Leading and Managing for Development

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Introduction

Development can be seen as a central value pursued by educational management and leadership for schools as organizations. Individual personal development of students is the main aim of all of us working in education. But, at the same time, personal and professional development of teachers and educational leaders in schools is important, as is the development of teams and the organizational development of the entire school. Finally, it also implies the role of education in social development at community, regional, national and global levels, which is our long-term concern.

Educational leadership and management have to be focused on all levels and aspects of development both in theory and practice. The following chapters of the book present different issues important from the perspective of development of educational management and leadership in contemporary context of schools and other organizations in public sector important for education.

Monograph contains a selection of chapters based on presentations at ENIRDELM 2017 Conference held in Cracow, Poland, 14-17 September 2017

The End of School?
Educational leaders for public good in times of privatization[*]

Maria Mendel[1]

Abstract

The time of the crisis of democracy is the liminal time for school, which will probably lead to the emergence of some stable configuration of its meaning. On the threshold of such emerging meaning, the role and the status of the traditional public school, open and engaged in the processes of social integration, is being questioned. In this context, one may pose the question concerning the end of public school and its possible inevitability. This question may be extended to the chances of school in general (public or not).

If we define school through the lens of its engagement in the problems of the common world, such school should operate above social divisions. In this perspective, a school that is being privatised so that it is no longer publicly accessible, is no longer a school. Such practices of privatisation become commonplace nowadays. Does it really mean the end of the school?

The argument presented here relates to the narrative of the headmaster of a public school that is run by a non-public entity. The fact that his school has maintained openness to the public may suggest a negative answer to the question of the end of the school.

The concluding thesis is that the end of school as a public good is not inevitable due to the possible roles of leaders of re-organised schools. They are capable of inventing paradoxical, hybrid forms of schools. Irrespective of the formal status of such new schools, their leaders shape their character and can make them sites of practical democracy in mixed communities, and thus can block the drive to social homogenisation of their students and their neighbourhoods.

Keywords: school leadership, public good, privatization, social cohesion, democracy.

The end of school

School is functional to society and what school is depends on condition of society. However, due to the currently on-going changes, school is perceived less and less as a public good, serving the development of not only individuals and groups but also of the entire society, enriched by the public and equal access to education. It becomes more and more difficult to see school as a manifestation of social diversity encountered in one place and united by a common goal. Therefore, I put forward the thesis that school as such is no longer school sensu stricto, as the foundation on which it has grown is accessibility of legally guaranteed and institutionally offered education. What I have in mind is the institution of school, formed throughout centuries and culturally universalized, among other things due to the compulsory education, introduced by the law in European countries in the 18th century (starting with Prussia that did it in 1763). Keeping the distance to the euro-centric character of such a way of thinking, it could still be continued and said that this cultural universalization – regardless of the increasing diversification – is manifested also today by associating school with a place of public

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education, or of social mixing at the same time. Even though the effect of the abovementioned diversification is adding adjectives, describing the emerging distinct types, the core of the meaning of school and the starting point for the creation of any differences with regard to it remains the same. It is school that openly fulfils its educational and social functions.

In the light of the changes discussed above, I suggest 'the end of school.' It is difficult to be unambiguous here though. In this paper, I argue that the prophecies of 'the end of school' are currently disrupted, which turns out to be advantageous for school's functions, important in the context of social coherence. Each example of that disruption results in those functions being protected. According to my thesis, such examples are brought about by the managing professionals in education at the level of communities and by school leaders, determined to act for the sake of a common, social world. It seems that, in setting the perspectives for fulfilment of school's educational goals, they understand that they cannot be achieved in the conditions of social isolation and that the *locus* of the most profound sense of education requires bringing them beyond school, towards a good and solidary society. Hence, in those people I see the creators of school, which – on one hand – successfully defends itself against falling into the trap of post-democracy (Crouch, 2004) and does not privatize according to the neo-liberal paradigm of the contemporary reality. And on the other hand, immersed as all in this particular reality, it does not remain indifferent to this formatting. Nevertheless, it still maintains its essential meaning that lies in the accessibility of high quality education that it offers and in the opening for the local community's specificity, problems, democratising processes, etc., taking place in the conditions of identification with this community. It could be said then that – in this perspective – the end of school has been announced too soon.

Announcing it is a commonplace practice though[2]. It is no wonder if we take into account the current political climate. It becomes the norm to eliminate from school its social functions that go beyond the narrowly understood class interests of the privileged and leave behind the idea of common education, manifesting at least the efforts that it be – according to the constitutions of democratic states – equal in quality and equally accessible to all. For instance, in the US, in Donald Trump's government the minister of education is a multi-millionaire who proudly says that she has never attended a public school, never used any support from the state in her education, and her passion is helping parents in finding – e.g. with education vouchers – alternatives to 'traditional' public schooling[3].

The function of universality has characterised school in its meaning fixed at least since the 19th century. However, now this very function seems to be disappearing. Instead of developing and reinforcing social coherence, public, accessible education that allows for the mixing of representatives of various social groups, environments, classes, indispensable for a sanely functioning society, is disappearing before our eyes. At the same time, be it through guaranteeing elementary contact that is scarce in the currently dominant structures of social enclaves, it is a condition for a democratic social life. School is experiencing its end, placing itself more and more 'beyond school,' losing its designate (Mendel, 2015). As researchers point out, the entire sector of public education is being privatized. Many schools, whose operation has been noticed as a source of profit, conclusively diverging from the function of universality, keep on taking money from the state for their maintenance. Those school gain the legal status of autonomy in their actions and, by changing the rules of recruitment, soon cease to be commonly accessible, making money in the lucrative educational business. Usually they also quit the name school and call themselves academies, studies, educational centres, etc., or become 'adjective schools,' such as 'Good school,' etc. What remains now under the name of public education (for

[2] See e.g.: Hursh, D.W. (2015). *The End of Public Schools. The Corporate Reform Agenda to Privatize Education.* New York and London: Routledge; Giroux, H.(2015). *Education and the Crisis of Public Values. Challenging the Assault on Teachers, Students, and Public Education.* New York: Peter Lang; or in Poland, in the local contexts: Uryga, D. (2017). Zmierzch publicznej oświaty samorządowej. *Pedagogika Społeczna,* 1(63), pp.47-65; Zdanowicz, K.(2017). Dokąd zmierzasz, polska szkoło? Szkoła przetrwania. *Polityka,* issue entitled: *Koniec szkoły?,* 20.06.2017, http://www.polityka.pl/tygodnikpolityka/kraj/1709200,1,dokad-zmierzasz-polska-szkolo.read (access: 12.08.2017).
[3] http://www.vox.com/policy-and-politics/2017/2/7/14529608/betsy-devos-defense-critics-wrong-public-schools (7.02.2017).

instance in the USA, but this phenomenon is more widespread, obviously also in Europe) starts to look more like a collection of local daycare centres, or storage rooms for students underprivileged for many reasons, coming most often from poor environments, forgotten by the wealthier part of the society. Neither those storage rooms, nor academies or 'good school,' etc. are schools from the point of view presented above. School that would consider their social diversity an asset and would be functional to the civic society, standing for democratic values. School that could be called, without being pompous, a civilizational achievement. However, this is only one side of the coin…

The other side is created by the crisis of democracy, in particular of its real practice in the world dominated by neo-liberalism and ubiquitous market orientation. As the French sociologist Pierre Rosanvallon has rightly observed in his great book 'The Society of Equals,' overcoming this requires today a more active and developed understanding of the common – he calls it commonality (Rosanvallon, 2013). Commonality is a condition *sine qua non* of reinforcing the ties in the community. In one of its dimensions, it presents itself as the public good. According to Rosanvallon, it is always very 'fragile' (Rosanvallon, 2013). The author points out that 'contemporary societies are not characterised by – as it is believed – widespread individualism but rather by generalized social separatism (…). The notion of 'resemblance' has lost its anthropological and democratic dimensions. It became the determinant of class. (…) What used to be common has been divided between segregated groups of resemblance. Contacts between representatives of different groups occur under the rules of mutual avoidance' (Rosanvallon, 2016). In the context of the considerations on school, paraphrasing a further statement by this author on social diversity, which 'manifests itself more and more often in juxtaposing homogenous spaces, isolated from one another,' it could be said that entire schools 'are filled with people who not only present the same social and cultural features, but also have the same religion or even political view.' (Rosanvallon, 2016).

Following the paraphrase, 'the like' from middle and upper classes group in trendy 'adjective' schools, studies, academies, etc. At the same time, the most unprivileged groups are forced to remain in schools, or 'areas, from which others have fled' (Rosanvallon, 2016) schools that, necessarily, resemble not only storage rooms but even ghettoes that group children and adolescents that criminalize more and more in these conditions (and – in the longer perspective – reformatories and prisons). This is how open school and common education are dying, or are being killed.

The question how such changes can be stopped and – above all – how they can be prevented is essential and of undoubtedly educational character. It is a current and great pedagogical challenge. Since, as Rosanvallon said, it is all about commonality, it has to be learnt and taught and, what follows, democracy has to be practised. As I have mentioned before, regardless of the prophecies of 'the end of school,' or maybe precisely because of them, an important role here must be played by educational leadership. Local educational decision-makers, educational leaders and managers – mainly school heads and teachers – still have many possibilities of working for the social mixing and restoring the lost (in the neo-liberal training and the culture of *homo munitus* – barricaded human) instincts that foster the creation of social coherence.

School another way

On this ground, the opening space in this discussion will be filled in by the description of a certain experience. It involves people, engaged in creating a school, whose launch I put in the centre of my critical interest a few years ago and presented as an example of creeping privatization of public schooling in Poland and an unprecedented expression of striving for social homogenization[4].

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[4] In my paper: *Szkoła poza szkołą,* presented at the international conference: *Jakość edukacji czy/i jakość ewaluacji. Ucząca się szkoła*, Uniwersytet Jagielloński, Zakopane, 12.04.2014. See also: Mendel M. (2015): Szkoła poza szkołą. O odrywającym się desygnacie i postdemokratycznej wersji powszechnej edukacji. In: *Szkoła - kultura - środowisko lokalne*, A.Szczurek-Boruta, B.Chojnacka-Synaszko (eds.), Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, pp. 59-78.

However… Research life corrects such anticipations. Differentiating radical criticism from radical action and opting for pragmatic chang (Szkudlarek, 1994), I started to operate as a researcher and analyse the reality at the crossroads of available interpretations and judgements, noticing much more than what is conspicuous[5]. The Arkadiusz Aram Rybicki Positive Primary School in Gdansk – that is the school in question – is a public school operated by a non-public entity, the Positive Initiatives Foundation. It was launched among many controversies, as the law allows only small schools (up to 70 students) to be transferred by municipalities to legal or natural persons. The city of Gdansk, on the basis of a legal interpretation of the *casus* of a newly constructed and not previously operating school, transferred to the Positive Initiatives Foundation an institution designed for ten as many students. The act of transfer was carried out by virtue of the Act, whose key contents had been the subject of municipal debates, the City's President's meetings with the people and social discussions on many platforms, including the Internet. Now, from the perspective of a few years of its operation, it can be said that the Positive Primary School has grown into the landscape of Gdansk's education, fulfilling its educational functions well and earning admiration for what it is doing for the sake of social integration in its school district and the city. The statement of this school's head Piotr Szeląg, prepared for the purposes of this paper, describes those activities and is at the same time an argument for the thesis put forward in this text (see: framed text below)

Piotr Szeląg

Arkadiusz Aram Rybicki Positive Primary School

In 2013, the President of Gdansk Paweł Adamowicz announced the contest for the rental of the premises on Azaliowa Street in Gdańsk, in a new, developing part of the city. As the team of Positive Initiatives, we planned to participate in it in order to create a new primary school. From the very beginning, we wanted this institution to be modern in its way of operation, open to people and at the same time referring to the heritage and identity of Gdansk.

The starting point for the creation of our concept was Solidarity as the initiator of the social movement that has influenced the shape of the contemporary world but also what we understand by this term now.

Our aim was and is to make the graduates of our school people with open minds, sensitive to others, not afraid of challenges and creative. To do so, we invited two partners to our project, the Polish Humanitarian Action, which for many years had been developing activities in the area of global education in Poland. The second partner was the Gdansk Pomeranian Special Economic Zone that operated Edupark, which investigated into and conducted modern educational forms. These partnerships allowed us to introduce in the curriculum two additional educational threads involving all students – that is global education and creative education (coding, 3D graphics, programming). In this way, we have attained the first public school in Europe, whose curriculum was strictly and systemically linked with a large humanitarian organization.

We have offered an increased number of English and Mathematics lessons and the possibility to learn another modern foreign language, free extra-curricular classes and daycare during winter

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[5] Within the mentioned activities, right after the launch of the mentioned school's operation, on 30th October 2014, I organized at the University of Gdansk an open seminary *Szkoła publiczna, czyli jaka?* It initiated the research (e.g. carried out in my doctoral seminary) concerning the activity of this school and common activities oriented to the development of education's social functions. Among others, Piotr Kowalczuk, the then head of the Department of Social Development, responsible for education in Gdansk, dr. Piotr Szeląg, the head of the Positive Primary School, and Anna Kocik, the vice-president of the Section of Education of the 'Solidarity' union in the Gdansk Region – representing the side suing the City for law breach while creating the school – took part in the seminar. As the banner inviting to the seminar announced: 'One of the issues discussed during the seminar will be the unprecedented solution, adopted with reference to the newly constructed school in the district of Kokoszki by the City of Gdansk. In the light of the spreading tendencies of public schooling diversification (e.g. in the USA, in the UK), resulting in the creation of various school 'formats' – often controversial from the social point of view – the importance of an objective, constructive discussion between the City's authorities, school operators and academics who research on this issue is growing. This seminar may prove an occasion for it.'

holidays within the programme 'Positive Winter Holidays in School' and free classes and daycare within the programme 'Positive Summer Holidays in School,' free swimming lessons in all classes and an array of additional free extra-curricular educational and sports classes, so that they would be accessible regardless of the student's financial situation.

In our school, we have created the educational garden, where children can plant and cultivate plants and vegetables. It is a natural educational tool.

The school has entered into partnership with a similar school in the UK and thanks to the Internet virtual meeting that motivate to want to get to know other languages and cultures can be held.

From the very beginning, we have wanted this school to become the centre of the local community's life, attracting not only children but also their relatives. To do so, we planned a series of activities directed at the parents and the local community.

For the Parents we have offered a possibility to take part in free psychological and pedagogical workshops 'Open School for Parents.' Weekly, we have been offering sports premises belonging to the school for free use within the program 'Parents in the Gym.' In this way, the Parents' Amateur Volleyball League spontaneously emerged in our school and included almost 30 other schools in Gdansk in its activities. Parents create teams that represent the schools of their children and compete with one another.

The school's library is operated by the Voivodship's and City's Public Libraries and serves the function of a school's library but also of a public library for the people. With this solution, not only have we gained the effect of a professionally operated institution but also we have created a space where students can naturally learn reading culture.

In the school's building, we have designed one room for an 'open office,' a place meant to be the seat of small local NGOs, such as 'The Association of the Kokoszki District's Friends,' where our school is located. This is a way of supporting and cooperating with such organizations.

In the first days of our school's operation, we launched the University of the Third Age in order to integrate also the grand-parents of our students around the school. Now more than 80 people attend it regularly…

Piotr Szeląg seems to convince that the end of school as a public good serving commonality is not inevitable. In the light of these presented activities, it could be said that removing, or relatively moving away, this inevitability is done by its leaders. With respect to the Gdansk case, these are the authors of the vision and the animators of the school, which, on one hand, fits in the neo-liberal mold of the reality, and on the other hand, cultivates the idea of universal education. It is the school head but also the representatives of the city's authorities responsible for the agreement that created this form of the school, and the board of the foundation to whom the city entrusted its operation. They are leaders who, by continuing the tradition of an open public school and at the same time changing the key principle of its organization, practically entered the marriage of the public and the private typical for neo-liberal management, impeding the sense of investing in homogeneity rooted in neo-liberalism. They have created a hybrid – a school which is a paradox – and they have done it in the conditions that we all live in; in the reality to which it is impossible not to react. Public school in an unmodified form cannot linger but – as they have shown – reacting to the demands for change does not have to turn into falling in socially threatening homonomies. The results that they have achieved by consciously working for the commonality are impressive (expressed by many references to solidarity that is a foundation for commonality). The source of these results is undoubtedly the unconventional idea for the school's operation, conceived by its leaders, in strict, one could say day-to-day, partnership with the Polish Humanitarian Action and the Pomeranian Special Economic Zone Ltd. Besides, what Piotr Szeląg points out in his statement, an unconventional school statute was created, as among the school's objectives and tasks it lists the partner's obligations to mutual support in the school's

operation (*sic!*). In the perspective of such partnership, the school created within it becomes a never-ending project of civic, humanitarian and socio-economic activation of both students and the local community. Thanks to the partnerships, coordinated by the school head, in the form of full access to free life-long learning, involving children and adolescents as well as other inhabitants (in this part of the city, their socio-economic status is not high), the school offers regular classes, e.g. in global education, mentioned by Piotr Szeląg, in which the Polish Humanitarian Action is a specialist, or in social economy and SMEs, in which employees and volunteers of the Pomeranian Special Economic Zone are experts. Some occasional events, animating humanitarian activities, supporting those in need in search for the solutions of their problems, be it educational, legal, economic or other, are also held in the school. The school functions as a community helping others and as a forum for debates on the current issues, such as recently on the issue of migrants and refugees, a few of whom are students of the school. The school is doing its best to deserve its meaning as 'the centre of the local community's life,' as Piotr Szeląg put it. It listens to the people and reacts to their needs, and by creating a space for them for civic activity, it makes their social life more democratic.

It results then that regardless of the formal status but depending on the line of its leaders, school can be a place of meeting; a socially heterogenic structure, fulfilling the condition *sine qua non* on the road to reaching democratic commonality. As the example of the Gdansk school shows, leaders who are aware of this social mission can effectively prevent the development of separatist practices in the local community, internal migrations, etc. Parents and other inhabitants of the school's area, because of the presented socially open character of its activity, become interested in the place, which means also in meeting others and co-creating it with others.

The ending

The presented *casus* of managerial activity, profiling pro-socially the privatizing solutions concerning the school, can become part of a more general reflection on 'the end of school' that appears in the title. I am doing it in 'The Ending' but not as a conclusion that would close the discussion. Quite the opposite. It is more of a coda that I am presenting with further studies and – what I particularly recommend – empirical studies on 'the end of school' in mind.

On the theoretical level, the end of school can be understood as a being and co-existing onthologies can be observed in its being. One of them is drawn by the path of privatization and it can be represented by actions for profit, dragging means from the public to the non-public sphere, in a way privatizing directly the sector of public schooling. Hence, it can be called the onthology of private. Such cases can be discussed with analogy to, for instance, the phenomenon of charterization in the USA, which results in – under the banner of care for school – a public good, which school is, becoming a profitable business in charter school and other similar ones that take public money but escape public control (Mendel, 2015). Where a public school turned into a non-public one becomes the possession of its operator, a private company, a foundation, etc., we have to do with something similar. Dawid Sześciłło calls it privatization that in the Polish sector of public services is 'creeping' quite slowly but efficiently (Sześciłło, 2013). It happened so for instance in the cases discussed in the report 'The Liquidation of Primary Schools and Transfer to Associations' (Dziemianowicz-Bąk, Dzierzgowski, 2014), where communities transferred schools to non-public operators without an agreement that would regulate the conditions of the transfer, and hence risking that in these conditions the premises will be taken over, including the land it is built on, and so on. It is similar in cases where the community transfers the property ownership to the association, including the land on which it is located, its equipment, infrastructure, etc.

The mentioned report discusses many similar cases. They can also be found in the experience of the so-called 'small schools' in rural environment, which – being a public good – have been transferred and are today full, legally guaranteed properties of few-person associations that had saved

them from liquidation once[6]. Public good and means – directly in that case – were transferred here from the public to the non-public sector. Researchers – e.g. the team of Krystyna Marzec-Holka which studied empirically all small schools in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian voivodship – agree that 'the actions of rural development associations start the processes that result in reinforcing the social structure of the country, and the country gets ready for change and development. Social participation in the activities taken up by the associations is a condition for the occurrence of revitalization processes, regardless of them concerning the country infrastructure or the restoration of social relations and ties. There is no doubt that rural development associations that operate small schools have a 'revitalizing potential' – they provide impulse for development, affect local communities, create a democratic way of power exercise in its basic meaning' (Rutkowska, 2015). The owners of small schools – these few-person association, made up mostly by parents and teachers – do a good job then, serving the public good in the Polish countryside. Obviously there remains the question what will happen next, when the owners become parents of already adult children, retire, etc. From the current perspective though, the onthology of private cannot be assessed conclusively. The end of school in this version is not unambiguous and cannot become part of the social catastrophe scenario mainly thanks to the local educational leaders. This statement is one of the arguments for my thesis on their role in 'softening' 'hard-line' neo-liberalism and the following hard-line privatization; on the potential of the pro-social attitudes that they present and on the chance of forming commonality – saving school from its end – that results from the use of this potential.

What co-exists with the path of private is the kind of schools' being in the process of change that could be called the onthology of hybrid. An example for that can be found in the case of the school mentioned before – as the vice-president of the City of Gdansk Piotr Kowalczuk described it – 'Gdansk's project of a free, public school with a broader offer, innovative management and doors wide open to the local community – the Arkadiusz Aram Rybicki Positive Primary School in Gdansk.'[7] We are dealing here with a profitable transfer of a public school to private hands which resulted in the profits located on both sides, most of it on the side of the transferer, the city, though. The City of Gdansk still is the owner of the school, not losing any rights to it, and gains the fulfilment of its educational functional and a new centre of education and social life important for the city. Let us sum up how it happened in this context. The school is the property of the city with its infrastructure, part of the equipment, etc. On the basis of the mentioned definite term (until 2020) agreement, whose fulfilment is monitored by the appointed expert organ (e.g. a university professor is one of its members), the city have transferred the operation of the school to the operator, the Positive Initiatives Foundation. Operating according to this agreement, the school bears the features of an open public school, not only accepting the children form the district and not taking any fees from the parents, but also guaranteeing the local community free access to the good that its equipment is (court, swimming pool, sauna, etc.) and becoming an important place of the development of local activity in the civic sphere, in culture and leisure.

'Gdansk's project of free public education' represents undoubtedly the privatizing path of the changes occurring in the sector of education in Poland (after all, the school has been transferred to a non-public enitity, for whom it is an operation for profit, as they benefit from the transfer of 'the public to the non-public'). However, I have called the onthology of these changes hybrid, as – contrarily to the onthology of private – the profit of the public good has dominated other profits, the school has not become a private possession and the city not only does not lose its ties with it but can

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[6] See: Marzec-Holka K., Rutkowska A. (eds.) (2012). *Małe Szkoły w województwie kujawsko-pomorskim. Studium pedagogiczno-socjologiczne*, Bydgoszcz: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Kazimierza Wielkiego; Marzec-Holka, K. (2015). *Kapitał społeczny a wspólnoty wiejskie w obronie „małych szkół”. Przykład województwa kujawsko-pomorskiego.* Bydgoszcz: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Kazimierza Wielkiego; Uryga, D. (2013). *„Mała szkoła” w środowisku wiejskim. Socjopedagogiczne studium obywatelskich inicjatyw.* Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS; Rutkowska, A. (2015). Mały cud oświatowy: rola stowarzyszeń rozwoju wsi w przejmowaniu i prowadzeniu małych szkół: przykład województwa kujawsko-pomorskiego, *Chowanna,* No 1 (pp. 77-90), p. 79.

[7] http://nauka.trojmiasto.pl/Pozytywna-Szkola-Podstawowa-w-Kokoszkach-zostaje-n114098.html (access: 23.06.2017).

constantly influence what happens in it. The assessment of this path is still not unambiguous but the hybrid created in Gdansk shows how the neo-liberal paradigm weakens in some circumstances. They are created by people – the mentioned leaders – who are oriented to the public good and democratic commonality in their actions.

The silent losers in both options are teachers. The onthology of private, even if it makes some of them literal and legal owners of the school, does not stabilize and protect their professional status. Employed on contracts – mandate or for a specific work – they work longer in the week but shorter in the year, not including the holidays. 'There are teachers who work from 3rd September to 28th June (…) In the summer they are unemployed and have to register in a Job Agency' – says the chief of the teachers' unions[8]. 'There are cases when the teacher is fully employed but apart from giving classes, he or she has to rake the leaves in the school's area as well.' In the path of hybrid, teachers are not heard at all in the two-party agreements, expressing the voice of the transferer and the transferee of school operation. In both onthologies, teachers employed out of the public sector lose their rights resulting from the Teacher's Charter. Even though non-public school operators often respect many of its regulations, teachers who work in these schools work more hours that the Charter allows, earn according to arbitrary and not Charter-guaranteed rates and are not protected by the regulations concerning promotion or work stability. As I have once writte (Mendel, 2015), the Teacher's Charter was created during the martial law (1982). The heated debate on its sense focuses on that fact today, causing many emotions and – unfortunately – losing its essential meaning, as a collective work agreement, which is nothing exceptional in professional environments. The Polish teachers, similarly to teachers in other countries or representatives of other professions who tap into collective agreements of that kind, have a right to dispose of their agreement. The Charter, which is for sure not an optimal solution for the current times, guarantees the respect of teachers' professional distinction, considering the rights and obligations resulting from it. It requires a thoughtful modernization then but not negation.

Both private and hybrid are then far from perfection but the solution of the problem that would allow for it will not be brought today by educational leaders or local authorities. This solution has to be elaborated by the civic society which would feel solidarity with the teachers and claim for the protection of their status, as they can educate free people only in conditions of independence from the changing contexts and political pressures. It is also the society's task to work for the protection of teacher's rights but in Poland it has to be done in the context of a debate on the current version of the Teacher's Charter; a debate that would allow for its update and rationalization of its provisions.

In the context of the analysed paths of 'the end of school,' the ending of the paper, drawing attention to teachers, is significant. With their only silent participation in the occurring changes, or even without them, as a professional group strong with their own autonomy and high competencies not only in their taught subjects but also in social issues, the end will unfortunately come. It can take the form of the developing third formula of school change - co-existing today with the private and hybrid ones. It is the onthology of redundancy. It is the path leading to waste, as many wasted lives in the post-modern times described by Zygmunt Bauman (Bauman, 2014).

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[8]   http://wiadomosci.gazeta.pl/wiadomosci/1,114871,15306919,Ustawa_miala_ratowac_male_szkoly__A_jak_jest__Nauczyciele.html   (access: 2.08.2017).

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What kind of evaluation do we need inside a school?

Henryk Mizerek[1]

Abstract

This paper is focused on the issues concerning the characteristics of evaluation which we need inside a contemporary school. Today, we need a useful evaluation, meaning one that:

- supports school development,
- respects its specificity,
- responds to challenges that education is facing due to the modern times and the unpredictable future.

Systems of internal evaluation and self-evaluation currently used in school practice do not meet the requirement of a useful evaluation. The question arises then - why is this happening and what can be done to change the current state of affairs?

This paper consists of two parts. The first one is aimed to determine which types of internal evaluation and self-evaluation are superfluous and should be avoided, whereas the second one provides a list of evaluation features that we would like to see inside the school.

Keywords: educational evaluation; self-evaluation; evaluation for knowledge and development.

Introduction

An answer to the question - how to use evaluation in school management? – is outwardly simple. We should keep in mind that this is a kind of management that respects the specificity of the school as an organization and its culture, as well as respects paradoxes and tensions of the modern education. In this situation, we need to ask ourselves beforehand: What evaluation does a modern school need? We can assume that today we need a useful evaluation – one that:

- supports school development,
- respects its specificity,
- responds to challenges that education is facing due to the modern times and the unpredictable future.

Systems of internal evaluation and self-evaluation currently used in school practice do not meet the requirement of a useful evaluation. In the first part of this work, I try to determine which types of evaluation practices are superfluous and should be avoided. In the second part, I suggest a list of evaluation features that we would like to see inside the school, even though it might seem at first as mission impossible.

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1. Useless evaluation

Currently, the educational evaluation is rarely used to achieve the goals which it was established for. One of the reasons behind this is the dominance of the neoliberal wave of evaluation (Vedung, 2010) in the school practice.

The neoliberal wave of evaluation has developed under the strong influence of the concept/movement known as New Public Management, fundamental ideas of which were focused on results, and not on processes. Under this umbrella, the New Public Management (Broucker & De Wit, 2013; Chouinard, 2013) harbored a cluster of ideas drawn from administrative practices in the private sector. The main dogmas of the New Public Management are:

- confidence in leadership,
- more use of indirect instead of direct control,
- customer and citizen orientation.

