the regular teachers' course correlation was found with Daily school dilemmas (p), Future school (p) and School discipline (n). In the ex military course correlation was found with School structure (n) and Educational policy (n). These correlations demonstrate to us a clear cut picture of areas where each of the groups feels strong or weak.

	Leadership		Management		Pedagogy	
	Regular Teachers	Ex military	Regular Teachers	Ex military	Regular Teachers	Ex military
Strength(item2)	2	1	3	2	1	3
Course topics importance requirements (item1)	2	3	1	2	3	1

Table 5-8b Selection of strengths and requirements

Item 1 and 2 in the questionnaire were intended to map the background abilities, capabilities and qualities and the strengths and weaknesses of the candidates based upon their own evaluation of the elements they possess and the way they prioritized the importance of course elements based upon those abilities (see Table 5-8b). These will form the basis for requirements of future organizations.

Officers as Pedagogues

An on-going argument concerning pedagogy is how to define the meaning of experience working with eighteen-year old soldiers in the army. The argument consists of two basic questions; the first is whether commanders fit the definition of pedagogues and, if the answer is positive, whether the activity conducted in the military is pedagogy, maybe it should be referred to as andragogy.

Teachers at all levels are considered to be pedagogues; the Oxford English Dictionary refers to the source of the term and defines him as:

"A man having the oversight of a child or youth, an attendant who led a boy from home to school, a man whose occupation is the instruction of children or youths, a schoolmaster, teacher, preceptor. "(p. 417)

Van Manen (1991) summarizes the definition to: *"The meaning of leading is in the sense of accompanying the child and living with the child in such a way as to provide direction and care for his or her life"* (p.38). Teachers as pedagogues or pedagogical leaders are expected to guide children while they grow through childhood into the adult world. But what about the process of caring, guiding and leading young people that have just graduated from high school and joined the armed forces (such as in Israel where service is compulsory for every young man and woman) are they still

considered pedagogues?

Pedagogy, with its extended meaning, is now referred to as:

"Performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, politics and controversies that inform and shape it. Pedagogy connects the apparently self-contained act of teaching with culture, structure and mechanisms of social control ... discipline, which extends to the consideration of health and bodily fitness, social and moral welfare, ethics and esthetics as well as the institutional forms that serve to facilitate society and the individual pedagogic aims." (Alexander 2000, pp.540, 542)

This is a very accurate definition of the activity undertaken with young soldiers. Even the official definition and meaning of pedagogy as it appears in the Oxford English Dictionary was modified to: *"....2. Instruction, discipline, training; a system of introductory training...."* (The Oxford English Dictionary definition quoted in Alexander 2000, p. 418). By these definitions military commanders may be included as pedagogues.

As to whether the activity conducted in the military is pedagogy or should maybe be referred to as andragogy, Canon (2001) raises critical questions relating to higher education. He rejects the use of pedagogy to describe aspects of teaching in higher education or adult learners and suggests the use of the term andragogy for adult learners; a parallel term to pedagogy but distinct from the learning of children. According to Canon (2001) this new word provides a suitable classification for the growing body of knowledge about adult learning. The principles of adult learning have been reinforced through research and growing knowledge, and now inform much updated information on the arts of teaching and learning for adult learners.

Are those young soldiers adult learners? Can learning in the military be considered as

higher education? The response of acting principals, both ex military and regular teachers, was that soldiers in their compulsory service can and should be regarded as young people since military service is regarded as a natural continuation to high school. After their matriculation exams, they start their service as new recruits to be shaped, educated and trained as soldiers; they cannot be regarded as adult learners. Unlike adult learners, they do not go through a phase that matures them intellectually, a phase required to become an adult learner.

The main argument used by those who do not consider working with young soldiers to be pedagogy is the extensive use of discipline in military systems. They claim that, when you make use of disciplinary action as a tool, then it cannot be regarded as pedagogy. However, the process in the army is much like what Knowles (1984; 1990) describes as the model of pedagogy:

"The pedagogical model of education is a set of beliefs ... based on assumptions about teaching and learning that evolved between the seventh and twelfth centuries in the monastic and cathedral schools of Europe out of their experience in teaching basic skills to young boys. As secular schools started being organized in later centuries and public schools in the nineteenth century, this was the only model in existence. And so our entire educational enterprise, including higher education, was frozen into the pedagogical model." (1990 p. 54).

If this is so the army could draw its model from this concept of pedagogy and shape its educational approach by it.

The approach that soldiers should be regarded as young people and pedagogy does apply to them is also found in the interviews with ex military acting as school principals. They emphasize that there is little difference between their students today and the soldiers they commanded yesterday. NH feels that the reason for his choice of education as a second career is, as he puts it, the fact that he likes young people, he

likes to influence them and he sees a lot of similarities between schools and military service. AH feels he reached the conclusion that through practically all of his military service he was dealing with educating young people and he decided to implement this experience and knowledge in the school system. So pedagogy, as thus defined, is applicable in our case to both regular teachers and the ex military at different levels and with varied methods and approaches. The insecurity ex military personnel feel about their pedagogical background leads them to try and increase their knowledge in the field through the training process towards principalship.

Towards the next step

The first two items were intended to map the background abilities and capabilities of the candidates, based upon their own evaluation of the elements they possess and the way they prioritized the importance of course elements, based upon those abilities. These items provided us with the aspiring principals' strengths and weaknesses as identified by them. The significant differences we found between the two groups signify the first stage of the model in which the origin of the candidates, based upon their own evaluation, forms the basis upon which we can establish the distribution of content required between the elements when establishing the training syllabus.

Expertise and Capabilities

Based upon significant differences between the two groups, it is possible to move to a structuring of the training phase. The training phase should set and fine tune requirements, not only based on existing capabilities and abilities but on a wider reservoir of areas, themes and tools. These are presented in items 3 and 4 of the questionnaire.

In the third item, the aspiring principals of both courses were asked to prioritize areas of expertise and capabilities they expected to gain from the training process. Each of the areas was a leadership, management or pedagogical area. The list included the following:

- Public affairs - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting public affairs and public relations activity.
- Work relations - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting and maintaining appropriate work relations.
- Teamwork - the area of theories and implementing methods of working in a team as both a member and as a supervisor.
- Conflict resolution - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting a conflict resolution process.
- Organization - the area of theories and implementing methods of organizing elements and systems.
- Budgeting - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting budgeting activities.
- Marketing - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting marketing activities.
- Educational laws – the area of knowledge and understanding of educational laws.
- Educational systems – the area of theories, structures and the construction of educational systems.
- Pedagogy - the area of theories and methods of conducting pedagogical activities.
- Curriculum - the area of theories and practice in establishing and implementing curriculum.

- Professional educational guidance - the area of theories and implementing methods of conducting and performing professional guidance in educational systems.

Regular teachers selected as their top priority the following items that were all categorized as management areas: Organizations, Educational systems, Educational laws, Budgeting and Marketing abilities. This led to management areas (5.07/12) being prioritised as first, then leadership areas (6.70/12) with pedagogical areas (7.67/12) last. The definition here became clearer; management is identified as the area that is considered most important for training (see Table 5.15).

Regular teachers	Management	Leadership	Pedagogy
Selection	1 (5.07/12)	2(6.70/12)	3(7.67/12)

Table 5-15 Regular teachers' selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities

As for the ex military aspiring principals, their priority selection included three management items, two of which are clearly identified as educational management, they are: Educational systems and Educational laws, then Organization and two pedagogical items, Pedagogy and Curriculum.

In their selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities to be gained from the course the ex military also prioritized management areas (5.36/12) first, then pedagogical areas (6.20/12) with leadership areas (7.52/12) last (see Table 5-16).

Ex-military	Management	Leadership	Pedagogy
Selection	1 (5.36/12)	3(7.52/12)	2(6.20/12)

Table 5-16 Ex military selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities

It is important to note that the shift between priorities of management over pedagogy by the ex military comes from prioritizing Educational systems and Educational laws. These come under management but are specified as educational management and, as such, are considered by the aspiring principals as important topics to be acquired. If we look at table 5-8 it will now look like this:

	Leadership		Management		Pedagogy	
	Regular Teachers	Ex military	Regular Teachers	Ex military	Regular Teachers	Ex military
Strength(item 2)	2	1	3	2	1	3
Course topics importance requirements (item1)	2	3	1	2	3	1
Expertise & capabilities requirements (item 3)	2	3	1	1	3	2

Table 5-8c Selection of strengths and requirements

For the regular teachers, the table shows consistency regarding the results; management is still the most perceived requirement. As for the ex military, there is a growing interest in educational management on account of pedagogy. Leadership for the ex military is less required.

Professional portfolio

The growing interest in the need to update and develop this particular management skill fits Yukl's (1998) description, as mentioned earlier, of the need for training in the transfer process. He highlighted the fact that research conducted on the way organizations develop and adapt themselves to change proves that, even in the same organization, different sets of skills are needed and required for executive management. Referring to the dynamic changes affecting organizations and the nature of managerial work in this century, Yukl, (1998) referring to Conger, (1993); Hunt, (1991); Van Velsor and Leslie, (1995) considers that future managers will have to *"cope with these challenges; most managers may need not only more of the same competencies but new ones as well"* (Yukl 1998, p-256).

The need for modification, updating and the on-going development of new competencies, as described by Yukl (1998), are part of the ability to adapt to the new environment of the new manager. This notion is developed in what Handy (1995) refers to as the "professional portfolio". Handy (1995) describes modern society as a "portfolio" society in which people are defined by a personal portfolio which they develop and attain within their professional life.

Macbeath *et al* (1998) feel that teachers occupationally represent an uncharacteristic line of occupation in which they might do the same job for life and most of the time at a single place – the school. This is unlike most people in most other occupations, who experience a series of job changes, retraining a few times, learning new skills and re-orientating their life ways and skills. This might make the transfer into principalship easier for ex military personnel since part of their service routine is a change of position every two or three years, sometimes to a new position that requires training and the development of new competencies. Going through a training process for the ex military, or for others who come from outside the world of education, will be a normal process.

Furthermore, understanding the need, knowing the process, and adapting to changing circumstances, develops a mechanism that helps in developing the ability to review strengths and weaknesses and realize what they should be trying to improve. Ex military candidates, well experienced in management in general, still realize that they should be looking for those elements in management that are specific to education. Is it the same for the regular teachers?

Moving up from being a teacher to a school principal requires a different set of qualities that should be developed in a proper personal "port folio" that will enable the former teacher to cope with the complex mission of the principal. The characteristics described by Macbeath *et al* (1998) of a uni-occupation present a problem in a world that requires a multi-skill ability. This could be the main obstacle teachers will face when competing for principalship. It is important to note that the different skills are not only in management, as identified by the regular teachers, but also in the world of pedagogy. Here they should be looking for new areas they were

not exposed to as teachers. The recognition of the need for training in pedagogy also will be examined in the next item which was an open item where they could freely include what they felt was really important.

Principalship in the form of management is a combined element that is deeply connected to educational elements. According to Everard and Morris (1990) this should be formed in stages each integrated in an educational concept: setting directions, aims and objectives; planning how progress will be made or a goal achieved; organizing available resources (people, time and materials) so that the goal can be achieved in a planned way; controlling the process; and setting and improving organizational standards. It is important to emphasize that all of this should be done with a very clear commitment to the main missions of education and be performed by the principal as an "educational manager". This is a role which, according to Campbell (1999), should stretch out beyond the curriculum and related topics and combine management and pedagogy, otherwise there is a danger that principals will become less educational and less professional. This is certainly a concern. Campbell (1999) concludes:

"`Managerialism' and `professionalism' are perhaps ideal types. Although it can be argued that governments have promoted `managerialism', in practice education management is developing in different ways and not blindly applying business practices and ideology to education. There are tensions between arguments about management and professional as anti-ethical, of management controlling professionals, of management and professional activities as separate but co-existing in education, or of management as being professional, which need to be further explored."
(p.652)

So the choice of management as a main theme has its risks if it is implemented in isolation. However, both courses, even if they prioritized management as a top

requirement, do not let management take over when sketching the ideal principal prototype.

A Mann-Whitney test of the two groups found that five out of twelve elements were significantly different. Three of them were in the field of pedagogy: Pedagogy (0.000), Educational systems (0.012) and Curriculum (0.000); one was in management, Organization (0.007); and one was in leadership, Work relations (0.003). The significant differentiation in the selection of pedagogy elements appeared also in items 1 and 2. There is a clear differentiation between the two groups as to their reference to pedagogy, where ex military emphasize their weakness in that field and their need for training and regular teachers feel it is one of their strengths that requires minimum attention, if any.

Mann-Whitney	Mann-Whitney U	wilcoxon W	z	Asymptote Significance (2-tailed)
Pedagogy	1211.000	2922.000	-3.639	0.000
Educational systems	1496.500	3266.500	-2.503	0.012
Curriculum	978.000	2689.000	-4.809	0.000
Organization	1461.000	3807.000	-2.680	0.007
Budgeting	1577.500	3855.500	-1.818	0.069
Marketing	1790.500	4136.500	-0.892	0.372
Public affairs	1778.000	4056.000	-0.821	0.412
Work relation	1370.000	3716.000	-2.962	0.003
Pro. Educational Guidance	1606.000	3952.000	-1.799	0.072
Teamwork	1599.000	3877.000	-1.563	0.118
Educational laws	1821.500	3474.500	-0.444	0.657
Conflict resolution	1856.000	3509.000	-0.270	0.787

Table 5-17 Mann-Whitney test - selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities

In the field of management a significant difference was found in the selection of Organization (0.000); as in the former two items, there is a clear significant difference between the two groups. Again, organizational abilities are something that ex military personnel feels very confident about, teachers do not consider their organizational ability sufficient for principalship and grade this item as one of their priorities for training.

Work relations

A significant difference between the two groups in the field of leadership was found in work relations. The significant differentiation in this selection might again be a result of the very wide areas this term covers, from personal relations among working people to work unions and professional employment agreements. The importance of work relations was mentioned as an important element not only in school atmosphere but also as a booster for a teacher's self-promotion. An example of the importance of establishing work relations and collaboration is found in Bradshaw (2000) who emphasizes the increasing need as part of the change required in the future.

"As partnerships shift from "charitable" relationships (Cordiero and Kolek, 1996) to system wide efforts to improve conditions for students and their families, the role of the principal also changes. Instead of initiating, controlling, and managing the partnership, the principal is one of several partners who work together to define the problem, establish strategies, and structure the partnership to address its goals." (p.12)

This leads to the situation in which:

"School administrators find themselves in new, more collaborative roles. Current and future school leaders must understand the collaboration process and develop the required skills. They must be able to involve all stake holder groups in identifying problems, exploring options, building consensus, and developing innovative solutions to improve conditions for

students and their families and to support educational excellence."
(Bradshaw 2000, p.18)

Both groups accept work relations as an important element.

In a Kruskal Wallis test of the three yearly cohorts of both groups a significant difference was found between the regular teachers cohorts in organization and teamwork and between the ex military cohorts in teamwork. Regarding organization, since there is a negative correlation between selecting organization and seniority, the findings of the Kruskal Wallis test might indicate that regular teachers with seniority significantly affect the selection of the cohort.

In an analysis between background variables and expertise and capabilities, negative correlation was found between selecting Organization and seniority-0.32, Curriculum was correlated to three background elements: seniority (0.31), military service (-0.38) and type of course (-0.28). It should be remembered that ex military personnel did not count their military service as part of their seniority and therefore the most senior were all regular teachers; that might explain the negative correlation between seniority and organization. The positive correlation between seniority and curriculum, military service and type of course also differentiates between the groups and we know that the ex military tended to see curriculum as a major element for training.

Tables 5-18 and 5-19 present the five top selected elements for each of the courses. The correlation coefficient for each of the elements is presented for all aspiring principals in general and regular teachers in particular in Table 5-18; the same is done for the ex military in Table 5-19. In that way we can see the correlation coefficient and the affect the particular course has on it.

	Budgeting		Educational laws			Educational systems				Marketing	Organization		
	G	RT	G	RT	EX	G	RT	EX	G	RT	G	RT	EX
Public affairs					c-	c-			c+	c+			
Work relation						c-	c-						
Teamwork	c-	c-	c-		c-				c-	c-		c-	
Conflict resol.						c-		c-					
Educational systems					c+	1	1	1					
Organization			c-	c-					c+		1	1	1
Budgeting	1	1							c+	c+			
Educational laws			1	1	1			c+			c-	c-	
Marketing	c+	c+						c-	1	1	c+		
Curriculum					c+	c+		c+			c-		
Pedagogy					c+	c+			c-		c-		c-
Pro. Edu. Guides	c-	c-						c-					

Table 5-18 Coefficient correlation - item 3 (regular teachers course)

	Curriculum		Educational laws			Educational systems			Organization		Pedagogy	
	G	EX	G	RT	E	G	RT	E	G	R	G	E
Public affairs	c-				c	c-					c-	c
Work relation						c-	c-				c-	
Teamwork			c-		c					c-	c-	
Conflict resolution		c-				c-		c				
Educational systems	c+	c+			c	1	1	1			c+	
Organization	c-		c-	c-					1	1	c-	c
Budgeting												
Edu. laws		c+	1	1	1			c	c-	c-		c
Marketing		c-						c	c		c-	c
Curriculum	1	1			c	c+		c	c-		c+	c
Pedagogy	c+	c+			c	c+			c-		1	1
Pro. Ed. Guides	c-	c-									c-	c

Table 5-19 Coefficient correlation - item 3 (ex military course)

Table 5-18 shows that most correlations for regular teachers were with budgeting and marketing elements. Budgeting was correlated with Professional educational

guidance (n), Teamwork (n) and Marketing. Marketing was correlated with Public affairs (p), Teamwork (n) and Budgeting (p). Educational laws, Educational systems and Organization were correlated in the following way: Educational laws to Organization, Educational systems to Work relations and Organization to Teamwork and Educational law. This correlation indicates that the item choice was made with a clear perception of required elements and it does represent a concept. It is important to note that teamwork, although not selected as one of the top five, was correlated to three of the top five selected items (marketing, budgeting and organizations). This indicates the influence of that item as one of the teachers' strengths.

As for the ex military, four of the selected items were correlated to five or six elements; Organization was the only item that was correlated to only one item, pedagogy, in a negative correlation (n). The rest of the selected items were correlated to various items and affected the general correlation coefficient greatly. Educational systems was correlated with Curriculum (p), Marketing (n), Educational laws (p) and Conflict resolution (n). Curriculum was correlated with Pedagogy (p), Educational systems (p), Marketing (n), Professional educational guidance (n), Educational laws (p) and Conflict resolution (n). Educational laws was correlated with Pedagogy (p), Educational systems (p), Curriculum (p), Public affairs (n) and Teamwork (n). Finally Pedagogy was correlated with Curriculum (p), Organization (n), Marketing (n), Public affairs (n), Professional educational guidance (n) and Educational laws (p).

A clear concept

The high correlation in the case of the ex military emphasizes the fact that the group has a clear and quite unified concept of their strengths and requirements. The set of

required elements is clear and so are those areas that the ex military feel strongly about. It should be noted that this preference was also found in research conducted in 1997 by the Szold Institute (Friedman *et al*). In comparison between training topics and additional requirements for principal training there are choices in this research that are very similar to those in the Szold research such as: teamwork, leadership, work relations, decision-making, and problem and conflict solving.

In the Szold research there was a list of topics that were not required as pre-service training items but were very much emphasized as part of an in-service training programme. These included curriculum, school evaluation, budgeting and public relations. As for the comparison between essential challenges in principalship and additional requirements for principal training, the research found that teamwork and staff training (professional educational guidance) were the most frequently mentioned both as a challenge and as a topic for in-service training programmes.