The first dogma assumes the establishment of new and more dynamic results-oriented organizations that put leadership in the center. Leadership should be exercised by management professionals. Good leadership must be taught and learned. Being an expert on the actual substantive issues is not enough. Leaders have to meet demands concerning performance, efficiency, and other management skills.

The second element involves increased use of indirect instead of direct control. Total privatization is included, but only as one tenet. A major point is that the government should act as the helmsman of the ship of state, but not necessarily as an oarsman. Corporatization and outsourcing of public services as well as increased competition are also important to boost flexibility.

The third NPM element relates to the customers. This part of the New Public Management focuses on how organizations can be reformed so that the actual and potential users and clients get more influence, while the performance of the organization becomes more customized. The idea behind is that the public system puts too little emphasis on the preferences, needs and interests of the citizens and users. When there is no market to signal demand for public services, other mechanisms are needed to improve the flow of information from the users of the intervention into decision-making processes. This can be achieved if users are able to choose between alternative service providers or participate in the institution and agency boards. It can also be achieved through hearings and questionnaires. The New Public Management stresses that the authorities have to be more responsive and adapt to customers. An evaluation moment is introduced when customer satisfaction with the service is measured, for example, with the help of customer satisfaction indices.

It should be emphasized that the NPM regards the fundamental principal in a representative democracy as imperative, which would mean that the demos have the right to know how their agents spend their money. This results in an increased emphasis put on the accountability of agents in terms of the use of resources, by checking for economy, effectiveness, and cost efficiency. Evaluation has thus been strengthened and, above all, has taken on new forms. It has adopted new expressions in the form of accountability assessments, performance measurement, and consumer satisfaction appraisal. Quality assurance and benchmarking are also recommended (Vedung, 2010, p. 273).

The NPM appreciated the role of evaluation - including internal and self-evaluation. In the pioneer era of the 1960s, evaluation was seen as a one-off enterprise, resorted to in times of urgent need only. The New Public Management aspired to change this and turn evaluation into a permanent feature of the larger doctrine of results-based management. A special role was assigned to evaluation, which was aimed at studying the effects of undertaken actions.

The neoliberal wave of evaluation has the following characteristics:

- Promotes summative evaluation (formative evaluation is perceived as less important);
- Is designed to study customer satisfaction. This evaluation is customer oriented, not stakeholder oriented;

- Primarily, is the tool for accountability, not for promotion of development and knowledge;
- The findings/results of the evaluation efforts are used to highlight and promote successful authorities and through the power of following the example, put pressure on less successful authorities to increase their efforts;
- Its role is to encourage competition in the education market.

The "flood of education" by the wave of neoliberal evaluation is due to the fact that the school is not a solitary island. It is hard to resist (more often not willingly) changes in the modern world - especially the processes of globalization. The success of the PISA research (Beese & Liang, 2010; Bonal & Tarabini, 2013; Montt, 2011; Pons, 2012; Sellar & Lingard, 2014;) (Soudien, 2011) and the overwhelming influence of the OECD, World Bank (Rutkowski, 2007) are fine examples of this phenomenon. In recent years, international organizations and, more specifically, intergovernmental organizations have played an important role in educational policy-making at the national level. These organizations encourage changes in the world and promote particular ideologies through a set of complex actions and policy recommendations that exploit growing world interconnectedness.

Strengths of the neoliberal ideology are the language and discourse of social practices that it promotes. First of all, neoliberalism very clearly defines the vision of a good school and good education.

In this discourse, a good school is one that:
  a) is effective;
  b) has image which emerges from the measurement of learning outcomes – e.g. in the form of PISA results and other external researches of learning outcomes;
  c) is subordinated to the rhetoric of the neoliberal ideology, market logic;
  d) fulfills the dream of "objective" examination of its results and describing it in terms of "gold standard" (Biesta, 2007) (Stame, 2010) (Simons, 2004).

Unfortunately, the evaluation has become a useful tool for promoting the aforementioned ideas.

Noteworthy is the way in which the neoliberal ideology appropriates the language we use to describe the quality of education. Quality is perceived as excellence (Readings, 1996) which can be achieved by meeting the universal, measurable, and transnational criteria defined in terms of the aforementioned gold standard.

The dominant discourse of quality in educational practice is currently the market discourse. According to the proposal of William E. Deming, the quality in this discourse *'is the set of features and characteristics of a product or service that affects their ability to satisfy the requirements or assumed needs'* (Deming, 1986, p. 31). Worthy of notice is that looking at this approach, the criteria or quality standards are not based on 'internal' attributes of a product or service, but on the customer's expectations and needs. Customer's satisfaction (and even admiration) is set to be the indicator of the quality.

What kind of consequences of considerations about the quality of education would cause a great influence of the neoliberal market discourse? The list is long. These of particular significance – from my personal standpoint – are indicated below.

Firstly, the market discourse promotes the belief that it is completely sufficient to value the quality of education by a strictly economic set of categories. The quality criteria must be fitting the triad: effectiveness – efficiency – usability. Effectiveness requires estimating the quality in terms of projected and measurable objectives. Efficiency requires considering the quality in terms of the cost-efficiency relation. Usability, however, emphasizes all those aspects of education that are of utilitarian nature.

Secondly, in this discourse, education is no longer considered as the good. It is to be considered as a product. The neoliberalism seems to be deaf to the arguments of philosophy and theory of education, which emphasize that the question of the meaning of teaching and learning is not the

slightest question that we already have a ready answer for. The belief that providing the educational 'services', which 'customers' are satisfied with, is the primary task of the educational system, is only one of the many possible, but a simplified solution to this issue.

This applies particularly to the world of moral values. At the time when decency is replaced by efficiency, when *homo sapiens* is less valued than *homo ludens*, the 'educational offer' of schools often turns out to be less attractive.

It is difficult to expect that the 'customer' will be satisfied. Teachers are treated as 'providers of educational services' from central or regional 'warehouse' and they particularly severely suffer from this inconvenience. At the same time, these teachers who seem to be closer to the role of a reflective practitioner than a specialized technician of school bureaucracy cannot seek the quality criteria of their own work only on the outside - in the positive emotional states of their students. They easily come to the conclusion that Lawrence Stenhouse was right when he wrote that 'teaching, like all ambitious arts, is the courage of facing tasks, which by their nature are impossible to complete' (Stenhouse, 1984, p. 98).

Teaching cannot be reduced to a series of standardized procedures which can be easily monitored and supervised. It is more of an art than a craft, especially if considered that the modern education cannot be now just reduced to the question of how to teach something imposed by the core curriculum. The problem lies in something much more difficult - in teaching students how to learn. At the same time it is difficult to ignore the wider social and cultural context in which modern schools operate. Zygmunt Bauman wrote about it as follows:

> *Preparation to live - eternal and unchanging task of all kinds of education - must mean above all nurturing the skills to live in harmony with a sense of uncertainty and ambivalence, facing multiple points of view and the absence of infallible and trustworthy authorities; it must mean the development of tolerance for difference and the desire to respect the right to being different; it must mean strengthening the critical and self-critical skills and the courage needed to take responsibility for our own choices and related consequences; it must mean the development of skills of 'changing the action frames' and overcoming the temptation to escape from freedom.* (Bauman, 2008, p. 169)

Thirdly, the market discourse has created an opportunity of the language of economics to enter the education aggressively. In practice, it has replaced the language of contemporary humanities (including education) as a tool to describe and interpret what is happening at school. The discourse of education in the modern times has become a market discourse. Truth, Goodness, Beauty - the triad of values, which the school has to protect, is being displaced by a new triad: Customer, Market, Service. Key categories of pedagogics were replaced by purely economic concepts. The processes of learning, teaching, and upbringing were reduced to the processes of services production. Schools, as providers of educational services, compete on the open market. Students and parents were replaced by consumers (until recently called 'customers'). The metaphor of school as a 'temple of knowledge' or 'educational clinic' is being replaced by the metaphor of 'edu-market' (Mizerek, 2012).

It is difficult to disagree with the language of economics. On the contrary, we should even admire, how easily we tend to use it as a tool in the debates on the condition of education. The problem, however, lies in something quite different. This language does not fit at all to the nature of things that we try to describe or explain with it. As previously argued, it is impossible to explain all the dilemmas and challenges faced by the modern education by using the language of economics. You also cannot explain the nature of learning and teaching if you pass on the conceptual categories shaped within psychology, pedagogics, sociology, and philosophy.

Eventually, worthy of mention are the negative consequences of the domination of the market discourse in relation to the quality of education. The mission, that is being implemented in the epoch of Hermes, is increasingly becoming the preparation of students to participate in the universal 'rat

race'. It is the teacher's obligation to make their students subjected to the 'educational doping' (Danilewska, 2008). Therefore it is better, within this discourse, to treat schools as a 'preparatory course' to start education in the higher-level school, than to take care of the development of each student as much as possible.

Contrary to what the neoliberal ideology assumes, the school is not and cannot be considered as part of a transnational corporation focused on selling services. As I have previously argued, the nature of educational goals is quite different. Therefore, the models of educational leadership developed within the New Public Management are of limited application here. This is also holds true for the evaluation these models apply to.

2. Useful evaluation

The evaluation characteristics of a school that is open to the challenges of the present day can be elaborated in several points.

First, it is important to balance the accents between external evaluation and self-evaluation. It is worth remembering the difference in the purpose and function of both types of evaluation mentioned above. External evaluation in principle has only one purpose – accountability. To comply with the law, schools must agree to run evaluation to survive on the educational market. A well-conducted external evaluation can serve to establish public trust in a school. Based on its findings, stakeholders (parents, public opinion, educational authorities) can answer the questions as to how good the school is. Is it worth to put taxpayers' money on it?

Functions of this kind may be carried out in an external evaluation known as deliberative, democratic evaluation (House & Howe, 2005) (J. B. Cousins & Earl, 1995). Evaluations of this type provide the basis to search – in the course of dialogue and collective critical reflection – for the answer to the question: what decisions and what actions must be taken to make the school even better. Unfortunately, there is a very strong pressure (the reason for this is a crisis of democracy) on the implementation of bureaucratic evaluation (Macdonald, 1976).

This triggers the resistance of teachers and school directors in many countries. Evaluation, in ordinary acceptance, is perceived as a form of repressive control at educational institutions. It would serve as a guard in the Bentan's Panopticon. Wrapping up the requirement of transparency and the right of citizens to know what is going on in school. Many of us tend to see (I hope unconsciously) school like the hero of the Andersen fairy tale – "The Emperor's New Clothes". Fortunately, the headmasters are wiser than the king from the fairy tale. However, they are not strong enough to resist the temptation of fighting for high rankings and the pressure of rivalry with colleagues. This kind of evaluation does not lead to a better school but to winning a battle for survival on the educational market. Schools need independent external evaluations, but not within the rules and procedures of its simplified versions of that what Evard Vedung describes as a neoliberal wave and evidence wave of evaluation (Vedung, 2010).

From the perspective of the need for development (not just the need to survive or win on the educational market), it is necessary to use internal evaluation and self-evaluation, however, in forms that are not a calque of external evaluation. It must be borne in mind that despite the similar methodology of conducting and research tools used, external and internal evaluation serve completely different purposes - external evaluation is carried out for accountability while self-evaluation focuses on development and cognitive goals.

Therefore, the evaluation we need at school (inside the school) should be focused on two main goals. First - to provide information which helps to understand educational processes in the school, to explain their determinants, and to inspire the search for solutions needed for its development. From this point of view, as said by Eleonor Chelimsky, we need evaluation for development and knowledge (Chelimsky, 1997) (MacBeath & McGlynn, 2002, p. 13)

Figure 1. Knowledge and developmental perspectives of evaluation

	Knowledge perspective	**Developmental perspective**
Purpose	To generate new insights about quality of what matters – e.g. leadership, ethos, learning, and teaching	To strengthen the capacity of the school for self-improvement
Audience	School management and teachers	Teachers, pupils, parents, leadership
Provider(s)	Teachers, pupils, school management	Teachers, pupils, parents, school management
Internal/external relationship	Diagnostic. Primarily through self-evaluation	Formative. Primarily through self-evaluation with external "critical friends" support

Source: (MacBeath & McGlynn, 2002, p. 13).

Evaluations in the development perspective take the form of a formative evaluation. They have generally a broader scope than those conducted in the cognitive perspective. This means the involvement of many people and teamwork in the planning and designing, during the process of data collection and analysis, communicating their results and making decisions about the actions that need to be taken to enable a pro-developmental change. Cognitive evaluations serve diagnostic purposes. Assured in-depth, new insights into everything that is important to the school (leadership, ethics, teaching and learning). Their pursuit requires expertise in the field of pedagogy, psychology, and the basic knowledge on methodology of diagnostic and evaluation research. The ability to work with data from other research conducted in the school is important as well.

In this context, it is worth paying attention to the practical differences between internal evaluation and self-evaluation (Mizerek, 2017). I present them in figure 2.

Figure 2. Self-evaluation vs. internal evaluation

Aspects	Self-evaluation	Internal evaluation
Forms	Evaluation conducted individually and in informal teams Continuous process	Evaluations conducted and designed by formally appointed teacher teams. Continuous process regulated by the approved plan
Subject	Own teacher's work The work of other teachers	The work of other teachers
Methods of gathering data	Simple tools corresponding to the current needs of teachers	Methods of qualitative and quantitative data collection recognized by the social research methodology, research tools developed specifically for the needs of planned evaluations
Forms	Evaluation conducted individually and in informal teams Continuous process	Evaluations conducted and designed by formally appointed teacher teams. Continuous process regulated by the approved plan
Required competences	Basic knowledge and competences in social research methodology and evaluation theory	In-depth knowledge and experience in the field of evaluation theory and methodology
Methods of work with the findings	Systematic, deepened practical and critical reflection Dialogue	Dialogue
Audience	Other teachers, management	Other teachers, management, students, parents, public opinion

Source: own elaboration.

Conducting internal evaluation is regulated by the law of education in most of the countries. School principals are responsible for implementing the effective system and procedures developed

within the school. It is important to emphasize the developmental needs of a particular school in this system.

Systematic self-evaluation is the moral and professional responsibility of every teacher. It often takes the form of in-depth, critical reflection on the value of one's own work. It is not a kind of applied social research, in which it is necessary to respect strict methodological rigor. Nevertheless, it is necessary to use reliable data source

Noteworthy are also the issues of impulses for implementing such kind of evaluations at school. Among the three, historically-shaped traditions - the top-down model, bottom up and sideways on (MacBeath, 2002), the second and third one deserve special attention. Under the "bottom up" model, the impulses for evaluation are flowing from within the school looking for a strategy and methods of self-development. In the case of the sideways model, the impulse for evaluation comes from researchers and commentators who are interested in what is going on in a particular school and who show concern for its development. Relying on a top down model, as demonstrated by the experience of Poland, may prove to be unreliable. School personnel is treating evaluation as an annoying, compulsory obligation. This triggers resistance and becomes a breeding ground for disseminating in practice the apparent activities that have little or nothing to do with evaluation in common. Using a military metaphor, it can be said that evaluation in battle for quality is not used as a sword - but rather as a defense shield against a massed "force attack" of external evaluation. While, history teaches that it is worth using both the sword and the shield during the battle.

The evaluation that we need at schools can also be presented in terms of models. Educational evaluation requires the renaissance of dialogical evaluation (Greene, 2001) and its variants - particularly deliberative, democratic evaluation (Howe & Ashcraft, 2005) (House & Howe, 2005) (J. Bradley Cousins & Earl, 1992).

Dialogical evaluation highlights the way in which the purpose, tasks, and role of the evaluator are defined. The purpose of the evaluation is to communicate its results in a manner that animates the dialogue between all of the stakeholders. Dialogue, as a form of collective thinking (Bohm, 1996), seeks to discover ways of changing social reality that takes into account the diversity of values, needs, and expectations of all actors in the educational scene. Evaluation here plays a role of "animator" and "midwife" of change.

The evaluator, in addition to the role of researcher, plays a new role. It is the role of the dialogue animator. In the dialogue evaluation, it is necessary to involve stakeholders who are interested in conducting the evaluation and those whose evaluation relates directly to the subsequent stages of the research process. This particularly applies to:

1. The stage of defining evaluation criteria. It is impossible to accept pre-established or pre-set criteria (for example, efficiency, effectiveness, utility). Criteria are the result of the dialogue that the evaluator initiates between the stakeholders during the design of the evaluation.

2. The process of collecting data. In dialogue evaluations, it is necessary to establish a specific relationship for the persons in the study. There are no subjects of research here, but there are partners. They often assume the role of researchers as in the case of photographic or documentary evaluations, where they are considered as social scientists in the evaluation process. Dialogical evaluations emphasize the use of qualitative research strategies (ethnography, auto-biography, biographical research), and qualitative data collection methods as well.

3. The stage of communicating the results of the evaluation. The task of the evaluator is not only to provide a report to the customer's desk. Its duty is to animate dialogue and practical reflection on what is meaningful or how to interpret the data provided by the evaluation and what needs to be done to change the existing state of affairs for the better.

Many detailed models have emerged as part of the dialogue evaluation – among others participatory evaluation, stakeholder-oriented evaluation, and empowerment evaluation. Today,

deliberative democratic evaluation is of particular importance. Special procedures of bias control are engaged in the process of reaching legitimate conclusions from evaluation research. To assure the credibility and reliability of its findings, it is necessary to: (a) take into account the interests, values, and perspectives of all important actors of school social life; (b) initiate dialogue between them; and (c) promote deliberation during the work on the conclusions of the research.

In this discourse, evaluation becomes a kind of a social practice, an institution of particular importance for the development of a democratic society. It plays a role - above all - of the mediator, between entities claiming the right to have "just the one and only right" truth and impose unquestionable judgment on the value of what other people perform. The ambition of the evaluation is to act as an instance to verify the reliability and integrity of these claims and to assume the role of an animator of democratic change.

The condition of fulfilling the social mission of evaluation is to respect principles of democratic, deliberative evaluation. They are: inclusion, dialogue and deliberation.

At the end of this part of the paper, it is worth noting that the evaluation needed by a modern school should be integrated into the system of existing and new initiatives that support its development. Similar goals as evaluations are based on diagnostic research, action research, and evidence-based education in schools as well. With each of these activities, the evaluation remains in close relation. The evaluation is often preceded by diagnostic research which often serves as an impulse to take action in the school that requires evaluation. In the case of action-research, each of its cycles will end with evaluation. Evaluation is also an integral part of the evidence–based practice

The use of EBP at school, however, poses many problems. The first of these is resulting from misunderstandings about their essence. It tends to be forgotten that the essence of *evidence-based practice* is that the practitioner, considering primarily the benefit of an individual under his care (patient/client/student) and employing expertise emerging from solving practical problems, objectively and effectively seeks empirical evidence to confirm the validity of the solutions adopted for these problems and undertakes interventions justified by the available evidence (Mullen, Shlonsky, Bledsoe & Bellamy, 2005).

When understood in such terms, the evidence-based practice is perceived as the specific approach toward one's own professional practice. Its core is the ability to integrate three separate spheres: evidence from scientific research, one's own experience, constantly reflected upon, and the values and needs of the client. Decisions made by the practitioner are the correlatives of the three aforementioned components. It should be once again stressed that the evidence-based practice, understood as the specific approach toward one's practice, involves much more than just the ability to find scientific "evidence" to confirm the soundness of decisions made by the practitioner.

Evaluation and evidence-based practice have different purposes, different end-points, and different outcomes (Mizerek, 2015). The EBP aims to search and appraise the best available evidence, whereas research findings are only part of this process. A research study normally generates outcomes specified in the research project (before beginning the study, it is necessary to define its scope and subject precisely), whereas EBP seeks to change practice or at least find evidence supporting decision-making. A researcher is less concerned with existing evidence, while EBP relies on a variety of evidence, including that arising from the client's individual needs and preferences.

Final remarks

It would be good to address now some final remarks on the boundary conditions that must be met in order to root the evaluation that school really needs in the school culture. Some of them are worth paying special attention. This evaluation can be led by teachers and educational leaders, who are well prepared for work, understanding the specificity of the school and challenges of the modern education.

We are faced with the need to reconsider the existing systems of teacher education - especially initial teacher training. It is not enough just to develop "technical" skills, but more so what Peter Senge calls a training aimed at changing teachers mental models (Senge, 2006) (Senge, Cambron-McCabe, Lucas, Smith & Dutton, 2012). The aims of such education should go in the direction of:

- Empowering teachers as the creators of the necessary change and not only the passive performers of the will of those who by virtue of their authority consider themselves depositors of absolute truth and always know better.
- Building competences which are necessary in the work of a reflective practitioner. A good school does not need so many adaptive technicians capable of accomplishing any action without asking for its meaning and the value of far-reaching effects.

Evaluation in the form presented earlier in this sketch may be an opportunity to practice and develop - highly appreciated in the contemporary world – the competence for practical and critical reflection. It is worth adding that the evaluation that is needed at school must be practiced in its oldest, known from the dawn of history, characters. It then takes the form of a systematic critical reflection on the value of the action taken. It is not only a kind of applied social research, an academic trans-discipline created in the 1950s in the USA.

In this type of evaluation, the availability of ready-made tools and procedures is not so important as the skill (culture) of working with existing data.

There is no need to convince anyone that it is worthwhile to keep coming back to the work of classics of evaluation theory. Books by Eliott Eisner, Robert Stake, Barry MacDonald, Helen Simons, or John MacBeath are constantly up-to-date and inspiring.

The evaluation that a modern school needs does not have to be constantly reinvented from the very basics. If we do not agree to transform the school into a kind of edu-market, and teachers into supranational, profit-oriented and corporate survival fighters, you have to keep this in mind.

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The role of design thinking in education management as a design science

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Abstract

Organization and general management theory is not sufficient to solve the contemporary education problems. This complex, ill-formulated, misleading social problems need an interdisciplinary synthesis of the various sciences and the experience of education practice. Thus, the purpose of the paper is to discuss on the epistemological and methodological status of the education management field seen from the perspective of design sciences and design thinking approach. Design thinking comes from designers' practice and at present it is an approach to creative and innovative ways of solving open, complex and unambiguous management problems. As a part of scientific knowledge in the design sciences dealing with human projects and aimed at changing existing situations into preferred ones may provide a new perspective of the description and explanation of education management problems. The discussion is theoretical and primarily based on the method of the analysis and criticism of literature on management, education management, design thinking and the sciences of the artificial. The research method used to solve the scientific problem is deduction referred to the critical literature study.

Keywords: design thinking, design sciences, education management, innovation, creativity.

Introduction

The contemporary problems that education needs to deal with require some interdisciplinary synthesis of the various sciences combined with the experience of practice. Organization and general management theory is not sufficient to solve these wicked problems. According to Richard Buchanan wicked problems are a „class of social system problems which are ill-formulated, where the information is confusing, where there are many clients and decision makers with conflicting values, and where the ramifications in the whole system are thoroughly confusing" (Buchanan, Wicked Problems in Design Thinking, Design Issues, 1992, Vol. 8/2 p. 15). Faced with such problems, attempting to put education management in the positivist framework of management sciences can lead to a distortion of education.

Thus, the purpose of the paper is discussion on the epistemological and methodological status of the education management field seen from the perspective of design thinking approach. Although design thinking comes from designers' practice, at present it is an approach to creative and innovative ways of solving open, complex and unambiguous management problems in numerous organizations, also educational issues. Design thinking gradually becomes a part of the body of scientific knowledge in the sciences of the artificial or design sciences as Herbert Simon called all practical sciences dealing with human products. According to Simon, there are fundamental differences between artificial/design sciences and normal/explanatory sciences. Although design may be associated mainly with industrial art or creating new products, according to Simon everyone designs who devises courses of action aimed at changing existing situations into preferred ones (Simon, 1992).

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Changing existing situations into preferred ones is also an important purpose of education management. There are at least two arguments for adopting the design paradigm in education management. First, the nature of the subject of research is the area of human activity, even if the learning processes themselves are naturally conditioned and require explanatory research. In the area the question "what is" is not enough to change existing situations for the better. The more desirable question is "what can be", which leads to prescriptive knowledge. Secondly, the design science framework may contribute to solving the critical weakness of organization and management theory also in the field of education. The weakness is the relevance gap between theory and practice - management theory is not obvious or relevant to eduction practitioners.

The discussion undertaken in the paper is theoretical and primarily based on the method of the analysis and criticism of literature on management, education management, design thinking and the sciences of the artificial. The research method used to solve the scientific problem is deduction, which referred to the critical literature study has allowed to achieve the research goal.

Education management

According to R. Dorczak until recently it has been extremely difficult to find any reference to management in the field of educational research and practice. Teachers, school heads, school administrators, politicians and even school researchers did not seem to see a connection between the two areas (Dorczak, 2009, p. 11). Such an attitude, according to M. Bottery, resulted from the typical conviction in the education field that the only real and valuable issue in education is the teaching itself (Bottery, 1992, quoted in Dorczak 2009, p. 11-12). Literature review allows to conclude that there is still very few scientists who conduct research and write about education management in Poland.

The situation is very different in the USA, where according to R. Heck i P. Hallinger, „interest in what managers do (e.g. work activities, decision-making, problem solving, resource allocation) and what they do that makes a difference (e.g. leading change, promoting organizational learning, influencing organizational processes and outcomes) have long captured the attention of scholars" (Heck, Ballinger, 2005, p. 230). However, researchers in educational management and leadership have not built their own field specificity. As R. Heck i P. Hallinger write, they „have borrowed liberally from scholars who became identified with theories of scientific management, human relations, transformational leadership, and organizational learning during the 20th century" (Heck, Ballinger, 2005, p. 230).

The review of research on management in education field indicates that when examining education management, it should also be considered education leadership as a field closely related. As T. Bush writes, „there is great interest in educational leadership in the early part of the 21st century because of the widespread belief that the quality of leadership makes a significant difference to school and student outcomes" (Bush, 2007, p. 391). He claims that if schools are to provide the best possible education for their learners, they require skilled and effective leaders and managers (Bush, 2007).

However, it is not easy to draw a clear line between leadership and management in education. Most often, both fields referred to in literature coexist in one word group - as education(al) leadership and management or in other very similar ones (e.g. Briggs and Morrison, 2012; Bush, 2007; Heck and Ballinger, 2005; Johnson, 2004). According to T. Bush, „the concept of management overlaps with that of leadership" (Bush, 2007, p. 392). Some researchers, however, distinguish management and leadership in education. L. Cuban links management with maintenance activity - realizing efficiently and effectively current organizational arrangements, and leadership with change - influencing others' actions in achieving desirable results, shaping the goals and actions of others (Cuban, 1998, quoted in Bush, 2007, p. 392). In practice actually, management and leadership interpenetrate and bond in the pursuit of shared results. Thus, it is so difficult to draw the line between them.

According to R. Heck i P. Hallinger, who conducted systematic research on the state of research in educational leadership and management as a field of study, another significant problem is the lack of empirical rigor in conducted research in the field (Heck, Ballinger, 2005). As they claim, „although the topics of educational management and leadership have generated a great deal of scholarly interest internationally over the years, reviewers have generally suggested it has not been an area given to rigorous empirical investigation and knowledge accumulation" (Heck, Ballinger, 2005, p. 230).

In the face of the diversity (not to say a mess) of paradigms, methods and research tools used by educational management and leadership researchers P. Heck i P. Hallinger note that:

> „We must be able to separate what moves the field intellectually from what continues to spin it in ideological or methodological circles. Otherwise, the field will revert back to the times of folklore and alchemy. It is one thing to celebrate the diversity of approaches and legitimacy of all ideas. It is another, however, to judge the worth of those ideas in providing solutions to persistent problems and enhancing understandings of our disciplinary practices. Refusal to define the significant problems that should be studied and to demand rigorous investigation before granting legitimacy makes it difficult to determine if the field is moving intellectually on the wheels of increased conceptual and methodological diversity. New intellectual approaches should also demonstrate their worth through viable means of argument and inquiry. If science has no more privilege than ideological belief, intuition, myth, or alchemy in commenting on human endeavors, then it calls into question the whole meaning of scholarship. If this is the case, then there will be few lasting disciplinary outcomes from the 'study' of educational leadership and management" (Heck, Ballinger, 2005, p. 238).

Closed attention should be paid to the challenges outlined above, especially considering how relatively young discipline education management is. As R. Dorczak claims, education management is relatively new discipline growing from general management, especially public management. The latter may by treated as a discipline of management related to the public sphere (Dorczak, 2012, p. 39-47). T. Bush makes a similar conviction: „one key debate has been whether educational leadership is a distinct field or simply a branch of the wider study of management" (Bush, 2007, p. 391).

Dorczak tries to indicate the specificity of education management as a separate domain (Dorczak, 2012, p. 39-47). According to him, education management is still looking for its own identity and specificity (Dorczak, 2012, p. 40). He notices that increasing importance of educational organizations in the contemporary world requires building the foundations of knowledge enabling better management in these organizations. For this purpose, however, it is not enough to simply adapt the theory, principles, methods and tools of general management to education (Dorczak, 2012, p. 39-47).

As A. Koźmiński rightly observes, methods and solutions simply borrowed from other cultural contexts or working well in other kinds of institution may not work elsewhere (Koźmiński, 1996 quoted in Dorczak, 2009, p. 13). M. Bottery suggests the need for a more culturally and politically contextualised approach to models of leadership (Bottery, 2001, p. 199-218). The process of education management development must take into account an in-depth understanding of individual development processes on the one hand and the more extensive educational context of these processes (as the specific organizational culture or the deeper sense of educational processes) on the other hand (Dorczak, 2012, p.42-46). Thus, as R. Heck and P. Hallinger rightly notes, the field needs the systematic development of epistemology, conceptual frameworks, methodology, and all that is at the core of how the knowledge is constructed (Heck, Ballinger, 2005, p. 238).

Taking the all above into consideration, it essential, as T. Bush clams, „to provide a set of tools from which discerning leaders can choose when facing problems and dealing with day-to-day issues" (Bush, 2007, p. 393). Naturally, some of the tools would have more managerial and some leadership capacity. The managerial side of education management is strongly connected with the processes of planing, designing, organizing and realizing any school activity in which resources are transformed

into expected results. Leadership, according to Bush, „can be understood as a process of influence based on clear values and beliefs and leading to a 'vision' for the school. The vision is articulated by leaders who seek to gain the commitment of staff and stakeholders to the ideal of a better future for the school, its learners and stakeholders" (Bush, 2007, p. 403). As stated above, management and leadership in school practice are parties of the same coin. They are melted in one whole process that can deliver valuable results.

The mentioned above broad diversity of paradigms methods, conceptual frameworks and research tools used in education management can be both an opportunity and a threat. T. Bush remarks that the existence of multiple perspectives and approaches to education management creates conceptual pluralism. It may be treated as an asset. Each theory offers something in explaining the operation mechanisms of educational institutions and somehow influence decision-making in the institutions (Bush, 2007, p. 393). However, the pluralism can also lead, according to T. Bush, to many competing perspectives and an inevitable lack of agreement on the exact nature of the discipline (Bush, 2007, p. 391). It can be used as an epistemological and methodological mess to provide any explanation, any theory to justify someone's point of view or solutions that support one's interests. If strict rules of how the valid knowledge is constructed are not determined, anything actually goes. The recognized knowledge in the field is rather the result of an agreement between scientists than the proven outcome of rational research and inference processes.

Design science and the problem of relevance

According to J. van Aken, „there are serious doubts about the actual relevance of present-day management theory as developed by the academic community (Aken, 2004, p. 219). He recalls D. Hambric's conclusions on the role and meaning of management addressed to the American Academy of Management and claims that „Hambrick (1994) sketched a dismal picture of the Academy's impact and concluded that it might have mattered to the world of organizations and business, but that it did not" (Aken, 2004, p. 220). Such arguments may be addressed also to education management field. Taking them into consideration, the proposition of management education as a design science definitely require a deeper analysis and a broader description. Thus, specific research tasks of the following part of the paper are: (1) to indicate a possibility of a different approach to education management field - design science approach (different from the commonly accepted one), (2) to indicate reasons why it should be realized and (3) to determine and describe the essence of the proposed approach.

The fundamental reason, why a different theoretical approach for education management field is needed, is the problem of relevance to practice. A number of authors draw attention to the problem of relevance of the organization and management research for practice (Aken, 2004; Denyer, Tranfield, Aken, 2008; Hambrick, 1994; Huff, Tranfield, Aken, 2006; Romme, 2003).

D. Hambrick claims that we need „bridge theory and practice" (Hambrick, 1994, p. 13). He develops this statement among others with the words:

„It's been said that there are three kinds of people: those who make things happen, those who watch things happen, and those who wonder what happened. To a great extent, the role of a scholar is in the middle category: to **observe, analyze, critique, and disseminate**. This is important work, and we should never take our eyes off it. However, when an academic field has as its charge the thoughtful preparation and guidance of practitioner professionals, and when an academic field deals in a domain that vitally affects societal well-being, then that academic field must enter the world of practical affairs. Without being co-opted, it must strive for influence and impact. That is our challenge. We should matter. We must matter." (Hambrick, 1994, p. p. 16).

Management in general and education management in particular are the academic fields responsible for the t*houghtful preparation and guidance of practitioner professionals*. Thus, the above statement accurately describes the responsibility of education management scientists and researchers who *deal in a domain that vitally affects societal well-being* and have to *enter the world of practice affairs* to carry out valuable and useful scientific research. As J.van Aken claims, Hambrick suggests opening up the closed loop of management academic community to the outside world, the world of practice (Aken, 2004, p. 220). However, it is not so easy because, as Aken remarks: „Management theory is either scientifically proven, but then too reductionistic and hence too broad or too trivial to be of much practical relevance, or relevant to practice, but then lacking sufficient rigorous justification" (Aken, 2004, p. 221).

Similar conclusions come from the conversation between Anne Huff, David Tranfield and Joan Ernst van Aken entitled „*Management as a design science mindful of art and surprise*" (2006). D. Tranfield claims that the main reason to accept the design perspective for management field is that it might increase the relevance of research results to practice (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken, 2006, p. 415). He thinks it might also help establish strong management identity within the social sciences. He draw attention to an important issue by writing that „it is important for emergent fields to establish identity within the sciences. Not only does this create a shared sense of nationhood and purpose for established members and aspirants, but specifying limits to ragged boundaries, establishing shared ideologies and values, as well as clarifying quality criteria, are all crucial in policy terms" (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken, 2006, p. 415).

A. Huff's words seem to be an adequate summary of the above considerations, which is contributory in outlining the essence of education management as a design science: „For some time, there has been an interest in *design* as a primary descriptor of management practice" (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken, 2006, p. 413). As A. G. Romme remarks, „in view of the persistent relevance gap between theory and practice, organization studies should be broadened to include design as one of its primary modes of engaging in research" (Romme 2003, p. 558). According to W. Gasparski, design is a primary descriptor not only management practice but also science and research (Gasparski, 2007, p. 34-47). He recalls Herbert A. Simon and Tadeusz Kotarbiński who indicated design as methodological distinction of management sciences (Gasparski, 2007, p. 34).

As W. Gasparski rightly observes, organization theory or management studies (which definitely include education management) are practical disciplines in the sense that T. Kotarbiński gave to this term (Gasparski, 2007, p. 34). Kotarbiński trying to answer the question, what is under the term organization theory/management studies, gave the following answers (Gasparski, 2007, p.35):

- – The subject of organization theory includes positively cooperating teams.
- – The reference for the organization theory is to indicate the conditions of the effective performance of tasks for which teams cooperate.
- – The word organization means both an examined subject as an organized thing, which is a cooperating team, and the way of organizing, that is the structure/build of the organized things.

Undoubtedly, the above answers are also a good starting point for further research on the analytical sense of the concept of education management. Positively cooperating teams are the basis of education and education management. The teams are also the basis of educational institutions as organizations. The educational organization is both an organized thing (that is an educational institution) and the way of organizing the cooperating teams within the educational institution. The main reason of organizing the educational operation is to provide the best education possibilities achievable under the given conditions. It is the reference for the education management theory, which seems to fit into the concept of design sciences.

J. van Aken distinguishes three major categories of scientific disciplines: (i) formal sciences, (ii) explanatory sciences and (iii) design sciences (Aken, 2004, p. 224). In the formal sciences (such as

philosophy and mathematics) scientists build systems of empirically void propositions tested if they are logically consistent. The explanatory sciences (such as natural sciences and most social sciences) describe, explain and possibly predict observable phenomena within its fields. In these sciences researchers develop propositions accepted by the scientific community as true on the basis of the empirical evidence. The role of design sciences (such as engineering sciences, medical sciences, psychotherapy and a significant part of management) is to develop knowledge for the design and realization of artifacts (Aken, 2004, p. 224).

According to J. van Aken, „management practice has been defined as the art of getting things done by people" (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken, 2006, p. 413). She notices that „managers often do that without much reflection or design, acting directly on the basis of their tacit knowledge, intuition, and creativity, honed by experience" (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken 2006, p. 413). Thus, management research mission should be developing valid knowledge to support thoughtful, designing practitioners (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken, 2006, p. 413). J. van Aken formulates this conclusion for management seen as design science, but it does not lose anything for education management.

The all above considerations are closely related to the choice of paradigm in education management science. As J. van Aken remarks, „the choice of paradigm is important, because it drives the type of research questions asked and the type of research products produced. In an explanatory science, one is interested in "what is"; in a design science one is interested in "what can be" to solve a problem or to improve performance. Questions with respect to "what is" lead to descriptive knowledge; questions with respect to "what can be" lead to prescriptive knowledge. If in management research we undertook more research on the basis of the design sciences paradigm, we would produce more prescriptive knowledge" (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken, 2006, s. 413).

The above distinction is particularly important in relation to education management field, where the artificial processes of creating an educational reality (education policy, schools, school classes, school administration) meet natural processes of learning.

Herbert Simon in „*The sciences of the artificial*" (1996) divided all sciences into normal sciences and artificial sciences or explanatory sciences and design sciences as J. van Aken calls them (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken, 2006, s. 414). According to van Aken „a distinction must be made between the role of design in management practice and the idea of regarding academic discipline of management as a design science" (Huff, Tranfield, van Aken, 2006, s. 413). H. Simon writing about artificial sciences or the science of design uses the term artificial. He tries to explain its meaning:

„My dictionary defines "artificial" as, "Produced by art rather than by nature; not genuine or natural; affected; not pertaining to the essence of the matter." It proposes, as synonyms: affected, factitious, manufactured, pretended, sham, simulated, spurious, trumped up, unnatural. As antonyms, it lists: actual, genuine, honest, natural, real, truthful, unaffected. Our language seems to reflect man's deep distrust of his own products. I shall not try to assess the validity of that evaluation or explore its possible psychological roots. But you will have to understand me as using "artificial" in as neutral a sense as possible, as meaning man-made as opposed to natural." (Simon, 1996, p. 4).

In the above sense, the term artificial refers thoroughly to education as a human product, particularly to educational institutions. Education is not like the laws of physics which must be utterly obeyed. It is being created by man and may be changed by man. Thus, a partly open question is what knowledge such management should produce: descriptive as in an explanatory science or prescriptive as in a design science. This open question means that the discussion in the paper is an attempt to answer the question, but at the same time is the starting point for further discussion. It is due to the nature of the problem itself. The problem is complex, ambiguous and open, which means that there is no one right solution.

Nontheless, as D. Denyer, D. Tranfield and J. E. van Aken rightly remark, „recenty there has been a rising interest in the design science paradigm and its potential for increasing the relevance and application potential of the research base" (Denyer, Tranfield, Aken, 2008, p. 393). At least two arguments support the endorsement of the design paradigm in an education management field. The first is the specificity of the research subject, which is the area of human activity, even if the learning processes themselves are conditioned in a natural way and require explanatory research. This is in accordance with the idea of design sciences which, according to W. Gasparski, benefit from the nomological sentences of explanatory sciences to confirm their own proposals (Gasparski, 2007, p. 34-47). Secondly, education is one of those areas of human activity in which the question "what is" is not enough to solve problems or to improve performance. More desirable are questions with respect to "what can be", which lead to prescriptive knowledge.

The advantages of design thinking for education management

Design thinking is perceived as an approach, methodology or even philosophy of creative thinking and doing that originates from the work of the best designers, architects, engineers and is currently used to solve a much wider range of problems (than traditionally designated design problems). It allows to creatively and effectively respond to complex and ambiguous human problems by designing innovative solutions focused on the needs and experiences of users. According to M. Wszołek i M. Grech design thinking is more and more established in scientific and business discourse as one of leading methodological approaches in modern organizations (Wszołek, Grech, 2016, s. 11). As D. Sobota and P. Szewczykowski claim, the approach was formerly known especially in the circle of industrial design as a methodology of designing new products in a comprehensive and sensitive to customer's needs and behavior way. It is recognized today as a typical example of triggering, intensifying and sustaining creativity in almost all areas of human life (Sobota, Szewczykowski, 2014, s. 92).

Although C. Owen claims that „design thinking is in many ways the obverse of scientific thinking" (Owen, 2007, p. 17), it may be an valuable asset not only for practice, but also for scientific research, especially within design sciences like management and education management. As C. Owen acknowledges, „where the scientist sifts facts to discover patterns and insights, the designer invents new patterns and concepts to address facts and possibilities" (Owen, 2007, p. 17). This statement is only partly true and requires wider analysis and discussion regarding to the adopted research problem. Thus, specific research tasks of the following part of this paper are to present design thinking approach and to indicate how important for education management is to look for such research methods and tools as those used in the design thinking approach. For this purpose, the analysis of the distinguishing features of the design thinking approach was conducted. On the basis of the analysis, the features especially advantageous for education management were abstracted. The most important of them have been presented below; this is design thinking as:

- − human-centered approach,
- − empathy-based approach,
- − innovative approach,
- − participatory approach.

Before discussing the results of the analysis, it is worth outlining the frames of the design thinking approach itself, especially that it is a much broader concept than is generally believed. According to U. Johansson-Sköldberg, J. Woodilla and M. Çetinkaya, the concept of design thinking is used both in the theory and practice of management. Although some researchers claim that there is no theoretical body, there is an extensive academic literature on design thinking approach (Johansson-Sköldberg, Woodilla, Çetinkaya, 2013, p. 121). The authors mentioned above present and

critically analyze five theoretical discourses on design thinking and major differences between them (Johansson-Sköldberg, Woodilla, Çetinkaya, 2013, p. 124):

- design thinking as the creation of artifacts,
- design thinking as reflective practice,
- design thinking as problem-solving activity,
- design thinking as a way of reasoning/making sense of things,
- design thinking as creation of meaning.

The above-discussed areas of discourse on the design thinking approach both outline the essence of this approach and show how difficult it is to determine its clear boundaries (which is due to the ambiguous nature of the approach itself). In the most general view, design thinking is an attempt to adapt the approach that is used by the best designers to creative thinking and actions aimed at solving complex, open and ambiguous management problems. Design thinking as a methodology results from an innovative, human-centered, explorative and iterative attitude towards the practice of design and reality itself. Although it is a non-specific methodology for management sciences, its advantages make it attractive and fruitful for designing innovative solutions in the sphere of management practice.

Design thinking as human-centered approach

The use of design logic not only in solving practical problems, but it also gives a number of advantages in research. Those especially important in the field of education management have been indicated above. The first of them is design thinking as human-centered approach.

According to M. Wszołek and M. Grech, the main paradigmatic property of design thinking is human orientation in the processes of designing. They refer to D. Norman who conceptualized the idea of human-centered design (HCD) in the 1980s (Wszołek, Grech, 2016, p. 14). D. Norman writes in the preface to the revised edition of the book „The design of Everyday Things": „I added a very brief section on HCD, a term that didn't yet exist when the first edition was published, although looking back, we see that the entire book was about HCD" (Norman, 2013, p. xv). It means that there is no design without the human orientation. Human-centered design is „an approach that puts human needs, capabilities, and behavior first" (Norman, 2013, p. 8). As Norman notes, people are frustrated with the increasing complexity of everyday things and confused with never-ending changes and updates because of continued errors. In his opinion, human-centered design is the solution (Norman, 2013, p. 8). The prime value of HCD is the trouble-free use of design products by end users (Wszołek, Grech, 2016, p. 14).

If it is so important in the case of using everyday things, it must be crucial in the case of education processes. Due to the importance and specificity of education, which is itself focused on a human being, any changes should be carried out with extreme caution; so as not to cause the continued errors and never-ending confusion and frustration of education users (especially learners and teachers). Thus, human as the central point of the design thinking processes is crucial in education management. Experiences, needs and problems of students should be in the center of all education management processes. According to Norman, HCD is „the process that ensures that the designs match the needs and capabilities of the people for whom they are intended" (Norman, 2013, p. 8). Education management should be focused on the needs and capabilities of learners. There is no education management without human-centered approach. Thus, the starting point of building education management methods and tools should be empathy, the next identified here feature of design thinking.

Design thinking as empathy-based approach

The first step in design thinking process is empathizing (Brown 2009; Liedtka, 2011; Sobota, Szewczykowski, 2014). D. Sobota and P. Szewczykowski treat empathy as a way of learning the other person through observation and understanding (Sobota, Szewczykowski, 2014, p. 100). They emphasize the need to focus on empathy, the ability to communicate and go out to people (Sobota, Szewczykowski, 2014, p. 101). T. Brown writes about insights through empathy, through learning from the lives of others to create solutions that will improve their lives (Brown, 2009, p. 68-70). As he claims, „empathy is the mental habit that moves us beyond thinking of people as laboratory rats or standard deviations. If we are ‚borrow' the lives of other people to inspire new ideas, we need to begin by recognizing that their seemingly inexplicable behaviors represent different strategies for coping with the confusing, complex, and contradictory world in which they live" (Brown, 2009, p. 75-76).

It seems also very important in education management. Both management and learning processes seem be incomplete without the empathizing and understood as the processes of learning others to understand them better. As J. Liedtka claims, empathy is the very beginning of designing process that encompass a deep understanding of those we are designing for. Liedtka uses the popular phrase „to stand in other's shoes". It means that we do not see our customers as targets for sale or a set of demographic statistics but as real people with real problems (Liedtka, 2011). P. Esser defines empathy as „the ability to understand and identify with another person's context, emotions, goals and motivations" (Esser, 2018, dok. elektr.). According to her, using empathy is helpful in collecting subjective information by (Esser, 2018):

- looking at what people do,
- asking people to participate,
- trying things yourself.

Such an attitude allows both to realize certain practical goals within a human-centered approach as well as research goals through better understanding of the others and the way in which they experience the given situation in which they found themselves. Empathy allows to get closer to the real experiences, needs and problems of pupils/students whom the learning solutions and processes are designed and pursued for. The recognition of those experiences and problems (not only learning but all that students come across) should be at the root of education management.

Design thinking as an innovative approach

Design thinking is regarded by T. Brown „a methodology that imbues the full spectrum of innovation activities with a human-centered design ethos" (Brown, 2008, p. 86). An innovative attitude to the designed reality and the design process itself is one of the distinguishing features of design thinking approach. A number of authors pay attention to this, among others: T. Kelley and J. Littman (2001); T. Brown (2009), L. Kimbell (2011), U. Johansson-Sköldberg et al. (2013), D. Sobota and P. Szewczykowski (2014); D. Kelley and T. Kelley (2015).

L. Kimbell notes that one of the ways of describing design thinking is defining it as an organizational resource. In this notion, innovation are both the purpose and the focus of the design thinking approach (Kimbell, 2011, p. 297). According to U. Johansson-Sköldberg et al. „the concept of 'design thinking' became a portal for the whole design area to contribute to innovation, and design thinking enabled innovation to supersede strategic management as a way to deal with a complex reality" (Johansson-Sköldberg, 2013, p. 127).

T. Kelley and J. Littman note that design thinking as an approach to innovation is something more than just methodology:

„There are specific elements we believe will help you and your company to be more innovative. But it's not a matter of simply following directions. Our „secret formula" is actually not very formulaic. It's a blend of methodologies, work practices, culture, and infrastructure" (Kelley, Littman, 2001, p. 5).

The authors give an example of one of the steps of this approach, namely prototyping. It is not necessary to define the prototyping in detail hear. What is important, prototyping is not defined as an formulaic method with subsequent steps to be taken. According to Kelley and Littman, „prototyping is both a step in the innovation process and a philosophy about moving continuously forward, even when some variables are still undefined" (Kelley, Littman, 2001, p. 5). It proves how adequate the design thinking approach can be for education management, where education processes need to be constantly managed in the circumstances of some variables undefined. It needs not only the simple methodology but also suitable education culture, relationship, infrastructure and work practices.

The another example of the above mentioned association is brainstorming. It is one of valuable tools used among others in design thinking. However, „it's also a pervasive cultural influence for making sure that individuals don't waste too much energy spinning their wheels on a tough problem when the collective wisdom of the team can get them „unstuck" in less than an hour" (Kelley, Littman, 2001, p. 5).

The all above shows that the use of certain management methods and tools in education field without deeper reflection, without understanding the broader context and individual situation of people involved in the education processes may not only be ineffective but even threaten the essential values of education. Each really fruitful education management method should be designed both as an open set of tools and guides which can be quite freely used and also a blend of culture, methodologies, infrastructure and work practices, which support the right selection of tools and their implementation. Concentrating too strongly on the proper realization of subsequent steps within the tasks given, it is easy to forget why it should be done at all. For example, one of the results of such an attitude is doing more and more tests for the tests themselves. Students are taught to achieve better results on tests without thinking about what those tests are to check and what the purpose of education actually is. In the design thinking approach, as T. Kelley and J. Littman acknowledge, „success depends on both what you do and how you do it" (Kelley, Littman, 2001, p. 5).

Design thinking as a participatory approach

According to E. Sanders, „there is a shift in perspective occurring today at the collaborative edge of design and social science. It is a change from a user-centered design process to that of participatory experiences" (Sanders, 2003, p. 18). As M. Wszołek and M. Grech write, design thinking focused on diagnosing problems and providing solutions that are effective from the user's point of view has been the subject of researchers' interest since 1960. In that context, they recall participatory design achievements that is one of the pillars of design thinking approach (Wszołek, Grech, 2016, p. 12). They recogznize participatory design as one of the paradigmatic properties of design thinking, which involves turning users into the design processes. Such an approach uses uncountable capital of users' experiences, knowledge and perspectives that contribute to the design problem. The participatory approach uses user's perspective to effectively solve a problem but the user does not take responsibility for the result of work (Wszołek, Grech, 2016, p. 14).

L. Kimbell pays attention to „a distinction between the designing done primarily by professional designers and that done by end-users or customers" (Kimbell, 2012, p. 136). P. Ehn draws the distinction between participatory design perspective (designing for use before use) and meta-design perspective (designing for design after design) (Ehn, 2008, p. 92-101). The second perspective assumes a kind of flexible and partly open products, which users can customize and extend according

to the varying skills and needs. It is the idea of a continuing design-in-use or unfinished design. Users can continuously redesign received products (Ehn, 2008, p. 96). L. Kimbell notes that „designers can develop strategies that support different kinds of design-in-use, specifically reinterpretation, adaptation, and reinvention" (Kimbell, 2012, p. 136).

Both perspectives are important in education management. The first one (designing for use before use) gives the opportunity of including users (especially teachers and learners) in the designing teaching programs, processes and environments. The second (designing for design after design) extends the traditional way of understanding education roles and relationships. Enabling users (especially learners) continuously redesign the learning processes in which they are involved shits some of the key responsibility from a teacher to a learner.

Discussion and conclusions

As W. Gasparski remarks, organization and management science belongs to the group of practical disciplines in the sense in which they provide knowledge that can serve as a premise for building projects that are the specialty of those who professionally deal with designing and shaping organizations. It is specialized knowledge derived both from theoretical/explanatory sciences, as well as the analysis of previously designed solutions and their functioning (successful or unsuccessful). The shaping organizations consists in structuring them (Gasparski, 2007, p. 38). However, the structure should be understood more broadly than Gasparski does. He defines it as the whole relationship binding individuals who create an organization (composition), and the individuals inside an organization with those from the outside (environement) (Gasparski, 2007, p. 38). The structure, however, not only binds people into an organization but most of all it provides them (together with established institutions) with patterns of action. It is a structure that ensures the continuity of an organization, although it changes itself as a result of the activities carried out within its framework.

This ability to change structures thanks to the structures giving patterns of action can be successfully used through design thinking structures to change education. T. Brown points to education as an important field of practical application of design thinking. He writes: „Perhaps the most important opportunity for long-term impact is through education. Designers have learned some powerful methods for arriving at innovative solutions. How might we use those methods not just to educate the next generation of designers but to think about how education as such might be reinvented to unlock the vast reservoir of human creative potential?" (Brown, 2016, p. 224). Brown is focused mainly on art schools but but he draws his knowledge from general education and his conclusions are useful for any education processes. He gives an example of Ormondale, a public elementary school in the affluent Bay Area community of Portola Valley, whose staff are convinced that they need more innovation in teaching methods. As they say: „in order to produce 21st century learners, we could not use 18th century methods." (Brown, 2016, p. 225).

For that purpose the teachers, through design thinking as a set of participatory processes, got involved into the processes of new education programs development. They did not want to get a finished product to implement. They took responsibility for the entire process from designing to implementation of the new teaching program in their school. Through brainstorms, workshops, curricular prototypes and observations of analogous institutions they had developed „a set of tools based on a shared philosophy of „investigative learning" that engages students as seekers of knowledge rather than receivers of information. The process—participatory design—mirrored the end product: a participatory teaching and learning environment" (Brown, 2016, p. 225).

Taking the above results into consideration, it can be concluded that education management cannot be a simple counterpart of business or general management in educational organizations. As it has already been said above, management methods and tools simply taken from other cultural contexts or institutions may not work properly elsewhere. They have to be particularly developed for the needs

of the definite organization taking into account its in-depth specificity. The assumptions which connect education management and general management as a design science are those regarding to the way of providing the knowledge that can serve as a premise for action in practice. Then designing solutions aimed at achieving the adopted objectives will take into account the nature of structures and institutions ensuring the continuity of organizations in which the solutions are designed and realized.

The specialized education management knowledge must being continuously derived form the analysis of designed solutions and their successful or unsuccessful functioning in the real educational organizations with real structures and institutions. To design the solutions, the previously synthesized practical knowledge and the knowledge from explanatory sciences connected to education are needed.

It shows what is the basis of creating knowledge in education management as a design science and why it is not possible to create knowledge in isolation from designing and analyzing proposed solutions. In the area the question "what is" is not enough to change existing situations for the better. The more desirable question is "what can be", which leads to prescriptive knowledge. Research based only on the question „what is", which is typical for explanatory sciences, is not enough in such sciences as education management. The education management is a science that is strongly embedded in practice, in real educational organizations, structures and institutions. Thus, searching for such research methods and tools as those in design thinking is so necessary.

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Ethical leadership vs. upwards hostility

Herman Siebens[1]

Abstract

We present the analysis of a topic that is addressed seldom: the confrontation of a formal leader who attempts to handle an ethical leadership style, with upwards hostility by some of his employees (possibly middle managers). Even more, especially because of this. Our personal experience (as general-director of a group of schools) with this form of hostility in 2015 has been the starting shot of a large literature review through different scientific disciplines.

Within the world of educational institutions, as well the positive characteristics of ethical (i.e. facilitating) leadership as the negative characteristics of the opposition against it have the specific relevance of being a role model for our future generations. Insofar there is not only a responsibility towards the victim, but also towards our students.

The first part presents our point of view on ethical (school)leadership: facilitating leadership. Facilitating will be explained as the heart and soul of ethical leadership. The second part analyses the confrontation of this leadership style with different levels of conflict: hesitation, resistance, opposition, rebellion (revolt). By several scientific disciplines (a/o psychology, social psychology, sociology, criminology, ethics, philosophy) we explain why a leader can be confronted with 'employees' upwards hostility', especially in case of an ethical leadership style. [This part of our presentation and paper complements our presentation at the 24th Annual Enirdelm Conference in Dublin in 2015 about facilitating leadership, that only highlighted the positive story about this leadership style.] In the third part we dig deeper into the related philosophical question of the essence of 'evil' as irresponsible (unethical) behaviour. In short, we will confront obstructive and destructive, self-centred and self-regarding (and toxic) behaviour with empathic, compassionate and altruistic behaviour. In the closing fourth part we offer some ideas about how to tackle upwards hostility by employees within the ethical framework of ethical i.e. facilitating leadership.

Ultimately, this paper and presentation is an attempt to breach the taboo of the upwards hostility of employees (sometimes middle managers) against their formal leader, and to breach the false generalization that this (always) is the consequence and outcome of a destructive style of leadership by the formal leader himself ('blaming the victim').

Keywords: ethical leadership, facilitating leadership, employees' upwards hostility, evil, empathy.

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Introduction

We present the analysis of a topic that is addressed seldom: the confrontation of a formal leader with the upwards hostility of some of his employees, though he attempts to handle an ethical leadership style. Or even especially because of it.

Within the world of educational institutions, as well the positive characteristics of ethical i.e. facilitating leadership as the obstructive and destructive, self-centred and self-regarding, and toxic characteristics of the opposition against it do have the specific relevance of being a role model for the future generations. Insofar there is not only a responsibility towards the victim, but also towards the students.

Our personal experience (as general-director of a group of schools) with this form of hostility in 2015 was the starting shot of a large literature review through different scientific disciplines.

Ultimately, this paper and presentation is an attempt to breach the taboo of the upwards hostility of employees (sometimes middle managers) against their formal leaders, and to breach the false generalization that this (always) is the consequence of a destructive style of leadership by the formal leader.