In the Szold research principals indicated that they wanted to include conflict resolution and daily school dilemmas in their training programme, probably because when a conflict occurs it affects the principal very much and he should be well prepared to deal with that topic. Some additional topics were mentioned in the Szold research, such as the teachers' union regulations, lack of backing from local authorities, poor budgets and parental involvement (Friedman *et al*, 1997). These additional items were not mentioned in our survey, this might be due to regarding those topics as ones that can only be learned through experience. The Szold research survey, which was conducted among regular teachers, supports our findings as to the regular teachers group.

This item in the questionnaire referred to a given set of expertise and capabilities and the results showed significant differences between the groups and a clear selection of priorities for training. In order to validate the forming tendency an open question was presented in which respondents were asked to list the fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals expected to obtain from the course.

Fundamental Themes and Main Skills

The first three items of the questionnaire have enabled us to identify the tendencies among the aspiring principals as to their strengths and requirements. Regular teachers seem to be very confident in their pedagogical abilities and identify requirements in training in the field of management and leadership. The ex military personnel seem to be very confident about their leadership abilities and identify a need for guidance in pedagogy and educational management.

In the following item the aspiring principals were asked to list the themes and skills they felt were the most essential for fulfilling the role of principal and which they expected to obtain from their course. Since it was an open question it incorporated a large variety of themes and skills, however, respondents tended to use elements from items 1-3 presented earlier.

The aspiring principals selected twenty-one categories as follows:

Leadership

- Conflict resolution – means for resolving disagreements at various levels.
 - Public affairs - tools to set up, conduct and perform a net of external and internal relations.
- Teamwork – instruments required to set up a team, instruct it and direct it.

- Work relations - tools with which to create and maintain good work relations with staff, students and parents.
- Daily school dilemmas - a set of means to confront and solve challenges arising on a daily basis at school.
- Leadership – practical tools for leadership implementation at school and community level.

Management

- Budgeting ability - means to set up, maintain and implement the budgeting process.
- Managerial tools - variety of methods to be used when dealing with managerial topics.
- Organizational tools - variety of generic implements to handle organizational substance.
- School structure – the means to understand, plan, design and establish educational systems.
- School based management - understanding the concept of self-governing management concepts and implementing them.
- Marketing tools - tools to establish and maintain the marketing process of systems, approaches and ideas.
- Educational law – knowing, understanding and implementing the complex educational law.

- Educational systems – a set of tools to improve the capability of knowing and understanding the complexity of educational systems.

Pedagogy

- School curriculum – understanding the essence of a school study programme and being provided with the means of executing it.
- School evaluation - a toolbox of evaluation approaches to raise student achievement.
- Future school - means to implement theories of advancing education and improving school.
- Special education - the understanding of the meaning and requirements of learning disabilities and children with special needs.
- Pedagogy - practical tools for pedagogical approaches implementation at school and community level.
- Professional educational guidance - enhancing capability of providing professional educational guidance in all areas concerning pedagogical activities.

It might be expected that regular teachers would select management and leadership topics and prioritize them over pedagogical items; the following results prove this to be the case.

Out of the six elements selected by the regular teachers, two were management items and three were leadership items. Teamwork was important and was followed by two managerial elements that were also prioritized in the early stages, budgeting and educational law. Both are very sensitive elements since they involve personal

responsibility, Principals are legally responsible for the school budget and every failure in this field could lead to legal charges. Maintaining and implementing the law in general, and educational law in particular, are also the responsibility of the school principal. The next two items from the leadership area were also prioritized in the early stages, leadership at school level and relationships in the school setting (see Table 5-20).

Team Work	(51%)	Leadership
Budgeting abilities	(47%)	Management
Educational law	(45%)	Management
Leadership -	(35%)	Leadership
Work relation -	(32%)	Leadership

Table 5-20 Regular teachers' fundamental themes and main skills selection

In their selection of the fundamental themes and main skills, regular teachers selected management elements (31%) first, and then leadership elements (27%) with pedagogical elements (10%) last.

Regular teachers	Management	Leadership	Pedagogy
Selection	1 (31%)	2(27%)	3(10%)

Table 5-21 Regular teachers' selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities

Analysing the selection of items in each one of the elements highlights a clear difference between the emphasis on required elements and those not considered as vital. Regular teachers identify their requirements in training in those areas they do not feel confident about (see Table 5-22). It is very important to emphasize that the reference is not to the importance of the elements but to the requirement for training and preparation in that area.

Leadership		Management		Pedagogy	
Teamwork	51%	Budgeting ability	47%	Professional educational guidance	20%
Leadership	35%	Educational law	45%	Pedagogy	16%
Work relations	32%	Organizational	40%	Curriculum	15%

Table 5-22 Regular teachers' list of expertise and capabilities

The elements selected by the ex military were:

Educational systems	(60%)	Management
Educational law	(39%)	Management
Leadership	(32%)	Leadership
Daily	(30%)	Leadership

school dilemmas		
Curriculum	(27%)	Pedagogy

Table 5-23 Ex military fundamental themes and main skills selection

Understanding the system

In their selection of the fundamental themes and main skills they expected to obtain from the course, the ex military selected management elements (28%) first, and then pedagogical elements (21%) with leadership elements (19%) last.

Ex military	Management	Pedagogy	Leadership
Selection	1 (28%)	2(21%)	3(19%)

Table 5-24 Ex military selection of the areas of expertise and capabilities

Leadership		Management		Pedagogy	
Daily school dilemmas	32%	Educational systems	68%	Pedagogy	35%
Teamwork	22%	Educational law	45%	School evaluation	28%
Work relations	20%	Budgeting ability	32%	Curriculum	28%

Table 5-25 Ex military list of expertise and capabilities

As can be seen the response of the ex military shifts from pedagogy to management. Educational systems in management are considered to be an essential item for training, followed by educational law. Educational systems are considered to be the key to understanding how things are constructed and operate. ZA, a retired officer who is now running his second high school as school principal, states that this is the most important thing for the new principal, the ability to understand how the system operates. Once you can understand the system, you are able to analyse it and appreciate its strengths and weaknesses, only then can you gain full control over it. This is even more important to those principals coming from an external system such as the military. As stated by ZA, *"Since every system has its characteristics, you cannot manage/run the school until you fully understand how the system operates"* the system in this case covers a very large area to include school culture as well.

The unknown world of school and the importance of understanding the system, to include the underground streams, is also mentioned by H, a high school principal, when he describes his relationship with the teachers. *"For teachers I was an outsider, not only had I got a very desirable position but also I did not necessarily understand the underground streams of the teachers' room."* H admits: *"I did not understand the teachers' code in spite of the fact that I was very much occupied with it"*.

As for educational law, as mentioned earlier it is a very sensitive element since it involves personal responsibility. Ex military personnel, familiar with military law, can very easily adapt to the practice of educational law and its regulations.

The presence of leadership as one of the top selected items indicates the understanding of the ex military of the need for modification of old abilities. School leadership requires modification and adjustment to the kind of leadership implemented in the military. Unexpectedly, as indicated by most of the acting ex military principals, in contrast to what is expected from ex military officers, those appointed as school principals tend to be more open and liberal, especially in their relations with students. H explains, *"My open attitude was misunderstood as softness"*.

The next item selected was daily school dilemmas, a topic which is very much linked to leadership. Challenges and dilemmas arising in daily school life are an essential element in the principal's role. Being provided with the necessary tools to deal with this aspect is much sought after. The last selected item was curriculum, a pedagogical topic the ex military were not fully exposed to in their former career and feel is required for principalship.

The difference found between the two groups in their selections was maintained by the regular teachers in all their responses. As for the ex military, they place management of educational aspects as a growing interest on account of pedagogy. Table 5.8, amended by this item, presents us with a consistent picture of selection. Regular teachers consider leadership as second, both as strength and a requirement. The ex military consider leadership as part of their strength and therefore give a lower requirement to training in this field. Regular teachers consider pedagogy as part of their strength and therefore demonstrate a lower requirement for training. The ex military, in examining strengths, present pedagogy as their lowest ability and, in selecting course topics, focus on pedagogical elements as a first priority for training.

When they were presented with a wider selection of topics in management with an educational orientation, they tended to prioritize them over pedagogy. So we find a growing interest in management demonstrated by the ex military while it is a constant priority for regular teachers.

	Leadership		Management		Pedagogy	
	Reg. teachers	Ex mil.	Reg. Teachers	Ex military	Regular Teachers	Ex mil
Strengths(item2)	2	1	3	2	1	3
Topics importance requirements (item 1)	2	3	1	2	3	1
Expertise & capabilities requirements (item 3)	2	3	1	1	3	2
Fundamental themes and main skills selection (item 4)	2	3	1	1	3	2

Table 5-8d Selection of strengths and requirements

Some of the findings in our survey are backed by research conducted by the Szold Institute (Friedman *et al*, 1997). The research was a comparison between the responses of principals as to essential challenges in principalship and required in-service training programmes. In essence, principals needed less training in pedagogical elements and more training in management topics. Elementary school principals emphasized the requirement of management skills, (since the majority of them are former teachers, some were not qualified at all in that area). Some of the principals showed interest in manpower development, a topic high school principals found a necessity.

What was not visible in our findings was the Szold Institute conclusion that some teachers need additional training in content areas of the curriculum. A significant

minority nevertheless felt it more important to advance the organization through conflict resolution, budgeting and marketing.

As an outcome of their findings two types of principals are described:

1. *“‘The organizational school principal’ attributes importance to economics and organizational elements more than to content elements (principals with experience outside the field of education tend to be included in this group).*
2. *‘An educational principal’ gives more importance to content and educational process and less to management qualifications and organizational and economical topics.” (Friedman et al, 1997 pp-31-32)*

These two prototypes do not necessarily suit, in our case, the difference between ex military and regular teachers. In our findings ex military principals do consider themselves as educational principals rather than organizational principals.

Management and leadership tools

The tendency among regular teachers to emphasize the importance of management and leadership was also found when interviewing them. The responses were mainly on the need for management, to include administrative and organizational tools. *"Practical management tools are what are required for principal training based on theoretical knowledge those useful tools for management should be provided to the aspiring principles"* (KL). *"Managerial tools are a fundamental element"* (SN) or *"Develop the ability to establish a data base of knowledge and experience in this area"* (BA). Reference to management included a very wide area of activities implemented in operating school with an emphasis on practical implementation of activities to include personnel management.

Leadership in education, in all its forms, was mentioned but not as a major requirement. Teamwork and work relations, as leadership elements, were stressed "*the principal's ability to lead a team as a main theme*"(ON) "*leadership tools of teamwork conducting and guidance*" (AP).

Pedagogical elements as main themes and skills were not very common. As an exception there was one request for training in the field of special education (RG). SN also included some elements that are considered as pedagogical, such as preventing violence, activation of children's society, educational measurement and evaluation, and the need for updates in educational theories.

HO, one of the respondents who originally came to teaching from the field of informal education presented a much wider set of fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals should expect to obtain from their training. These included basics in educational philosophy, educational organization, bureaucratic tools and techniques, introduction to educational procedures, school visits, and personal development and management. This can be explained by the fact that throughout his personal career he had been more exposed to external systems (Friedman *et al*, 1977) and therefore was more aware of the need for a wider set of tools to practice principalship.

A unique requirement was FH's expectation that a set of tools to deal with coexistence would be included in the training process. FH, as a teacher coming from the Arab sector, was more sensitive to the challenges of coexistence in this hard phase of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict and felt the need to acquire proper tools to cope with this challenge. HO and FH are very good examples of fine-tuning requirements

through their ability to define what their training requirements are. In the interviews a need for training and qualification in inter-personal relations was also identified.

Collecting and analysing the data from the first four items enables us to look back at our hypothesis that: *"Aspiring principals can identify tools and skills, required for their training into principal's positions, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills"*.

In all four items it was found that both regular teachers and the ex military clearly identified leadership, management and pedagogical skills, as key skills. More than this, our two operational hypotheses were relevant to the analysis. Ex military, representing aspiring principals from outside the field of education, tended to regard pedagogical requirements as a more essential element in their training process. Regular teachers, representing aspiring principals from the field of education, considered managerial requirements as a significant element in their training process. Ex military aspiring principals tended to try and improve their abilities in areas in the field of management linked to education.

Since the main points of our hypothesis offer explanations there is an opportunity to train candidates from outside the field of education for principalship positions, providing tools and skills identified as required are provided. What would representatives from the world of education think; would they fear that managerial positions would be taken away from them by principals from elsewhere?

Future Source of Principals

The idea of integrating people from outside of the field of education demonstrates a fundamental change in the concept of principalship. The idea that it is possible to appoint a "non educator" at the top of an educational system might be threatening for regular teachers. As NH, an ex military high school principal, put it, *"For teachers its an outsider that not only got a very desirable position but also does not necessarily understand the underground streams of the teachers' room"*. So the threat is not only in getting that position but also would the outsider be able to understand school culture in general and teachers in particular? How would personnel from outside the field of education feel about the viability of incorporating others than teachers into principalship positions?

This sensitive set of questions was presented to the aspiring principalship candidates with the intention of examining basic attitudes toward the idea of integrating "non educationalists" into principalship. The respondents were asked to agree or disagree with the following statement: *"Until today school teachers were the natural largest reserve for school principalship, in the light of the changes in the school system, do you think that teachers will continue to be the reserve for school principalship?"*

The growing tendency toward incorporating personnel from outside the field of education into principalship positions is well known among educators and non-educators so participants of both courses were exposed to the idea. Both the ex military and the regular teachers were aware of the "Officers to Principalship Project". As shown in our findings, the prediction that there would be greater agreement with the statement by regular teachers, who tend to continue to consider themselves as part the natural source for principalship, and a greater tendency among the ex military to

reject the idea, was confirmed. However, the expectation that there would be a significant difference between the two courses in responding to the statement was not confirmed or found.

The responses were that while 58 percent of regular teachers agreed with the statement, a similar number, 60 percent, of ex military did not agree with the statement (see Table 5.26).

Percentage agreeing with the statement	
Regular Teachers	58%
Ex military	40%

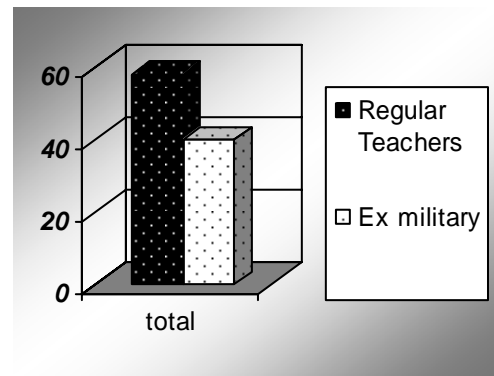


Table 5-26 Teachers as future source of principals - percentages agreeing with the statement

As to the basic attitude to the possibility of integrating candidates from outside the world of education into principalship, it can be seen that there are a larger number of regular teachers agreeing with the statement than the ex military, both in general and each year. However, there is an interesting phenomenon that throughout the years, among regular teachers, there was an increase in the number of teachers agreeing with the statement while among the ex military there was a decrease in the number agreeing with the statement. This phenomenon is presented in Table 5-27.

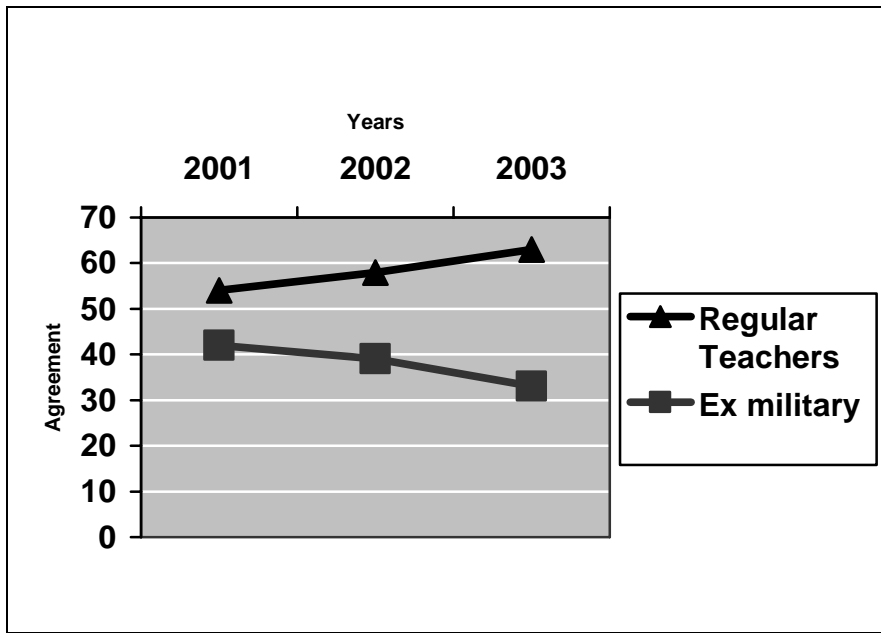


Table 5-27 Teachers as a future source of principals

This might be explained by the fact that the response to this question in both cases was based on how they would like things to happen rather than how they expect them to happen.

In a Pearson's Chi square test it was found that there was no relation between the two groups as to the way they responded to the statement about the future source of principals. This might indicate that, in spite of the majority among regular teachers who believe they will continue to be the source of future principals, there is still the large percentage who are less confident about it.

The negative correlation found between the future source of principals and leadership fundamental themes and main skills aspiring principals expect to obtain from the course (item 4) (-.19) can be explained by the fact that the majority that rejected the statement were ex military who rated leadership as a lower priority. Negative

correlation was also found between future source of principals (item 5) and selections of fundamental qualities and abilities school principals should possess (Item 6). Here the correlation was found between the response concerning future source of principals and the selection of pedagogical qualities (-.19) and a positive correlation found between the response concerning the future source of principals and the selection of personality traits (.24). All these correlations might be explained in the same way.

As a result of the response to this item we can conclude that each group sees better prospects for themselves as future principals. At the moment there is no demonstrated open hostility towards the incorporation of "non educationalists" (some resentment, yes). However, in the future, when and if there is competition for principal positions, then we should expect resentment and hostility.

Qualities, Abilities and Capabilities of the Principal

Based upon the evaluation conducted in early items of the qualities, abilities and capabilities of the two groups and the difference found between regular teachers and ex military, it is possible to determine required elements of preparation and training in the fields of management, pedagogy and leadership for each of the groups on their route to principalship.

After needs and requirements were identified there was a need to investigate the third phase of the 'route to principalship' model in which a concept of the practical essence

of school principal activity and performance is formed. The aim of the principal's course is to prepare participants for performing the principal's role, based on the training programme established by identifying their needs. But how do they visualize the 'final product'? How do they perceive the desired principal model based on the same three elements that are considered the bases of principalship: leadership, management and pedagogy?

The concept of a characteristic school principal is an important element in the process of training aspiring principals, a model to look up to and a role concept to adopt. In order to examine the students' concept of the ideal type of principal, the following item was presented. Aspiring principals on both courses were requested to list five characteristics they thought the most essential for a school principal to possess, based upon their concept of the ideal type of principal.

The students selected 24 items as shown in Table 5-28.