1. What is ethical leadership?

DePree (1993) stresses the enormous impact of a leader on the lives of others, particularly his employees: "Leadership is a serious meddling in other' people's lives." Hogan and Kaiser (2005) conclude their research stating that "personality predicts leadership style, leadership style predicts employee attitudes and team functioning, and attitudes and team functioning predicts organizational performance". According to Joyce, Nohria and Roberson (2003) 14 % of the variance in the performance of an organization can be related to the person of the leader and his leadership style. As Ciulla (2005) reasons people in positions of leadership have a great impact because the effects of their ethical or unethical behaviour have a ripple effect and magnifies. Besides, Greenbaum, Kuenzi and Mayer (2010) take note of the fact that "there are alarming statistics regarding the amount of unethical behaviour".

Moreover, the crucial question is not what kind (type, style) of leadership we need in general, but what kind of leadership we need in these times of continuous and influential changes (Siebens, 2014), revealing a new type of work, employee, organisation and, thus, leader. Western organisations are confronted with a lot of new challenges. Whatever the concept of leadership used, it will have to be capable to address this realm of complexity and change, the need for intrinsic motivation and commitment, and the power of knowledge. And, whatever literature about change may proclaim, the crux to success in change or even crisis management is the willingness of the team to do what is necessary to succeed to realize the change or solve the crisis. This contains as well the necessary information, knowledge and insights to act in a correct, efficient and effective way as the necessary belief that change is the only positive way out, and the motivation to confront the many difficulties and discouragements, as the necessary insights and personality traits to handle the team.

What leadership style may be labelled as 'accurate' in these times of insecurity? What is responsible leadership? What is legitimate use of power and authority? From our academic research in business ethics during more than three decades (and our personal professional experience as a manager (3 secondary schools, 1 group of 25 schools, 2 social-profit organizations, 1 baroque orchestra) we have concluded that the characteristic of 'facilitating' is the crux and core business of ethical leadership. What it means, what it includes, what it implies.

We subscribe to the conclusion that "the romantic, leader-centred perspective that has dominated during the past decades portrayed leaders as having almost heroic abilities and being always there to save the day. While such a view might be comforting, particularly in times of uncertainty, it also

neglects … important facts." (Camps, 2015) Western (2008) observes a paradigm shift towards a post-heroic model, even beyond the notion of transformational leadership. In short, "the age of hierarchy is over" (Stewart, 1989). Given that the heart of the new paradigm is situated in the environment of the organisation and the leader, in connectivity, (stakeholder) relationships, sustainability and social responsibility Western defines it as 'eco-leadership'. We (Siebens, 2013 & 2014) refer to the notion of the 'organization-environment-fit'. Based on earlier research on this notion of ethical leadership (Siebens, 2007 & 2016) we describe and define facilitating leadership in line with the statement of Doppler and Lauterburg (1996) who define the role of the new type of leadership as "to create the general preconditions that make it possible to co-workers with a normal level of intelligence to perform their tasks autonomously and in an efficient way". Hence, we subscribe to the view of Daniëls and Fabry (1995) on leadership: "Talk to people about their purposes and objectives. Help them to get apprehension in the situation in which they are situated and let them determine the targets and goals themselves. Then, give them the power over the processes in which they are involved, see to empowerment. And, as manager and coach, keep an eye on the process – review – without interfering in everything." As stated by Senge (1990 & 1999), leadership should enable people, groups and organisations to create their own future and support the specific processes of change necessary to realise it. "The hallmark of leadership is the ability to stimulate the minds of others by raising some deep and pertinent questions and leave them with the inspiration to begin their personal leadership journey to find the answers on their own." (Mukherjee, in Ghesquière & Ims, 2010) This notion of ethical leadership shows to be not so much a specific format of leadership, but much more the whole of personal and organisational characteristics.

From the ethical point of view several arguments can be articulated to support a facilitating approach of leadership (Siebens, 2016). Most fundamental aspect of ethical leadership is its ability to facilitate the team and organization to be aware, accept and analyse the gap between reality and ideal: the is/ought-gap. Herewith, the facilitating approach of ethical leadership is ethical in its most essential meaning.

We can point to the golden rule to treat others as you would like to be treated yourself and the Kantian imperative that all employees must be treated as ends, not as a means (Kant, 2009). Ayios, Jeurissen, Manning and Spence (2014) state that Kant's ethical imperative includes that one may not manipulate others, and so that a leader must reason with the others and allow them to choose their own means (even when they are, in terms of their own aims, bad ones), and thus to respect their autonomy as a chooser (Martin, 1991). Within an eudemonic approach of ethics, the facilitating leader will cultivate values and virtues, which make him not just an effective, but an ethical leader. And one can easily explain the facilitating style of leadership from the ethics of care or the stakeholder approach.

According to Sen's (1979; 1987; 1992; 2009; Nussbaum, 2006) capability principle, ethical leadership can never mean that the leader, based on his emotional and cognitive empathy, can and will entirely determine what the employees need. It does mean that he understands their needs and interests, and supports them in the most effective way to fulfil these needs and realise these interests.

2. Employees' upwards hostility

Notwithstanding our personal conviction of the ethical validity of a facilitating approach and style of leadership, facilitating leadership may not be presented simply as the ultimate solution to leadership. On the contrary, suspicion, resistance and even opposition, rebellion and revolt can show up: blaming, defamation, vilifying, slandering, physical attacks, verbal violence, bullying, discrimination. [Herewith, our actual presentation and paper complements our presentation at the 24th Annual Enirdelm Conference in Dublin in 2015 about facilitating leadership, that only highlighted the positive story about this leadership style.]

Still the phenomenon of 'employees' upwards hostility' (Camps, 2015) is rather unknown – it is a (hidden) reality and a taboo - and not much studied. Conflicts between a leader and his employees are still interpreted as the result of bad (unethical) leadership. Notwithstanding some articles do pay attention to destructive behaviour of employees, they also downsize this problem to bad leadership. In turn, ethical leaders believe, all too naïve, that their ethical leadership style and behaviour is a guarantee for success and is making all their employees enthusiast and thankful. And thus, loyalty by the employees to their employer would be the linear and simple consequence of the loyalty of the employer/organization to the employee's needs and interests, as there are job satisfaction (crucial!), sustainable work, a good income, respect, and safety and health. It's not, at least not with all employees. Employees, in their turn, believe, all too self-deceitful, that their unethical behaviour is not their responsibility, but the sole effect of unethical behaviour by their formal leader. And so, it's him who is to blame. But it's not, at least not with all leaders.

How can we understand this situation that is in clear contradiction with our spontaneous intuitions? Why is it that ethical leadership cannot avoid obstructive and destructive, and toxic behaviour by employees, led by their informal leader(s) (sometimes a (formal) middle manager)? Why are destructive people doing what they do? As illustrated by the notion of the 'perceived organizational support' (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008) even an ethical i.e. facilitating leadership style can be perceived by employees as adverse, hostile and destructive to their own personal interests. Even more, especially the characteristics of an ethical i.e. facilitating style of leadership can invoke resistance and opposition. Besides the fact that the employees involved have their (hidden) agenda (intentions and objectives), the combination of research on phenomena as psychopathy, dark and toxic personality, failing, toxic and dysfunctional organization, and self-serving/regarding behaviour also leads to the conclusion that this kind of conflict has to do with the presence of one or more employees with a specific personality. So, it's much more their personality that is causing the conflict with the ethical i.e. facilitating formal leader.

To dig deeper into the phenomenon of upwards hostility of employees against their formal, ethical i.e. facilitating leader, we have to pay attention to personal, interpersonal and group dynamics and to the organizational environment in which this conflict takes place, articulated by a/o Social Exchange Theory, the ethical hero, self-deception, denial, the scapegoat, psychological disengagement, moral disengagement, choice supportive memory distortion, self-censure, positive illusion (as moral honesty), moralisation, Self-perception Theory, social ostracism, in-group prototypes, dehumanization, Upper Echelons Theory, dark personality traits, counterproductive work behaviour, organizational citizenship behaviour, perceived organizational support, psychological dissonance, Cognitive Dissonance Theory etcetera. Personally we favour the theory by Bandura (1986) of 'ethical disengagement'. The author studied and listed eight different strategies to disengage one's ethical responsibility in a concrete situation and can occur as well a priori as a posteriori. Insofar it is a matter of 'cognitive reconstrual'. "Cognitive transformation of harmful conduct into good conduct through moral justifications and palliative characterisations by euphemistic labelling and behavioural contrasts is the most effective psychological mechanism for disengagement of self-sanctions." (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1996) It helps to redefine a deed as beneficial in some way, to minimize one's individual role in a deed and/or to reframe the effects of a deed. And so, ethical disengagement is a matter of failing self-control, of negative self-regulation (self-regulation failure), aiming to avoid sanctioning, first of all self-sanctioning. This process runs parallel to the Matza's and Sykes (1957) neutralization theory, 'rationalizing ideologies' discussed by Anand and Ashforth (2003), and ethical fading discussed by Messick and Tenbrunsel (2004). By consequence, when this person is lying about the facts of the situation at hand he is not so much lying to others, but first of all lying to himself: self-deception.

All these (and many other) concepts, models and theories from a broad variety of scientific disciplines illustrate that not only the personal, interpersonal and group dynamics are decisive for the

growth, development and outcome of conflicts rooted in obstructive and destructive behaviour. They can and will flourish only within the whole of an organizational environment that does not support ethical i.e. constructive behaviour. Finally, also the organizational culture comes into play.

The impact can be very severe. It starts with negative effects on the quality and quantity of the production, on the service to customers. Maybe this behaviour endangers or damages the reputation of some people, so that their social contacts at the work floor are disturbed. Maybe they also damage the reputation of the whole organization. Finally, however, they can also damage the economic-financial results of the organization, causing lay-offs or even the final failure of the organization. In general, it destroys the psychological or human capital of the organization, when it destroys the individual components of psychological capital: confidence (self-efficacy), positive reference (optimism), perseverance, resilience (Avolio, Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Whether or not being a formal leader on a high position, also the impact on the person of the victim can be serious. Their behaviour towards individuals, as a/o their formal leader, can realize stress, depression, burn-out, long-term physical and mental problems or even end up in suicide. On the individual level, the experience can have the impact of a 'life event', causing serious changes in his view on human beings, on society on the world and on oneself (though these basic buildings blocks of our thinking normally are finished at the end of the adolescence). Overall, we notice severe physical and mental (a/o self-image and self-esteem), relational, social, professional, financial, and existential effects. Without any doubt a behaviour with such impact and outcomes implies serious sufferings with the victim:. Besides, and contrary to Aasland, Einarsen and Skogstad (2007), calling this behaviour destructive not only implies a reference to the results of this behaviour, but also to the intentions of the persons involved. Their behaviour is destructive in an intentional, willing way. They want to have a negative, destructive impact on others or their organization.

From an ethical point of view many concepts and theories are condemning firmly this kind of behaviour: Kant's categorical imperative (people as an end in themselves, not as a means), the no-harm-principle by utilitarianism, the ethics of care, the stakeholder approach etcetera. Therefore, we must firmly reject the consolation often used that 'what does not kill you, makes you stronger'. In fact, it's not. Besides the fact that it does kill some of the victims, it will always change the victims' personality, world view and life in a profound way. One thing is for sure: the victim will never recover in the sense of the old personality. His personality and his (social, professional) life will deeply change and he will have to life up with it. And so his partner, children and friends.

It still may be a confusing fact that an ethical i.e. facilitating leader doesn't get the applause and admiration of his employees one would expect (and he surely should get), but on the contrary can be confronted with resistance and opposition. Can we, from all information and scientific knowledge above-mentioned detect some general conclusions concerning the roots of such an obstructive and destructive behaviour, especially when it concerns behaviour against a formal leader who tries to life up to an ethical i.e. facilitating vision and style of leadership. We can point to four general sources for this kind of violence. Firstly, there may be some factual reasons. Some employees may have done things in the past of may be involved in systems and attitudes of which they suppose or know by sure that they will not be accepted by their (ethical) formal leader. Secondly, there may be a subconsciously resistance to the higher standards of behaviour and work – as a/o quality care, personal relations to all colleagues, service and client-centred behaviour, cooperation, commitment and intrapreneurship, open-mindedness to change and innovativeness – rooted in anxiety not being able to perform on these higher standards. Psycho-analysis illustrates how this subconscious fear can 'shift' (by association) from a futility to a specific person ('surrogate', 'substitute', scapegoat). By this shift the formal leader can be become the target for the frustrations of the employees. Thirdly, resistance and opposition can root in a consciously rejection of the ethical vision on work and social life, because one is holding a different, more self-centred world view wherein the needs and interests of other (internal and external) stakeholders and the common good of the organization and society as a whole are considered to be

secondary. In that case one explicitly rejects the ethical basic ideas and opinions of the ethical i.e. facilitating leader on how the work should be organized and performed (and on his leadership style). At least considering these roots of obstructive and destructive behaviour the ethical i.e. facilitating leader is more vulnerable than the a-ethical leader. Fourthly, there is also the unconscious world of drifts, as analysed and described by among others Freud (1930). Though psycho-analysts do not agree whether all drifts are rooted in sexuality, in non-erotic drifts or aggression (overpowering) (Adler, 1908), drifts would express the deepest fears of people, their deepest frustrations as jealousy or a feminist hate against men (when a man gets a promotion that is interpreted by the female colleagues as an unfair example of the 'glass ceiling'). Westerink (2015) indicates that these drifts (or their combination) become destructive if they cannot be expressed in a constructive way, as e.g. by teamwork or an open discussion, or innovativeness. Besides, within an organization these individual causes for destructive/evil behaviour always must be interpreted as elements of collective processes and the organizational culture, that can invoke, strengthen (and also weaken) the individual causes.
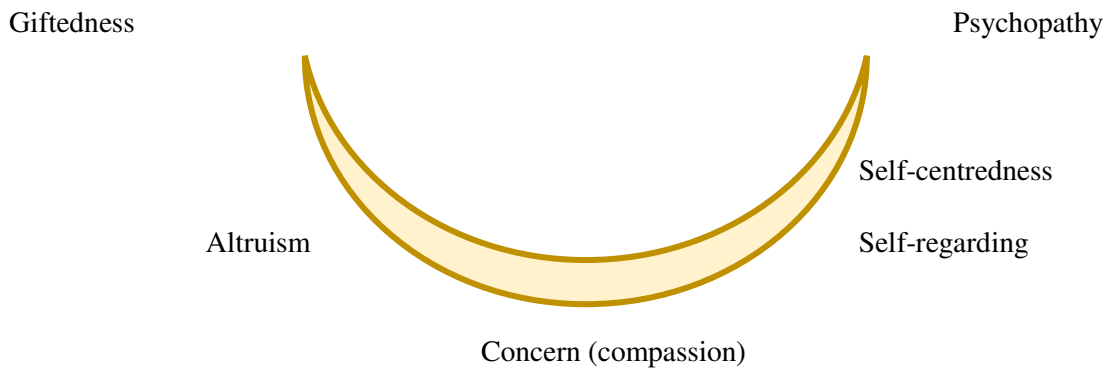
3. Evil

This issue leads us to the crucial question how we can ultimately define and understand evil (behaviour). From the discussion about extreme situations (as the Holocaust by the Nazi's during World War II), by a/o Arendt (1954 & 1963), we can already learn a lot about what probably steers people to do evil deeds, without any remorse or feeling of guilt. But what is making an act (or opinion, or decision) to an evil act? Does 'pure evil' exist anyway? Is it no more than a subjective and personal evaluation or can we detect some objective definition and criteria? The answer also determines whether ethics is only a matter of personal intuition or that facts and figures have a role to play. Insofar ethics has to do with looking, eyes wide open, to the social (including economic and political) reality – whether or not measured and described with data – ethics fundamentally has to do with epistemology. Ethics is a way to analyse our social realm, great and small, and to draw conclusions on what it means to behave in an acceptable, responsible way within this social realm.

Thus, evil has to be defined as an human act (so, by nature), based on free will (Kant, 2009) (conscious) (so, not because of the intrinsic limitations of every individual person).

Do all the explanations, reasons, motives and causes of obstructive, destructive and toxic behaviour have something in common? Whatever the reasons and motive(s) are, resistance, opposition and rebellion are always about an attempt to stop the actual situation/evolution and to redirect it in a way the employee(s) is preferring (something new or back to the situation it once was). Behind this we find a person retreating in a position of resistance who has the impression and feeling of losing a positive, secure and safe situation without being sure that the new situation will offer same guarantees. All this considering the fulfilment of one's own needs and interests (against taking into account the needs and interests of other stakeholders and the common good of the organization and society at large). For the person involved it's about (avoiding) a negative balance sheet. It's about losing a positive situation and security, about losing control over the situation and losing the power to realise this control. Thus, finally, it's about losing control under the threat of a negative outcome/evolution.

The philosophical analysis of evil teaches that human behaviour can be described as a continuum between two extremes: on the one hand self-centred and self-regarding, herewith obstructive, destructive and toxic, sometimes even psychopathic behaviour, and, on the other hand empathic, concerning (compassionate) and altruistic behaviour (Ricard, 2013) (see figure 1).

Figure 1. Continuum of ethical behaviour

Giftedness   Psychopathy

                                                                              Self-centredness

                    Altruism   Self-regarding

                              Concern (compassion)

Source: own elaboration.

Ultimately, the characteristics of evil, so irresponsible or unethical behaviour can be pictured in an overview (see figure 2).

Figure 2. Basic factors of irresponsible behaviour

Short-sightedness

Self-centredness   ———————   EVIL   ————————   Self-regarding behaviour

                                                                  Obstruction

                                                                  Destructiveness

                                                                  Toxicity

Source: own elaboration.

This can be mirrored to become a basic scheme about responsible, so ethical behaviour (see figure 3).

Figure 3. Basic factors of responsible behaviour

Affective empathy

Cognitive empathy   CONCERN   altruism

Compassion

Sacrifice

Commitment

Source: own elaboration.

Finally, it's all about short-sightedness (number of stakeholders taken into account – only oneself; time taken into account – only the short term; subject of discussion – 'one-issue'; point of view – exclusivity of one's own point of view) versus open and holistic thinking.

Madore (2011) is warning for a purely individualistic interpretation of evil and is pointing at the instrumental role of the group, organization and society in relation to conscious and blatant evil. Herewith also the issue of the worldview of people and society (a/o politics, economics, and not at least social relations) is put forward. According to the point of view above-mentioned two oppositional world views can be defined. The one can be described as rooted in a Darwinist view on nature and its social equivalent known as social-Darwinism (the 'homo economicus'). In line with Nietzsche's philosophy power and will are the basic notions to understand how nature is working and only a society that adapts to its basic rule of the survival of the fittest will flourish. This approach is based on the belief that the human being fundamentally is egoistic. (Probable derailments of the economic system to the detriment of soci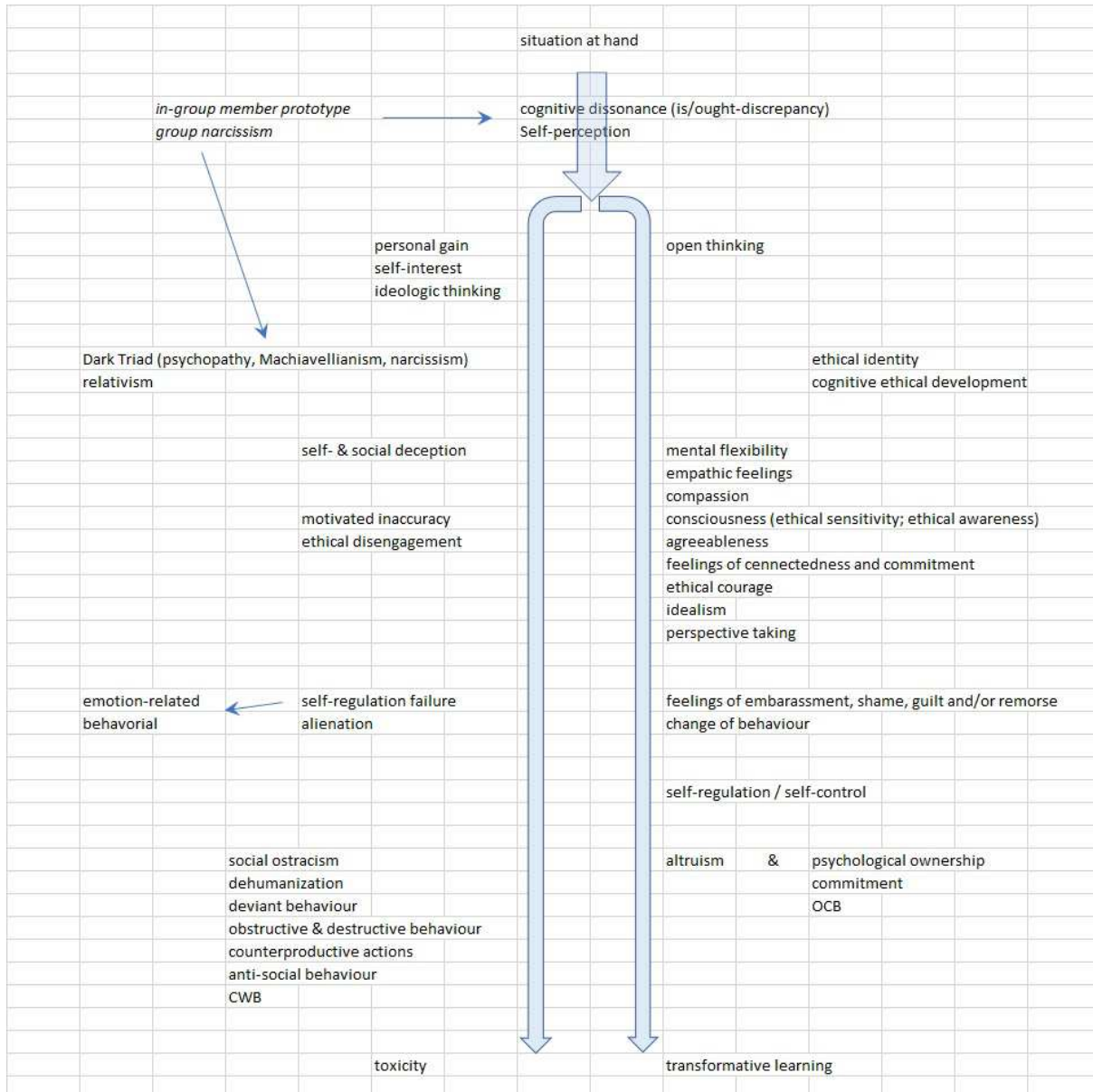al life would be corrected automatically by an 'invisible hand'.) The other worldview points at the complex interweaving of all things, plants, animals and (!) humans in eco-systems. Within these systems each of the individual elements supports the survival of the others. Exactly the impact and consequences of our human activities on the environment, in general defined as 'global warming', illustrates this complex interweaving. Though a minority clearly is fundamentally egoistic (according to Ricard (2013) about 20 %) another minority (also about 20 %) is fundamentally altruistic. (The other 60 % follows the opinions and attitudes in power.) Whereas the first worldview is stressing the physical aspect of entropy, the second worldview is based on the aspect of syntropy. Though a choice between both basic principles and attitudes in life finally is a matter of a very personal existential choice, build on personal life experiences - nature itself shows us a rather confusing mix of both – our world view (and view on humans) also is built on our upbringing and education, and the culture of the groups and organizations we're participating in during our lifetime.

Overall, all aspects and elements of ethical (responsible) and of evil (destructive, hostile) behaviour can be summarized in a general process illuminating the decision making process of the individual (group or organisation) (see figure 4).

Figure 4. The process to ethical versus evil behaviour

Source: own elaboration.

4. How to prevent or react

Finally, our analysis has to examine what an ethical i.e. facilitating leader and an organization can do to protect him/itself from obstructions and attacks by dissident employees. Anyhow, if the leader does not want to betray his basic ethical principles – what may be assumed - he cannot simply fight back with the same strategies and 'weapons' as his opponents. There are also ethical limits to self-defence, despite his anger and his right to self-defence (as part of his ethical duty to self-care). Herewith, we must conclude that unethical intentions, motives and objectives, and irresponsible strategies and means used by the dissident group leave the leader aiming for a responsible

management with the fundamental choice - a big ethical dilemma - between only two outcomes: persisting his leadership style or changing his style into an authoritarian style. The latter can be ethically questioned, at least because of his responsibility towards all other stakeholders.

Especially the tradition of an ethics of war can help an ethical leader to understand the different limitations to an acceptable use of power (violence). Insofar as a leader keeps in mind the list of criteria/arguments for an ethically defensible form of action and keeps firm actions limited to what is strictly needed they can be fairly good and admissible. Because of the risks to go further than these limits of what is ethically acceptable and to get caught into an authoritarian style, continuous critical and provocative reflection with some colleagues or external stakeholders seems to be an indispensable measure.

Besides prevention we also have to mention two other phenomena to be studied, related to the subject of upwards hostility against a formal leader applying an ethical i.e. facilitating style.

- There is a specific party that often is unseen and unattended within situations of conflict: the bystander. Contradictory enough, being what seems to be an outsider to the conflict he is crucial to the dynamics and solutions of it. D'Cruz and Noronha (2011) call him an "important constituent of the bullying scenario". Instead of being an outsider, they he is part of what is the 'collective and shared responsibility' for a situation at hand. Among others Diamond and Zoladz (2016) refer to scientific research demonstrating the important effect of insufficient social support in the development of PTSD with a victim.

- How is it possible that so many bystanders do not intervene by helping or by asking for the help of professionals (as police) or of other bystanders (the 'bystander effect')? Schwartz (1994) points at insecurity as the main social aspect hindering social commitment. D'Cruz and Noronha (2011) conclude that there is a lot of fair to be associated with the victim and becoming a victim oneself, and uncertainty about the opinion, position and willingness for action with the colleagues. Whoever speaks to bystanders in case of a conflict will also be confronted with the (main) argument that they don't want to involve or to be involved in the conflict, among others because they have the impression of not having enough information to evaluate both parties and their story. What looks very logical at first sight, isn't correct. As stated by Hauser and Huebner (2011), the fact that an active reaction by the bystander actually changes the situation is illustrating that the absence of an active reaction is also actually changing that situation, by the fact that the possibilities of change stays non-existent. As stated by Madore (2011): "Indifference, so to speak, is never innocent, but the guilty act of … not acting." Besides, Salmivalli (2010) points also at the fact that group members tend to distance themselves from low-status members (in this case being the victim), that bullying becomes overtime a kind of trend, a way of fitting in the group, that bullying seems to be more justified when there is only one victim because it seems to be his own fault. Last, and not least, there is the 'pluralistic ignorance theory' (by Allport & Katz, 1931; Galvan & Juvonen, 2008; Prentice, 2008), stating that some of the supportive group members nevertheless reject bullying privately. They still support the bullying behaviour in the open because they think that the others do. So, it's about a false or misperceived norm.

- Particularly, the relation between the bystander effect and the 'separation thesis' (Freeman, 1994; Sandberg, 2008) makes even more clear that the phenomenon of the bystander can be countered by empathising with the victim, questioning one's own ethical compass (conscience), asking others about their opinion and by getting involved and integrated in a group with a pro-social culture. Evaluating the phenomenon of the bystander from an ethical point of view it is basic to admit and to confirm that a victims' first expectations are recognition and speaking out loudly by bystanders. But such an attitude is brave; it needs ethical courage. Within a traditional structure of control feelings

of powerlessness lead to what Bird (1996) calls 'moral silence' (closely related to the phenomenon of the bystander). Unlike hypocrisy where the person in question camouflages this silence with noble intentions, moral silence is a simple overall silence. One knows, but gives the impression not to know. One looks the other way.

– In contrast to the bystander, trying to stay neutral and outside the conflict situation, Arendt (1971 & 2003) presents the personality of the 'noble nature'. He is the individual who is willing to speak out in a social setting where things are wrong and unethical, and therefore should be changed. It is the individual pointing at the ethical values, norms, procedures and rules, stating that they are necessary for the social cohesion and success of the organization and society at large. He is the person who keeps the 'reflective thought' high, as well the individual self-critical and critical thinking as the open and argumentative dialogue.

– The phenomenon of the 'noble nature' is also known as whistle-blowing. Vinten (1994) defines whistle-blowing as "the unauthorized disclosure of information that an employee reasonably believes is evidence of the contravention of any law, rule or regulation, code of practice, or professional statement, or that involves mismanagement, corruption, abuse of authority, or danger to public or worker health and safety." Jubb (1999) defines it as "a deliberate non-obligatory act of disclosure, which gets onto public record and is made by a person who has or had privileged access to data or information of an organization, about non-trivial illegality or other wrongdoing whether actual, suspected or anticipated which implicates and is under the control of that organization, to an external entity having the potential to rectify the wrongdoing". As Strack (2008) argues whistle-blowers are "people who no longer silently tolerate illegal activities, maladministration or danger to human beings, the environment or the economy but reveal those abuses within or outside their business, their company, their organisation or their bureaucracy". And Bjorkelo, Einarsen, Matthiesen and Ryberg (2008) relate whistleblowing with "situations where an employee is witnessing something illegal, illegitimate or unethical taking place within their organisation, which he or she subsequently decides to take action against, thus trying to eliminate the wrongdoing".