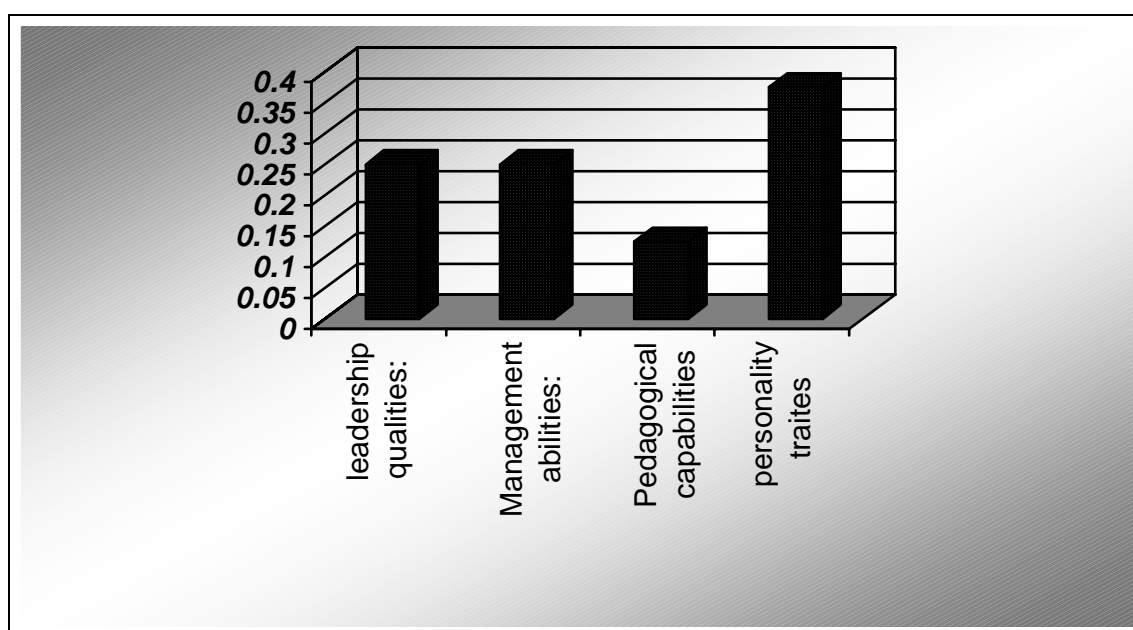


Table 5-28 Selected items in leadership, management, pedagogy and personality traits

Twenty-four characteristics were chosen by the participants, when divided into the areas of leadership qualities, management abilities or pedagogical capabilities, the need was raised for an additional fourth category of personality traits as an independent element to support the configuration of the ideal type of principal.

Leadership qualities

- Leadership qualities - variety of generic qualities recognized as leadership qualities.
- Teamwork ability - the ability to establish a team and lead it.
- Work relations – the ability to create and maintain good work relations with staff, students and parents.
- Charisma – possession of charisma.
- Public affairs – the ability to set up, conduct and perform a net of external and internal relations.
- Open to change – the ability to consider, evaluate and accept new ideas, theories and approaches.

Management abilities

- Organizational ability - variety of generic abilities recognized as organizational tools.
- Marketing ability - the ability to establish and maintain the marketing process of systems, approaches and ideas.
- Managerial tools - variety of tools acknowledged as managerial tools.
- Educational systems – the capability of knowing and understanding the complicated educational systems.

- Educational law – knowing, understanding and implementing the complex educational law.
- Budgeting ability - the ability to set up, maintain and implement the budgeting process.

Pedagogical capabilities

- Pedagogy - variety of generic capabilities recognized as pedagogical tools.
- Professional educational guidance - the capability to provide professional educational guidance in all areas concerning pedagogical activities.
- School curriculum - the capability of knowing, understanding and being able to implement the complexity of the school curriculum.

The fourth group of personality traits was formed as an outcome of the aspiring principals' selection and included:

- Listening ability - the ability to demonstrate patient and considerate caring and thoughtfulness for other people's needs.
- Credibility - possessing the following characteristics: trustworthiness, reliability and integrity.
- Creativity - possessing the following characteristics: originality, imagination, inspiration and inventiveness.
- Hard worker – the readiness to devote many hours and efforts to enhance the mission.
- Flexibility - being able to adapt to changing situations.
- Intelligence - being clever with the ability to use brainpower.
- Honesty - being sincere and truthful.

- Persuasive – being influential and able to convince others.

About one third of the elements selected by the respondents came under the criteria of personality traits. The importance of this area will be developed later.

Leadership qualities

In responses to previous items, leadership was considered as a strong point by the ex military and was rated second by regular teachers. The ex military exercised leadership throughout their careers, leadership was used as a criterion for their promotion and advancement and they had to practice it in their daily life. In the case of regular teachers, they were also implementing leadership in the form of "class leaders", but were able to identify their need to form and implement "leadership" not only at a limited class level but to extend this ability to being leaders at school and community level. Throughout the survey regular teachers showed a firm regard for leadership qualities as an element that should be learned and developed. Viewing leadership as a major element was very much emphasized in this item.

Middleton's (2001) definition of leadership elements in the principal's role in both community and school and towards teachers and students was, "to maintain the school community's energy and nurture the core purpose of increasing ability of all children and preparing students for the future" (Middleton 2001, p.130). This was close to the selected definitions of leadership characteristics presented by the aspiring principals, i.e. Teamwork, Work relations, Charisma, Public affairs and Openness to change.

Looking at the selected leadership qualities presents us with the picture shown in Tables 5-29 and 5-30.

	Work relation	Teamwork	Leadership	Open for changes	Charisma	Public affairs	Leadership selection
Regular Teachers	0.65	0.54	0.49	0.33	0.26	0.19	0.41
Ex military	0.47	0.48	0.45	0.25	0.15	0.2	0.33

Table 5-29 Selected leadership qualities

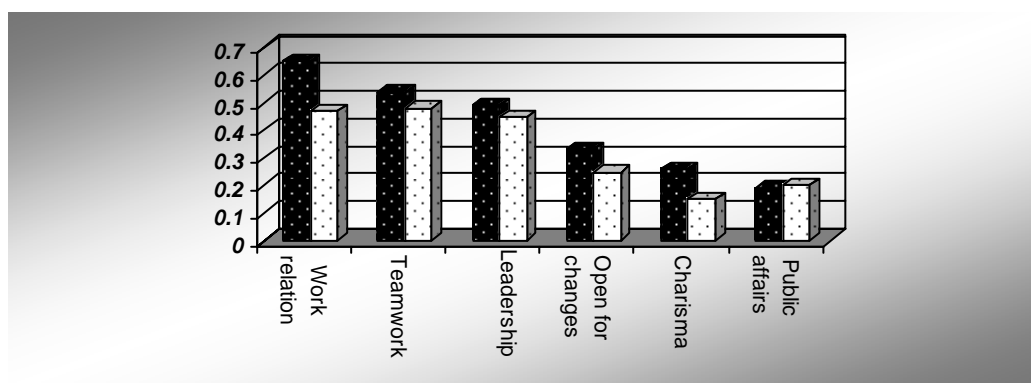


Table 5-30 Selected leadership qualities

In describing the qualities expected in a principal, leadership was rated very highly in both the survey and the interviews. AP highlighted teamwork as a main leadership quality and as a key factor for the ideal type of principal to include clear vision, the ability to form and operate a team and to practice authority. *"Proper work relations and public affairs ability are very important as a basic fundamental requirement for principalship."* (AP)

The selection of the top six leadership items was very similar in both groups but in a different order. Regular teachers tended to select more leadership characteristics, 41 percent compared to 33 percent selected by the ex military. The sequence selected by the regular teachers was: Work relations, Teamwork, Leadership qualities, open to change, Charisma and Public affairs. The sequence of the ex military personnel's

choice was: Teamwork, Work relations, Leadership qualities, Open to change, Public affairs and Charisma.

In the interviews, ex military personnel referred to the establishment of leadership as an on-going, continuous practice. ZA, an ex military high school principal, referred to gaining leadership in school, *"it is not an immediate act and it took the teachers time to accept me"*. That correlates with MacDonald's (1998) definition:

"A school leader is very much more than the passive acceptance of staff that they must do as the head teacher says simply because the individual concerned has been appointed to that position. A school leader at any level of the organization has won the trust, belief and confidence of staff to a significant degree and these are assets that the staffs have given to the leader." (p.171)

This takes us back to the description of the nature of leadership given by Klein and House (1995), comparing it to a flame created by three elements: the sparkle of the leader, the burning material of the led, and the oxygen as the circumstances. Leadership is more an interactive phenomenon between the leader and the led under particular circumstances. In many ways this description is suitable for the concept of leadership as an interaction, an on-going dialogue and a process implemented in educational systems.

Elements selected by the aspiring principals and those mentioned in the interviews covered only a small part of the wide category of leadership. Lambert (1998) considered the core of leadership as the ability to form the following activities and concepts: communal learning; collaborative and collective construction of meaning and knowledge; creation of opportunities to emerge and arbitrate ideas, concepts, perceptions, values, beliefs, information and assumptions through a continuous dialogue; jointly seek means to develop new ideas; conduct a process of reflection

and realization of work done in an atmosphere of common values and up-dated information. The responses in this research covered only a very small part of these items maybe because some of Lambert's definitions were considered as pedagogy. The categories that were selected for leadership by both groups were more basic and limited. Is this because aspiring principals could not identify the unique elements of school leadership? Or because they tended to select general leadership elements that do not necessarily apply to principalship? In both cases the lack of identified educational leadership elements was very clear.

Nissan (1997) defined the uniqueness of educational leaders "as one whose work entails making decisions which can significantly affect the education of others, and also implementing those decisions" (p.7). An educational leader needs "educational identity".

"Educational identity is constituted through a commitment to educational endeavour, which in turn is guided by intelligent conception of education and the good and the worthy." (Nissan 1997, p.8)

Do those aspiring principals know and understand the real meaning of leadership in education?

In a response to this question, ZA, an ex military school principal, explained in interview the tendency of aspiring principals, or newly appointed principals for that matter, to regard leadership as a general phenomenon and *"only later, through the process of practicing, he gets the feel for what it really means to be an educational leader."* He also claims that in leadership (as implemented in the army) each one develops a unique character of educational leadership based upon early life experience, personality and the circumstances. Some of it is acquired through the

aspiring principals' course in an adjustment process through the theories and praxis, but the process of acquiring that ability is an on-going one and it is only formed when you are able to implement it. The deep understanding then of the essence of leadership happens in the principalship phase, the third phase of our model. Leadership as a wide set of concepts can only be properly comprehended through the process of implementation and performance.

This means that the high rating of leadership elements by the respondents may have come from a basic understanding of the importance of leadership in principalship but not a full comprehension of the true meaning of educational leadership. It is the mission of the course developers to try and achieve the deep meaning of educational leadership through the training process, making the maximum appreciation of that phenomenon a preparation for implementing principalship.

Management abilities

Dean (1997) specifies the key assignment for education managers as "to organize that there is optimum learning for students, by deploying people, time and space to best advantage"(p.91). Or, as Thomas and Martin (1996) claim, management and planning are "the means by which the link is made between resources and learning" (pp.33-34). They suggest that managers have a clear and important role in ensuring this link is made. The management mission, according to that concept, is to make the best use of means and infrastructure to enhance school. This approach (Campbell 1999) links managers and teachers in enhancing education because only by understanding the link between resource management, budgeting and education would it be possible to achieve educational goals and advance school.

The management selections of respondents are presented in Tables 5-31 and 5-32.

Management abilities:	Organizational ability -	Managerial tools -	Educational systems	Marketing ability	Budgeting ability -	Educational low	Sum of Management abilities:
regular teachers	33%	20%	16%	12%	10%	7%	21%
ex military	33%	21%	9%	11%	11%	3%	19%

Table 5-31 Selected management abilities

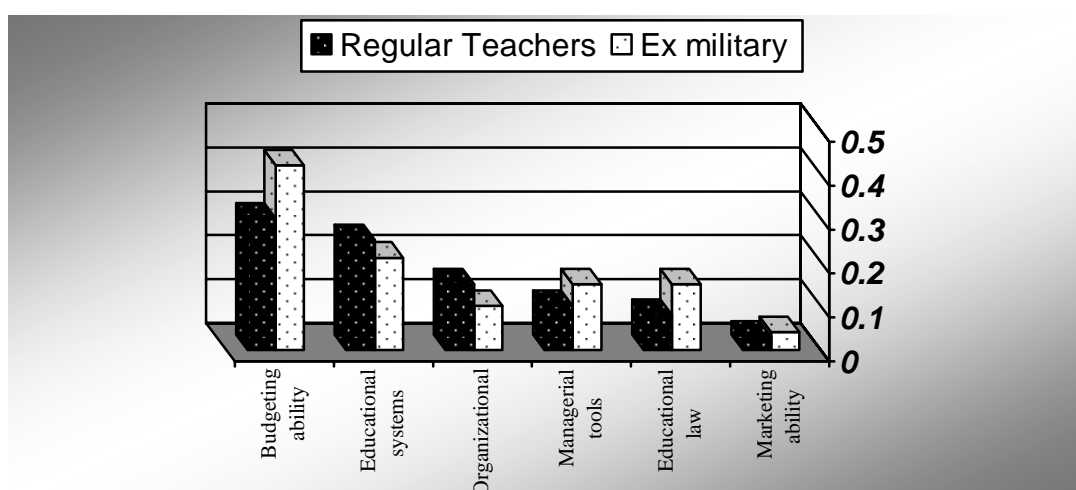


Table 5-32 Selected management abilities

The selection of the top six management selections was again very similar between the two courses, but in a different order and with some differences in the importance attributed to each element. For regular teachers the sequence was: Budgeting ability, Educational systems, Organizational, Managerial tools, Educational law and Marketing abilities. The selection by the ex military was: Budgeting ability, Educational systems, Managerial tools, Educational law, Organizational and Marketing abilities.

As previously analysed, regular teachers were very willing to extend their abilities in management with the understanding that they are not familiar with that area or with the concept of the centrality of managerialism in principalship. But when establishing the concept of principalship management, they consider the amount of managerial abilities required as only one third, compared to leadership qualities. The ex military attributed more managerial abilities to the school principal (32 percent management compared to 58 percent leadership). Is this because regular teacher feel less confident in that area or is it because they are more aware to the existing conflict between management and education?

Bennett (1997) identifies that some education professionals are 'hostile' to management (p.61), which leads him to highlight that management in education should be about achieving educational purposes. He claims education management is both developing and concerned with development, it is argued to be complex, characterized by dilemmas and contradictory pressures. Many educators rejected the link between income and outcomes in measurable ways. Levacic (1997) disputes attempts to measure the linkage between educational 'inputs', 'processes', 'outputs' and 'outcomes' which were emphasizing the measurable rather than the valuable.

This very delicate situation led Preedy *et al* (1997) to caution:

"The complexity of the intervening processes which link financial and resource inputs to educational outputs and outcomes explains why it is relatively easy for budget management to be decoupled from educational activities and objectives." (p.8)

This, in turn, led Campbell (1999) to look upon this 'decoupling' as the heart of criticisms of education management which sees practices and values and emphasizes

'managerialism' at the expense of education. It might be that regular teachers facing daily school budget concern are more reserved towards the managerial principal or "managerialism" and therefore do not tend to see the principal as so management-oriented.

The fact that regular teachers put management as the first priority in training and then attributed so few expected abilities for the ideal type of principal to that field does raise a question. Can it really be attributed to the management/education argument? If so it can be resolved following Campbell's (1999) suggestion that:

"Education management should emphasize educational goals rather than managerial ends. It suggests the need to explore the inter-relationship between management, theory, discourse, practice and development and the implications for learning and teaching." (p.639)

Possibly it can be solved by the perception that educational management should have equality between the managers' abilities and the need for the right actions for the necessary circumstance (Kydd *et al*, 1997). These kinds of abilities could enable the school principal to combine management with need and requirement in education.

It may also be the regular teachers' lack of confidence in their own abilities that makes them rate management lower. Developments in management theory have, according to Bennett (1997) great implications for the field of education and school life.

"Certain of the tasks of the rational model still have to be carried out: planning is necessary, and organizing. But instead of a language of control and demand, move us towards a set of meanings resting upon shared commitment, empowerment of the workforce, and delegation. Instead of 'management' being at the apex of a hierarchy, it is construed as being in the centre." (Bennett 1997, p. 65)

Management with that attitude might be more acceptable to teachers, implementing inter-personal skills and abilities, judgments and values instead of formal managerial controls and procedural approaches (Blase and Anderson 1995). Once implemented these can defuse the management/education dichotomy and help regular teachers deal with management in a more agreeable way.

Campbell (1999) realized that there seems to be a growing highlight on the complexity of education management. Research indicates an expectation that head teachers need good management skills (Moos *et al*, 1998). Global developments dictate that, in the case of regular teachers, these skills should be incorporated and make use of their pedagogical-professional abilities. It should be possible to develop management skills sensitive enough to combine educational needs and requirements. The answer lies in the ability of principals training agencies to develop management skills and competencies as part of a pre-service training that will fit the uniqueness of the educational field.

In their selection of management abilities both courses made a distinct differentiation between selections of leadership over management. The differences between leadership and management as two different elements with an organizational and functional differentiation is explained by Schon (1984) who emphasized that:

"Leadership and management are not synonymous terms. One can be a leader without being a manager. One can, for example, fulfil many of the symbolic, inspirational educational and normative functions of a leader and thus represent what an organization stands for without carrying any of the formal burdens of management. Conversely, one can manage without leading. An individual can monitor and control organizational activities, make decisions, and allocate resources without fulfilling the symbolic, normative, inspirational, or educational function of leadership."
(p.36)

YL, an elementary school principal agrees, with Schon and explains that, *"leadership in principalship is the most important element for teachers to look up to; it is not the principal's managerial knowledge or abilities that count for teachers but his leadership qualities"*.

Campbell (1999) considered leadership as an activity of a higher order than management "while leaders constructed vision and strategies, managers implemented them" (p.640). This corresponds to the way teachers see it, or as YL puts it, *"Unlike leadership which I cannot convey to someone else, the management work can be done by my assistants and I will still be considered an excellent principal"*. This might explain the very clear selection made by both courses, with even more emphasis by the ex military (based on their previous experience) on promoting leadership over management.

Pedagogical capabilities

In describing the ideal type of principal's qualities, abilities and capabilities the pedagogical selections were very low for both courses (14 percent for regular teachers and ten percent for the ex military). The top pedagogical capabilities (see Tables 5-33 and 5-34) selected by regular teachers and the ex military were similar with a higher priority given by the teachers to choosing pedagogical items.

		School curriculum	Pedagogy	Pro. educ. Guidance	Pedagogy selection
Regular Teachers	Total	0.09	0.25	0.28	0.20
Ex military	Total	0.04	0.14	0.10	0.09

Table 5-33 Selected pedagogical capabilities.

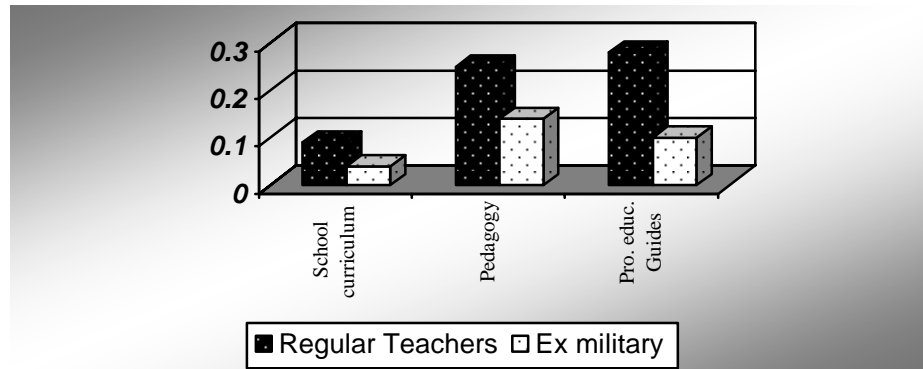


Table 5-34 Selected pedagogical capabilities

Sergiovanni (1996) argued that, since pedagogy is implemented by teachers in classrooms, teachers are usually well trained and knowledgeable in this field; this was realized in our research when regular teachers presented pedagogy as one of their strengths and as a topic they do not require much training in. However, does the same kind of pedagogy that is implemented by an individual teacher in the class suit the pedagogical needs of the entire school? Pedagogy is a separate element in principalship, but well integrated with leadership and management, the existing similarities create a symbiosis between those elements. Selznik (1957) refers to these special relations:

"The in building of purpose... involves transforming men and group from neutral, technical units into participants who have a peculiar stamp, sensitivity and commitment. This is ultimately an educational process. It has been well said that the effective leader must know the meaning and master the techniques of the educator." (pp.149-150)

The question is whether the pedagogue is a pedagogical expert only or also a pedagogical leader. Seeing the principal as a pedagogical leader might explain the choice of both courses of leadership as the main characteristic of the ideal principal model. Sergiovanni (1996) claimed that, when implementing pedagogy as a form of pedagogical authority which is a kind of leadership, it has its own unique characteristics.

“This pedagogical authority is not authoritarian in the sense that it is exercised simply because principals have more power than teachers and students, but it is authoritative. Its legitimacy comes in part from the virtuous responsibilities associated with the principal role and in part from the principal’s obligation to function as the head follower of the school moral compact.” (p.93)

This pedagogical authority is the ability of an educational leader to mobilize people and community in facing challenges and making progress in solving them. This could explain the tendency of regular teachers to prioritize leadership so clearly over pedagogy and attribute those additional elements in pedagogy that enable the practice of pedagogy at school level to leadership qualities rather than to pedagogical capabilities. RN, a regular teacher, sees the principal as a *"pedagogical leader, directing and applying plans and projects, forming proper relationships with parents, able to deal with disciplinary challenges and with the ability to form dialogues and a net of relationships"*.

As for the ex military, pedagogy as an item for training was very highly rated, therefore the fact that so few expected abilities for the ideal type of principal were attributed to that field also raises a question. Can it really be attributed to the management/education argument, as in the case of management among regular teachers? Or is it the lack of confidence in their own abilities that makes them rate management lower? In both cases, since pedagogical elements in principalship differentiate the leader from an educational leader and in spite of the very high attribution to leadership, in order to establish a solid base for educational leadership and to identify and understand the uniqueness of principalship pedagogy, there is a need to elaborate that field as part of the training process.

Personality traits

Are the pillars of principalship, leadership, management and pedagogy, the only required elements in establishing the ideal type of principal? Or are there other elements that enable implementing those qualities and abilities? The emphasis given to personality traits, especially by the ex military, brings us back to the approaches towards personality traits, where people with the right personal qualities thought to be more suitable for leadership positions, have cleared the way for a more situational approach. However, it is also understood today that there is a need for recognition of a set of qualities for leaders that might not predict the ability to lead, but help in implementing leadership and make a leader more successful.

An answer may be found in what is referred to as social intelligence; an ability to understand and relate to people (Ruisel, 1992). Or "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls -- to act wisely in human relations." (Thorndike 1920, p.228). RN, a regular teacher, sees personal traits as the main characteristics of a school principal, including communication and good inter-personal intelligence, creativity and flexibility.

Gardner (1983), in his multiple intelligence approach, emphasized that the relevance of a trait or skill depends on the situation, type of organization, and national culture. However, to work with people, lead or manage, there is a need for two personal intelligences that comprise social intelligence; the inter-personal intelligence and the intra-personal intelligence.

"Those two personal intelligences are not easy to detect in a person but are no doubt the most important for success in any communal activity...Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how they work, how to work cooperatively

with them, to notice and make distinctions among other individuals.”
(Gardner 1983, p.239)

According to Gardner (1983) intra-personal intelligence is a correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life our cognitive ability to know, recognize, understand and have a feeling for our "self".

"It allows us to value our being - which we are, what feelings we have, and why we are this way." (Gardner 1983, p.239)

This correlates with what was referred to in the interviews as the need for maturity. ON gave emphasis to personality traits as a key factor for the ideal type of principal; based on maturity, she included credibility, flexibility, honesty, wisdom and devotion to work. The need to be humane was brought up by others to include the ability to understand and cooperate with teachers and the ability to show appreciation and affection to them was connected to maturity.

The intra-personal ability:

"Is the same kind of wisdom attributed to old people in the early days. A strong intra-personal intelligence can guide us to the development of self-esteem and self-enhancement, and to strength of character that can be implemented in solving problems.” (Gardner 1983, p.239)

This is a very important point when connected to the stage in life when people move into principalship positions; it usually correlates with mid-life and also with the personal development of intra-personal intelligence. In the case of the ex military their decision to choose education as a second career is a result of intra-personal intelligence, the "wisdom" they have developed at that stage of their life and their ability to recognize their strengths and weaknesses. This could explain the tendency of ex military personnel to see different personality traits as important elements and

explain their tendency to include more of these traits in their characteristics of a principal than regular teachers. A relationship was found between the type of course and the number of selected categories in personality traits.

The category of personality traits created when categorizing the selected 24 characteristics for a school principal to leadership, management or pedagogy included almost twice the number of elements as the other three categories. A summary of the selection of the personal traits the ideal principal should possess is shown in Tables 5-35 and 5-36.

Personality traits:	Regular teachers	Ex military
Initiator -	18%	21%
Honesty	4%	18%
Hard worker	3%	16%
Intelligence	8%	14%
Credibility -	10%	11%
Listening ability	18%	8%
Creativity -	15%	6%
Flexibility-	8%	4%
Persuasive	7%	4%
Sum of Personality traits	10%	11%

Table 5-35 Selection of personality traits

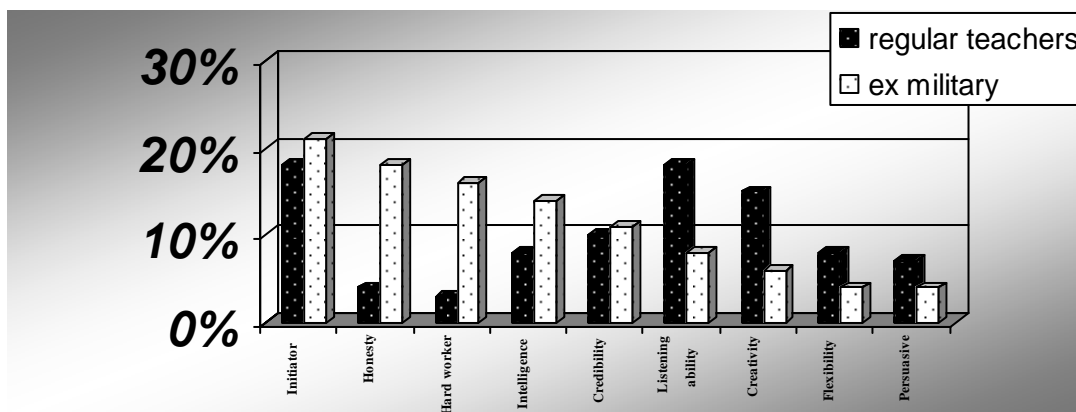


Table 5-36 Selection of personality traits

The principal as an initiator was the most important trait for both courses, then the ex military saw honesty, hard work and intelligence as the top traits while regular teachers saw listening ability and creativity as the top traits.

It is important to note that there was a relationship between the types of course and the number of personality traits selected (see Table 5-37). The ex military tended to include a larger number of personality traits in their selection. This is not a relationship between what was selected but between how many were selected. This probably indicates the importance of the personality traits in the eyes of the ex military.

Number of personality trait elements selected	Regular teachers	Ex-military
None	34.1%	20.9%
One	13.2%	10.9%

Two	4.7%	8.5%
Three	1.6%	3.9%
Four	0	2.3%

Table 5-37 Number of traits selected

The development of inter-personal intelligence enables students to understand other people's social dynamics and to interact effectively since it fosters enormous productivity through collaboration (Armstrong 1994). Are these the elements which enable school principals to perform better than others? The aspiring principals, by attributing those personal traits to the ideal type of principal, seem to think so.

The ideal type

Analysing the results of the fundamental qualities, abilities and capabilities a principal should possess led us to the third phase on the route to principalship model, the stage at which the school principal, based on his qualities, abilities and capabilities, can perform principalship and implement strategies. Sketching a concept of the desired principal model, based on leadership, management and pedagogy, enables us to determine which areas should be best prepared for at this stage. As mentioned earlier, the concept of an ideal type of principal is an important element in the process for aspiring principals, a model to look up to and a role concept to adopt. Therefore, their concept should also balance in the training model and establish the weight provided to each of the elements in order to better prepare them to act as closely as possible to their ideal type.

The participants chose 24 characteristics of a principal and these were divided into the areas of leadership qualities, management abilities or pedagogical capabilities. The overall selection is shown in Tables 5-38 and 5-39.

	Leadership qualities	Management abilities	Pedagogical capabilities
Regular teachers	63%	23%	14%
Ex military	58%	32%	10%

Table 5-38 Fundamental qualities and abilities a principal should possess

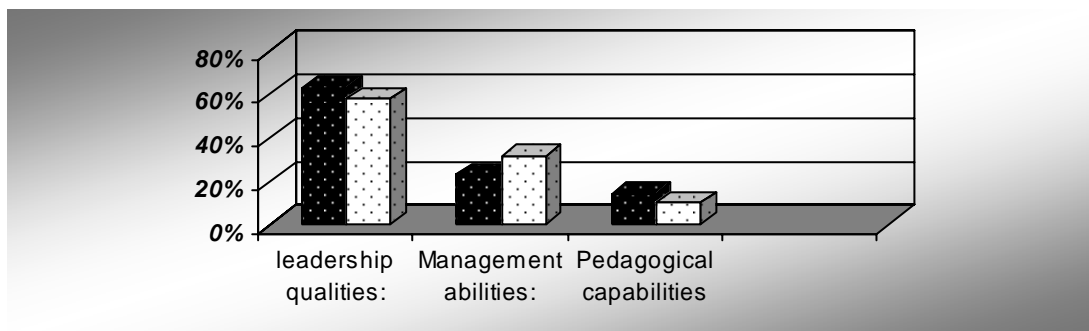


Table 5-39 Fundamental qualities and abilities a principal should possess

Each of the groups attributed fundamental qualities and abilities a principal in their ideal type should possess. It was expected that this would either reflect the requirements as identified by each of the groups in the early stages or reflect the strengths the groups presented in the early stages. However, this was not the case. It can be argued that it might reflect strengths in the case of the ex military but it was not the case for regular teachers. Instead there was a surprising similarity between the two courses in the final qualities and abilities a principal should possess.

The regular teachers' distribution of leadership qualities, management abilities and pedagogical capabilities of the ideal type of principal are shown in Table 5-40.

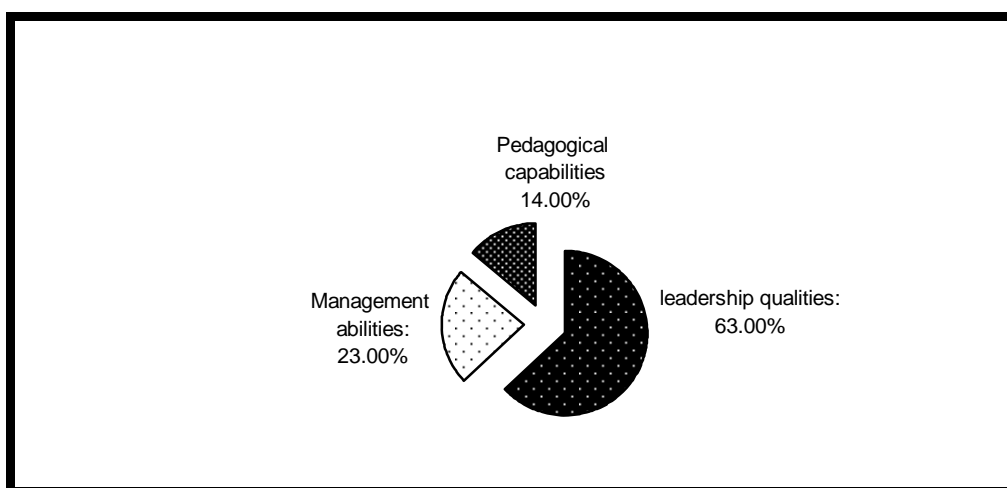


Table 5-40 Distribution of qualities and abilities a principal should possess

(Regular teachers)

The way the ex military divided the qualities and abilities a principal should possess is shown in Table 5-41.

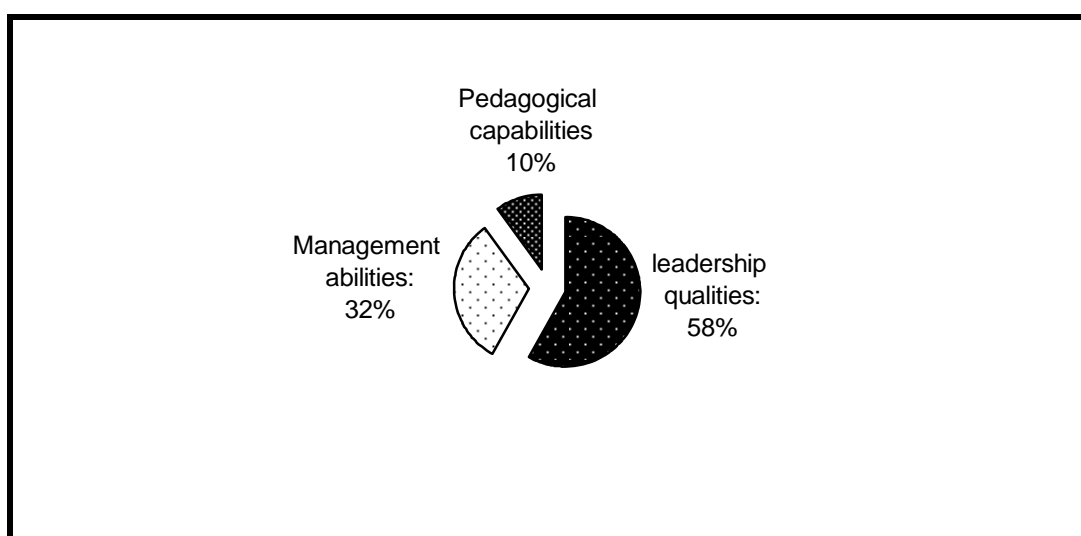


Table 5-41 Distribution of qualities and abilities a principal should possess

(Ex military)

In our interviews with regular teachers there was a clear preference for leadership, but it could not be predicted that the division would be so clear. DI had a long list of required characteristics and qualities for principals. It included: ability to change and advance changes, the ability to lead educational teams, demonstrate empathy, trust,

support encouragement and be patient *"To be a model in leading his staff for accomplishments and excellence and above all provide values"* (DI). NO also highlighted teamwork as a main leadership quality and added other leading abilities as key factors in principalship. These included organizational ability, the ability to establish vision, and providing equal opportunity for all students.

The difference between the interviews and the survey was again in referring to some additional elements such as maturity and ambition that were not mentioned in the survey but appeared more than once in the interviews. As we can see, they are very important pre-requisites for joining and participating in the process.

Inter-personal relationships were very much emphasized in the interviews, highlighting the importance of the principal's attitude towards teachers on a personal level. *"Humaneness and compassion, self control, sensitivity and warmth... enable a friendly and open dialogue with all involved in the educational activity."* (BA) *"Caring was very much emphasized as an initial requirement for principalship."* (LK) *"To understand and cooperate with teachers as much as the ability to show appreciation and affection to them."*(ON) *"The ability to act pleasantly."*(SO). Part of this emphasis can be explained by their location as teachers within the system and the importance they themselves attribute to the relationship with the principal, but it can also be seen as an understanding of what is really important.

The importance of leadership was also presented with a reference to domination (to include control). *"A principal should practice elements of domination as part of his leadership, domination that should be based on a humanistic approach. Reference to domination should not only include power elements but also mentoring elements as*

well." (KL). Aspiring principals did not tend to refer to the "power" element in principalship in the survey, neither regular teachers nor the ex military, either because there was no need for the use of power to gain leadership or because it was not considered politically correct to use the term.

The need for social recognition of the principal and formal social acknowledgment as an essential element came up in the interview with SN who was anticipating that the school principal should be a "main streamer". Is this really so? Can he only develop his vision between the existing lines? Expounding his view of leadership in schools Sergiovanni (1996) says:

"It is hard to talk about school leadership without also talking about the vision of principals. ...Leaders should have vision and then work to shape the organizations they manage in accordance with their vision". (p.82)

But the ability to lead lies in the:

"...moral place of schools in our society, principals must be concerned with the vision of parents, teachers, and students; with the vision implicit in our democratic traditions..." (Sergiovanni 1996, p.84)

So the remark concerning the need to be a main streamer is an important one.

Top selection

The majority of the highly selected items for both courses for the qualities, abilities and capabilities of a principal were leadership qualities: Work relations, Leadership qualities, Teamwork and Organizational ability. There was a difference in the selection of the fifth item, 31 percent of the regular teachers selected Charisma (only 15 percent of the ex military made this selection) while the ex military gave three items the same level of importance: Initiator, Managerial tools and Openness to change.

The similarity in the selections made by the two groups indicates that there is not much difference in the way both courses see the fundamental qualities and abilities a principal should possess. This might indicate that there is a growing common understanding of the school principals' role. The new modified role has led to a unified perception of a more advanced system of principalship that requires other abilities or, to be more precise, other distributions of the required abilities, such as prioritizing leadership over management, as well as over pedagogical capabilities. The final product of the training process, in spite of differences in the process itself, sums up an ideal type recognized and accepted by all.

Implications

An adjustable training concept

Preparing aspiring principals for principalship is a complex mission; the importance of a correct training programme has been a challenge since the understanding of the necessity for pre-service training. In this chapter a model for establishing the training process was presented. Based on that model the research findings were analysed. The model starts by identifying the source of candidates for principalship to determine the composition of course content. It then transfers them through the phase of training towards the third phase of principalship.

The first four items analysed were designed to map the qualities, abilities, capabilities and requirements of candidates based upon their own evaluation. These items provided us with the aspiring principals' own concept of their strengths and weaknesses. The significant differences found distinguish between the two groups and fit into the model. The first stage of the model forms the basis upon which the design

of the training phase was established and forms the training syllabus. This is determined by the origin of the candidates and based upon their own evaluation.

In the research, the distribution of the required content between the elements of leadership, management and pedagogy was based upon the evaluation of qualities, abilities and capabilities of the two groups. The differences found between them make it possible to set and fine-tune the necessary elements of preparation required. After needs and requirements were identified, a concept of the desired principal model based on the three elements of leadership, management and pedagogy, was established and the weight provided to each of the qualities, abilities and capabilities was set.

Kerry and Murdoch (1993), analysing the essential characteristics of leaders and school principals, raise two key challengeable questions: What kind of leadership will schools require to help them face the next ten years? And how equipped are managers in school to provide that leadership? These two questions are still major challenges for the future educational world.

In the research we tried by the model to answer those challenges and determine the feasibility of pre-service training for aspiring principals from outside the world of education to qualify them as principals while analysing the essential characteristics of leaders and principals. By doing so, we broaden the possibility of opening new options for integrating elements from outside the world of education into school principalship through an appropriate training process. Our assumption was that since *"Aspiring principals can identify tools and skills, required for their training into principal's positions, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in*

the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills", then it is possible to form an appropriate training programme for them.