5. Discussion

About the phenomenon of upwards hostility by employees against their formal, ethically performing leader, it was not at all our objective to add one other new very specific and specialized field research to the long list that already exists in different scientific disciplines. We do not really see the added-value of such an effort. Therefor it was our objective, more precise our challenge to create a grand overview over the different scientific disciplines interested in the subject and to create an overarching theoretical model to understand, interprete and analyse the subject, as well theoretically as practically. Indeed, after all the theoretical model must be helpful for people who are victim or bystander of a situation of upwards hostility to understand and coop with that situation.

Whereas there is already a lot of research and academic literature about leadership and ethical leadership, even about destructive leadership, there is no comprehensive literature about destructive behaviour of employees against their formal leader, and especially not against a leader who is applying an ethical style of leadership. Though there is a lot of academic articles to find about many sub-aspects of the issue (in psychology, social psychology, sociology, criminology, ethics, communication sciences, philosophy, social anthropology), still there is no overarching study, conceptual model or theory yet. Exactly the fact that there is not yet any overarching review of all theoretical models, concepts and notions concerning upwards hostility and that this specific kind of conflict is still a taboo

– still people assume that a conflict between employees and their leader must be the simple and sole outcome of bad leadership – is the added-value of our study.

But is our research acceptable from a scientific point of view?

Methodologically one could, of course, articulate critiques on each of the (1500) individual articles/studies used. That would not be too hard to do, since the authors often articulate such criticisms themselves. Given the large number of individual studies used specific methodological problems – as among others criticisms about the use of self-reports – are balancing each other out. This also is the case concerning criticisms on the total number or some specific characteristics of the respondents. Most important, most of the conclusions are pointing in the same direction, even across different scientific disciplines. It's our opinion that this allows our extrapolation into an overarching theoretical model. Most of all, the fact itself that the conclusions are consistent with the experiences and intuitive feelings of most people gives this analysis the necessary credibility and significance.

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Leading education in the Anthropocene Epoch

David Oldroyd[1]

Abstract

This article locates the debate about development and educational leadership in the context of the new geological age, the Anthropocene Epoch, created by human activity. Two broad questions are posed:

 – What beliefs and practices have produced the 'Anthropocene Age' and what are the unintended consequences for societies and the global environment of this new human-dominated geological era?
 – How might educational leaders respond to the challenges now facing the coming generation?

It questions the assumption that socio-economic-ecological 'development' can continue when development implies growth of an infinitely expanding 'Machine World' that is maladapted to the finite Natural World. Implications for adaptive educational leadership and a curriculum for the Anthropocene are explored for promoting global sustainability. At a time when most economic and political leaders seem unaware of, deny or are distracted from addressing developing existential threats, the need for educators to do so becomes an urgent priority.

Keywords: educational leadership, sustainability, development.

Introduction

This paper is based on a symposium - "Educational Leadership for Sustainability in a 'Wicked' Anthropocene Age: issues, threats, and ways forward" - that formed part of the ENIRDELM conference in Krakow in September 2017. The title of the symposium implied that the newly announced geological epoch – the Anthropocene – which has succeeded the stable 10,000-year Holocene epoch - is presenting humankind with 'wicked' intractable predicaments that threaten progress to a sustainable future for the next generation. This paper makes the case for educational leaders to make it a top priority in their professional work to understand, share and act in response to these existential threats.

What is the Anthropocene Epoch?

The term Anthropocene was popularised by the Dutch atmospheric chemist Paul Crutzen (2005). In 2000 Crutzen and Eugene F. Stoermer coined the term for the current geological epoch to emphasize the central role of mankind in geology and ecology. In 2016 the term, now widely used, was submitted by the Working Group on the Anthropocene as a recognized subdivision of geological time to the International Union of Geological Sciences: 'The Anthropocene defines Earth's most recent geologic time period as being human-influenced, or anthropogenic, based on overwhelming global evidence that atmospheric, geologic, hydrologic, biospheric and other earth system processes are now

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altered by humans. The word combines the root "anthropo", meaning "human" with the root "-cene", the standard suffix for "epoch" in geologic time. The Anthropocene is distinguished as a new period either after or within the Holocene which began approximately 10,000 years ago (about 8000 BC) with the end of the last glacial period'. (http://anthropocene.info/en/anthropocene/)

There are contrasting arguments (Morelle, 2015) about the starting point for the new geological age:
- The Agricultural Revolution – 10,000 years ago with the spread of urban hydraulic civilisations based on irrigation – between 400 and 500 human generations ago,
- The Age of Exploration – colonial expansion in the 17th century,
- The Industrial Revolution – late 18th century,
- The Nuclear Weapons era – World War II.

Steffen, et.al. (2015) favour the Industrial Revolution as the starting point three centuries ago based on the harnessing of fossil fuel energy. The Anthropocene represents the first time in 3.6 billion years of complex life's evolution that one species has become the major geological force on the surface of the planet. Steffen formulated three phases of the Anthropocene geological era:

1. The Industrial Revolution around 1750 – around 11 human generations;
2. The Great Acceleration post-WWII 1950 to 2010/2020 – fewer than 3 generations;
3. The Great Disruption now underway in which non-linear tipping points in natural systems and crossing the limits of planetary carrying capacity are threatening destabilisation and collapse of both human-made and ecological systems, possibly in the next generation.

If these time intervals are seen as human generations (the average span of time between the birth of parents and that of their offspring), notionally 25 years, the rapid speed of exponential geometric acceleration in human impact is brought home. The prospect of major global upheaval within the next generation, before the year 2050, is a matter if increasing and urgent concern.

Exponential rates of human impact

The post-war Great Acceleration phase saw many forms of human impact on the natural world accelerating at a geometric or exponential rate of progression. In a period of relative peace around the world, population and economic growth aided by technological advances accelerated rapidly. The doubling times of such rapid acceleration are not well understood although they are as simple to calculate as working out compound interest rates on savings or debts.

Exponential doubling rates are calculated as follows, assuming no change in the compounding growth rates over time – divide 70 by the percentage rate of growth to see how many years it takes to double the current quantity. Thus 1% = 70 years to double; 2% = 35 years; Poland's GDP growth at 3% = 23.3 years; China's GDP at 10% = 7 years; etc.

Exponential growth curves take the form of 'hockey stick' graph rising very steeply. Exponential population growth, for example, even though it has slowed to a little over 1% per annum, means that in the next 14 years 1 billion extra humans will be added to the earth's 2017 human population of 7.6 billion. The current rate of growth adds 228,000 more extra humans every day. This means that every minute 150+ more people are born than die. All these extra humans, of course, require energy, water, food, and space on the planet. One other illustration is the rate of increase in the spread of motor vehicles around the globe. In 1970 there were around 250 million; by 2010 this number had increased four times to reach 1 billion and by 2030 it is estimated that there will 2.5 billion, a remarkable ten-fold increase in only 80 years.

Most forms of human impact on the planet are now following similar trajectories, especially since the Great Acceleration started. The rural and urban 'Machine World' of civilisation, created by human ingenuity, technology and resource conversion (take-make-use-discard) is radically re-shaping the Natural World. Natural life systems evolved on earth for around 3.6 billion years compared to the cultural evolution of urban and rural human systems has a fractional geological time span of only

10,000 years or so. The accelerating impact of this 'Machine World', fuelled by fossil energy during the last 300 years has now produced the Anthropocene Epoch – the geological Age of Humans. Humans and the 'Machine World' that Homo Sapiens has created has become the major geological force active in changing the planet – land, sea, air, natural ecosystems. Homo sapiens, in the minds of some, has become Homo Deus! One remarkable estimate suggests that 93% of all the concrete placed on the earth's surface as cities and transport infrastructure has been added since WWII creating a new stratum of 'rock' that will persist for millennia (Bonneuil, Fressoz, 2016). Anthropogenic impact is now heating and changing the composition of ice masses, atmosphere and oceans and leading to a sixth great planetary extinction of biodiversity. These are indeed 'god-like' effects.

Planetary carrying capacity overshot

The metric of the ecological footprint, a measure of environmental sustainability, has been devised to calculate this human impact on the planet's carrying capacity. The 'footprint' estimates human demand in relation to ecological 'bio-capacity' (land, food, water, energy, minerals and so on) available to meet that demand. This is calculated in 'global hectares' per person.

Rees (2011), the originator of ecological footprint analysis, calculated that '. . . the average world citizen has an eco-footprint of about 2.7 global average hectares while there are only 2.1 global hectares of bio-productive land and water per capita on earth. This means that humanity has already overshot global bio-capacity by 30% and now lives unsustainably by depleting stocks of 'natural capital'. As global human population and consumption have grown at over 1% and 3% respectively since then, the global footprint and overshoot have increased still further and the earth's carrying capacity has continued to diminish. The most recent ecological deficit has been set at 1.1 global hectares per person (Wikipaedia, 2017), a rapid loss of carrying capacity in only six years.

Levels of consumption in affluent nations hugely exceed those in poorer parts of the world. The USA and UK have global hectare footprints per person of 8.22 and 7.93 respectively (the USA has a bio-capacity per person of 3.76 due to its huge landmass whereas over-crowded UK has only 0.56). At the other end of the scale, Pakistan and Bangladesh have per capita footprints of 0.79 and 0.72. Their poverty makes their impact on the planet ten times less per person than in the two rich countries.

As early as 1980, Catton saw that the earth was in overshoot, a term he popularised, from the overload of human population as the following quotation illustrates: '... our lifestyles, mores, institutions, patterns of interaction, values, and expectations are shaped by a cultural heritage that was formed in a time when carrying capacity exceeded the human load. A cultural heritage can outlast the conditions that produced it. That carrying capacity surplus is gone now, eroded both by population increase and immense technological enlargement of per capita resource appetites and environmental impacts. Human life is now being lived in an era of deepening carrying capacity deficit. All of the familiar aspects of human societal life are under compelling pressure to change in this new era when the load increasingly exceeds the carrying capacities of many local regions - and of a finite planet. Social disorganization, friction, demoralization, and conflict will escalate.' (Catton, 1980). In 1980 there were 3 billion fewer humans on the planet than today.

Anthropocene existential threats and the 'double bind'

There are many other illustrations of how quickly the Anthropocene Epoch has eroded the earth's 'carrying capacity deficit'. Rockstrom (2017) in a brilliant presentation at the World Economic Forum explains both the runaway rapidity of exponential human impacts since world population reached 3 billion in 1955, and the way in which the stability of the Holocene period in which human civilisationflourished is now threatened by a series of human-induced 'tipping points'. These sudden non-linear system changes, for example in the earth's climate, were a feature of the earth's atmosphere

prior to the Holocene during a series of Ice Ages. The recent rapid increase of emissions of greenhouse gases due to human activity in the last three generations is pushing the planet towards a number of tipping points. Sixteen of these are identified in the inter-disciplinary research of the Stockholm Resilience Centre. Rockstrom argues that in order to rein in global warming, human-induced emissions of greenhouse gases will have to be reduced to zero at an exponential rate by 2050. This means halving every ten years the rate at which carbon is added to the atmosphere until emissions reach zero by mid-century.

Climate disruption is now the most publicised existential threat and challenge arising in the Anthropocene. It stands alongside other threats to the natural world that include: sea level rise; pollution of air, water and land; depletion of fossil energy, minerals, fisheries, forests, soils, water; losses of biodiversity and global epidemics of disease due to the diminishing effectiveness of antibiotics (Oldroyd, 2014). Climate disruption is a predicament that, along with other threats of the Anthropocene unleashed by neo-liberal unregulated economic growth, places humanity in what Bateson (1956) termed a 'double bind'. This is a grand dilemma that can be described as 'desiring and managing to live a life of high material well-being in our society that, with the unintended but inevitable consequence, is destroying the future for our offspring and even ourselves'. Global warming is clearly not the intended consequence of the desire for high material well-being, just as adding CO2 to the atmosphere is not the reason we buy and drive motor vehicles. Weyler (2017) likens the double bind of modern societies to the trap of addiction: (1) keep consuming and burn the earth or (2) cut back consumption and face hunger, poverty and fear of the unknown. This is a "lose-lose" phenomenon: drastically curtailing economic growth will entail equally drastic reductions in living standards as well as limiting individuals' personal lifestyle choices and freedoms, for example, over the number of children they can have or the material assets they can acquire.

What beliefs underlie contemporary existential uncertainties?

Oldroyd and Heller (2017) propose a map of existential beliefs that lie behind contrasting worldviews and throw light on the addiction to the obvious double bind of the pursuit of endless exponential growth and material consumption on a finite planet with a limited carrying capacity. Four main contrasting core ideologies form the quadrants of this map based on two intersecting dimensions:

- Expansionism – Sustainability.
- Spiritual – Secular.

The belief in 'progress' as the triumph of science and technology is the 'story' of modernity although it is reinforced by the biblical injunction in Genesis 1:28 to 'Be fruitful and increase in number; fill the earth and subdue it. Rule over the fish in the sea and the birds in the sky and over every living creature that moves on the ground.'

This ideology of endless material progress gives rise to a belief - one might say a delusion - of expansionism as the basis of human well-being and purpose. This is at odds with the belief that humans are part of nature and that a sustainable future requires our species to live in harmony with nature. The sustainability worldview leads to an understanding of 'progress' as the goal of creating equilibrium between the Machine and Natural Worlds. This is exactly the message of Rockstrom and his colleagues who argue for exponential deceleration from the trajectories of human impact on the planet. Progress seen as diminishing the modern addiction to growth of human wealth and power is clearly a worldview or 'story' not yet at the heart of the global political and economic policy-making or in the minds of most global leaders.

'Stories' or narratives of development as growth are still in the ascendant compared to the sustainability narrative of development as equilibrium–seeking. The 'consumption ethic' frames the thinking of both Anthropocene producers and consumers alike. People easily incorporate new facts into their existing frames, the ways they see the world; their narratives, the stories they tell about

themselves and the world; and their values, their beliefs about right and wrong, and what matters to them. Humans seem able simply to ignore facts that do not fit their existing frames, narratives, and values. Nobody wants to hear bad news, especially when it is complex and hard to grasp and not clearly related to everyday experience. Unintended consequences tend to be obscured by the drive for personal security and self-enrichment. Global-scale, systemic thinking about the long-term future or inter-generational responsibilities is rare and demanding. But new stories, greater awareness of self, society, the impact of humans on the planet are needed, given the urgency of trajectories in the exponentially changing new epoch – the geological age created so suddenly, in three generations, by humans.

Re-setting educational priorities for the Anthropocene future

Vast inequalities and divergent curricular goals exist within and between nations in educational provision. In OECD countries global competition in education has become a driving force measured by international standardised tests of learning outcomes that are assumed to relate to national economic performance. Many countries still make religious indoctrination a major purpose of schooling and there are thought to be around 50 million children receiving no formal education due to being uprooted by forced migration and displacement (UNICEF, 2017). This is one indicator of growing destabilisation in the Machine World. To advocate an Anthropocene curriculum for the globalised but still highly fragmented cultural and social world is therefore problematic. But some suggestions for re-setting priorities in wealthier OECD education systems now follow.

Although awareness and media coverage is growing, it is still a top priority to dispel ignorance and denial about the unprecedented global trajectories of human (Machine World) impact that are overshooting the carrying capacity of the Natural World:

- exponential growth rates of the global economy driven by capital creation, debt and technology,
- 1 billion extra human population every 14 years,
- the out-of-control levels of environmental disruption, e.g. anthropogenic global warming, soil depletion, water shortages, ocean acidification, deforestation, biodiversity loss, etc.,
- rapid depletion of cheap sources of energy and material resources.

In education systems, giving the next generation an understanding of how fast exponential growth proceeds, is a high priority, along with how to calculate global ecological footprint. There is still widespread ignorance of how fast exponential human impact grows: current 3% annual global economic growth meaning a doubling time of 23.3 years. Also few are familiar with the fact that the sustainable carrying capacity of the earth measured by the global footprint metric suggests that it was exceeded around 1970 and that now 1.7 planets would be needed for humans to develop the material levels of consumption that we enjoy in Europe. Regrettably, there is still almost universal political commitment to maximising economic growth.

The real possibility of regional and global collapse as a result of this acceleration has long been predicted. In the early 1970s the Club of Rome study (Meadows, et. al., 1972) 'Limits to Growth' forecast 2030 as the likely time of multiple human system collapse using five system measures: population; food production; industrialisation; consumption of renewable resources and pollution. Recent studies (Meadows, et. al., 2004) confirm that trends are on course in relation to the predicted time of systems collapse. It is no easy matter for educators to deal with such dire prospects and confront their students with concepts such as:

- imminent civilisational collapse predicted since the 1970s,
- the 'double bind' arising from the drive for wealth and power that may lead to the self-destruction of societies sooner than we think,

- planetary overshoot due to exponential human impact arising from anthropocentric power & greed,
- ecocide promoted by the neo-liberal narrative of infinite GDP growth,
- the technofix delusion that there are technical solutions to highly complex and rapidly accelerating 'wicked' socio-ecological problems,
- psychological denial and why it is so tempting to discount the evidence about the Anthropocene trajectory towards an unsustainable future.

Broadly, an Anthropocene curriculum to prepare for the future should centrally address:

- *how humans should relate to the planet* as ecological crisis looms (systemic big picture thinking, UN Sustainable Development Goals, eco-centrism, sufficiency ethic, ecological footprint, steady-state, etc.),
- *how humans might better relate to each other* to modify individualism and global competition (promote win-win collaboration, mutual rights and duties, etc.).

and arguably:

- *skills for post-collapse survival* which may become the most crucial of 21st century skills (self-sufficiency, practical skills of survival, etc.).

Could educators help to create an alternative story to the prevailing notion that well-being requires ever-increasing material wealth? Could a different story of progress be offered which defines progress as adaptation for long-term sustainability and equilibrium? Can we teach a new story of urgently needed transformations such as:

- from *Consumer Growth Society* to *Conserver Circular Economy* by minimising consumption; the desire for growth; and the seduction of advertising?
- from *Things* to *Relationships* as the source of well-being, replacing 'stuff' with satisfying experiences?
- from *Perpetual Growth* to *Steady-state 'Circular' Economy* by teaching ecological economics; and the benefits of sufficiency?
- from Corporate Hegemony to Distributed Ownership and Increased Equality especially for women?
- from *Population Expansion* to *Stabilisation and Decline* to adapt the Machine World to the Natural World?
- from *Mass Persuasion* to *Local Engagement* replacing dumbed-down media distraction with an empowered, democratically active and informed citizenry?
- from *Anthropocentric domination of Nature* to *Eco-centric understanding of Nature* seeing the natural World not as an infinite resource for creating wealth but as the reason for the source and existence of all life?

Some examples

There are many examples of environmental education initiatives such as Sustainability and Environmental Education (SEEd), a registered charity in the UK that identifies, promotes, enables and supports environmental education and education for sustainable development in the UK; the Ecoliteracy Center run by Fritjof Capra in California; the Hungarian eco-schools. Such examples need to be "scaled up" as a matter of urgency, with aggressive support from school authorities and government. Not much research has been done into their long-term impact. Unfortunately, what evidence exists for the effectiveness of eco-schools is rather disappointing. For example, a study by Boeve-de Pauw and Van Petegem (2013) of 38 eco-schools in Flanders found that eco-schools have no effect on the environmental behaviour of their students or on their preservation values, though there were some positive changes in other environmental attitudes.

Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) is recognised as a key element of quality education and a crucial enabler for sustainable development. The United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted by the global community recognize the important of education in achieving their targets by 2030. Target 4.7 of SDG 4 on education specifically addresses ESD and related approaches.

The Global Action Programme (GAP) on ESD is the follow-up programme to the Decade of ESD (2005-2014). It seeks to generate and scale-up ESD and to accelerate progress towards sustainable development. The GAP aims to contribute substantially to the 2030 agenda, through two objectives:

− Reorienting education and learning so that everyone has the opportunity to acquire the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that empower them to contribute to a sustainable future.

− Strengthening education and learning in all agendas, programmes and activities that promote sustainable development. (UNESCO, 2017)

The Foundation for Environmental Education (FEE) has members in 73 countries around the world. Its programmes promote Education for Sustainable Development and Environmental Education: Eco-Schools, LEAF and Young Reporters for the Environment programmes educate young people to cultivate a more environmentally conscious approach in their lives and its Green Key and Blue Flag initiatives are known across the world for empowering people everywhere to live sustainably and in an environmentally conscious manner.

FEE's Eco-Schools initiative encourages young people to engage in their environment by allowing them the opportunity to actively protect it. It starts in the classroom where it expands to the school and eventually fosters change in the community at large. Through this programme, young people experience a sense of achievement at being able to have a say in the environmental management policies of their schools, ultimately steering them towards certification and the prestige which comes with being awarded a Green Flag. The Eco-Schools strives to improve the environment in both the school and the local community while at the same time having a life-long positive impact on the lives of young people, their families, school staff and local authorities (FEE, 2017).

The rise and spread of these and other educational initiatives is encouraging, in the same way as the plethora of UN international conferences and related initiatives. Over five decades such initiatives, culminating in the Framework Convention on Climate Change Paris Climate Accord in December 2015 have been forthcoming. However, collective efforts to lessen the existential threats of the Anthropocene Epoch, given the speed at which these threats are developing, seem persistently to fall short. And the irony of millions of carbon-emitting conference air miles cannot be overlooked!

Conclusion

The exponential growth of computing power has given rise to the internet, a technology that, like most tools, can either benefit or damage well-being. As a retired educator I have time to sit at home and research the wealth of sources available at the touch of the keyboard on my computer that allow me to understand and then share via the www.case4all.org website the nature and threats of the Anthropocene Epoch.

Educational leaders have a special role to play in UNDERSTANDING-SHARING-ACTING to make scientific and social realities clear to a wider inter-generational audience. The acronym U-S-A is an appropriate acronym, given the maladaptive role and leadership of that country! It is the next generation that will bear the weight of the misfit between the Machine World and the planet's carrying capacity deficit that the post-war generation has created.

My own life has spanned the most benign era of human history - an age of plenty and peace for most of the burgeoning human population. As I reach the end of my professional life as an educator and scholar, I hope that my younger colleagues in ENIRDELM and across the educational system will

make the matters raised in this paper an urgent priority. I will continue to build and share the case4all (Community Action for Spaceship Earth) website with its selected resources and commentaries to this end. This may be the most significant outcome of my 27 years of voluntary support for the ENIRDELM professional network.

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On the Immeasurable Dimensions of Development at School

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Abstract

The complex machinery of the educational system produces a predefined type of education, knowledge, and students. The system is dominated by the ostensibly "natural" combination of (personal) development and (measurable) values. By making use of tools modelling the measurable effects of teaching, school produces graduates viewed as objects that can easily be classified with reference to several scales sanctioned in the given field of education. Those graduates are motivated to learn and develop by external, measurable factors. Consequently school produces "useful" knowledge and "useful" individuals who make use of that knowledge. This is one of the consequences of the present-day social-economic mechanisms, which provide for the freedom of management (of the student's body, mind and time), create an urge to increase productivity (i.e. teaching results) and to discipline students with future profits in mind (all the value of the educational process lies in the students' future careers).

We are convinced that the link between student development and values – most of all, systems of measurable values, based all too often on scales quite external to individual development) – ought to be questioned. In our teaching practice we recommend a remodelling of didactic tools, which makes it possible to replace measurable with non-measurable values, the latter being more closely connected with internal motivation stimuli. Tools applied in education ought to allow students to internalise the belief that development is a value in itself, that the process of acquiring knowledge is an adventure and provides benefits that need not be expressed in the form of a table of measurable values external to that process. For this transformation to take place, the space of the unexpected – one of the dimensions of school education – needs to be left permanently open, and the school ought to take consistent institutional steps in the form of withdrawing from power, a reconfiguration of the model of educational leadership and of relations between the teacher-figure and the concept of authority (which involves overcoming teachers' fear of the loss of authority).

Keywords: school development; non-measurable values; the space of the unexpected; withdrawal from power; dialogue; individuation.

School's principal objective is to support each student's individual, personal development. One should carefully monitor the ways this task is carried out. This should not be done, however, as if the student and the school were two independent entities, to be examined separately. There are no students without school, and vice versa. School and students are inextricably correlated within the educational system. What is more – that system, which could also be referred to as the field of education[2], is in fact a complex, elaborate machinery which produces a specific type of education and schools, specific forms of knowledge and a narrowly defined type of students. Consequently, the system also produces specifically predefined types of individuals, persons and citizens.

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[1] No Bell Education Centre, Poland.

[2] The concept of a "field of education" refers here to two directions of the system's activity in its formative aspect: education understood as teaching and education as the formation of people, of human subjects, as well as of a certain model of knowledge.

1.1. Two types of schools: Type 1. The traditional school

Roughly speaking, there are two types of schools. The first one – which we will call **traditional school** – can well be illustrated by this well-known description from Gombrowicz's *Ferdydurke*:

"(...) the teacher appeared on the podium. (…) he clenched his mouth shut, as if to hold back some feeling – and crossed his legs. Then he sighed and tried to speak, but the noise burst out with redoubled force. Everyone was shouting (…). The teacher looked at the class, adjusted his shirt cuffs, contracted his lips, opened his mouth and closed it again. The students screamed. The teacher's face crinkled up; he grimaced, examined his cuffs, drummed his fingers on the table, thought about something distant. He took out his watch, placed it on the pulpit, sighed, held back some feeling again (or perhaps just swallowed hard), summoned his energy for a longer while, and finally banged the register on the pulpit, shouting:
"Enough of this! Calm down! The lesson has started."
Then the whole class (…) as one man suddenly expressed an extremely urgent need to visit the toilet.
The teacher, popularly called Paleface because of his particularly unhealthy, sallow skin, smiled sourly.
"Enough!" he cried, automatically, "Let you go?! So your souls long after Paradise, don't they? Why then does nobody let me go? Why do I have to sit here? Stay where you are, no one will leave this room. (…) And if you say one word more, I will question you at the blackboard!"
At this point, no fewer than seven students presented written confirmation that due to one or another ailment they had been unable to prepare for the lesson. Apart from these seven, four declared they had splitting headache, one broke out in a rash, and one went into convulsions.
"Oh, I see," said Paleface enviously. "Why can't I get a certificate that for reasons beyond my control I have been unable to prepare the lesson? Why can't I have convulsions? Why, I ask you, do I have to sit here day after day, every day except Sundays? Off with you (…) imagine what we would be in for if the headmaster caught us like this."
He shuddered and looked insecurely at the door, evidently scared out of his wits.
"And what if the school inspector caught us red-handed? Gentlemen, I warn you, the inspector is here at our school! Yes! I warn you! This is no time for fooling around!" he whined in fear. "We have to organise ourselves at once in the face of higher authority."
(…) "What day is it today?" He asked sternly, looking into the syllabus. "Oh, yes. >>Explain to the students why Słowacki commands our love and admiration<< So, gentlemen, I am now going to recite the whole lesson aloud to you, and then you will recite yours. Silence!" he yelled and (…), looking furtively into the appropriate handbook, he contracted his lips, sighed, held back some feeling, and began to recite…" (Gombrowicz, 1986, pp. 40-48).

The so-called "traditional school" is an institution hierarchically organised and ordered on many levels. It is also a space of largely depressive educational experience. As in Paleface's class, there is a constant struggle for power, for domination, brutal wrestling for the right to take the floor, for the freedom to express oneself. This struggle is underpinned by the personal weakness of all its participants. The teachers are neurotic and permanently on the brink of a nervous breakdown, while the students are controlled from above, and the role of someone inferior and immature is imposed on them (Gombrowicz uses the untranslatable term *upupienie*). They are treated as objects rather than subjects. The organisation of space is psychotic[3], while the repetitive character of the teaching model

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[3] This is precisely how Jacques Lacan characterised psychosis – as a mechanism that encloses (a psychotic person) in the labyrinth of his or her own so-called "positive" symptoms and representations. A psychotic person recreates the world from scratch in accordance with his or her own mental phenomena, independently of the external world (Lacan 2014, pp. 84-85, 161-162).

(unified and standardised in terms of politics and outlook) has a neurotic quality[4]. The strictly defined scope of prescribed knowledge is evaluated in advance not so much in accordance with practical norms of everyday life (*useful* or *useless*), but in terms of world view, morality and politics (*important – unimportant*, *good – evil*). The stiff framework of the teaching syllabuses precisely delineates the boundaries within which the teacher's educational work and the students' cognitive activity are to be contained. The teacher knows what he or she will do – not just tomorrow or next week, but for many months ahead. It is also clear what the students will do: they will recite, do homework, and revise. This kind of school is a traumatic space, all of whose users are on the verge of either murder or suicide – which boils down to pretty much the same thing.