The training programme established is based on the two operational hypotheses that were set, first that aspiring principals from outside the field of education are more likely to emphasize pedagogical aspects than candidates within the profession. Secondly that candidates from within the educational field will concentrate more on aspects of management, compared with candidates drawn from outside who have extensive management experience. Further, aspiring principals from outside the educational field will try to improve their abilities in areas within this field.

An analysis of the tools and skills required to prepare these candidates sufficiently and adequately for leading positions in the educational system was conducted by examining the contribution of pre-service training in preparing retired officers for principalship in Israel, compared to a group of regular teachers aspiring to become principals. An evaluation of both groups' concepts of their abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills was conducted in order to locate the areas in which they might need support and identify their strengths and weaknesses.

Through the research we have succeeded in proving the relevance of our hypothesis. It was found that ex military personnel, as aspiring principals from outside the field of education, tended to regard pedagogical requirements as a more essential element in their training process compared to those regular teachers aspiring to become principals coming from within the educational system. It was also found that regular teachers aspiring to become principals were inclined to consider managerial needs as

a significant element in their training process, as did the ex military aspiring principals who tended to try and improve their abilities in areas in the field of management linked to education.

As for the "final product", the desired principal, a great similarity was found between the fundamental qualities and abilities both groups felt a principal should possess. The aspiring principals, coming from diverse backgrounds and with different training requirements, present us with a unified perception of the qualities, abilities, capabilities and personal traits the ideal type of principal should possess.

Dialogue and the Immediate Response

Based upon our assumption that aspiring principals can identify tools and skills required for their training it is possible to develop a training programme, as described in the model, for a non-educationalist group. However, the tools and skills needed to prepare these candidates sufficiently and adequately for leading positions in educational systems must be provided at the right time and in the right way. Implementing this model should be based on dialogue and immediate response. The training syllabus should be established in collaboration with the course participants. If this is not feasible then graduates of earlier programmes should be consulted and their input incorporated into the programme.

Summary

The research was based on the questionnaire and the interview. In general similarity was found between the two approaches, analysing the data statistically presented us with very clear picture of the results but the interviews were a much more sensitive tool that enabled respondents to open new areas that were not revealed in the

statistical analysis. The interview, intended to validate the data, was used for a wider purpose and served as a source of vital information and a spotlight on new areas for thoughts and research. The combination of both systems was very fruitful.

CHAPTER 6 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Educating young people is an intense and responsible task, especially in an era characterized by rapid communication and technological changes (Friedman 2000b). The main responsibility falls on the shoulders of educators, teachers and principals who are entrusted with the task of equipping young people for uncertain futures. The implications of global change on education have been identified by Davies (1997):

"In this world the globalization of economic systems, technological advance and the increased expectations that society has of its education system have replaced past certainties with new and uncertain frameworks. Dynamic changes have become the order of the day." (p. 11)

The challenges confronting principals today are more complicated and complex than in the past. To be able to respond to these challenges, education systems need to reorganize. In fact, during the last two decades, educational systems have gone through major conceptual changes; the concepts of schooling have been modified in accordance with society's sociological and technological changes (Campbell 1999). Schools have shifted towards involvement in society, have become more independent in managing internal organization, and have developed increasing commitment to raising student achievements (White and Carr 2001).

New contexts

A key element that determines the success of these institutions is the ability of the school principal to manage change (Chen 1999). Constant change requires constant adjustment by principals to new contexts. The principals' modified role leads to the question Davis (1997) asks: "How do leaders and managers meet this challenge and develop approaches in order to operate successfully in this new environment?"(p. 11). Any answer needs to examine the way school principals are selected and prepared for

leadership. One possible solution would be to consider schools as new organizations that require: "New people to run them, people with new skills, new capacities and different career patterns" (Handy, 1995 pp-148-9). However, schools are frequently regarded as unchanging organizations, preserving the same procedures relating to staffing as in the past. Without change it is likely that a staffing crisis is imminent.

The new requirements for the role are likely to lead to a situation where there will not be sufficient number of teachers capable of fulfilling the principals role (Sarason 1982). In some cases it is hard for regular teachers, as for others affiliated to the world of education, to accept the idea of incorporating outsiders as heads of educational institutions (Blackman and Fenwick, 2000, quoted in Tracy and Weaver 2000). The latter stress the importance of solving the principal shortage in ways that preserve the role of professional educators as leaders of schools. They believe educators need to find other educators to fill leadership positions and see it as a challenge to encourage able educators to be willing leaders. This does not always happen.

The need to incorporate principals from outside the education world is not a failure or a result of incompetence on the part of teachers (Handy 1995). Rather it is an outcome of developmental changes in which requirements of school principals have changed to include many other elements that are not a part of the teacher's natural qualities and qualifications. Teachers have their talents in fulfilling this role, but these talents may be specific to the classroom arena (Macbeath *et al*, 1998). The extremely professional teacher, with extensive pedagogical knowledge, becomes a "professional authority". However, professional knowledge is no longer sufficient to be selected for appointment to principal. School principals are becoming, by definition, more

managerially oriented. Educational management is now seen as, “the means by which the link is made between resources and learning, conceptually and practically distinct from the core activity of teaching and learning” (Thomas and Martin, 1996 pp.33-34).

Who can join in?

Expected, and in some places current, shortages in aspiring principals, creates the need to recruit people with a “multi-item professional portfolio” (Handy 1995). Handy’s vision of a portfolio worker opens the door for candidates from outside teaching to be considered for managerial positions.

Transferable skills

What managerial skills are transferable from one type of organization to another? (Katz, 1955, quoted in Yukl 1998). Katz suggests that high-level managers with good human relations (interpersonal intelligence) and conceptual skills can be transferred from one industry to another without losing their effectiveness. This ability to transfer between organizations (Yukl 1998) requires particular knowledge needs to be re-learned. The training process is an essential element for achieving re-learning.

A concept of structured training for school principals, including pre-service, in-service, mentoring and professional training, is a recent development. Until about 30 years ago the dominant concept for preparing school principals for their mission was “training on the job”. This model no longer stands, rather a variety of more sophisticated approaches have been developed (Daresh and Playko, 1992; Friedman, 2000a). Most new programmes are based on the concept that school principals are selected from existing experienced teachers within the field of education.

The three pillars – elements for training

The expectation “that head teachers will be leaders, managers and professionals” (Campbell, 1999 p. 653) leads to a three-strand model of principal development. Campbell’s three pillars cover the main areas in which school principals are expected to perform their role and for which they should become competent.

All three elements are incorporated in newly developed training (Hoy and Miskel, 2001). Such training involves management, the kind of management that involves:

“...direction, planning, programming, regulating, financial, personal and equipment management, output, time control and the conduct of meetings and upward as well as downward communication.” (Parames, 1975 pp. 11-12)

While there should be a holistic approach, the reality of new management training is that it concentrates on management, rather than pedagogy. However, the symbiosis between leadership and pedagogy should be addressed. Some believe that principals should implement leadership as a form of pedagogy. Sergiovanni (1996) argues that a leader needs to mobilize people and communities to face their problems and to make progress in solving them. The training process should form what Sergiovanni (1996) refers to as pedagogical authority:

“...this pedagogical authority is not authoritarian in the sense that it is exercised simply because principals have more power than teachers and students, but it is authoritative. Its legitimacy comes in part from the virtuous responsibilities associated with the principal role and in part from the principal’s obligation to function as the head follower of the school moral compact.” (p. 93)

In this context Sergiovanni is arguing that the three components of principalship, leadership, management and pedagogy, are not one-dimensional. Rather by

integration they form a multi-dimensional entity that is the essence of principalship and therefore should become the core of the training.

As for the methodological construction of the course, three basic elements are required; theory, praxis and practice. Griffiths *et al* (1988) argue that a training programme should be based on theoretical and clinical knowledge, practiced research and supervised practical experience including knowledge of theoretical models, understanding the technical core of school administration and acquiring problem-solving abilities via the use of pragmatic and active methods. Others, such as Hoy and Miskel 2001, believe that implementing these elements in well-planned extensive programmes can help in developing school principals as effective leaders for the future. These can be organized in different ways as long as the core curriculum of training is retained.

The challenge

The challenge, therefore, is to find and train fit and capable educational leaders who will translate their commitment into a vision, raise standards and aspirations across school, community and society. “Where will these educational leaders emerge? What mission will they be qualified to accomplish? What challenges will they be competent to face?” (Chen 1999, p. 321).

This thesis presents one response by presenting a way of incorporating candidates from outside the field of education into the field of education as school principals and retraining them. Since existing training programmes might not provide a specific response to the “non educationalists” particular requirements, there is a need to locate and map their strengths, weaknesses, qualities, abilities and capabilities and then

provide them with a specially designed pre-service training programme, based on their identified qualities and abilities, to provide the necessary tools to become competent school principals.

The Aim

The aim of this research was to determine the viability of pre-service training for aspiring principals coming from outside the world of education to qualify them as school principals. In Israel, where the research was conducted, there is an institutional project, “officers for education”, qualifying ex-military personnel into the field of education for principalship positions. Similar projects for integrating ex-military into education have been undertaken in the US and Sweden.

The research was conducted on ex-military participating in the project compared to a group of regular teachers aspiring to become principals, by examining the requirements for pre-service training in preparing for principalship in Israel. An analysis of the tools and skills needed to prepare these candidates sufficiently and adequately for leading positions in the educational system was conducted. Additionally, an evaluation of both groups’ concepts of their abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills was carried out in order to locate areas in which they needed support during their transfer into the field of education.

Assumptions

The thesis was based on the assumption that: *Aspiring principals can identify tools and skills required for their training into principal's positions, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and*

pedagogical skills. Based on this ability it is possible to respond to their requirements.

This assumption led us to two operational hypotheses: *Aspiring principals from outside the field of education are more likely to emphasize pedagogical aspects than candidates within the profession.* And that: *Candidates from within the field educational field will concentrate more on aspects of management, compared with candidates drawn from outside who have extensive management experience.* Proving the hypotheses enabled us to establish a training model.

A route through training

Since existing training programmes may not provide people with a limited educational background with specific responses to their requirements, the thesis presented a possible model to respond to the challenge. The model, “the way to principalship – a route through training”, presents a feasible process where candidates can acquire the skills and knowledge necessary to become a school principal.

The training model is based on three phases: source or origin phase - a preliminary phase that presents the reservoir from which principals may emerge and is divided into two groups, those who are from within the educational world and those who are not. From this phase they progress into a selection process and then move into a training phase, the central and most significant part of which is founded on the knowledge, qualities, abilities and capabilities of the candidates. Shortages and requirements are identified and in many ways it is a bespoke model; the training programme is tailored to the needs of individual candidates. Finally, those selected move into principalship positions.

In the research based upon the model, an attempt was made to acquire the necessary balance between elements of leadership, management and pedagogy. It was achieved by an evaluation of the aspiring principal's concepts of their qualities, abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills, and by locating their strengths and weaknesses, mapping areas in which they might need extension during their transfer into the field of education.

The Research

The questionnaire was devised to try and distinguish qualities, abilities and capabilities of the aspiring principals from the two different groups in order to establish the weight pendulum for each of the groups.

The first two items of the questionnaire were aimed at mapping the background abilities, capabilities, qualities, strengths and weaknesses of the candidates based upon their own evaluation of elements they possessed and the way they were prioritized. Course elements based upon these abilities form the basis for requirements for future training and provide us with a map of the principals' strengths and weaknesses as identified by themselves. The significant differences we found distinguish the two groups.

The first stage of the model in which the origin of the candidates, based upon their own evaluation, form the basis upon which we can establish the distribution of required content between the elements in establishing the training syllabus. By identifying significant differences it was possible to move to structuring the training phase. The training phase, the central and most crucial element, fine-tuned

requirements, based on a wider range of areas, themes and tools. These were presented in items three and four of the questionnaire. Prioritizing themes, skills, expertise and capabilities differentiated between the groups and, as an outcome, determined necessary elements of preparation and amendments required in each of the fields.

The third item, referring to a given set of capabilities, showed significant difference between the groups and a clear selection of priorities for training. In order to validate this tendency an open question was presented in which aspiring principals were requested to list fundamental themes and the main skills they expected to obtain throughout the course. These elements of the questionnaire have enabled us to identify the tendencies among the aspiring principals regarding their requirements.

Regular teachers seemed to be very confident of their pedagogical abilities and therefore identified requirements for training in management and leadership. Ex-military personnel seemed to be very confident of their leadership abilities and identified a need for guidance in pedagogy and management, especially the educational elements of management.

The two groups made different selections in response to many items. Regular teachers demonstrated consistency in selecting management as the most required training topic. As for ex-military personnel, it was found that management of educational aspects increased when management was linked to pedagogy. (As can be seen in Tables 6.1 and 6.2, which present both groups' selections.) Regular teachers considered leadership a second priority. The ex-military considered leadership as part of their strength and therefore demonstrated a lower requirement for training in that

field. Regular teachers considered pedagogy as part of their strength and therefore demonstrated a lower requirement for training in that field. The ex-military, in examining strengths, rated pedagogy as the lowest of their abilities and logically placed pedagogical elements as the first priority of training.

So we find management a growing interest for the ex-military and a constant priority for the regular teachers. (Item 2 indicates strengths and therefore results are in contrast to items defining required training.)

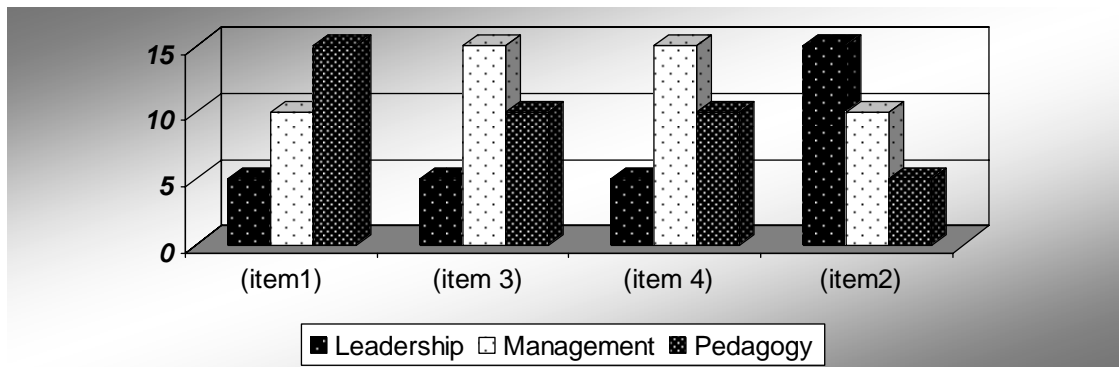


Table 6-1 Ex-military selection

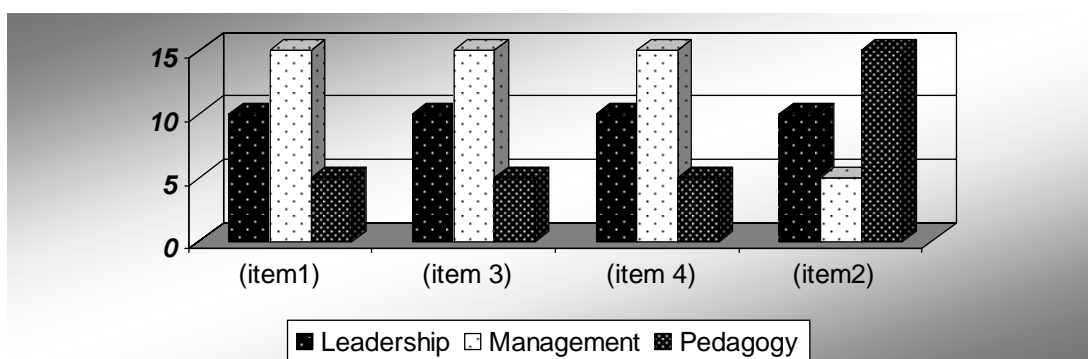


Table 6-2 Regular teachers' selection

A sensitive question was how would representatives from the world of education feel about the possibility that managerial positions would be taken away from them by principals from elsewhere? Among regular teachers there was an increase in the

number of teachers believing that school principals will continue to come from among the ranks of regular teachers. However, among the ex-military there was a decrease in agreement with that idea. The response to this question by both groups might be based on attitudes rather than prediction. The very small numbers of principals from outside the field of education did not create a threat (yet) in the eyes of regular teachers.

Based upon this evidence it is possible to construct a relevant principal training programme. The aim of the principal course is to prepare participants for performing the role. With this as the premise the training programme rests on the identification of needs in a process. After needs and requirements have been identified, there is a need to progress to the third phase, the 'route to principalship' model in which a grasp of the practical essence of school principal activity and performance is achieved.

The concept of school principal characteristics is an important element in the process of training aspiring principals, a model to look up to and a role concept to structure. In order to discover how aspiring principals visualized a principal's qualities and abilities, based on leadership, management and pedagogy, the sixth item was presented. In this item, aspiring principals from both courses were requested to list, based upon their concept of the ideal principal type, characteristics they thought the most essential for a school principal to possess. Sketching a concept of the desired principal model enabled us to determine those areas that should be best prepared for at this stage. Therefore this concept should also balance in the training model and establish the weight given to each of the elements in order to better prepare candidates to act as closely as possible to their ideal type with an emphasis on the perception described by West-Burnham (1997) that:

“There is no doubt that leaders need knowledge (or access to knowledge) and a range of skills in order to be effective. However, this has to be contextualized in terms of personal values, self-awareness, emotional and moral capability.” (p.141)

In processing the data via a pilot study an additional fourth category of personality traits as an independent element became necessary to support the configuration of the ideal type of principal. Indeed, the model assumed that aspiring principal candidates should be mature, established adults, at their mid-life, with a clear idea of their strengths and weaknesses as an outcome of well developed intra-personal intelligence.

"Intra-personal intelligence - our cognitive ability to know, recognize, understand and have a feeling for our "self"... allows us to value into our being - which we are, what feelings we have, and why we are this way. This is the same kind of wisdom attributed to old people in the early days. " (Gardner, 1983 p. 239)

West-Burnham (2002) ties inter-personal intelligences to leadership to state that:

“Leadership effectiveness is a product of personal effectiveness, which is in turn grounded in emotional self-awareness and inter-personal intelligence. The level of demand and impact will, of course, vary over time and context but this aspect of the job of the leader explains why it is both so demanding and challenging and so rich and rewarding.” (p.2)

The fundamental qualities and abilities an ‘ideal’ type of school principal should possess were attributed by each of the groups. The expectation was that it would reflect requirements as identified by each of the groups at the early stages. But this was not the case. Instead there was a surprising similarity in the final qualities and abilities a school principal should possess indicated by the two courses (see Table 6-3).

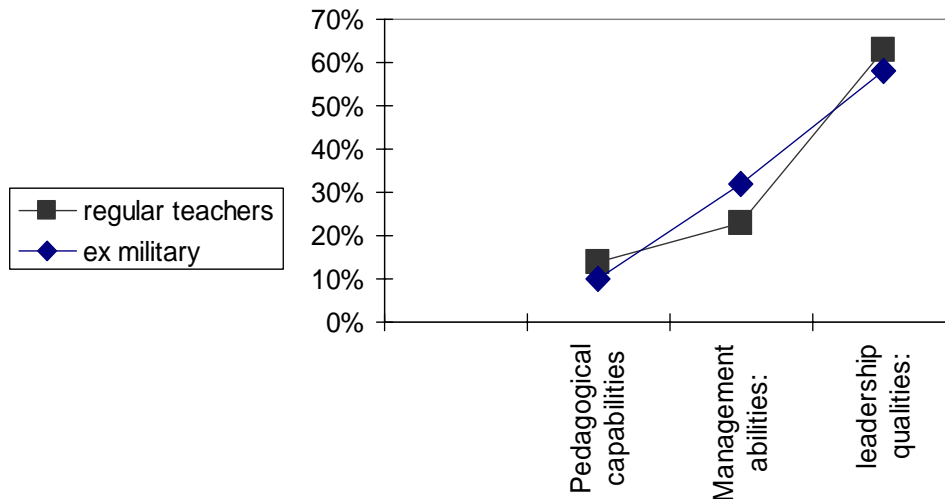


Table 6-3 Fundamental qualities and abilities that school principals should possess

Regarding the distribution of fundamental qualities and abilities a school principal should possess both courses prioritized leadership as the first and by far the most important quality. The importance of leadership was also presented with a reference to domination (to include control), aspiring principals from both groups did not tend to refer to the ‘power’ element in principalship in the survey because there was no need for the use of power to gain leadership or because it was not considered politically correct to use that term. The worldwide message of the requirement for leadership was well made in the speech to the New Heads Conference by British PM, Tony Blair. He stated:

“As new headteachers you are the critical agents for change and higher standards school by school. There is literally no more important job in Britain today than yours.” (Blair, 1999, online)

Leadership in all its components is understood as the most required quality in principalship. The inter relation of the three elements, leadership, pedagogy and management, suggests a need for integration. Candidates are rarely strong on all

fronts and the trainers need to support individual candidates. Preparing aspiring principals for principalship is a complex mission; the importance of a correct training programme has been a challenge since the understanding of the necessity for pre-service training. The model presented a possible way of establishing a training process.

The model

The model starts by identifying the source of candidates for principalship and then determining the course content composition. Transfer through the phases of training is based on differentiated content. The third phase is towards principalship. The first four items analyzed were intended to map qualities, abilities, capabilities and requirements of candidates based upon their own evaluation. These items provided us with the aspiring principal's own concept of their strengths and weaknesses. The significant differences found distinguish between the two groups and fit into the model.

The first stage of the model formed the basis upon which we could design the training phase to establish and form the training syllabus. This is determined by the origin of the candidates and based upon their own evaluation. In the research, distribution of required content between the elements of leadership, management and pedagogy was based upon the evaluation of qualities, abilities and capabilities of the two groups. The difference found between them makes it possible to set and fine-tune necessary elements of preparation and make amendments in each of the fields for each of the groups.

After the needs and requirements were identified, a concept of the desired principal model, based on the three elements of leadership, management and pedagogy, was established and the weight given to each of the qualities, abilities and capabilities was set.

The challenging question of Kerry and Murdoch (1993) regarding the future of school principalship, is partly answered by the research model. This provides a possible route for incorporating candidates from outside the world of education, in order to qualify them as school principals. Understanding the essential characteristics of schools principalship, as required today, broadens the possibility of opening new options for integrating candidates from outside the world of education into school principalship through an appropriate training process.

The assumption that *"Aspiring principals can identify tools and skills required for their training into principal's positions, based upon evaluation of their own abilities and capabilities in the fields of leadership, management and pedagogical skills"*, is strongly supported, leading to the possibility of forming an appropriate and relevant training programme. In essence, teachers required, or thought they required, management skills. Ex-military required, or thought they required, pedagogic skills.

It was also found that regular teachers aspiring to become principals were inclined to consider managerial needs as a significant element in their training process, as did the ex-military aspiring to become principals, who tended to try and improve their abilities in areas of the field of management linked to education.

As for the desired principal image, it seems that there is a unified concept of what is required from the school principal. Similarity was found between the two groups in the way both course members defined the qualities and abilities a school principal should possess. The aspiring principals, coming from diverse backgrounds with different training requirements, presented us with a unified perception as to the requirements for qualities, abilities, capabilities and personal traits.

A Communicated Process

The ability of aspiring principals to identify needs and requirements led to an understanding of a need for on-going dialogue. Programmes should regard participants as equal partners, to be consulted with, listened to and responded to. The planning of the training syllabus should be a joint activity between teachers and learners, graduates of earlier year's programmes should also be consulted and their input incorporated.

Principal training should be regarded as a process (see appendix A). It is an implementation of a life long learning process. The training element in the form of various courses is only one part of the process. The process starts with the decision to select principalship as a way of life, and it ends by performing the principal role. The process should develop in the aspiring principal a professional orientation including moral and ethical values. It is an on-going process and affects the personal development of the trainee. Each principal develops his own unique way to deploy and perform his/her role. However, the common base of knowledge should be the same and this is the responsibility of the training process developers. From a common starting point each principal can decide his own way. It is important to

emphasize that we are not talking about a fast track; we are referring to a process. The diagram in appendix A – “The process” represents this process.

The diagram illustrates that the investigation has been a process. Perhaps the key element is the diagnosis of candidates’ strengths and weaknesses. If this diagnosis is accurate, the training programmes can be successful in terms of addressing individual needs. In retrospect, maybe this is the most essential aspect of the process.

Reviewing all of the data, it seems that the transfer of ex-military personnel into the Israeli education system has been largely successful. There are obvious potential difficulties, such as the sensitivity of existing teachers to receiving new managers drawn from beyond the educational system. However, this is not a problem – yet. Rather the evidence is positive in the sense that over 75 percent of the military candidates graduating from the re-training course are serving in the education system. Approximately 20 percent of this cohort would be acting as principals. The vast majority of other candidates rapidly assume middle management positions in the school system. Overall, this constitutes a pattern of successful transfer.

While this research has made the case for successful transfer of ex-military personnel, wider issues are still open to question and debate. For example, can candidates from a wide range of alternative professions and occupations be successfully integrated into the education system? In Britain, the National Leadership College only accepts candidates from within the teaching profession. This could be a disadvantage. The opinion of the author is that governments across the world are shortly going to be in a position where they will be forced, through shortages of candidates, to seek new talent to lead schools. Further research and investigation is needed to inform what might become a sizeable question.

In the context of Israel, it is worrying to note that budgetary and financial considerations are hampering, and indeed threatening, the future of the re-training programme. This ignores the clear benefits demonstrated to both society and the ex-military from the decade of progress already achieved. Bluntly, achievement is being sacrificed to financial economies.

The strength of this research is that it presents a possible concept for the retraining of candidates from outside the field of education. It establishes a model capable of identifying candidate's strengths and weakness. This facilitates the implementation of the planning and execution of the training relating to requirements of the trainees and facilitates their integration into an individualized course.

This model can be implemented in adult training hereby recognizing the types of changes which adult learners experience. Further, it relates to the central characteristics of adult learning which are based on the need for ongoing dialog between all parties related to the study throughout the all process

On the other hand, there is a need to examine the viability of the suggested concept model. This model is rooted in Israeli culture and therefore may not apply as is to other worldwide environments. Also, since the research was conducted at one point in time it would be important to undertake pre and post testing to have the capacity to improve the implementation of the model. This recognizes the old philosophical distinction between needs and wants. What candidates want is not always what they need. Therefore this study has presented an hypothesis where it is critical for the process of need analysis to be constantly up dated.

Recommendations For the Future in the Israeli Context

1. A key factor in achieving success on a re training programme is the proper diagnosis of candidates strengths and weakness. Therefore it is important for the success of the re training program that careful attention is paid to the diagnosis process.
2. The ability of candidates to identify their needs and requirements is the basis for an on going training dialog. In this context, it is recommended that candidates continually review their needs.
3. The re-training programme needs to be supported and extended, not threatened.
4. The extension of re-training should examine the possibilities of transferring into the education system people beyond the military.
5. These re-training programmes should be widely available in regional centers throughout Israel.
6. Possibilities of commencing the re-training process while candidates are still working in their original occupations should be explored.
7. Use should be made of the willingness of highly motivated volunteers to respond to national needs.
8. Progress is not confined to nation states. There is a need for international exchange of knowledge, developments and experience in constructing appropriate principal re-training courses.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aaronitz-Rineholtz, (2002) 'Attention!!! The principal is here', *Zman-Hsharon*, pp.40-45 (in Hebrew).
- Abrell, R. (1984) 'Leading by stepping down (the problem of burnout in school administrators)', *The Clearing House*, vol. 57, pp.351-352.
- Alexander, R. (2000) *Culture and Pedagogy: International Comparison in Primary Education*, Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
- Alon, Y. (1973) 'Education in the seventies, implementing policies', in Ormian, H. (ed) *Education in Israel*, Jerusalem: Israeli Ministry of Education and Culture.
- Anderson, G., Herr, K. and Nihlen, A. (1994) *Studying Your Own School: An Educator's Guide to Qualitative Practitioner Research*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Argyris, C. and Schon, D. (1978) *Organizational Learning: A Theory of Action Perspective*, Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Armstrong, T. (1994) *Multiple Intelligences in the Classroom*, Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Aspinwall, K. (1998) *Leading the Learning School*, London: Lemos and Crane.
- Aspinwall, K., Sinkins, T., Wilkinson, J. F. and McAuley, M.J. (1997) 'Using success criteria', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham, Open University Press.
- ATEE, (1982) *Training for Heads (School Leaders) in Europe*, Bruxelles: Association for Teacher Education in Europe and National Association of Head Teachers.
- Baker, L. (1992) *Preparation, Induction and Support for Newly Appointed Headteachers and Deputy Heads*, The Mere, Upton Park: EMIE.
- Ball, S. J. (1993) 'Culture, cost and control: self-management and entrepreneurial schooling in England and Wales', in Smyth, J. (ed) *A Socially Critical View of the Self-Managing School*, London: Falmer Press.
- Bantz, C. (1993) *Understanding Organizations*, Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina Press.
- Bar Zohar, Y. (1997) *The Transfer of Retired Officers as Mid Life for a Second Career in the Field of Education*, Bait Berl: Bait Berl College Research Unit (in Hebrew).
- Barkol, R. (1996) 'Retraining military officers as school principals', *International Journal of Education Reform*, vol. 5 (3), pp.305-309.
- Barkol, R. and Kuperberg, I. (2002) 'Under the male umbrella', *Iyunim Beminhal Virgon Hchinuch*, vol 25, pp.122-151 (in Hebrew).

Barnett, B. G. and Muse, I. D (1993) 'Cohort groups in educational administration: promises and challenges', *Journal of School Leadership*, vol. 3, pp.400-415.

Barnett, B.G., Basom, M. R., Yerkes, D. M. and Norris, C. J. (2000) 'Cohorts in educational leadership programs: Benefits, difficulties, and the potential for developing school leaders', *Educational Administration Quarterly*, vol. 36(2), pp.255-282.

Baron, G. (1956) 'Some aspects of the "Headmaster tradition"', *Research and Study*, 14, University of Leeds, Institute of Education.

Baron, G. (1974) 'Some aspects of the "Headmaster tradition": plus postscript', in Houghton, V., McHugh, R. and Morgan, C. (eds) (1975) *Management in Education*, London: Ward Lock (for the Open University Press).

Basom, M., Yerkes, D., Norris, C. and Barnett, B. (1996) 'Using cohorts as a means for developing transformational leaders', *Journal of School Leadership*, vol. 9, pp. 99-111.

Bass, B. M. (1985) *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*, New York: Free Press.

Bass, M. B. (1960) *Leadership, Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, New York: Harper and Brothers.

Beach, H. R. and Lindahal, A. R. (2000) 'New standards for the preparation of school administrators: what conceptualization of the educational planning do they portray?', *Planning and Changing*, vol. 31 (1 and 2), pp.35-52.

Beigelman, N. (1999) *To the General Director Armchair*, Tel Aviv: Marive (in Hebrew).

Belasen, A. T. (2000) *Leading the Learning Organization*, New York: State University of New York Press.

Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R. and Tarule, J. M. (1986) *Women's Ways of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice and Mind*, New York: Basic Books Inc.

Bell, L. (1999) 'Back to the future: the development of educational policy in England', *Journal of Educational Administration*, vol. 37(3) pp.200-228.

Bennett, N. (1997) 'Analysing management for personal development: theory and practice', in Kydd, L. Crawford, M. and Riches, C. (eds) *Professional Development for Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bennett, N. and Harris, A (2001) *School Effectiveness and School Improvement: Alternative Perspectives*, London: Continuum.

Bennett, N. and Smith, B. (2000) 'Assessing the impact of professional development in educational leadership and management: the IMPPEL project', *Management in Education*, vol. 14(2), pp. 25-27.

Bennis, W. G. (1989) 'Leadership in the 21st century', *Journal of Organizational Change*, vol. 2 (1) pp.1-16.

Berger, P. L. and Luckmann, T. (1966) *The Social Construction of Reality*, New York: Anchor Press.

Bernard, H. R. (1988) *Research Methods in Cultural Anthropology*, CA: Sage.

Bernard, H. R. (1994) *Research Methods in Anthropology: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, (2nd edn), CA: Sage.

Bickel, W. E. and Hattrup, R. A. (1995) 'Teachers and researchers in collaboration: reflections on the process', *American Educational Research Journal*, vol. 32(1), pp.35-62.

Blackman, M. C. and Fenwick, L. T. (2000) 'The principalship', *Education Week*, vol. 19(29), (Online <http://www.edweek.org/ew/vol-19/19thiswk.htm> retrieved 22/11/2000).

Blair, T. (1999) Speech to the New Heads Conference, (Online <http://www.ncsl.org.UK/index.cfm?pageid=college-nhc1999-tb>, retrieved 7/03/2004).

Blair, T. and Blunkett, D. (1999) 'Foreword', in *National College for School Leadership: A Prospectus*, London: DFEE

Blandford, S. (1998) 'Becoming a middle manager in school', *Management in Education*, vol. 12(2), pp.9-10.

Blase, J. and Anderson, G. (1995) *The Micropolitics of Educational Leadership*, London: Cassell.

Blumberg, A. (1989) *School Administration as Craft*, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bogdan, R. C. and Biklen, S. K. (1992) *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods*, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bolman, L. G. and Deal, T. E. (1995) *Leading with Soul: An Uncommon Journey of Spirit*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Boyle, B. and Clarke, P. (1998) *The Headteacher as Effective Leader*, Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Ltd.

Bradshaw, K. L.(2000) 'The changing role of principals in school partnership', *Bulletin, The National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Reston, May 2000.

Bridges, E. (1993) 'The prospective principal's program at Stanford University', in Murphey, J. (ed) *Preparing Tomorrow's School Leaders: alternative Designs*, University Park, PA: University Council for Educational Administration.

Bridges, E. and Hallinger, P. (1996) 'Problem-based learning in leadership education', in Wilkerson, L. and Gijsselaers W. (eds) *Bringing Problem-based Learning to Higher Education: Theory and Practice*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, G. and Irby, B. J. (1996) *The Administrative Portfolio Development Institute: A Training Manual*, Huntsville, Tex: Sam Houston State University.

Brundrett, M. (1999) 'The National Professional Qualification for Headship: perceptions of the providers of taught higher degrees in educational management in England and Wales', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 19(4), pp.497-510.

Brundrett, M. (2000a) *Beyond Competence: The Challenge for Educational Management*, Norfolk: Peter Francis Publications.

Brundrett, M. (2000b) 'The question of competence: the origins, strengths and inadequacies', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 20(3), pp.353-369.

Brundrett, M. (2001) 'The development of school leadership preparation programmes in England and the USA: a comparative analysis', *Educational Management and Education*, vol. 29(2), pp.229-245.

Burnett, I. E. (1989) 'Elaboration on working together: A collaborative approach to university/school system principalship career development', Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, Tuscaloosa, AL.

Bush, T. (1998) 'The National Professional Qualification for Headship: The key to effective school leadership?', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 18(3), pp. 321-333.

Bush, T. and Chew, J. (1999) 'Developing human capital: Training and mentoring for principals', *Compare*, vol. 29(1), pp.41-52.

Bush, T. and Coleman, M. (2000) *Leadership and Strategic Management in Education*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Bush, T. and Foreman, K. (1998) 'National Standards and the training and development of headteachers', paper presented at the MBA students' day, Leicester, March 1998.

Caldwell, B. and Spinks, S. M. (1992) 'What we now know about leadership', in Caldwell, B. J. and Spinks, J. M. (eds) *Leading the Self Managing School*, London: Falmer Press.

Caldwell, B., Hayward, D. K. and Hayward, D (1997) *The Future of Schools: Lessons from the Reform of Public Education (Student Outcomes and the Reform of Education)*, Florence, KY: Routledge Falmer.

- Campbell, C. (1999) 'Exploring recent developments and debates in education management', *Education Policy*, vol. 14(6), pp.639-658.
- Canon, R. (2001) 'Pedagogy: a point of view', Advisory Centre for University Education, Teaching in Higher Education, vol. 6(3).
- Cave, E. and Wilkinson, C. (1997) 'Developing managerial capabilities', in Kydd, L., Crawford, M. and Riches, C. (eds) *Professional Development for Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Chen, M. (1996) 'Academic preparation of principals in Israel: empowering dynamic school leadership', *International Journal for Educational Reform*, vol. 5(3), pp.287-296.
- Chen, M. (1999) 'Leadership and management in educational systems', in Peled, E. (ed) *Fifty Years of Israeli Education*, Jerusalem: Ministry of Education (in Hebrew).
- Cheng, Y. C. (1996) *School Effectiveness and School-based Management: a Mechanism for Development*, London: Falmer Press.
- Clegg, D. and Billington, S. (1997) *Leading Primary Schools*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Cochran-Smith, M. and Lytle, S. L. (1990) 'Research on teaching and teacher research: the issues that divide', *Educational Researcher*, vol. 19(2), pp. 2-11.
- Coleman, M., Qiang, H. and Li, Y. (1998) 'Women in educational management in China: Experience in Shaanxi Province', *Compare*, vol. 28(2), pp. 141-154.
- Coles, M. (1997) 'Curriculum evaluation as review and development: the curriculum leader's role in creating a community of enquiry', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Collarbone, P. (1998) 'Developing a leadership programme for school leaders: an NPQH assessment centre manager reflects', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 18(3), pp. 335-346.
- Collins, D. (1998) *Managing Truancy in Schools*, London: Cassell.
- Conger, G. A. (1993) 'The brave new world of leadership training', *Organizational Dynamics*, Winter, pp. 46-58.
- Conrad, C. F., Haworth, J. G. and Miller, I. (1993) *A Silent Success: Masters Education in the United States*, Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Cooper, B. S. and Shute, S. W. (1988) *Training for School Management: lessons from the American experience*, London: Institute of Education.

Cordiero, P. A., Krueger, J., Parks, D., Restive, L. N. and Wilson, P. (1992) *Taking Stock: A study of the Danforth programs for the preparation of school principals*, St. Louis, MO: The Danforth Foundation.

Council of Chief State School Officers (1996) *Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards*, Washington DC: CCSSO.

Craig, I. (1989) *Primary Headship in the 1990s*, UK: Longman Group.

Craven, L. (2002) 'The supply and demand trends of public secondary school administrators in South Carolina from 1978 through 2002', paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration, Columbia, SC, 1989 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service no, ED313).

Crowson, R. and Hannaway, J. (1988) 'The politics of reforming school administration', *Journal of Education*, vol. 3 pp. 1-218.

Dahan, Y. and Yona Y. (1999) 'Governmental systems under transfer: from governmental collectivism to civil individualism – school selection as a case study', in Peled, E. (ed) *Fifty Years of Israeli Education*, Jerusalem: Israeli Ministry of Education (in Hebrew).

Daresh, C. J. and Playko, M. A. (1992) 'Mentoring for headteachers: A review of major issues', *School Organization*, vol. 12(2), pp. 145-151.

Daresh, J. C. and Parra, M. A. (1999) 'Developing school leaders to work on the US-Mexican border: Lessons learned', *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, vol. 83(610) [November 1999], pp. 55-61.