1.1.1. Mechanisms of control and production

The educational mechanisms so grotesquely depicted in Gombrowicz's novel, including hierarchical order and the constant demonstrations of power, the regime of controlled repetitiveness and the precise scale of measurable, countable values – all these continue to function in traditional-type schools also today.

The currently predominant educational system is dominated by the – ostensibly natural – coupling of (personal) development with (measurable) value. School uses a wide palette of tools which model the measurable effects of teaching, and so it produces graduates who can easily be classified and who demonstrate unambiguous qualities which can be measured using several scales and normative criteria approved of in the field of education. Those measurable qualities add up to form the standard profile of a graduate. Numerical assessment, measurable and tangible teaching results, scoring systems – all this contributes to the perpetuation of this teaching paradigm, according to which the effects of knowledge absorbed in the process of school education are to be *measurable*. The field of education thus forms a kind of closed circuit or vicious circle: It produces graduates by means of educational tools calibrated using external scales of measurable qualities. In order to make effort, to develop and learn, those graduates are motivated by precisely the same external, measurable factors in the light of which they have been assessed. Consequently, those graduates will later sanction and embrace the same kind of accountancy-type system of universal exchange of knowledge and skills for definite profits. They have been taught to consider only benefits related to money, professional status and their place in the social hierarchy. Continual mental and emotional self-development and personal happiness are not necessarily considered by such persons as values at all.

This is quite obviously one of the consequences of the contemporary social-economic mechanisms., which entail, among others, the freedom to manage resources (for instance, of the student's mind, body and time), the focus on increased productivity (in this case – the teaching effects) and on minimalizing costs; the students' submissive attitude, defined by school regulations; and disciplining students with future profits in mind (since the whole value of the educational process lies in their future careers). It should be emphasised that even when the approach to students has been individualised, the aim of this individualisation is to analyse and assess the child's predispositions and abilities with a view to choosing the best way of directing the students toward their future places in the social structure, and supporting them in the choice of their professions. This kind of educational system is essentially based on indirect exploitation of children with future profits in mind (by which I mean both profits to themselves and, for example, to the state).

In a traditional school, all power resides unequivocally with the school institution. Such a school is a complicated system of institutional control, which upholds and reinforces the vertical social hierarchy: the ministry of education (that is, the central state authority) delegates the boards of education to supervise the school administration, which in turn manages the work of the teaching

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[4] Lacan stressed that neurosis is characterised first and foremost by compulsive repetition. A neurotic person aims to recreate the well-known, familiar world, and becomes enclosed in the space of the same (Lacan 2014, pp. 84-85, 161).

personnel, and the teachers in their turn control the students. This system finds its confirmation in a number of solutions, such as the organisation of school space and its semantic dimension, which determines the particular type of social relations promoted at school. The teacher appears as the individual who dominates a group of students, who are not viewed as individuals or persons. Teachers have their separate autonomous space, in the form of the teacher's desk, situated at the front and facing the students, sometimes placed on a higher level than the students' desks. This implies one-way vertical lecture-type communication, and determines the ways in which teachers conduct their lessons. Space organisation reinforces the school's social structure. The school desk itself looks back to medieval monastic and later Jesuit schools and is both an expression and one of the pillars of exclusively vertical interpersonal relations[5]. Classroom space transmits and instils in students the desired social-political attitudes and makes them approach interpersonal relations in the expected manner. The school desk – this indispensable element of school infrastructure – proves in fact to be a pernicious fetish of vertical social structures originating in the Middle Ages.

1.2. Two types of schools: Type 2. School as the space of the unexpected

There are ways to escape from this kind of traditional school. In Paleface's lessons, the bored students make angling rods out of their hair and catch fish in their inkwells. The ink is needed to learn calligraphy – the skill of correct handwriting, of putting down what the teacher recites, or writing out the prescribed homework. This is one of the necessary conditions of learning conceived as repetition or mere copying. But the inkwell may easily topple and the ink will spill out, producing a blot. The shape of the blot cannot be predicted, nor can we foresee whether it will leak through the paper onto the desk top or smudge the school uniform. Nobody knows what will come out of it. And it is precisely this "nobody knows" – **operating in the space of the unexpected** – that is the main point of our paper. What we postulate is that the inkwells ought to be toppled, that the school formed by Pimkos and Palefaces ought to be toppled in favour of a non-standard, innovative, creative, slightly disorderly school which operates in the domain of the unexpected, as did Jan Brzechwa's Academy of Mr Kleks (in English "Mr Blot"), which one of his pupils, Adaś Niezgódka, described in the following words:

> *Most importantly, nobody knows what Mr Kleks has in store for us for the given day, and, secondly, everything that we learn is hugely interesting and a lot of fun.*
> *"Remember, boys," said Mr Kleks to us at the very start* (…). *I am not going to teach you the multiplication table, grammar or calligraphy, or any of those subjects that are usually taught at schools. All I'm going to do is open your heads and pour a little oil into them* (Brzechwa 1956, pp. 36-37).

After these words, Mr Kleks holds a blotography lesson[6], followed by letter spinning[7] and a visit to the sick furniture clinic, where they learn how to treat sick objects. During the geography lesson, they kick a huge globe in the football pitch, calling out the names of countries that their feet came in contact with.

What is meant here is education that supports creativity, focusing on the creative process itself, and not just on its products (the accumulated knowledge and the graduate as its recipient) or on its

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[5] Michel Foucault claimed that similar disciplining techniques and similar production procedures also determine such institutions as prison, monastery, Jesuit college, military academy and school understood as an educational-formative institution (Foucault 1998, pp. 137-157).
[6] "Blotography consists in producing several large ink blots on paper, which is then folded in half, so that the blots spread on the paper and assume the shapes of various characters, animals and figures. Some of these extended blots form complete pictures, to which we then add appropriate captions or stories, invented by Mr Kleks. I suppose Mr Kleks himself may have been born out of one such ink blot, and this is where his name comes from." (Brzechwa, 1956, p. 37), translated by T. Zymer.
[7] "You must surely have noticed that letters printed on the pages of books form long black threads interwoven in various manner. Mr Kleks taught us how to disentangle those threads, combine the short sections into one long thread and then spool it in." (Brzechwa, 1956, pp. 37-38), translated by T. Zymer.

final effect (the assessment). This new kind of education does not focus on the imitative and the arithmetically controlled. We claim that **the link between human development and external value ought to be 'denaturalised', questioned** – or at least the link between child development and **systems of measurable values**, which all too frequently belong to scales quite extraneous to personal growth and to the acquisition of knowledge. We reject arithmetic as a source of ideas that regulate progress assessment models at school. Based on our own educational practice at No Bell School in Konstancin-Jeziorna (near Warsaw), we recommend a remodelling of these tools and a replacement of measurable values in child development and education with ones that can be classified as **immeasurable**. Immeasurable values are closer in their structure and character to internal motivational directives, and they frequently work very well without any smooth scale of calculable benefits. Tools used in school education should be selected in such a way as to reassure students in their internal, personal conviction that development can be a value in itself; that the process of knowledge acquisition is an adventure in its own right and offers benefits that have no use for external scales of tradeable values (in the form of future income or social status). One way to achieve this internalisation of values is to remain **permanently open to the space of the unexpected** as one of the dimensions of school education. Another is – to **combine knowledge and learning with the practice of daily life**. Finally, this state can be achieved through **the school institution's consistent gestures of withdrawal from power** in all the areas where school exercises its power. This entails a **reconfiguration of the model of educational power** (including the area of school management) as well as a remodelling of the relations between the teacher figure and the idea of authority (by working with teachers and helping them overcome their fear of apparently losing their authority once they step down from their dominant position). In a nutshell, what we postulate as the main theses of this paper are the following:

1. Firstly, withdrawal from power and the dissemination of power as a principle that inspires all school activity;
2. Secondly, immeasurable values as the necessary target of school education.

A school that follows these two directives already belongs to **the second type, non-traditional**, which we are now going to discuss in more detail.

2. Supporting the process of individuation

While modelling the mechanisms and tools of education, we must take into account the processes of the formation of individuality as the foundation of a human person's identity. Individuality is not something given or ready-made. Being a subject or person is a task we are entrusted with. As persons, we both produce ourselves and are being produced. One should not view individuality as something static and immutable. **School contributes to the process of individuation, and produces specific forms of subjectivity. It turns individuals into human subjects, and these subjects – into persons.** Subjectivity is the result of applying specific tools, actions and classifications. Education is a largely ideological process, by which we mean not just the transmitted message and the internalisation of specific content or values, but, most importantly – the reproduction of clearly defined ideologems. School in fact copies the rules of the existing ideological, social and cultural order (Archacka, 2017, pp. 21-22). Naturally, the individual development of a human person, its predispositions, instincts and needs have to be taken into consideration in this process. Nevertheless, school all too frequently applies mechanisms by which students – rather than forming their own subjectivity – merely copy ready-made, given models of identity instilled in them by the school institution and its functionaries (the teachers). This is done by means of fixed cultural patterns, disciplining procedures, promoted and disseminated patterns of behaviour, ideas, plots and historical figures serving as role models, as well as the values that school passes down. All this modelling boils down to various forms of repetitiveness. This creates the risk of losing individuality rather than developing it successfully. In a traditional school

as we see it, the student risks being placed in the role of a passive recipient of information, a receptacle for knowledge of the "what"-type, but unable to apply critical meta-reflection (knowledge of the "how"-type). The student is perceived as a consumer – artificially and arbitrarily formed on the basis of an abstract average type, standardised with regard to ways of thinking and the choices made (Stiegler, 2008).

"Repetitiveness" is one of the key mechanisms that propel the school institution[8]. School is a regime of controlled repetitiveness and fixed routines, applied to lessons, accepted solutions and behaviour, as well as school rituals. Traditional school allows one to make choices only within strictly defined boundaries mapped out by official core curricula, reading lists imposed by the educational authorities, by the scope of material contained in course books, the choice of tasks, of accepted solutions and preferred answers (that is, those that can be found in answer keys).

Course books are one of the tools of the regime of repetitiveness.[9] Each course book is always an expression of the vested interests (social, economic, political or ideological) that its authors or their employers have. The employers are often the ministry (the central government) or boards of education. Course books may also represent the interests of one particular author, or of the teacher who selects them from among publications available on the market. The course book is a channel that safeguards the future interests of the party that imposes the course book. Every course book is an instrument (and a weapon) of protecting someone's interests and promoting their world view. Interestingly, the ideological patron of each course book can quite easily be identified, but the intended reader of that course book – namely, the average statistical student – is simply a non-existent entity. It is not just the question of every student being different. Quite simply, education ought to open up to each student an infinite spectrum of possible individuations or directions of development. What the course book does instead is hamper the personalisation and individualisation of the teaching and learning process. The course book also promotes and establishes automated reactions: how much needs to be swotted up; what the deadline is; how to prepare for and pass the tests, and then quickly forget. What we therefore **postulate** is that the teacher needs to **abandon course books** as a standardised canon of compulsory and "executed" knowledge – **in favour of materials prepared by the teacher for each individual lesson, specifically for the given group of students that the teacher knows and to whom he or she adjusts the contents, handouts and methodology of the whole course**.

The paradigm that underlies the currently predominant field of education takes for granted and enforces a standardisation and unification of all the elements situated in that field. What it means is that the same is repeated over and over again inside a closed cylinder of fixed content reproduction (Archacka, 2017, p. 24). This situation (re-)constructs a predicable Sameness. But the safety and comfort of such repetition, of this repetitiveness – prove illusory. The danger of such a situation was emphasised already by Horkheimer, who wrote that the progressive "formalisation of reason is an intellectual reflection of mechanised methods of production" (Horkheimer, 2007, p. 122), which leads to a reduction of thinking and mental work. As Horkheimer and Adorno wrote in their study "Thought is reified as an autonomous automatic process, aping the machine it has itself produced, so that it can finally be replaced by the machine" (…) Mathematical procedure became a kind of ritual of thought" (Horkheimer, Adorno, 2002, p. 19). As a result of these processes, the person is deprived of individuation and its thinking begins to resemble a production process managed and exploited in marketing terms, whose results have been predetermined (Stiegler, 2017, pp. 159-164). This mechanisation of thinking is coupled with the cult of number and measurability cultivated in traditional schools, which leads to a kind of educational accountancy. The person of the student, caught up in the gears of the school machine, is fitted into various scales and measures of knowledge

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[8] This is the mechanism that is mostly (though not exclusively) responsible for the neurotic character of school education that we highlighted earlier in this article.

[9] What we mean is "repetitiveness", not "repetition". We consciously depart from traditional terminology applied to obsessions and phobias, or – medically speaking – to the obsessive-compulsive disorder, OCD. What we mean, therefore, is a meta-level of the educational system which generates gestures of institutional repetitiveness.

acquisition, personal development and civic education. In this way, the person of the student becomes a mere link in a chain of socialisation hardened by means of discipline and instruments for assessing progress (that is, by marks given for individual subjects as well as for school conduct), enclosed in social structures sanctioned by the school institution (school hierarchies and types of interpersonal relations) as well as in precisely delimited disciplines of learning (the clearly separated school subjects).

Instead, school ought to operate within multiple contexts of knowledge, in an open field in which the artificial separation of individual subjects or disciplines of knowledge usually proves unnecessary. Students will benefit from a more flexible treatment of the boundaries of school subjects, because they will be able to take advantage of their natural creativity and inventiveness. They will notice the intersections of many disciplines of knowledge and will learn to move freely between them. This is one of the ways in which we can deal with the age-old educational trap resulting from a strict separation of the sciences from the humanities, which leads to the production of either humanists unable to use basic arithmetic or science adepts quite insensitive to the rhythm of speech or to visual stimuli. What is more, a graduate educated and shaped in this way will leave the school space at one point will have to learn to function in an everyday reality in which such clear-cut divisions between disciplines of knowledge simply do not work. The graduates will be forced to learn to use the acquired information and various skills in a different way, virtually from scratch, though school could teach them this from the very start.

From our perspective, traditional school operates in the domain of an infinite number of possible repetitions, in the space of the predictable. It is the administration of the school, not the student, that gains the greatest advantage from the precession of this system. By controlling the space in which teaching and learning take place, the institution guarantees power and domination to itself.

3. Withdrawal from power

The field of education should therefore be remodelled in such a way as to make possible the introduction of institutional gestures aiming at the opposite of what has been described above (as features of the so-called traditional school). The pivot of all school activity, and the key methodological directive for a non-traditional school, is **to withdraw from power, consistently and on all levels – from institutional, personal and symbolic power**. If this directive is carried out, we **create a space of the unexpected**, in the form of gaps or points of indeterminacy in the school institution. Everything that is unplanned and not necessarily regulated by school and the teachers – can take place in those gaps. They provide the space for ideas and projects that go beyond the limits traditionally set by the strictly defined school subjects, by school structure and the regulations that apply to the school community.

What is meant here is not absolute freedom (as in the case of the so-called "democratic schools"), but also – not the order, discipline and vertical hierarchy in which the teacher usurps the role of a sovereign ruler and controller, while the students become passive and submissive repositories of institutionally transmitted knowledge (as it happens in traditional schools, which we have portrayed here with some deliberate exaggeration as a kind of penal colony). Rather than opting for either of these two extremes, we choose **the middle way**. On the one hand, we preserve the basic institutional tenets and mechanisms that make up the school construct. On the other, we do our best to weaken and topple both the traditional hierarchies and any new ones that may crop up in everyday practice.

Withdrawal from power is a key directive for school organisation and methodology (for the techniques of teaching and educating). Withdrawal from power makes it possible to **open the space of the unexpected**. It is in those gaps (seemingly unstable, from the point of view of the school institution) that we frequently observe explosions of creative energy, of creativity not necessarily

contained within the inflexible framework defined by such institutions as, for instance, the state boards of education.

Taking advantage of the potential of chaos, we try to base our activity on fluid norms and unstable schemes. Chaos, fluidity and instability are like open locks that let out creative energy and make it possible for less formal, more direct interpersonal relations to develop. The fundamental condition for the cultivation of such relations, the realm in which they flourish – is dialogue as a standard of communication and as the foundation on which school community is based.

Extremely important for us are **well-balanced relations** between students, teachers, the management and other members of the school personnel. 'Well-balanced' means – resulting from dialogue as the fundamental model of co-existence at school, a model that gives equal status to all its participants as partners and subjects of this dialogue (Schaeffer 1995). Dialogue is understood here first and foremost as two-way training in critical thinking. One of its consequences for school life is that relations between students, as well as students and the school staff, become more authentic and direct. With dialogue as the dominant model of communication, **personal relations become more important than the institution, hierarchy or power**. As part of this change, social structures at school are transformed from vertical to more horizontal, while all hierarchies are either being systemically challenged or simply prove too weak to hold out. At No Bell it specifically manifests itself in the frequent and direct accessibility to students of school personnel (regardless of level or function). The director and her deputy, the teachers and the non-teaching staff – are all there at hand. Neither the administrators nor the school psychologists are inaccessible figures "residing" in their study and only occasionally glimpsed in the school hall. What counts is the ease (and directness, naturally as far as social norms and personal culture permit) of interpersonal communication, everyone's with everyone else. This eliminates the presence of taboo subjects which would be shunned as a principle for reasons having to do with world view, morality or any other ideological considerations. What also needs to be reconsidered is the requirement always to remain serious – which is all too frequently viewed as the only acceptable type of student behaviour and communication with the school staff (and vice versa). Laughter, humour and distance (toward oneself, the institution and the presented content) can hardly be overestimated as indispensable elements of school life. They support the development of the critical faculty, autonomous judgment and the attitude of methodical doubt in students. We also believe teachers should be able to give up their dominant position of authority, the status of bronze statues that embody knowledge, institution, and thus also power. A teacher should not be afraid to make mistakes, to admit to his or her faults, weaknesses and uncertainties. A teacher is never an ideal – because there are no ideal humans. A teacher is simply an (adult) person among other persons (children), who are just as imperfect as he or she is, likewise grappling with their weaknesses, but also with the fear of their failures being ridiculed and their imperfect knowledge exposed. Such fear can be an obstacle to coping with and managing one's strong and weak points, assets and drawbacks. It is also an attitude that makes dialogue with students difficult (conceived as possibly open and sincere communication). Interpersonal relations modelled on dialogue as their pivot and foundation can help reorganise the collective (and therefore also political) meanings of the entire school community.

With this (communicative, dialogue-centred model) as our point of departure, we can now **redefine the concept of a lesson**, which will henceforth be understood as a meeting of many persons based on personal relations, which make possible joint action, exchange of experiences and ways of thinking, as well as a cognitive adventure shared both by the students and their teacher.

For everyone to learn these forms of co-operation, emotional intelligence ought to be included in all school timetables as an indispensable subject in its own right. Emotional intelligence is the foundation of many social skills; it helps to cope with crisis situations, to learn to accept oneself and others; it enhances creativity and motivation (Tomczyk, 2014, p. 19). A school that focuses on emotional intelligence and the promotion of creativity and imagination, of feeling in charge and

developing empathy – considerably increases its chances to educate graduates whose profiles will cater not only to the current needs of the labour market, but who will first and foremost become conscious citizens, capable of critical thinking – members of (local or wider) communities, citizens of the world (Aleksandrowicz-Obzejta, Górecka, 2016; Oleś, 1998).

Students are the co-hosts of the school they attend. They are members of a community consisting, apart from them, also of teachers and other personnel. Students as critically thinking subjects are of equal status to those other community members. **A school that systemically withdraws from power** in various areas traditionally controlled by its institution – **promotes inclusive citizenship**. Students who think independently and critically become partners for the teacher in the school dialogue – which is none other than simply democratic participation (Nussbaum, 2016, pp. 29-43).

Systemic withdrawal from power entails, among others, giving up the field of activity to the students, the lasting establishment of students as subjects, which also results in entrusting students with responsibility: for learning, for their creative choices and for their own social functioning.[10] Systemic withdrawal from power manifests itself, among others, in the choice and construction of school subjects and the architecture of school timetables, in the organisation of school space – its social-political semantics and architecture (Banaszewska, Gorczyca, Górecka, 2017).

Withdrawal from symbolic power gives students a greater than traditional chance for self-expression and for manifestation of what is important to them. They are given more power in the use of language as well as in various symbolic registers. This symbolic withdrawal manifests itself, among others, in the admitted types of interpersonal relations, forms of communication, the characteristics of school festivities and rituals.[11]

Another aspect of institutional withdrawal is the **withdrawal from personal power**. It enables closer personal relations to develop. The teacher, student, school head, meet in dialogue space and talk to each other as persons or human beings, not as functionaries. In the long run, it is the interpersonal relations that make up every community – also the school community (Schaeffer, 1984).

4. Shared responsibility

Withdrawal from power (systemic and personal) also results in **shared responsibility for education**. "Flattening" the institutional and social hierarchies that form at school (between students, students and teachers, teachers themselves, as well as between these groups and the school administration) – can and should be coupled with entrusting students with some degree of responsibility and decision-making power (actually not only the students, but also other members of the school community who have no such powers in traditional schools). The space of possibilities which opens up in this way may include the school administration (e.g. the directors and managers) as well as coordinators, form teachers, teachers of individual subjects, the non-teaching personnel, and the students themselves. Each of these groups gains influence on (and bears shared responsibility for) specific aspects of school functioning:

- the overall organisation of the school timetable (subject teachers, coordinators, directors),
- the form and content of individual timetables (students, tutors, form teachers),
- classroom space organisation (students, subject teachers, form teachers, directors),
- ways of teaching / being taught (students, subject teachers, directors).

What is important is for the **shared educational responsibility** to be clearly **divided and accepted** at the same time, so that it is taken up (to a varied degree) by all the co-creators and co-hosts

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[10] This also supports the culture of individual protest. (Nussbaum 2016, p. 72).
[11] At No Bell it is the teachers and parents who perform on the stage for the students and organise spectacles. School rituals do not have repeatable content.

of the school, by all the members and co-creators of the school community. Its members must develop a sense of responsibility for the ways, contents and effects of teaching.

Withdrawal from power, combined with **shared responsibility for education** is one of the ways to escape from the school panopticon (whose institutional source, claims Foucault, is in every case prison discipline (Foucault, 1998, p. 137 and ff.) Along with the already mentioned **abandonment of clearly measurable and calculable scores and assessment scales** (such as summary scales expressed in terms of letters, numbers or digits), these ingredients make up one of the recipes for release from the traditional school model.

At No Bell, we hope to educate graduates who will be conscious of themselves as well as of the problems and demands they will face in the modern world. In our lesson plan, we include – apart from traditional subjects – also emotional intelligence classes and the so-called mindfulness training, as well as conscious citizenship projects. Graduates do not need ready-made recipes for living. They should learn to notice and observe the most subtle signals that come from the external world, and take them into account. They should be able to determine their own lives so as to make them more authentic, fuller and self-aware.

The rejection of the traditional school format also means constant exploration. The school we try to create may look from the outside like Alice's Mad Tea Party, with Mr Kleks as the master of ceremonies. We attempt to design such spaces of educational experience that are fuelled by the energy of institutionally uncontrolled gaps – **the space of the unexpected**. This can only be done, however, if we give up the measurable dimensions of education and reject arithmetic as the only form of student assessment. Teaching and learning are *not* about the measurable results and marks. It is irrelevant to ask: " how tall is Alice?" when she is in fact always taller or shorter than herself. What is important is how much this experience opens her head or mind – if we may borrow this expression from Mr Kleks. A clear classification of school subjects and disciplines of knowledge is also not what we aim for. Rather, students must learn to move freely between various disciplines and subjects. Knowledge is, after all, a tool to make our lives fuller and deeper, and not – an end in itself.

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Creating a collaborative school culture to ensure the whole school development. Why it is important and why it's not easy?

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Abstract

Development is the key value in educational context, that is why various steps are taken to ensure it. Leaders can use a school culture as a tool to influence and lead by establishing coordination among employees, having a direct impact on student achievement.

The paper consists of two main parts. In the first part, I reflect on the issue of collaborative school culture and analyze why it is needed and how it contributes to the development of school community members and the whole school. Culture is the underground stream of norms, values, beliefs, and rituals that has built up over time as people work together, solve problems, and confront challenges (Peterson & Deal, 1998). As Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) note "in fact, the term 'collaborative culture' is shorthand for all the good things that schools should be doing. Helps, support, trust, openness, collective reflection, and collective efficacy are at the heart of a collaborative culture" (p. 51).

In the second part of my article, I try to answer the question why creating a collaborative school culture is not an easy task. I present some reflections based on the literature review and based on own research experiences in this area. My reflections are structured around the unique aspects of a collaborative school culture determined by Gruenert (1998) such as collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration and support, learning partnership, professional development and unity of purpose. The conclusion is that creation a collaborative school culture is a challenge but it is worth taking.

Keywords: school culture, collaboration, collaborative school culture, leadership, school principal.

> *"If you want to go fast, go alone.*
> *If you want to go far, go together"*
> African proverb

Introduction

The issue of collaboration is noted in pedagogical thought as a significant form of interaction and the motive of human action. Individual human development cannot really happen without social interaction. Therefore, striving for collaboration in school should not be considered as a special innovation. However, although so much has been already written about collaboration as well as about why it is important and needed, it's still not as easy as it might seem to achieve it.

The paper is structured around the school culture area, aimed at stimulating the discussion of the importance of authentic collaboration of school community members. The paper consists of two main parts. The first part gives the overall orientation in the collaborative school culture issues. In the second part of this paper, I discuss some difficulties related to creation a collaborative school culture. This article is written in review style essay. I present some reflections based on the review of literature and based on own research experiences in this area.

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1. Why creating a collaborative school culture is important?

In order to answer this question, I refer to the explanation of the sub-topics of the undertaken subject. This way, the theoretical and empirical basis will be outlined.

1.1. Collaboration – what does it really mean?

In the beginning, it is required to explain the use of terms that appear in this context and which are sometimes treated synonymically, though their meaning is not the same. It is about terms like collaboration, cooperation, coaction. These words are often used interchangeably, but they represent fundamentally different ways of contributing to a group and each comes with its own dynamics and power structures that shape groups in different ways.

The broadest term is coaction. Karolczak-Biernacka (1987) defined coaction as the participation of certain actors in the task situation. It means that actors constitute the task situation. However, participation in task situation is without exposing the character of the mutual relations between the participants of the situation. The interaction includes such types of activities as collaboration, cooperation and competition.

Cooperation is accomplished by the division of labor among participants as an activity where each person is responsible for solving a portion of the problem. When cooperating, people perform together (co-operate) while working on selfish yet common goals.

Collaboration means coordinated, synchronous activity that is the result of a continued attempt to construct and maintain a shared conception of a problem. When collaborating, people work together (co-labor) on a single shared goal. Like an orchestra[2] which follows a script everyone has agreed upon and each musician plays their part not for its own sake but to help make something bigger. Collaboration does not happen naturally, it takes commitment, time, trust and a sense of mission.

The last kind of interaction in task situation is competition which can be opposed to collaboration. It is understood as a kind of joint action, which consists in striving the actors for better and better results, to be superior, to be better than the others. If it improves skills and engages more in activities, we can say it as healthy. Hence, competition can be a drive, but it can also destroy. Disadvantages of competition include physical exhaustion or loss of self-confidence. Rivalry can also bring conflicts. That's why not always competing with others brings the desired result (Karolczak-Biernacka, 1987).

Each of the above discussed activities has some advantages and limitations. However, from the point of view of the school environment and development of the whole school community, collaboration seems to be the most valuable. "(…) Education is a process in which a community of learning people is reacted due to involvement of mind, emotions, past experiences, sensitivity to conditions or other people, with reference to the values accepted by a given community at the same time" (Mazurkiewicz, 2014, p. 31-32). Dorczak (2014) states that the value of collaboration means not only putting stress on team work as it is in most theories of leadership valuing group or team work. It means creation of such organizational environment of school that allows for active involvement of all students and staff in all possible activities that take place in schools. Which in turn enables the individual human development of students and of all others involved in educational process.

Participation in a task situation requires compliance with certain norms and standards. Coaction - no matter in which form of interaction - adopts a certain culture. So now, I will go to the issue of school culture.

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[2] Comparing the school to the orchestra is a popular and accurate metaphor (see Tuohy, 2002).

1.2. School culture as a key category in educational research

Every organization has its culture, history and basis of established assumptions and expectations that shape it. Schein (1985) sees organizational culture as a shared set of norms, values, beliefs and assumptions which influence the way members look at the world. The approach of organizational culture according to the Schein is treated as a classic and basic approach.