Davies, B. (1997) 'Rethinking the educational context – a re-engineering approach', in Davies, B. and Ellison, L. (eds) *School Leadership for the 21st Century*, London: Routledge.

Davies, B. and Ellison, L. (1997) *School Leadership for the 21st Century*, London: Routledge.

Deal, T.E. and Peterson, K. D. (1999) *Shaping School Culture*, San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.

Dean, J. (1997) 'Organising learning', in Preedy, M., Glatte, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

Dempster, N. and Logan, L. (1998) 'Expectation of school leaders: an Australian picture', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Dempster, N. and Mahoney, P. (1998) 'Ethical challenges in school leadership', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

- Denzin, N. K. (1989a) *Interpretive Biography*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Denzin, N. K. (1989b) *Interpretive Interactionism*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Derrida, J. (1972/1981) *Positions*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Dewey, J. (1933) *How We Think: a Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Educative Process*, (rev. edn.) Boston: Heath (original work published 1909).
- Dewey, J. (1964) 'The relation of theory to practice in education', in Archambault, R. D. (ed) *John Dewey on Education*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (2000a) 'Developing comparative and international educational leadership and management: a cross-cultural model', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 20(2), pp.143-160.
- Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (2000b) 'Introduction: justifying a cross-cultural comparative approach to school leadership and management', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 20(2), pp. 137-141.
- Doering, M. and Rhodes, S. R. (1989) 'Changing careers: a qualitative study', *Career Development Quarterly*, vol. 37, pp. 316-333.
- Draper, J. and McMichael, P. (1998a) 'In the firing line: the attractions of secondary headships', *Management in Education*, vol. 12(2), pp. 15-17.
- Draper, J. and McMichael, P. (1998b) 'Making sense of primary headship: the surprises awaiting new heads', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 18(2), pp. 197-222.
- Dror, Y. (1990) 'Adoption strategies for a second career among military retired personnel', unpublished MA thesis, Work Relation Department, Tel Aviv University (in Hebrew).
- Duckworth, E. (1986) 'Teaching as research', *Harvard Educational Review*, vol. 56(4), pp. 481-495.
- Dunning, G. (1996) 'Management problems of new primary headteachers', *School Organization*, vol. 16(1), pp.111-128.
- Educational Research Service (1998) *Is There a Shortage of Qualified Candidates for Openings in Principalship?: An Exploratory Study*, Arlington,VA: ERS.
- Eisner, E. W. (1985) *The Educational Imagination*, New York: Macmillan.
- Eisner, E. W. (1991) *The Enlightened Eye: Qualitative Inquiry and the Enhancement of Educational Practice*, New York: Macmillan.
- Eisner, J. (1985) 'Facilitating action research in school: some dilemmas', in Burgess, R. (ed) *Field Methods in the Study of Education*, Lewes: Falmer Press.

- Elmore, R. F. (2000) *Building a New Structure for School Leadership*, Washington, DC: Albert Shanker Institute.
- Elsner, E., Gold, A., Bohan, M and Jantti, A. (2001) *International Project for Women in Educational Management*, Heinola, Finland: IPWEM.
- Enoch, Y. (1989) 'Change of values during socialization for a profession: an application of the managerial men theory', *Human Relations*, vol. 42, pp. 219-239.
- Eraut, M. (1997) 'Developing expertise in school management and teaching', in Kydd, L., Crawford, M. and Riches, C. (eds) *Professional Development for Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Esp, D. (1980) 'Selection and training of secondary school senior staff: some European examples', *Education*, vol. 156(16) (October 1980) pp. Special Report, i-iv.
- Evans, R. (1996) *The Human Side of School Change*, San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Everard, K. and Morris, G. (1990) *Effective School Management*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
- Farey, P. (1993) 'Mapping the leader/manager', *Management Education and Development*, vol. 24(2), pp. 109-121.
- Fors, E., Lind, O. and Wingard, B. (1999) *Officer I dag_skolledare i morgen?* Orebro: forsvarshogsklan, Utbildningsbyran och Orebro Universitet and Pedagogiska Institution
- Friedman, I. (1995) 'Measuring school principals' burnout', *Educational and Professional Management*, vol. 55(4), pp.641-651.
- Friedman, I. (1999) *Commissioning for School Principalship*, Jerusalem: Szold Institute (in Hebrew).
- Friedman, I. (2000a) *Training Programs for School Principals: Principles, Topics and Process*, Jerusalem: Szold Institute (in Hebrew).
- Friedman, I. (2000b) *Measuring Teachers and Principals' Autonomy Levels*, Jerusalem: Szold Institute (in Hebrew).
- Friedman, I. (2002) 'A proposal for the missions and task of a school principal in Israel', *The Forum* 18, Reches, Even Yehuda, pp.7-10 (in Hebrew).
- Friedman, I., Barma, R. and Toren, S. (1998) *School-based Management: A Change in School Management Culture*, Jerusalem: Szold Institute (in Hebrew).
- Friedman, I., Meged, H. and Sadan, T. (1997) *Principals' Training*, Jerusalem: Szold Institute (in Hebrew).

Fullan, M. (1997) *What's Worth Fighting for in Principalship*, New York: Teacher's College Press.

Fullan, M. (2001) *Leading in a Culture of Change*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Gardner, H. (1983) *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*, New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, J. W. (1986) 'The task of leadership', Leadership papers no. 2, Washington DC, Independent sector, March 1986.

Garnett College (1984) *Perspectives on the Training of Head Teachers and College Principals*, Roehampton: Garnett College.

Geertz, C. (1973) *The Interpretation of Cultures*, New York: Basic Books.

Geertz, C. (1983) *Local Knowledge: Further Essays in Interpretive Anthropology*, New York: Basic Books.

Geertz, C. (1988) *Works and Lives: The Anthropologist as Author*, Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Giroux, H. A. and McLaren, P. (1989) *Critical Pedagogy: The State and Cultural Struggle*, Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Glatter, R. (1997) 'Context and capability in educational management', *Educational Management and Administration*, vol. 25(2), pp. 181-192.

Glover, D. (1997) 'Resourcing education: linking budgeting to educational objectives', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham, Open University Press.

Goldring, E. (1997) 'Educational leadership: schools, environments and boundary spanning', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham, Open University Press.

Goldring, E. and Chen, M. (1994) 'The feminization of the principalship in Israel', in Marshall C. (ed) *The New Politics of Race and Gender*, London: Falmer Press.

Gonen, I. and Zakay, E. (1999) *Leadership and Leadership Development*, Tel Aviv: M.O.D. Publishing (in Hebrew).

Goodlad, J. I. (1984) *A Place Called School*, New York: McGraw Hill Inc.

Goodlad, J. (1990) *Teachers for our Nation's Schools*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Gordon, D. (1994) *Educational/Pedagogical Vision - Proposal*, Jerusalem: Educational Secretariat, Ministry of Education (in Hebrew).

- Graham, I. (1997) 'Principals' responses to incorporation and the new funding regime', *Journal of Vocational Training and Education*, vol. 49(4), pp.545-562.
- Griffiths, D. E., Stout, R.T. and Forsyth, P. B. (1988) *Leaders for American Schools*, Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.
- Griffiths, D. E., Stout, R.T. and Forsyth, P. B. (1989) 'The preparation of educational administrators', in Anderson, S. and Brooksbank, R. (eds) *Educational Administrators*, (3rd edn) Boston, MA: Addison Wesley Publishing Company.
- Groth, E. (2000) *Leader's Learning – An Occupational Shift From Military Officer to School Leader*, (Online – <http://www.fm-kp.si/zalozbavsm/publikacije/publikacije/961-6268-75-9/groth.pdf>, retrieved 11/03/2003).
- Grow, G (2000) 'Stages of self-directed learning (SSDL) model', in *Teaching Learners to be Self-Directed*, School of Journalism, Media and Graphic Arts, Florida, A and M University (Online – <http://www.longleaf.net/ggrow>, retrieved 22/05/2002).
- Guba, E.G. (1990) 'Subjectivity and objectivity', in Eisner, E. W. and Peshkin, A. (eds) *Qualitative Inquiry in Education: The Continuing Debate*, New York: Teacher's College Press.
- Hackman, D. G. and Price, W. J. (1995) 'Results of a national survey of educational leadership doctoral programs', unpublished manuscript.
- Halpern, E. S. (1983) 'Auditing naturalistic inquiries: the development and application of a model', unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.
- Handy, C. (1995) *The Age of Unreason*, London: Arrow Business Books.
- Handy, C. and Aiken, R. (1990) *Understanding Schools as Organisations*, (2nd edn) London: Penguin.
- Hargreaves, D. (1991) *The Empowered School: The Management and Practice of Development Planning*, London: Cassell.
- Heifetz, R. A. (1994) *Leadership Without Easy Answers*, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Henderson, J. G. and Hawthorne, R. D. (1995) *Transformative Curriculum Leadership*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Inc.
- Herbert, F. T. and Reynolds, K. C. (1992) 'Cohort groups and intensive schedules: Does familiarity breed learning?' Unpublished manuscript.
- Hesselbein, F., Goldsmith, M. and Bexkhard, R. (1997) *The Organization of the Future*, San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Hill, M. S. (1995) 'Educational leadership cohort models: Changing the talk to change the walk', *Planning and Changing*, vol. 26(3/4), pp. 179-189.

- Hill, S., Harvey, M. I., Harrison, B. T and Clarke, R, (1999) 'School leaders as learners: what attitudes and preferences do they have?', *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, vol. 27, pp.25-45.
- Hillman, J. (1992) 'The preparation, selection and development of headteachers', *National Commission on Education*, vol. 25(2), pp.181-192.
- Hoinville, G. and Jowell, J. (1978) *Survey Research Practice*, London: Heinemann.
- Holland, P. and Hamerton, P (1997) 'Balancing school and individual approaches to pupil behaviour', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham, Open University Press.
- Hollingsworth, S. (1994) *Teacher Research and Urban Literacy Education: Lessons and Conversations in a Feminist Key*, New York: Teacher's College Press.
- Holmes, G. (1993) *Essential School Leadership: Developing Vision and Purpose in Management*, London: Kogan Page Ltd.
- Hopkins, D., Ainscow, M. and West, M. (1997) 'Making sense of change', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham, Open University Press.
- Houghton, V., McHuge, R. and Morgan, C. (1975) *The Management of Organisations and Individuals*, London: Open University Press.
- Hoy, W. K. and Miskel, C. G. (2001) *Educational Administration* (6th edn), Singapore: McGraw Hill Book Co.
- Hunt, J. (1986) *Managing People at Work: a Managers Guide to Behaviour in Organizations* (rev. edn.), Maidenhead: McGraw Hill.
- Hunt, J. G. (1991) *Leadership: A New Synthesis*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Husserl, E. (1962) *Ideas: General Introduction to Pure Phenomenology*, New York: Collier (originally published in 1913).
- Inbar, D. (1995) *Training for Principalship: Directions and Implication*, Jerusalem: Educational Policy Planning, Ministry of Education (in Hebrew).
- International Principal Conference Council publications (1999) (Online - http://www.icponline.org/icp_sections/convention, retrieved 11/08/2000).
- International Principal Conference Council publications (2000) (Online - http://www.icponline.org/icp_sections/convention, retrieved 22/09/2002).
- International Principal Conference Council (2001) 'The role of the principal, ICP Position Paper No, 1, April 2001 (Online - http://www.icponline.org/icp_sections/papers/paper1.htm, retrieved 20/08/2003).

ISIS (1999) 'Support structures for schools, a teacher in-service training manual', Integrating Students into Schools: ASTI.

Israeli, E. (1977), *A Plan for Developing Preparation Programs for Senior Administration in the Israeli Educational System*, Jerusalem: Ministry of Education and Culture (in Hebrew).

Johansson, O. and Lindberg, L. (1998) *Exploring New Horizons in School Leadership*, Umea, Sweden: University of Umea Press.

Johnson, D. (1994) *Research Methods in Educational Management*, London: Financial Times/Pitman Publishing.

Jones, G. and Hayes, D. (1991) 'Primary headteachers and ERA two years on: The pace of change and its impact on schools', *School Organization*, vol. 11, pp.211-221.

Kane, E. (1985) *Doing Your Own Research*, London: Marion Boyars.

Kasten, K. L. (1992) 'Students' perceptions of the cohort model of instructional delivery', Paper presented to the annual convention of University Council for Educational Administration, October 1992, Minneapolis, MN.

Katz, R. L. (1955) 'Skills of an effective administrator', *Harvard Business Review*, January-February, pp.3-42.

Kauly, M. (1987) 'Adjustment to civilian appointments in second careers by retired military officers', unpublished MA dissertation, Bar Ilan University (in Hebrew).

Kerry, T. and Murdoch, A. (1993) 'Education managers as leaders: some thoughts on the context of the changing nature of schools', *Schools Organization*, vol. 13(3), pp.221-230.

King, G., Keohane, R. O. and Verba, S. (1994) *Designing Social Inquiry: Scientific Inference in Qualitative Research*, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Klein, K.J. and House, R. J. (1995) 'On fire: Charismatic leadership and levels of analysis', *Leadership Quarterly*, vol. 6(2), pp.183-198.

Kotter, J. P. (1982) *The General Managers*, New York: Free Press.

Kotter, J. P. (1990) *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management*, New York: The Free Press.

Kotter, J. P. (1996) *Leading Change*, Harvard: Harvard Business School Press.

Knight, B. (1988) *Local Management of Schools: Training Material for Head Teachers and Other School Staff*, Essex: Longman Group.

Knowles, M. (1990) *The Adult Learner: a Neglected Species (4th edn)*, Houston, TX: Gulf.

- Knowles, M. S. (1984) *Andragogy in Action*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Kremer-Hayun, L. and Fessler, R. (1992) 'The inner world of school principals: reflections on career life stages', *International Review of Education*, vol. 48(1), pp. 35-45.
- Krueger, R. A. (1988) *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Research*, CA: Sage.
- Kydd, L. (1997a) 'Teacher professionalism and managerialism', in Kydd, L., Crawford, M. and Riches, C. (eds) *Professional Development for Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Kydd, L. (1997b) 'Introduction', in Kydd, L., Crawford, M. and Riches, C. (eds) *Professional Development for Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Kydd, L., Crawford, M. and Riches, C. (1997) *Professional Development for Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Lambert, L. (1998) 'How to build leadership capacity', *Educational Leadership*, vol. 55(7), pp.17-19.
- Larson, C. E. and LaFasto, F. M. J. (1989) *Teamwork: What Can Go Right/What Can Go Wrong*, Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.
- Leithwood, K. (1994) 'Leadership for school re-structuring', *Educational Administration Quarterly*, vol. 30(4), pp. 498-518.
- Leithwood, K. (1998) 'Organizational learning and transformational leadership', in Johansson, O. and Lindberg, L. (eds) *Exploring New Horizons in School Leadership*, Umea, Sweden: University of Umea Press.
- Leithwood, K. (1999) 'An organizational perspective on values for leaders of future schools', in Begley, P. T. (ed) *Values and Educational Leadership*, New York: State University of New York Press.
- Leithwood, K. and Begley, P. T. (1994) *Expert Leadership for Future Schools*, London: Falmer Press.
- Leithwood, K., Begley, P. T. and Bradley-Cousins, J. (1992) *Developing Expert Leadership for Future Schools*, London: Falmer Press.
- Leithwood, K., Rutherford, W. and Van Der Vegt, R. (1986) *Preparing School Leaders for Educational Improvement*, London: Croom Helm.
- Levacic, R. (1997) 'Managing resources in educational institutions: an open systems approach', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Levis, N. (1998) 'Soldiers march to battles new, and 'back to Blighty'', *Times Educational Supplement*, 29/05/98.

- Lieberman, A. (1992) 'The meaning of scholarly activity and the building of community', *Educational Researcher*, vol. 21(6), pp. 5-12.
- Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E.G. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lloyd, A. (1986) 'The first 120 days', *Human Relations in Education* 3, University of Nottingham School of Education.
- Lockwood, A. T. (2000) 'The changing role of principals', an interview with Philip Hallinger published by The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (Online – <http://www.ncrel.org/cscd/pubs/lead31/31hallin.htm> retrieved 26/06/2001).
- Lorrimer, J. and Kenijio Tatashi (1994) *Japan's Winning Margins: Management Training and Education*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lortie, C. (1975) *Schoolteacher: a Sociological Study*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Maanen, J. V. (1988) *Tales of the Field*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- MacBeath, J. (1998) *Effective School Leadership – Responding to Change*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- MacBeath, J., Moos, L. and Riley, K. (1998) 'Time for a change', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership – Responding to Change*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Macdonald, A. (1998) 'Postscript', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership – Responding to Change*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Maher, F. (1994) *The Feminist Classroom*, New York: Basic Books.
- Mahoney, P., MacBeath, J. and Moos, L. (1998) 'Who really runs the school?', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership – Responding to Change*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- McCormick, K. C. (1987) 'The vaunted school executive shortage: how serious is it?', *The Effective Executive*, vol. 9 (1987) p.18-21.
- McCormick, K. C. (1987) *The Making of British Managers: A report for the BIM and CBI into Management Training, Education and Development*, Corby: British Institute of Management.
- McHuge, M. and McMullan, L. (1995) 'Headteacher or manager? Implications for training and development', *School Organization*, vol. 15(1), pp. 23-34.
- McLaren, P. L. (1989) 'On ideology and education: critical pedagogy and the cultural politics of resistance', in McLaren, H. A. (ed) *Critical Pedagogy, the State and Cultural Struggle*, Albany, New York: State University of New York Press.

- McNie, B., White, R. and Wight, J. (1991) *Head Teacher Management Training and Development of Materials: A Planning Overview*, London: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988) *Case Study Research in Education: A Qualitative Approach*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Merriam, S. B. and Caffarella, R. S. (1999) *Learning in Adulthood*, (2nd edn) San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Mezirow, J. (1990) *Fostering Critical Reflection in Adulthood: A guide to Transformative and Emancipatory Learning*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Middleton, R. (2001) 'Leadership in a real world', in Sergiovanni, T. J. (ed) *Leadership: What's in it for Schools?*, London: Routledge Falmer.
- Milstein, M. M. and associates (1993) *Changing the Way We Prepare Educational Leaders: The Danforth Experience*, Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press Inc.
- Milstein, M. M. and Krueger, J. (1993) 'Innovative approaches to clinical internships: The university of New Mexico experience', in Murphy, J. (ed) *Preparing Tomorrow's School Leaders: Alternative Designs*, University Park, PA: University Council for Educational Administration.
- Ministry of Education (2002) *Principal Training Courses, 2003*, Jerusalem: Israeli Ministry of Education (in Hebrew).
- Ministry of Education, Center for Educational Development, (2003) *Principal Training Programs 2003-2004*, Jerusalem: Yuval (in Hebrew).
- Mintzberg, H. (1973) *The Nature of Managerial Work*, New York: Harper and Row.
- Mishler, E. G. (1986) *Research Interviewing: Context and Narrative*, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Moller, J. (1997) 'Some moral dilemmas in educational management', in Kydd, L. Crawford, M. and Riches, C. (eds) *Professional Development for Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Moore, A., George, R and Halpin, D. (2002) 'The developing role of the headteacher in English schools management: leadership and pragmatism, *Educational Management and Administration*, vol. 30(2), pp.175-188.
- Moos, L. (1998) 'Globalization or democracy?', in Johansson, O. and Lindberg, L. (eds) *Exploring New Horizons in School Leadership*, Umea, Sweden: University of Umea Press.