The school is a special type of social organization that is needed by the society to achieve specific educational goals (see i.e.: Schultz, 1993; Tłuściak-Deliowska, Dernowska & Strutyńska, 2014; Dernowska & Tłuściak-Deliowska, 2015). Schools are subject to certain processes and regularities, as are all other organizations. School as an organization is a distinct system of operation with a clearly defined purpose, division of labor between the participants of the organization, communication between elements of a certain degree of formalization and hierarchy of authority. Like many other organizations, schools have their own culture and school cultures differ.

Czerepaniak-Walczak (2015) states that culture is a key category in research 'on' education and 'in' education. Knowing its content and forms of existence makes it possible to identify and understand the mechanisms of educational institutions functioning and, consequently, to develop and disseminate good practices (p. 85). However, there is no universal definition of school culture. Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) refer different ways of capturing of school culture such as comparing it to a social glue that holds people together, the patterns of behavior that distinguish 'us' from 'them' or explanation school culture as 'the way we do things around here' and many others (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015, p. 6-7). Looking for common points in a multitude of definitions it could be stated that school culture can be defined as a set of values, norms, ways of thinking and behavior in an educational institution, which is a pattern of behavior of its members, as a result of long-term improvement of forms and methods of actions, quality and work discipline. In this way, a clear picture of the school organization and its members is created.

1.3. What is collaborative school culture?

The issue of collaborative school culture has been addressed by researchers for a long time. Many researchers and practitioners state that collaborative school culture makes an important contribution to both the success of school improvement process and the effectiveness of school (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015; Campo, 1993; Fullan, 1992; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Little; 1982). Therefore, we should consider what the collaborative school culture really is, what are its dimensions and strategies for achieving it.

Kohm and Nance (2009) when writing about creating collaborative culture, they characterize it as follows. In collaborative culture, teachers exercise creative leadership together and take responsibility for helping all students learn. They also suggest that when teachers have opportunities to collaborate, their energy, creative thinking, efficiency and goodwill increase. In collaborative cultures, official and unofficial information are similar and reinforce each other. Problems are discussed openly and solved collaboratively. Teachers shares ideas and support one another's effort to improve instructions.

Little (1982) defines four "critical practices" which differentiated successful schools from less successful. She included here: teacher talk about teaching practice, joint planning, teacher observation and teacher training. Fullan (1992) argues that to build collaborative work cultures, principals must concentrate on fostering vision-building, norms of collegiality that respect individuality, norms of continuous improvement, problem-coping and conflict-solution strategies, provide lifelong teacher development that involves inquiry, reflective practice (see also: Fullan and Hargreaves, 1991). As we can see, process of helping to develop collaborative work cultures is complex.

Gruenert (1998) determines six dimensions to described the collaborative school culture: (1) collaborative leadership, which points out the degree to which school leaders establish and maintain

collaborative relationships with school staff, (2) teacher collaboration, which concerns working together and shares pedagogical information (3) unity of purpose refers to the school mission and its influence on teaching, (4) professional development - dimension which encompasses all types of teachers learning to maintain current knowledge about educational practices, (5) collegial support, which includes teachers willingness to help out each other when there is a problem and (6) learning partnership refers to cooperation between teachers and parents based on common expectations towards students achievements. Each factor portrays a unique aspect of collaboration at school. Gruenert (1998), on the basis of his own research, established a significant relationship between collaborative school culture and students achievements. He notices that positive relationships between instructional leadership and school culture results in teacher collaboration, which in turn increases student learning.

Campo (1993) states that collaborative school cultures provide a climate and structure that encourage teachers to work with each other and the principal which foster school improvement and professional growth, and benefit all members of the school community.

2. Why creating a collaborative school culture is not an easy task?

The above findings confirm that creating a collaborative culture is important in the school environment. We can even say that such a statement is a truism. If so, why so many schools are still unsuccessful and toxic? Why is this culture not typical for each school? Here's where it gets tricky.

There is no simple algorithm that will show how to create step by step a collaborative school culture. There are no simple answers regarding how do to that. Moreover, as Waldron and McLeskey (2010) notice that actions taken to improve school culture vary depending on the context of a given school. Pounder (1998) notes, 'when we speak of changing schools into more collaborative organizations, what we really mean is that we want to change the nature of the relationships, or patterns of relating' (p. 29). Even under the best of circumstances, these changes are difficult to achieve and may take several years to accomplish (see also: Fullan, 2007).

In order not to dwell on the general wording, I want to consider some difficulties that school has to overcome if wants to create a collaborative school culture. My reflections are structured around the unique aspects of a school's collaborative cultures identified by Gruenert (1998). In own research, the concept of collaborative school culture and research instrument developed by Gruenert (SCS; 1998) was used (see: Tłuściak-Deliowska, Dernowska & Gruenert, 2017; Tłuściak-Deliowska, 2017; Tłuściak-Deliowska & Dernowska, 2016). Based on it, I can address and consider some difficulties within each distinguished area of collaborative school culture.

2.1. How can leaders make a difference

First factor of collaborative school culture that also appeared in the earlier part of the text, though not directly named, is collaborative leadership. Educational leadership theory and practice have a long history and an enormous amount of experiences. However, from the point of view of creating a collaborative culture, important is establishing and maintaining collaborative relationships with school staff by school leaders. The reality is that, true collaboration is hard. Collaborative leadership means giving up control to other people. It means being vulnerable. There is a need to be respect — of other people's roles, thoughts and what they bring to the table. School collaborative leaders completely value ideas of the teachers, seek input, engage staff in decision-making and trust the professional judgment of the staff (Gumuseli & Eryilmaz, 2011). Leadership - in this way understood - demonstrates that it should be associated with responsibility for creating conditions for engaging others in the leadership process and the ability to win supporters rather than with function and social position. It also means that it does not have to include formal authority, authority associated with the position (see also: Madalińska-Michalak, 2015, p. 217). However, in our educational reality,

leadership is usually identified with the role of school principal. Mazurkiewicz (2014) states that it should not be a surprise that school principals are seen today as the most important actors in the world of education (p. 27). The school principal as the creator of school culture (change) is responsible for building the "social infrastructure" of institution (Madalińska-Michalak, 2013, p. 42). Through the term of "social infrastructure" we understand the arrangement and interaction of social elements constituting an entire school institution. This type of 'groundwork' gives the possibility of collaboration based on trust and leads to changes in habits and attitudes, as well as strengthens social skills. This may be the result of the experience and may be formed in everyday school life practice. The way in which the principal behaves, as well as the leadership style that s/he follows, influences the views of the educators with regard to the prevalent work atmosphere and resultantly has an influence on the organizational climate of the school (Hoy et al., 1991).

An important body of research has been examining the role of principal in fostering collaborative culture (review of these research is presented in article: Campo, 1993). As an example, showing that the way of the school principal leadership makes a difference to the collaborative school culture, I can refer to own research (Tłuściak-Deliowska, Dernowska & Gruenert, 2017). The purpose of the study was to explore school culture in two radically different schools regarding school achievement. Both schools were similar in size, and both had a similar number of students and teachers. Both offered a wide range of extracurricular classes and activities to enable students to develop their skills and talents. There was a difference between these selected schools regarding student academic achievement, which consisted in that A - Middle School represented a high-performing school, and B - Middle School represented a low-performing school. The study employed a comparative-descriptive research design. The objectives were to investigate: (1) the teachers' perceptions of their school culture (2) the teachers' perceptions of principal behaviors and additionally (3) to determine the relationship between principals' behaviors and perceptions of their school culture by teachers. The 'School Culture Survey' (Gruenert, 1998) was used to obtain data about school culture factors. To determine the teachers' perceptions of principal's behaviors, 'The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire - Middle Level' (OCDQ-ML, Hoy et al., 1996) was used. Statistical comparisons of collaborative school culture indicated that the compared schools differed significantly in four school culture dimensions. In school A there was a culture focused on individual achievements, the competition more than cooperation, unlike the situation in B-middle school, in which collaborative school culture is strong and visible. According to principal behaviors, significant differences between compared schools were also identified. Namely, more supportive principal behaviors were typical for school B (low school performing), while restrictive principal behaviors were more common in school A (high-performing). Results indicated that principal behaviors and collaborative school culture were associated with each other. Restrictive principal behaviors, in contrast with supportive behaviors, maintain a negative relationship with the various dimensions of a collaborative school culture and thus hinder its evolution toward a more collaborative environment. Particularly, these two categories of principal behaviors were important especially when considering collaborative leadership and professional development. Principal behaviors in these areas either help or hinder. Furthermore, supportive principal behaviors were positively correlated with collegial support, which may mean that the principal behaviors constitute a model for the behaviors of others employees, and perhaps students too.

One of the difficulties with collaborative leadership includes time-consuming. It means that collaboration takes time and decision-making involves a large number of collaborators. This can turn into a slow operation, while in school in many situations the educational need is almost immediate. Furthermore, both principal and teachers may be accustomed to or would prefer that leader tell them exactly what they should do, so they know they're doing the right thing. In the situation of sharing leadership, teachers as well as principal may have the feeling that the leader does not perform his/her job, that he loses that authority. School principal is not the boss in this situation.

The implication of collaborative leadership is the collaboration between teachers. Authentic teacher collaboration means that teachers engage in constructive dialogue to build up the vision of the school. Furthermore, it brings more experienced and less experienced teachers closer together and reinforces the competence and confidence of the less experienced ones (Gumuseli & Eryilmaz, 2011). Teacher collaboration fosters a supportive professional culture, lessens teacher conflict, and provides students with schoolwide best practices. It helps decide how to improve teacher practices, styles of classroom management, improve education and professional knowledge. Teacher collaboration may be difficult when teaching styles and philosophy of teachers differ. On the other side, this can also be seen as a chance to achieve something better, chance for personal development which mean chance to widen the scope of teacher practice by incorporating multiple styles into teaching. However, it requires opening to other experiences, integrating and enriching experiential baggage, acceptance and calm analysis of constructive criticism. The next challenge connected with teacher collaboration is to find a time to explore teachers experiences and pedagogical ideas. The time for a meeting and for discussion is needed. Forms of collaboration in school are not always well thought out. It is not clear enough how precise the rules of interaction are, and how it affects the nature and value of the interaction. Therefore, teachers may not experience positive collaborative effects.

Furthermore, teacher collaboration cannot be treated as another unpleasant obligation imposed by management. Based on own research (Tłuściak-Deliowska, 2017), I can give an example of 'bad practice' that does not change the situation for better. I mean the situation where the principal and teachers see and know that they need to work together, that the relationships need to be improved, different types of training are organized to achieved it, but it does not work. It does not work because school management is not an example of good collaboration. It's about simple modeling. If management knows, but does not apply it, it creates only a 'show off' that does not change anything. The imposition of co-operation, the coercion of collaborative behavior, can lead to simulating some behaviors and disregarding potential benefits. Also, Waldron and McLeskey (2010) state that a principal's action must model and support a collaborative culture in many ways, both large and small. 'Principals who develop collaborative cultures shift from being a person who sets the goals to being a person who sets up the conditions that allow others to establish goals' (Kohm & Nance, 2009, p. 72). Teachers need to believe in the benefits of working together. It is up to the principal to enhance this belief by modeling flexible and diverse strategies. School principals who successfully support collaborative culture ensure that their active support for such a culture is obvious to all.

In addition, it should be noted that both, collaborative leadership and teacher collaboration are conditioned by individual characteristics of partners of interactions. Collaboration requires openness to the other person, suggestions for change and flexibility. Madalińska-Michalak (2015) states that the quality of interpersonal relationships at school exposes the personality of their participants, in particular their predispositions, attitudes and aspirations, professed and embodied values, but also the requirements of the tasks they face (p. 216).

2.2. Mutual trust as a basis for authentic collaborative partnership and engagement

Beneficial to collaborative school culture is collegial support. Strong and healthy collegial relationship among school teachers is regarded as an essential component of school effectiveness and teacher enhancement. Shah (2012) based on literature review, states that teacher collegiality plays a vital role in augmenting teacher professional growth and development, job satisfaction, organizational and professional commitment as well as school quality and student performance. Satisfactory interpersonal relationships in the teaching staff can help reduce tension or provide immediate help in case of professional difficulties. Hence, collegiality is seen as a key aspect of teacher professional development and a vehicle to increase teacher knowledge. However, the provision of this collegial support entails certain challenges. Some of them are the same as previously discussed,

such as individual predispositions or the imposition of collegial support as a duty or rule. Meanwhile, authentic mutual support means that teacher trust and assist each other as the work to accomplish the school tasks. Therefore, trust is a basis and is an important analytical category of social relationships (see: Czerepaniak-Walczak & Perzycka, 2013). Teachers will trust their colleagues when there is mutual understanding about personal obligations and expectations (Bryk and Schneider, 2002). When teachers view their colleagues' actions as meeting their own role expectations, they will perceive colleagues as trustworthy (see Van Maele & Van Houtte 2011; Bryk and Schneider 2002). Czerepaniak-Walczak believes that distrust and strong conviction that we can rely only on ourselves leads to loneliness and consequently to alienation and anomie (Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2006, p. 218). But one cannot impose trust on someone. It must be worked out and it takes time. Trust is always associated with the uncertainty, with certain risk someone takes in relation to the other person. Being ready to trust is a willingness to take on the risk of interdependence because of the positive expectations someone has about the future that is associated with person on the basis of different indicators such as competence, honesty, credibility, reputation, etc.

Trust is also needed in learning partnership with parents. Teacher and parents should have common expectations toward students' performance. Collaboration between school and parents seems to be, contrary to appearances, the most difficult to achieve aspect of collaborative school culture. Based on own research conducted in five middle schools aimed at determining the perception of collaborative school culture by the teachers (N=74), it could be stated that working out a learning partnership is a challenge for schools (Tłuściak-Deliowska & Dernowska, 2016). Most of the teachers (about 80%) confirmed that they inform parents about their children achievements. However, only one in three teachers admitted that the expectations of parents and teachers regarding the performance of their students are consistent, and almost half of the respondents (48.6%) do not know whether parents trust the opinions expressed by teachers. This may indicate that parent-teacher communication is one-sided and is only about giving information to parents about the results achieved by their children, and therefore the place of dialogue takes the place of the teacher's monologue. There may be several reasons for this situation. From a teacher perspective, collaboration with parents can limit such barriers as feeling no influence on the children and parents' behaviors, feeling that they don't listening; lack of space; lack of time; previous own or other teachers' experience indicating lack of effect of collaboration with parents or lack of positive parental response to the teacher's efforts (underestimated). From the parent perspective, the difficulties may arise from lack of time, no interest in child functioning in school, lack of support from teachers, lack of understanding of some family situations, unwillingness to cooperate or lack of parental integration. In my opinion, the most difficult barrier to overcome is a lack of a need for real parent involvement in school matters. To achieve full collaboration on the school – parents line and within the pedagogical staff, it is important to set a common goal, through which the efforts of the individual partners of interactions will be able to unite. It is important to understand the need and make the effort towards the common mission of the school.

In addition, to reduce the difficulties experienced by the teachers, ensure of their professional development is needed, which should contribute to raising awareness about the role of collaboration. Which, in turn, should translate into pedagogical strategies aimed at raising the awareness of parents on the same subject. It may be a starting point to build truly relationships. Based on the literature review, it can be assumed that the individual development of teachers is the beginning of the path of development of the whole school. The school as a 'learning organization' (Augustyniak, 2011) must pay attention to the thoughtful development of individuals. Especially in the teacher profession, continuous personal and professional development is needed. Such development includes both the updating of knowledge that is marked by the advancement of science and the improvement of social competence. However, it should be noted that professional development applies to all employees, including the school management. Successful leadership means ongoing development.

Conclusions

Based on the foregoing considerations, it can be concluded that each of the indicated area of collaborative school culture relates to many difficulties and challenges. On the other hand, these areas should be treated as connected vessels, which means that the positive effect in one will translate into a positive effect in the next. The time is needed to learn how to collaborate. As well as, knowing that failing is a part of learning process and growth need to be expressed, stimulated and reflected in the behavior of the principal.

Charlotte a Campo (1993) states that collaborative practices should be promoted and become natural part of the day-to-day activities in a school. However, as we can see, creation a collaborative school culture is not an easy task but possible and worth doing.

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Changes in the press discourse (2000-2016) on the process of school development

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Abstract

Public debate can be treated as an arena of an exchange of views, consideration of different perspectives. The purpose of this article was verification of the press discourse on school development through the prism of its function in the years 1999 to 2016 education. In this case the Critical Discourse Analysis was used as a method. In the study, it was assumed that the educational subject matter addressed by the media, on the one hand, reflects social interest in education, and on the other hand, it may lead to an in-depth scrutiny of phenomena and decisions, being possibly conducive to particular, bottom-up incentives. In the analysis, press articles from national newspapers and magazines from different political options were examined. It was decided to choose such newspapers as "Gazeta Wyborcza", "Polityka", "Rzeczpospolita" and "Uważam Rze". Time framework was also of importance, which enclosed the evaluation between 1999 and 2016 and made it possible to illustrate the reorientation in the priorities of educational affairs shaping public debates.

Keywords: education, functions of school, press discourse, reforms.

1. Introduction

In the course of its existence, school has constantly searched for optimal methods of its functioning. Throughout history, researchers and theorists have analysed its various aspects in order to pinpoint satisfactory solutions. Also contemporarily, widespread interest in school and education is a natural phenomenon. Nonetheless, the new requirements posed onto modern education appear to shed a qualitatively different light on the functioning of educational institutions at different levels. Thus, the functioning is being verified: from assumptions and goals which to a great extent determine future prospects to solutions in everyday practice and fine-tuning modifications. These discussions and analyses permeate not only academic circles or the school environment, but are also present in the mass media, ranging from the press, through television, official websites to personal blogs. The analysis of this material reveals an image of contemporary school with its functions, which incorporates a part of the past cognitive perspective being revaluated by innovative interpretations. In this case, public space has become a platform for exchanging information on the introduced changes or the accompanying social attitudes, and the presence of a given issue in public debates isolates and emphasises the most relevant concerns (Nowosad, 2003).

This phenomenon attests to people's strength and potential, to their opinions and views being of transformative nature, because in the end the new proposals will only become successful if they affect the daily work of teachers and schools (Śliwerski, 2001). In the change-making process, the prospect of public discussion assumes a particular importance. On the one hand, it encourages school partners to become involved in education, making them realise that they are a part and parcel of fundamental public reality. On the other hand, public debates are likely to sway teachers into accepting the

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proposed solutions or to remove doubts and ambiguities. Acceptance or approval of the proposed solutions is in this case an inevitable condition conducive to change. Another important consequence of social discourse is an opportunity to ask decision makers important questions, to divert their focus onto zones featuring faulty solutions or to warn them against possible threats. For social debates to be effective, mutual relationships of pressure, support and ongoing negotiation are needed, which will take into account all those directly and indirectly involved in education, including the widest possible range of society, and thus pulling the issues of education out of the "zone of social silence" (Kwieciński, 1998, p.28).

2. The aim and the method

The aim of the analysis in the presented article was to demonstrate the changes and similarities in the press and Internet discourse on two structural and one curricular reform in Polish education in 1999, 2009 and 2017. When analysing the assumptions introduced by the reforms into everyday education, the focus was on the school, and more precisely, on its basic functions such as didactic, protective and educational, as well as the issues of organisation of the learning process. It is assumed that such an approach would make it possible to confront the assumptions of the reform with their public resonance by distinguishing the most prominent, newsworthy topics and by analysing the dynamics of press involvement, i.e. the repetitiveness or variability of the emerging topics.

The public discourse analysis was conducted by means of the Critical Discourse Analysis method and is based on the constructivist approach (Filipiak, 2003) within the paradigm of post-structuralism (Melosik, 1994). In this approach, it is possible to observe and analyse what content is provided by the media to create a social reality and what content it accessed to describe it. It can therefore be assumed that the media perform a dual role, i.e. on the one hand, they facilitate public expression and, on the other, they create it. In the subject literature, there exist three main approaches concerning the influence of the media on the life and opinions of particular individuals (see: Dobrołowicz, 2010). They differ in terms of their perception of the relationship between the media and the man. The first approach assumes potent media power and human vulnerability (the cultivation theory or the magic bullet theory). The second points to the media as one of indirect influences on their receivers, moderating their activity or enhancing their propensity (the Lazarsfeld's two-step flow theory, the Klapper's multi-stage flow theory). The third approach, however, raises the importance of the interpretative processes in individuals as an important factor affecting the influence of the media (the usage and benefits theory, the theory of opposing decoding).

3. Results

In the research process, using the Critical Discourse Analysis method, it was assumed that the educational subject matter addressed by the media, on the one hand, reflects social interest in education, and on the other hand, it may lead to an in-depth scrutiny of phenomena and decisions, being possibly conducive to particular, bottom-up incentives. In the analysis, press articles from national newspapers and magazines from different political options were examined. It was decided to choose such newspapers as "Gazeta Wyborcza", "Polityka", "Rzeczpospolita" and "Uważam Rze". Time framework was also of importance, which enclosed the evaluation between 1999 and 2017 and made it possible to illustrate the reorientation in the priorities of educational affairs shaping public debates.

3.1. Structure

The structure of this paper reflects the structure of the issues raised in the media, which are related to the basic functions of the school. The conceptual and functional scope of the functions is not unequivocal. Beginning from the earliest times, school functions were established according to the prevailing ideology in given social conditions. A full analysis of school functions provides an opportunity to grasp the relationships between the school and other components of the social system (Nowosad, Kopaczyńska, 2017). In Polish educational reality, *the function of the school* is often related to the scope of its duties, as well as to tasks and the responsibilities assigned to school personnel. It is reflected in legal and organisational procedures which can grant teachers specific functions, depending on their position e.g. head teacher, visiting teacher, pedagogue, scout instructor, dorm teacher and class teacher. The scope of duties assumed in this way is included in the normative standards of educational law. In a large part, ministerial regulations shape the so-called pre-set functions to be actualised within school reality. The second meaning of the function, focusing on action, is included in the assortment of certain tasks (or duties) delegated to certain individuals or to particular positions held with the school system. In this sense, it is important to implement a function, i.e. an activity understood as carrying out the occupational duties of those employed in the school. The third understanding of functions is related to the mutual relations between top-down goal and their implementation. Functions understood in such a way concern important ideological and social issues, such as health, care, equal opportunities, security, creativity and the adopted education system.

3.2. School organisation and structure

After 1990, there were three significant turning points in reforming education. Their aim was to try to improve the quality of education after years of totalitarianism and ideology. The Act of 7 September 1991 on the education system was the first orderly and formal document, which also sealed the systemic change in Poland. It launched grassroots initiatives and made democratisation of education possible, as well as bestowed schools and teachers with autonomy. The ideas of decentralisation were expressed by the encouragement to innovate, to conduct pedagogical experiments, to create copyright programs, classes or non-state schools. The first major reform of education in Poland after 1990 (1999) was of a structural nature, changing the organisation of the school system and introducing a system to support towards the maintenance of quality. The assumptions of the change in the educational system in Poland were related to the desire to adopt Anglo-Saxon configurations in which tests and educational procedures would be instruments ensuring high quality of education. Schools were meant to function based on a good didactic foundation and extended curricular programs. This system was intended to stimulate teachers' and pupils' self-efficacy, and to adapt the forwarded and acquired knowledge to the changing needs of the changing culture and the needs of the cultural environment. Moreover, success rates of the education system were also divided into: knowledge, skills and conduct. *The Journal of Law of 14 of 15 February 1999 pos. 129 points out that the goal of the general education curriculum for 6-year primary schools and 3-year middle schools is to comprehensively develop pupils. Education consists in harmonious implementation of teaching tasks in terms of knowledge, skills and conduct.*

The reform allowed schools to implement an internal assessment system and introduced an external examination system. Teacher development pathways and opportunities for non-public schools were also created, and parents were given the opportunity to engage more fully in school life. The 2009 Reform was a curricular reform. Didactic curricula were changed in the wake of changes in the national curriculum, which led to the introduction of new school textbooks. The 2017 Reform restored the 8-year-long cycle of education and removed the lower secondary level. The primary level will again be 8-year-long and the secondary level 4-year-long (see: Table 1).

Table 1. The main directions of development of education system implemented in subsequent reforms

Reform/ changes	1999	2009	2017
Character	structural	curricular	structural
Structure	6-year-long primary level + 3-year-long lower secondary level + 3-year-long upper secondary level	Compulsory education from 6 years of age; change in vocational education	8 + 4 or 3 or 5, Compulsory education from 7 years of age; vocational schools were replaced by the first and second degree branch schools
Quality support	External examination system was introduced: after year 3, year 6 at the primary level and year 3 at the lower secondary level; paths of teachers' professional advancement were introduced	Changes in the mode of preparation to matriculation	The 6-year examination was replaced by the 8-year examination; gratification for the highest level of teachers' advancement was unified
School autonomy	Internal assessment system and curricular pluralism; decentralisation of funding	Changing the core curriculum to more homogenous	Teacher development centres need ministerial accreditation

Source: own work.

The reform of the education system provoked social discourse over the role and importance of education in everyday life. It forced many circles to reflect on and tackle problems that had been delegated to others for years. Thus, what were the social reactions to reforming education and what was their origin? Structural reorganisation was clearly accentuated in public debates, as this change seems to have taken place practically overnight.

In the case of both structural reforms, the public debate focused on organisational and human issues (in the case of the 1999 reform unprepared teaching staff and in 2017 prepared and specialised teaching staff). In 1999, the risks related to fragmentation, relatively short phases which exposed pupils to frequent struggle with loss of the sense of security, to changes in formal environment as well as to the replacement of peer groups and teachers with new, unfamiliar requirements and to difficulties in maintaining continuity of educational influence, were emphasised. Today, the same area of issues related to the structure of the school system has returned. Interestingly, what previously constituted an argument in favour of introducing the lower secondary level to the Polish school system, today seems to be used against the additional level (Tab.2).

Table 2. Discourse on structural change

1999	Discourse	2017
Inadequate number of teachers; deficiencies in the logistic network (school buses); lack of teams specialised in teaching at the lower secondary level; fragmentation of education, i.e. short time of education in one institution	In both reforms, the pace of changes, the issues of regionalisation, school violence and chaos were criticised	Excessive number of teachers, the pace of changes, unprepared textbooks and curricula, the mess accompanying school reorganisation

Source: own work.

3.3. The didactic function

Due to the curricular pluralism introduced in the 1999 reform, the selection of textbooks became a teacher's choice. This opportunity launched aggressive marketing efforts of many publishers specialising in publishing and selling textbooks. Sometimes, in exchange for cooperation in purchasing textbooks, schools were offered various gifts, from kettles to computers. This problem was

exposed by journalists. This is well illustrated by one of newspaper headlines: *Textbook Eldorado* ("Rzeczpospolita", May 18-19, 2013).

Since 8 July 2014, regulations issued by the Minister of National Education on grants for didactic equipment, including textbooks, educational materials and teaching materials have been in force. In the following years, free textbooks became available in schools for all children in years I-III (see Table 3). In the 2017 reform, the idea of borrowing free textbooks throughout the educational cycle has been sustained.

In line with the 1998 reform, the purpose of external evaluation was to assess pupils' development in order to help them choose further educational pathways. Comparisons of individual results were meant to provide information on special talents and indicate at areas of further work. The increase in competence was meant to illustrate the quality of school work. Such tests are implemented three times at the level of general and compulsory education: after year III and VI of the primary level and after year III of the lower secondary level. The test after year III covers the content of integrated instruction in mother tongue and mathematics, the test after year 6 is divided into 2 parts: humanities and mathematics/natural science and since 2014 the third part: foreign language. After year 3 of the lower secondary level, there are tests in the fields of humanities, social studies, mathematics and natural sciences, and selected foreign languages at the basic and extended level (A2 and B1 respectively). The results of external evaluation very promptly assumed a measure of school success. However, this assessment does not include any indication of increase in the level of pupils' knowledge and competences, but merely the average obtained by pupils in a given year. Thus, the Regional Examination Boards report the national, provincial and municipal averages and local newspapers publish rankings of individual schools.

As far as the quality of education is concerned, public debates are focused on the monitoring of final results, with little emphasis on the quality of work, the applied methods, and the pedagogical conditions meant to ensure high quality.

Regularly, just after the tests, the media publish and comment. This issue features in the press every year from March to June, first, to discuss the questions included in the tests, and then to launch all sorts of comparisons in the wake of the obtained results. In recent years, due to the observed "testomania", there appeared a disturbing phenomenon of teaching to tests and the obsession with school rankings, which in turn led pupils to being isolated into quality groups by the media, which reinforced the process by addressing the problems of testing tools and rules or the issue of pupils' and parents' workload when preparing for the tests (*Testolatki*, "Polityka" no 19, 2011, *Learn to comply with the key*, "Polityka", June 22, 2011). As a result, cognitive schematism and lack of intellectual autonomy is recognised in pupils. Schools are compared in the press to lemming factories (*Lemming factories*, "Uważam Rze", no. 16-17, 2013), because lack of initiative, ingenuity, individuality and own intellectual standards seem to be rooted in this educational philosophy. Concentration on test results and rankings also triggers thinking about school as a slaughterhouse of talents (*School, slaughterhouse of talents*, "Dziennik Gazeta Prawna", 10-12 May 2013). Schools lack strategies to develop individual potential in children. The media also use pejorative comparisons, e.g. to imprisonment (*School is a prison*, "Uważam Rze", April 22 - May 5, 2013). The fact is that school requires its pupils to think and act in the same way, according to a pattern, was also criticised, as going beyond one correct solution is punishable by a bad mark.