Moos, L. and Dempster, N. (1998) 'Some comparative learnings from the study', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership – Responding to Change*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Moos, L., Mahoney, P. and Reeves, J. (1998) 'What teachers, parents, governors and pupils want from their heads', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership – Responding to Change*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Murphy, J. (1992) *The Landscape of Leadership Preparation: Reframing the Education of School Administrators*, Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.

Mushkat, M. (1985) 'Inter-sectoral administrative resource transfer in the process of development: retired military officers as civilian administrators in Israel', *International Journal of Contemporary Sociology*, vol. 22(3-4), pp. 213-239 (in Hebrew).

Nadler, D. A., Shaw, R. B. and Walton, A. E. (1995) *Discontinuous Change: Leading Organizational Transformation*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Publishers.

Nathan, M. (2002) *A Handbook for Headteachers*, London: Kogan Page/Open University Press.

National Audit Office, (1997) 'Linking strategic planning with the budgetary process', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration, (1987) *Leaders for America's Schools*, Tempe, AZ: University Council for Educational Administration.

National Policy Board for Educational Administration, (1989) *Improving the Preparation of School Administrators: An Agenda for Reform*, Charlottesville: University of Virginia.

National Policy Board for Educational Administration, (1993) *Principals for our Changing Schools: the Knowledge and Skill Base*, Fairfax, VA: National Policy board for Educational Administration.

Nisanholtz, H. (1985) 'Career choice of military retired personnel: examining Holland's theory in objective and subjective perspective', unpublished MA thesis, Department of Sociology, Bar Ilan University (in Hebrew).

Nissan, M. (1997) *"Educational Identity" as a Primary Factor in the Development of Educational Leadership*, Jerusalem: The Mandel Institute (in Hebrew).

Nixon, J., Martin, J., McKeown, P. and Ranson, S. (1996) *Encouraging Learning: Towards a Theory of the Learning School*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

Noddings, N. (1984) *Caring: A Feminine Approach to Ethics and Moral Education*, Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

- Noddings, N. (1992) 'Gender and curriculum', in Jackson, P. W. (ed) *The Handbook of Research on Curriculum*, New York: Macmillan.
- Norton, M. S. (1995) 'The status of student cohorts in educational administration preparation programs', Paper presented at the annual convention of the University Council for Educational Administration, Salt Lake City, UT.
- O'Connor, E. and Warren, L. (2000) 'Women in educational management: a leadership training programme for women in education in Ireland', *Oideas*, vol. 47, pp.80-89.
- O'Sullivan, F. (1997) 'Learning organisations – re-engineering schools for life long learning', *Educational Management and Administration*, vol. 25, pp.217-230.
- Ouston, J. (1997) 'Competence in educational management', in Kydd, L., Crawford, M. and Riches, C. (eds) *Professional Development for Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Parame, C. (1975) 'The nature and content of management', in Houghton, V., McHugh, R. and Morgan, C. (eds) *Management in Education: Reader 1, The Management of Organizations and Individuals*, London: Ward Lock.
- Parkay, F. W. and Currie, G. (1992) 'Sources of support for beginning principals', in Parkey, G. W. and Hall, G. E. (eds) *Becoming a Principal: the Challenges of Beginning Leadership*, Boston, Mass: Allyn and Bacon.
- Patterson, L., Santa, C. M., Short, K. G. and Smith, K. (1993) *Teachers are Researchers: Reflection and Action*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.
- Patterson, L., Stansell, J. C. and Lee, S. (1990) *Teacher Researcher*, New York: Richard C. Owen Publishers Inc.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990) *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods*, (2nd edn) Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Peled, E. (1999) *Fifty Years of Israeli Education*, Jerusalem: Israeli Ministry of Education.
- Pieters, G. R. and Young, D. W. (2000) *The Everchanging Organization*, London: St Lucie Press.
- Pinar, W. F. and Reynolds, W. M. (1992) *Understanding Curriculum as Phenomenological and Deconstructed Text*, New York: Teachers College Press.
- Pinter, N. J. (1987) 'Administrator preparation in the United States', in Leithwood, K. A., Rutherford, W. and Van Der Vegt, R. (eds) *Preparing School Leaders for Educational Improvement*, London: Croom Helm.
- Poper, M. (1994) *Managers as Leaders*, Tel Aviv University: Ramot (in Hebrew).

- Poper, M. (1998) *Charismatic Leadership*, Tel Aviv University: Ramot (in Hebrew).
- Poper, M. (1999) 'The forest and its roots', in Gonen, Y. and Zakay, E. (eds) *Leadership and Leadership Development*, Tel Aviv: MOD (in Hebrew).
- Poper, M. and Ronen, A. (1992) *On Leadership*, Tel Aviv: M.O.D. (in Hebrew).
- Poster, C. (1987) 'School management training in the United Kingdom', in Leithwood, K. A., Rutherford, W. and Van Der Vegt, R. (eds) *Preparing School Leaders for Educational Improvement*, London: Croom Helm.
- Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (1997) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Rebora, R. (2001) 'The military response', *Education Week* (Online – http://www.edweek.com/jobs/jobstory.cfm?slug=11ttt_trh01, retrieved 27/08./2001).
- Reeves, J., Moos, L. and Forrest, J. (1998) 'The school leader's view', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership – Responding to Change*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Ribbins, P., Glatter, R., Simkins, T. and Watson, L. (1991) *Developing Educational Leaders*, Harlow, London: Longman in association with the British Educational Management and Administration Society.
- Riessman, C. K. (1993) *Narrative Analysis*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Riley, K. (1997) 'Quality and equality: competing or complementary objectives?', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Riley, K. and MacBeath, J. (1998) 'Effective leaders and effective schools', in MacBeath, J. (ed) *Effective School Leadership – Responding to Change*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Roberts, L. (1990) 'Reinventing school leadership', working memo prepared for the Renovating School Leadership Conference, Cambridge, MA, National Center for Educational Leadership.
- Rorty, R. (1979) *Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Rosener, B. (1990) 'Ways women lead', *Harvard Business Review*, November/December, pp. 119-125.
- Ruisel, I. (1992) 'Social intelligence: Conception and methodological problems, *Studia Psychologica*, vol. 34(4-5), pp. 281-296.
- Sabar, Ben Yehoshua, N. (1990) *Qualitative Research in Teaching and Learning*, Tel Aviv: Modan (in Hebrew).

- Sarason, S. B. (1982) *The Culture of School and the Problem of Change*, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Sawatzski, M. (1997) 'Leading and managing staff for high performance', in Davies, B. and Ellison, L. (eds) *School Leadership for the 21st Century*, London: Routledge.
- Schein, E. (1985) *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Schein, E. (1997) *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Schmuck, P. A. (1996) 'Women's place in educational administration: past, present and future', in Leithwood, K. (ed) *International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*, Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Schon, D. (1983) *The Reflective Practitioner*, New York: Basic Books.
- Schon, D. (1984) 'Leadership and reflection in action, in Sergiovanni, T. and Corbally, J. (eds) *Leadership and Organizational Culture*, Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Schon, D. (1987) *Educating the Reflective Practitioner: Toward a New Design for Teaching and Learning in the Professions*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Selznik, P. (1957) *Leadership in Administration*, Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Senge, P. M. (1990) *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organisation*, Sydney: Random House Australia.
- Sergiovanni, J. T. (1992) *Moral Leadership*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Sergiovanni, J. T. (1995) *The Principalship: A Reflective Practice Perspective*, (3rd edn) Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Sergiovanni, J. T. (1996) *Leadership for the Schoolhouse*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Sergiovanni, J. T. (2001) *Leadership (What's In It for Schools?)*, London: Routledge, Falmer.
- Shetty, Y. K. and Peery, (1976) 'Are top executives transformable across companies?' *Business Horizons*, vol. 19(3), pp.23-28.
- Simpson, J. A. and Weiner, E. S. C. (1989) *The Oxford English Dictionary*, (2nd edn) Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Smadar-Shor, H. (1994) 'Adjustment of retired military personnel on transfer from military to civilian career', unpublished MA thesis, Department of Sociology, Bar Ilan University (in Hebrew).

Smith, P. (1998) 'Developing educational managers: the BEMAS Conference', *Management in Education*, vol. 12(1.2), pp.4-6.

Sobol, T. (1996) 'Reflections on department mission and operations', unpublished internal memorandum, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Spradley, J. P. (1979) *The Ethnographic Interview*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Spradley, J. P. (1980) *Participant Observation*, Orlando, Florida: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich Inc.

Stacey, J. (1988) 'Can there be a feminist ethnography?', *Women's Studies International Forum*, vol. 11, pp. 21-27.

STATPAC, Professional Research Software for Web Surveys and Written Questionnaires, (Online – <http://www.statpac.com/surveys/index.html#TOC>, retrieved 20/08/2002).

Stewart, D. W. and Shamdasani, P. M. (1990) *Focus Groups: Theory and Practice*, London: Sage Publications.

Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. (1990) *Basics of Qualitative Research*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Stringer, E. T. (1996) *Action Research: A Handbook for Practitioners*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Sutton, M. (1997) 'Allocating budgets for curriculum support', in Preedy, M., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds) *Educational Management: Strategy, Quality and Resources*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

Texasoft, WINKS Manual, Statistical Analysis, WINKS t-test tutorial – Statistics Software (Online – <http://www.texasoft.com/2groups.html>, retrieved 22/09/2002).

Texasoft, WINKS Manual, Statistical Analysis, WINKS Statistics Software for Research Tutorial – Mann-Whitney test (Online – <http://www.texasoft.com/winkmann.html>, retrieved 22/09/2002).

Texasoft, WINKS Manual, Statistical Analysis, WINKS Statistics Software for Research Tutorial – Kruskal-Wallis test (Online – <http://www.texasoft.com/winkkrus.html>, retrieved 22/09/2002).

The Office of Educational Research and Improvement, (1987) *Principal Selection Guide*, Washington DC: OERI, Department of Education.

- Thomas, H. and Martin, J. (1996) *Managing Resources for School Improvement: Creating a Cost-Effective School*, London: Routledge.
- Thorndike, E. L. (1920) 'Intelligence and its uses', *Harper's Magazine*, vol. 140, pp.227-235.
- Tracey, G. and Weaver, C. (2000) 'Aspiring leaders academy: responding to the principal shortage', *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, 84, no.618 (2000): 75 (10 pages).
- Van Cooley, J. S. and Shen, (1999) 'Who will lead? The top 10 factors that influence teachers moving into administration', *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, Apr. vol. 83(606), pp. 75-80.
- Van Der Perre, C. and Vandenberghe, R. (1987) 'Training programs for school leaders in Europe', in Leithwood, K. A., Rutherford, W. and Van Der Vegt, R. (eds) *Preparing School Leaders for Educational Improvement*, London: Croom Helm.
- Van Manen, M. (1977) 'Linking ways of knowing with ways of being practical', *Curriculum Inquiry*, vol. 6(3), pp.35-44.
- Van Manen, M. (1986) *The Tone of Teaching*, Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Van Manen, M. (1990) *Researching Lived Experience: Human Science for an Action Sensitive Pedagogy*, Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Van Manen, M. (1991) *The Tact of Teaching: The Meaning of Pedagogical Thoughtfulness*, Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Van Meter, E. and Murphy, J. (1997) *Using ISLLC Standards to Strengthen Preparation Programs in Educational Administration*, Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.
- Van Velsor, E. and Leslie, J. B. (1998) *A Cross-National Comparison of Effective Leadership and Teamwork: Toward a Global Workforce*, Greensboro, NC: Centre for Creative Leadership.
- Walker, A. and Dimmock, C. (2000) 'Mapping the way ahead: Leading educational leadership into the globalized world', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 20(2), pp.227-233.
- Wallace, M., Bailey, J. and Kirk, P. (1988) *Action Learning: Practice and Potential in School Management Development*, Bristol: National Development Centre for School Development.
- Warren, L. and O'Connor, E. (1999) *Stepping Out of the Shadows: Women in Educational Management in Ireland*, Dublin: Oaktree Press.
- Warren, L. and O'Connor, E. (2000) 'An evaluation of a leadership development programme', *Irish Educational Studies*, vol. 19, pp. 163-174.

Weller, S. C. and Romney, K. A. (1988) *Systematic Data Collection*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

West, M. (1999) 'Micropolitics, leadership and all that ... the need to increase the micro-political awareness and skills of school leaders', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 19(2), pp. 189-195.

West-Burnham, J. (1997) 'Reflection on leadership in self-managing schools', in Davies, B. and Ellison, L. (eds) *School Leadership for the 21st Century*, London: Routledge.

West- Burnham, J. (2002) 'Interpersonal leadership' pp.1-4, (Online – <http://www.ncsl.org/mediastore/jwb-interpersonal-leadership.pdf>, retrieved 11/07/2003.

Wilcott, H. F. (1994) *Transforming Qualitative Data*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Yafe, E. (1999) 'Training and development of teachers in Israel', in Peled, E. (ed) *Fifty years of Israeli Education*, Jerusalem: Israeli Ministry of Education (in Hebrew).

Yammarino, F. J. and Dubinsky, A. J. (1994) 'Transformational leadership theory: Using levels of analysis to determine Boundary Conditions', *Personnel Psychology*, vol. 47, pp.787-811.

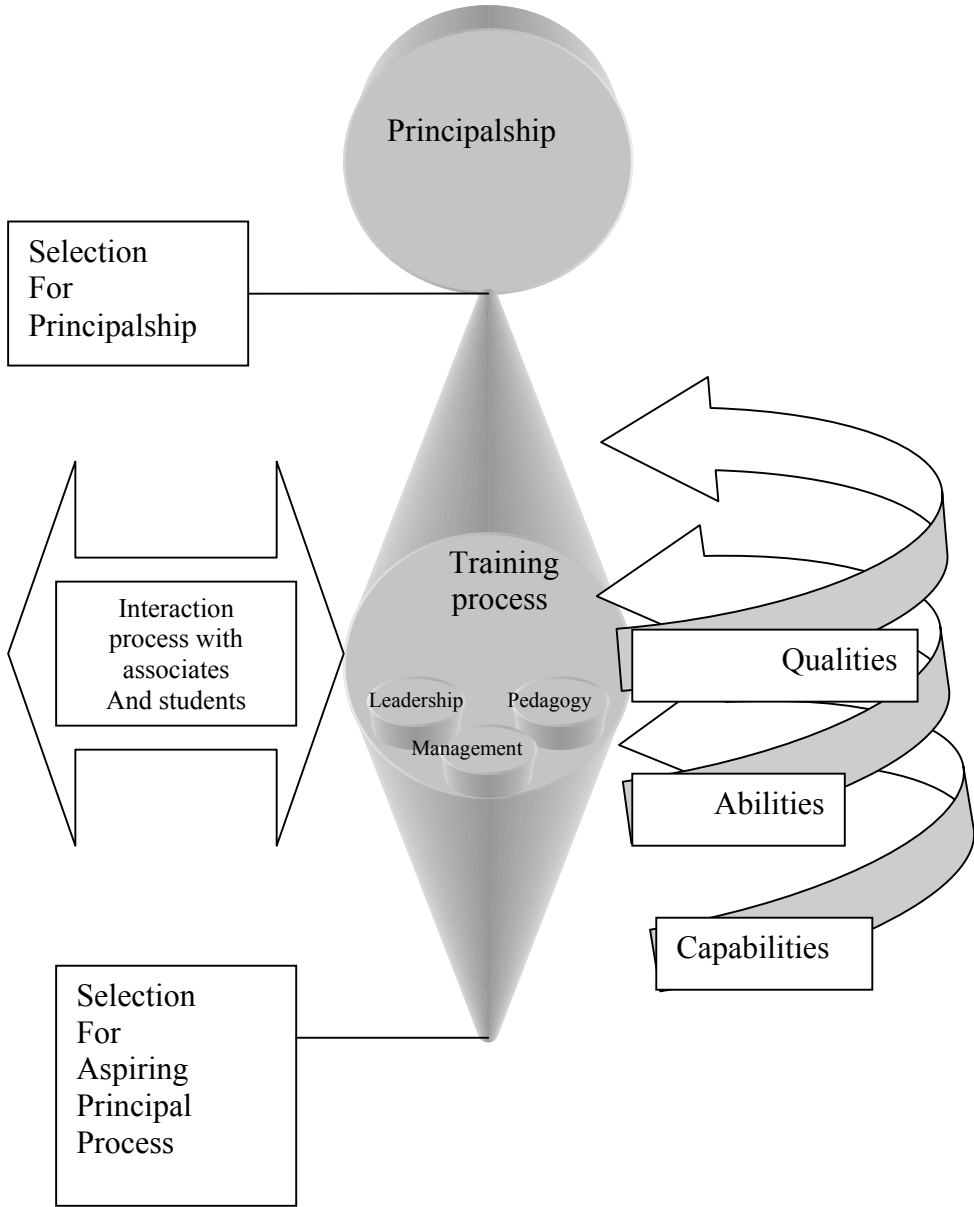
Yerkes, D. M., Basom, M., Barnett, B. and Norris, C. (1995) 'Cohorts today: Considerations of structure, characteristics and potential effects', *The Journal of CAPEA*, vol. 7, pp. 7-19.

Young, R. E. (1990) *A Critical Theory of Education: Habermas and our Children's Future*, New York: Teachers College Press.

Yukl, G. (1998) *Leadership in Organization*, (4th edn) New Jersey: Simon and Schuster.

Zaleznik, A. (1992) 'Managers and leaders: are they different?', *Harvard Business Review*, vol. 70(2), pp.126-136.

Zander, A. (1982) *Making Groups Effective*, San Francisco: Jossey Bass.



Appendix B. Questionnaire in Hebrew.

שם הנשאל/ת: _____.

רקע אישי :
 ותק בחינוך : _____ מורה: ביסודי חטיבה תיכון
 מקצוע התמקדות : _____ מילאתי תפקיד ניהולי: בעבר כן/לא
 קבוצת גיל : 25-30 30-40 40-50 50 ומעלה

תוכנית הקורס כוללת היום את התחומים הבאים דרג אותם לפי סדר החשיבות בעיניך :

ארגונים – תאוריה ומעשה
מנהיגות תאוריה ומעשה
מערך בית ספרי
סוגיות בחיי בית הספר
דיני חינוך
מדיניות החינוך
תוכנית לימודים בית ספרית
הערכה בית ספרית
אוכלוסיות בעלות צרכים מיוחדים
בית הספר העתידי
משמעת בכיתה
ביקור והיכרות של בתי ספר
ניהול עצמי

מהם לדעתך הכלים שאת/ה סבור שאתה מביא אתך לקורס הניהול (דרג לפי סדר החשיבות) :

פדגוגיים
ארגוניים
כספיים
שיווקיים
יחסי ציבור
יחסי עובד מעביד
יכולת עבודה בצוות
הנחיה חינוכית מקצועית
יכולת פתרון סכסוכים
הוסף:

באלו תחומים את/ה מצפה להתמחות במסגרת קורס הניהול (דרג לפי סדר העדיפות) :

פדגוגיה.
מערכות חינוכיות
מקצועות לימוד
ארגון.
כספים.
שיווק .
יחסי ציבור.
יחסי עובד מעביד.
יכולת עבודה בצוות .
הנחית צוות .
חוקים והנחיות מקצועיים
פתרון סכסוכים.

הוסף:

פרט מהם חמשת הנושאים/כלים עיקריים אותם אתה מקווה לקבל במהלך קורס הניהול :

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

עד היום היוו מורים את המאגר הגדול והטבעי לניהול בתי ספר, לאור השינויים החלים במערך הבית ספרי האם לדעתך ימשיכו המורים ויהיו את המאגר לניהול בתי ספר

ציין לדעתך חמש תכונות חיוניות לדעתך לממלא תפקיד מנהל בית הספר .

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

בתודה על תשומת הלב .