Table 3. The quality of education as an orientation on achievement

1999	2009	2017
Multiplicity of textbooks	Teaching to tests – testomania	Not evaluation yet

Source: own work.

3.4. The protective function

The question of the organisation of school work in relation to the implementation of the protective function raised a great deal of media anxiety. The 1999 reform had introduced a significant change in the financing of schools, as schooling had been put in charge of local governments, instituting in this way the decentralisation of educational expenses. This resulted in a marked disproportion in working conditions at particular schools, as different communes have different material resources at their disposal. Underfunding of Polish education, insufficient state funds for adaptation of classrooms, common rooms and sanitary facilities for younger children was a cause for concern for parents when deciding to send six-year-old children to school. Comprehensive pre-school care, child safety, work time, pro-developmental character of classes without the pressure of evaluation were the key arguments forwarded by parents against earlier schooling. It is noteworthy that as of 23 January 2016 an amendment to the Education System Act came into force, as a result of which the age of commencement of compulsory school education was increased again. Thus, since September 2016, rather than 6-year-olds, 7-year-olds are obliged to start school education.

Schools also become places which help the poorest by the introduction of a feeding program, known as "Share a meal" (a wooden puppet with an empty stomach is a symbol of this campaign) or an initiative "Drink milk - you will be great" co-financed by the EU between 2012 and 2016. In the year 2015, as a result of the amendment to the Regulation of the Minister of Health, sales of sweets and the so-called "junk food" in school shops was abolished.

3.4.1. School safety. School safety issues are of twofold character in public debates. On the one hand, it concerns the presence of school security companies, and on the other hand, it involves the building of positive relationships and the sense of psychological well-being. The task of school security is to ensure that undesirable people, such as drug dealers, cannot enter the school grounds. The monitoring of strangers is instituted so as not to provoke aggressive situations. It is meant to guard against bringing dangerous tools to school and against acts of vandalism.

However, the presence of uniformed security officers prompts questions about the educational function of school. Delegation of some educational tasks to external security companies, devoid of pedagogical objectives, introduces a factor distorting the image of school's educational mission.

In turn, pupils' mental security is discussed in the context of the relationship between pupils as well as between pupils and teachers. Incidents of teachers' aggressive behaviour towards pupils is severely censured in the press and on internet portals. If they happen, they obviously outrage public opinion and are widely commented upon.

The press also readily reveals cases of bullying, so these situations trigger debates on the educational function of schools and the role of family in the process of coherent educational influence.

3.4.2. The lowering of school age, as a decision of the Ministry of National Education of 2009, evoked a very strong, negative social reaction. Numerous social circles were involved in the discussion, including those who did not have children at school age. The volume of the outrage was the stronger, the more the ministry ignored parental reasons. The phenomena accompanying the development of the reform project, and its subsequent implementation, raised many doubts, if not a wave of criticism, because despite the openly publicised need for social discourse, the ministry reacted in a manner akin to that known from former practices before 1989. Krzysztof Konarzewski stated: "The communication between the authors of the reform of the Polish education system with different social circles was far from perfect: they talked, but they did not listen. In publications and at countless meetings, they developed their own vision of education, but failed to listen to questions, and dispelled doubts by means of silence or propaganda"(Konarzewski, 2002).

The authors of the reform seemed to have overseen the idea that the inclusion of six-year-olds in the school system is linked to the fact that each year in the educational process will be commenced by children who are younger than those before 2009. In public debates, there were questions about how schools and teachers are meant to work with children younger than ever before. The developmental potential of both six-year-olds and those completing the early school education phase requires teachers to reorganise their working methods, requirements and expectations. This applies both to teachers of the youngest pupils and to those of year 4 pupils.

Without questioning the maturity of children in the cognitive field or their learning potential, their emotional and social maturity was questioned in the context of teacher-activity patterns in Polish schools.

On the wave of dissatisfaction, parents launched a social campaign "Save the little'uns", which very actively participated in public debates. On the one hand, its influence was used to unmask the situation in schools, also to carry out information campaigns on the developmental characteristics of children aged 6 to 7, and on the other hand, to participate in open discussions with different bodies. Such a thorough and long-lasting public debate ultimately resulted in the ministry yielding to the demands. As a result, the decision to lower the school age was temporarily postponed. Thus, until September 2014 (which is two years later than originally anticipated), the decision to send a child to school at the age of six was left to parental discretion. This problem has been present in the media the longest time, i.e. for more than 5 years running. The tumultuous and long-running public debate on the lowering of school age indicates that school's fulfilment of its protective function in relation to the youngest pupils is very important for parents. Their long working hours make them want to make sure that their children do not remain at that time without professional care. Considering the nature of care and the key importance of education in the early years of schooling from the perspective of their educational success, it seems understandable that the public debate has been so dynamic.

Table 4. Discourse on changes in the protective function of the school

1999	2009	2017
Reduction of the wave of violence between the oldest and the youngest pupils; anonymity among children in middle schools	6-year-olds at school – The "Save the Children" Campaign; chaos at school, organisational deficiencies associated with teaching the extra year of 6-year-olds; excessive number of children; deficient financial resources; differences between municipalities in the provision of the protective function	Not evaluation yet

Source: own work.

3.4.3. Levelling the chances and healthy nutrition. Healthy nutrition and the provision of a minimum of healthy diet to school children has been a persistent issue in public debates. A glass of milk at school has for years been a program for promoting healthy eating. At present, the promotion of health is supported by the social campaign "Drink milk - you will be great". For several years, the media has also been addressing the issue of eating fruit and vegetables instead of sweets at school. In this regard, debates revolve around school shops and products that are sold to pupils. Essentially, the need to minimise the sale of unhealthy foods, the excess of sweets and artificially preserved and dyed products has been indicated. Schools also participate in EU programs promoting healthy lifestyles, which, thanks to the acquisition of EU funds, are subject to social control.

The issue of healthy nutrition is a running theme in the press, which systematically appears in public debates, especially in the autumn-winter and winter-spring periods, i.e. periods of increased colds and illnesses. This gives rise to broader discussions on health and institutionalised activities conducive to the development of health-promoting behaviour. Schools have also become places to

implement aid programmes for the poorest. Aid campaigns are organised on television, on the Internet as well as in the press. Their broadcasting starts each year at the end of the holiday period and in the periods preceding Christmas and Easter.

Table 5. Social and health issues

1999	2009	2018
Nutrition campaign: "Drink milk - you will be great".	The problem of school shops and availability of certain products: "Fruit at School", "Share a meal"; free textbooks	The old habits come back – no limitation products at school, Free textbooks, social money to each pupils to parents

Source: own work.

3.5. Educational function of the school

The inclusion of Religious Education (R.E.) into the school curriculum - by virtue of the concordat - has caused a lot of controversy. Particularly emotive were the debates over the issue of displaying the symbolism of Catholic religion in school classrooms and the introduction of the R.E. mark into the calculation of the average end-of-term mark, especially in the absence of a back-up subject of Ethics. The concordat also stated that only those who fulfilled the requirements of the Episcopate were fit to teach Religious Education.

Religious Education at school and the range of mandatory reading has been the main issue in public debates, as well as the placement of crosses in classrooms, which had their supporters and equally fierce opponents. At the same time, polarisation of political discussion was noticeable. The left wing, advocating broadly understood freedom and egalitarianism, was opposed to placing crosses in school classrooms, arguing that it denoted appropriation by Catholicism of not only physical, but also mental space. The presence of the cross was regarded as a manifestation of discrimination against those who are not Catholics, and thus violation of freedom and democracy was pointed out. The right wing argued that Poland was a mainly Catholic country, and the Preamble of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland (Journal of Laws, 1997, No. 78, item 483) refers to culture rooted in the Christian heritage and the role of Catholicism in the history of the nation. The presence of R.E. at school inevitably triggers heated discussions in a post-communist country. On the one hand, there is a degree of nostalgia for pre-war education, religious uniformity and conservative ideology emphasising traditional values such as religion (in this case, Catholicism). On the other hand, there is the need for a rational and democratic way of thinking.

The issue of assessment and the inclusion of the R.E. mark in the calculation of the average end-of-term mark, present on school certificates was also heatedly discussed in public debates. Another frequently asked question was how to organise activities for those who did not attend R.E. classes. Schools were accused of inept planning and lack of provision of Ethics classes for those who had renounced R.E. classes.

In the first years of teaching R.E. at schools, the problem of pedagogical preparation of R.E. teachers aroused emotions in public debates. Despite the formal regulations of this issue, the question returns, especially in situations of priests and catechists breaking pedagogical principles, which are promptly reported and commented upon by the media. Individual cases of negative events are particularly favoured in the left-wing press ("Gazeta Wyborcza"). Referring to the same incident repeatedly leads to a belief that such events are numerous, and that they mainly involve priest-teachers, which is a short way away from far-reaching unauthorised generalisations.

It is worth noting that the public debate on religion in schools has become a tool of political struggle, cyclically reignited during pre-election periods. Debating around religion also denotes questions about the ideology and values that underpin education. Its presence in the media may indicate that the educational function of the school is of importance to the majority of the society.

4. Discussion

Based on a critical analysis of the press discourse, the following six main problems may be identified: organisational, human resources, social, health, educational and ideological. Particular topics of debates recurrently surface and as such constitute the so-called running themes. Their purpose is not to deepen the reflection of the occurring phenomena or to evaluate changes, but rather to refer ad hoc to issues resulting from the school calendar. In press debates, attention is directed either to singular, incidental events which are promptly overgeneralised or to ideological problems which become a tool of political struggle. The way of presenting issues related to education, school or teachers is often of sensational character, constituting a source of escalation of emotional tension. The discussion on the quality of education comes down to the question of the scrutiny and comparison of effects. Thus, test results are discussed, but good educational practices are not addressed. This rarely leads to discussions about working methods meant to improve the efficiency of instruction and to change pupils' individual competencies.

The presented analysis indicates that discussions on the necessary areas of educational change are yet to be instituted on the ground of Polish society, as for the time being emotional or personal disputes still dominate. It is hoped that over time educational policy and the discourse around it will become a social activity oriented towards current and future needs of the society, towards defining general assumptions, goals, ideas, functions, principles and structures, as well as towards defining a sustainable and predictable strategy for improving education.

5. Conclusions

The main conclusions of the analysis are presented below.

1. The changes introduced to the education system in subsequent reforms were meant to "stimulate" schools to develop, to build new foundations for their functioning, and to introduce new solutions in order to improve the quality of education. New measures introduced into the education system, such as evaluation and external evaluation, which had been meant to initiate and monitor the process, acquired pejorative connotations within the press discourse.

2. The press discourse is mainly of negative character. It exclusively focuses on revealing problems, school failures, and awakens a sense of impotence in dealing with the scale of undesirable phenomena. Such exposure of only the negative image of the school blocks our chances for innovation in education, which depend mainly on local conditions (The Unesco Report, 1998, p.168) and the strength of local support. Hence the inclusion of different social entities in the decision-making process seems to be as important as the increase in social awareness of the importance of education, as well as the increase in the sense of individual and collective responsibility.

3. Despite the intensive changes that have recently taken place in education, it can be said that this period has only been partially used to create new curricular and organisational concepts that involve diverse entities in the decision-making process and assume responsibility for them. In spite of the unquestionable changes, Polish education still remains in the minds of many as regulated top-down with someone up there accountable for it, i.e. the government, the ministry, the mayor or the head teacher, rather than being an affiliation between all the participants and creators of the system, i.e. pupils, teachers, parents, management, mayor, etc. The blurred image of changes permeated with contradictions and loops, as well as lack of clearly defined goals and expected effects, creates a strong blockade in public domain and collective consciousness for the emergence of educational issues as a fundamental

developmental concern in Poland and brushes this problem aside into the sphere of silence and revocation" (Kwieciński, 2000, p. 191).

4. The issues related to education were publically discussed only in the wake of the spectacular introduction of reforms in the education system and in relation to the resulting changes. Since that time on, practically everyone has managed to take their stance: specialist theorists and practitioners, publicists, but also people not related to pedagogy or pupils themselves. The most plausible explanation of the phenomenon is the way in which the reform of the education system was initiated and implemented. The phenomena accompanying the creation of the reform projects, and later their implementation, raised many doubts if not a wave of criticism, because despite the openly vocalised need for social discourse, they assumed a character similar to that known from former practices before 1989.

5. It can be said that the reforms of the education system provoked a social discourse on the role and importance of education in everyday life, forcing many circles to reflect and scrutinise problems that had been delegated onto 'others' for years. Unfortunately, this discourse is not focused on quality and improvement issues, but on side issues, mainly scandals. This is confirmed by little social interest in research findings on the achievements of Polish 15-year-olds as compared to pupils from other countries and the condition of the Polish school in the PISA 2000- 2015 program. One of the aims of PISA - namely launching public debate on the burning issues of public education – failed to take its roots on the Polish ground. This surprising negligence puts us within a group of countries that ignore educational issues. The lack of interest on the part of journalists can be explained by the fact that "educational issues are not very lucrative for them, so not many contemporary journalists and reporters specialise in this field. The others have little experience and insufficient skills to reach the depths and diverse nuances of the educational situation" (Szymański, 1999, p.15).

It would be a safe assumption that the education reforms have pulled school-related issues out of public "silence". Unfortunately, the mainstream press discourse has little concern for the quality of education. The didactic function is practically not discussed in its various dimensions, being replaced by total criticism of school. Much more frequently, attention is drawn to the protective and educational functions of school, as the accompanying arguments strongly affect the realm of public emotions. In this context, it can be assumed that society has failed to develop a mere plan of educational change and has no meritorious opinion, assessing the effects of change on the basis of phenomena publicised in the media or personal experiences. However, reforming activities and a lively yet socially resilient response are certainly a significant step to involve local communities into initiatives aimed at improving the functioning of local schools.

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Values present in state requirements in the Polish Educational System and their perception by teachers. A report from research

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Abstract

The author's article takes up the subject of values in the Polish educational system. State requirements relating to the Polish education system include all kinds of values. Reviewing and analyzing these values, the authors asked teachers how they themselves understood them, whether they were implemented, and to what extent they were internalized, and did these values affect professional development? The research was conducted using the survey method developed by the authors. It was conducted among primary school teachers. Answers to these questions were provided on the basis of preliminary research. The results provided the basis for reflection and discussion on the values present in state requirements and their perception and realization by teachers. The authors also considered the importance of the research results for the (already) developed model of educational leadership in Poland.

Keywords: values, development, teachers, educational system.

1. Introduction

The requirements of the state for educational institutions in the Polish educational system were included for the first time the Regulation of the Ministry of Education of 2009 (Regulation, 2009), in connection with the modernization of pedagogical supervision. According to introduced supervisory model, the state requirements indicate the most important directions for the development of schools and educational institutions, setting priorities in the planning and organization of their work, by pursuing specific objectives and tasks. At the core of the requirements was the idea of introducing clear, understandable and accepted standards leading to the continuous development of the school, aimed at the challenges of modern society (Mazurkiewicz, 2012). The requirements are devoted to different types of educational institutions (eg. schools, kindergartens, pedagogical libraries) and are implemented on a basic or high level. Since 2009, two requirements have been modified (Regulation, 2013, 2015) and finally 12 requirements for schools have been identified. This was due to the research and analysis carried out in the project "Program for Strengthening the Efficiency of the Pedagogical Supervision System and the School Quality Assessment" (Regulation, 2013; Regulation, 2015). Requirements are challenging and relate, for example, to development, eg "A school or educational institution that realizes a concept oriented on student development," or to collaboration eg. "Teachers collaborate in planning and implementing educational processes" or to promote learning and organizing educational processes in the context of meeting specific requirements, such as assessment, knowledge of learning objectives, etc. (Regulation, 2015).

Due to the current requirements, although not always explicit, various educational values emerge, creating a model of the Polish school. These values should therefore be reflected in the school's reality, in the activities of the principals, teachers and people responsible for the development of the school so

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that educational goals can be achieved. From this perspective, it seems interesting to the authors to look at the values that emerge from the requirements. By analyzing all the requirements of the state in terms of value, we especially questioned whether teachers know and understand these requirements and how do they perceive the values which are included in these requirements. Are values are realized and how? Last but not least, the question of how the values resulting from the requirements affect the professional development of teachers.

During the research and analysis run by the author, due to the change of the ruling political formation and the introduction by the new government the new school reform, just before the beginning of the 2017 school year, there were some modifications made to the existing state requirements for schools and institutions (Regulation, 2017). The number of requirements was limited to 9, and the division of the level of characteristics of the requirements was eliminated.

In the new Regulation, the following three requirements are missing: Requirement 1: The school or institution realizes a work-oriented approach to student development; Requirement 2: The value of education is promoted, Requirement 7: Teachers collaborate in planning and implementing educational processes. Implementation of the requirements is still subject to evaluation in pedagogical supervision. The results of this study refer to the state requirements in force until September 2017.

2. Values present in state requirements - *theoretical framework*

Values are at the root of all thoughts (Tischner, 1982), norms and attitudes (Halstead, Taylor, 2000), and actions by writing in into them and giving the tasks the right aim and direction (Fullan, Haydon, 2007). In the definition of a value its motivational factor, which promotes development, is also essential (Fullan, Haydon, 2007, Ulatowska, 2015). It is noteworthy that Schwarz's latest approach (Schwarz et al., 2012), which sees values as a cognitive representation usually revealed in the pursue to the desirable aim. In Schwarz model the values form a continuum or a circle. Taking value as a continuum allows you to see values as more or less specific individuals. Such a system recognizes values as motivationally similar, which means that one action may result from a variety of closely related values (Schwarz, et al., 2012, Cieciuch, 2013). Paradoxically, the continuum of values places them at the same time in a circular system where the previously mentioned principle is preserved, but at the same time it introduces the belief that the opposing values are incompatible. This makes it impossible to realize opposite values in one action (Figure 1).

Based on the Schwarz model, it is worth trying to use some of the ideas to understand educational values. In order not to limit the understanding of values only to moral views, which happens in the reflections on values in education (Ulatowska, 2012), it is worth emphasizing the necessity of diversity in their meaning. The Schwarz model also helps to understand the discrepancies between declared and realized values, which are revealed in the thinking and behavior of those responsible for the education system (Nowak-Dziemianowicz, 2014). If we look again at the value circle, we can see that the value of openness to change may be in opposition to conservatism, although it is generally reasonably so. The implementation of openness to change should not undermine the value of security, but on the other hand the implementation of value Openness to change is subject to limitation, as exemplified by the previously mentioned ideologies.It is worth emphasizing that values in a given community are present in a wider context (Fullan, 2007). This may mean that in schools there may be both clear and hidden value systems. Elimination of some of them disables to use the broader context.

Due to the fact that values anchor our actions in the past, they make sense for the present, and we must also see their impact for the future, so that they will be the source of energy for goals, decisions and actions. In order to avoid a disagreement between declared and realized values, it is especially important to engage in ongoing discussion about values in an educational community and to seek similar understanding of these values within the group. As Halstead points out (Halstead, Taylor, 1996), this interaction of the whole educational community allows for the interdependence of these

values. The reflections presented by the authors have become the basis for preliminary research on the understanding of requirements and values, their implementation, interventions and their impact on professional development.

3. Method

The authors analyzed and interpreted the state requirements for schools as set out in the annex to the August 2015 Ordinance on the values they present in the education model. The analysis allowed to isolate 9 values. (Figure 2).

After identifying 9 values in the state requirements for educational institutions, the authors prepared a questionnaire to examine the group of teachers. The questionnaire contained 24 questions related to the assessment of knowledge of state requirements, the level of their understanding, the assessment of the performance of 9 values resulting from state requirements, indication of with whom and how these values are realized and to what extent each value supports the professional development of the respondents. The study was conducted using CAWI (Computer Assisted Web Interviews) technique on a group of 35 primary school teachers.

4. Results

Due to the small group, the results of the study have not been subjected to extensive statistical analysis, and some conclusions are based on qualitative considerations. The analysis of the results indicates that the vast majority of the surveyed teachers (32 out of 35) declare that they are highly knowledgeable of the state's requirements for schools and institutions. However, the results show that teachers, although they know the requirements they have a little understanding - on the range of points up to 8 the average was only 4.59 points. Analysis of qualitative data suggests that teachers implement all values but in different configurations and in different ways. Listed below are the people to whom they are most commonly implemented, and the actions in which individual values are disclosed.

4.1 Respect

Regarding the value of Respect, the respondents said that it is implemented in three groups: students, parents and teachers. In case of students Respect usually means undertaking individual conversations, teaching respect to others, taking care of relationships, personal needs, and personal culture. Respect for parents is, in the teachers' view, keeping contact, transferring information, joint response to emerging problems; however for teachers, Respect is primarily about building relationships, common contact, tolerance.

4.2 Development

The value is realized by the teachers primarily in relation to themselves, mostly through participation in courses, workshops and training programs. This appears to be of prime importance. Only after this the value is realized also in relation to the students. Teachers make it happen by undertaking pedagogical innovations, educational activities, organizing interesting training, workshops, activating, but also taking care of the needs of the students, for the development of each of them in the classroom. Rarely is development in relation to the whole school - and if so it is mainly through the introduction of innovations.

4.3 Collaboration

The value Collaboration is most often realized with students, mainly through teaching them using various forms of activity in the classroom. Collaboration means also sharing and solving problems together with parents or other teachers, sharing knowledge, exchanging views, and undertaking joint activities. The implementation of this value in relation to other teachers is also participating in lesson observations, sharing knowledge and work.

4.4 Safety

This value mostly applies to students and all school community members, and means in specific activities - respecting health and safety at school and beyond, taking care of physical and emotional safety.

4.5 Responsibility

The realization of this value is primarily addressed to students, parents and the whole institution. It is usually understood as the fulfillment of obligations towards the school and the students, such as the implementation of program requirements, timeliness, caring for student's development. It is mainly done by promoting the attitude of responsibility, teaching others about it, but also demanding it from students, parents, other teachers or supervisors.

4.6 Commitment

The surveyed teachers carry out Commitment when it comes to students and themselves. Parents and other subjects were indicated only 3 times. Most often the value manifests itself through the individual choice of the program for the student, the development of students by participation in competitions, festivals, praising attitudes of being involved, initiating tasks that are attractive to students, strengthening proper attitudes. It is also engaging teachers in a variety of tasks or functions.

4.7 Learning

The value of learning is most often carried towards the students, much less regarding teachers themselves. Our surveyed teachers introduce this value by giving specific guidance to help students to perform their tasks independently, to encourage home-based exercises, to organize peer-to-peer activities, to take care of and ensure the right lifelong learning process. A few people pointed to this value in relation to other teachers, mainly through peer tutorials, subject teams or consultations.

4.8 Trust

Confidence is shared across multiple groups - both students, parents, other teachers, and the whole school community. It is worth emphasizing, however, that only two respondents indicated that they were realizing this value in relation to all groups at the same time. The value manifests itself above all by being honest with oneself and others and building trust-based relationships with others, as well as teaching confidence to others. Strengthening and realizing this value means helping others, having conversations, providing support, which is based on discretion, and belief in good intentions. This is a resource that can be considered as a social resource associated with a sense of belonging because it reinforces relationship building, structural support, the belief in having friends and a reference group.

4.9 Equality

Most often the value is realized in relation to students and teachers. Only three people have indicated parents as a group to which the egalitarian actions are undertaken.

Equality manifests itself in organizing equality classes, class meetings for class integration, the language.

Equality is the realization of justice, the well-being of the students, the provision of the same treatment, the awareness of its importance. Parents were given the right to ask questions and the right to contact teachers.

5. The importance of values and their realization in professional development

Teachers were also asked about to what extent all the above values are implemented and their importance to professional development. They have declared that professional development is very important to them - 34 of the 35 subjects identified this value.

For the professional development of the respondents the values of *Safety, Commitment, Respect* and *Responsibility* are of the utmost importance. At the same time the weight of these values deviates from the declared degree of their realization. Teachers declare that, among all values, the highest degree of fulfillment is *Commitment,* followed by *Learning* and *Collaboration.* It is worth emphasizing that for the value of *Collaboration* there are no differences between the declared validity of this value and the degree of its implementation at school.

The least important in professional development turned out to be *Trust* and *Equality.*

Interestingly, in the case of *Respect*, there was the greatest difference between the degree of realization of this value and the importance for professional development. (Figure 4). It seems surprising that this value is so little important for professional development.

6. Conclusions

Teachers declare that they are familiar with the requirements of the state. The results, however, reveal differences between knowledge and understanding. Therefore teachers know better than they understand these requirements. In the context of the functioning of schools, it seems particularly important to deepen the understanding of the state requirements by teachers. This will allow to understand better the requirements and values associated with them. As a result the values could be creatively interpreted and implemented in school community. This will also be beneficial for students who learn these values and intervene them into their world view.

These values are most often implemented by teachers towards students, parents, and themselves. Actions in accordance with these values take the form of discussions, workshops, learning in action, mutual learning, sharing of knowledge and practice. For most teachers, professional development is very important, but it is worth pointing out that only two teachers out of all the respondents indicated that they also implement the value towards the school, for example by introducing innovation.

When analyzing the results of the preliminary research, it is worth paying attention to those groups that have been omitted or listed as very few. The values indicated by the surveyed teachers are often carried out with respect only to the selected group, most often pupils. An example of such value is safety. Teachers realize this value by taking care of a safe and healthy stay and working in school.

The value *Security* has been developed very narrowly. Teachers from the study group limited themselves in this regard to the observance of safety and security and to the emotional safety of the students. None of the respondents mentioned safety as to provide hygienic working and learning conditions that are often not followed. In this context, the changes introduced in the reform of education in 2017 have deeply affected the seventh-graders of current primary schools who have to

cover the curriculum in two years, which has so far been covered in three years in junior high school. The introduction of a new educational law has led to a wave of criticism and parental intervention at the child rights spokesman, who wrote a letter to the current Minister of Education, writing, among other things, that: "school after the educational reform is not a child friendly place" (Gazeta Wyborcza, 2017).

The researched teachers also did not mention anything about organizing trainings, thematic sessions or meetings with specialists. For most teachers, *Development* is very important, but only two teachers out of all the respondents indicated that they also value the school, for example for introducing innovations. Most often, this realization of values is limited only to introducing innovations. Respondents in the context of development have omitted development understood as international cooperation - exchange of staff and students, participation in competitions, cooperation with universities, with experts and non-governmental organizations. This is a contradiction in the understanding of the idea of development, which is generally very important for the investigators, however understanding is limited to self-development.

The researchers realized *Collaboration* focusing mainly on activating cooperation between students. *Collaboration* with parents is understood only as a collaboration in solving educational problems. However, the possibility of building collaboration between teachers, students and parents has been omitted. This *Collaboration* could involve the implementation of projects where everyone would take part, organize lessons involving parents - experts in the field or, finally, volunteering. The proposed examples could combine the realization of several values - *Respect, Cooperation, Development* or *Responsibility.*

The value of Commitment is also not appreciated. This is a very powerful motivational value that can lead to a flow effect (Csikszentmihályi, Abuhamdeh, Nakamura, 2005, p. 600). Basically, any form of action that is skillfully organized can be associated with the feeling of doing something extraordinary (Peterson, Selligman, 2004). The value helps to deal with stressful situations that often occur in professional life and might lead to professional burnout (Gluschkoff, Elovainio, Kinnunen, Mullola, Hintsanen, Keltikangas-Järvinen, Hintsa, 2016). Commitment is indicated as one of the components of the 4C model of overall mental immunity. Commitment as a pillar of this immunity, together with challenge, confidence and control/a sense of influence, effectively cope with stressors and pressure (Strycharczyk, Clough, 2015, p. 2).

The results of the research show that there is a large disproportion between the validity of the estimate of Respect and its implementation in the context of development. It therefore seems particularly important to take action to reduce this disparity. This is such an elementary value, not only in the context of development, that more emphasis should be placed on implementing it in the everyday activities of teachers. Strengthening this value seems necessary in the context of the current political and social situation. Without strengthening this value, it will not be possible to develop other values and to build a responsible, tolerant, and open society for diversity.

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Appendices

Figure 1. Schwartz value circle in the classical model

Source: Schwartz, 2012, s 11.

Figure 2. Values in the state requirements

Source: Own research, 2017.

Figure 3. Knowledge vs understanding of requirements.

Source: Own elaboration, 2017.

Figure 4. Importance and implementation of values.
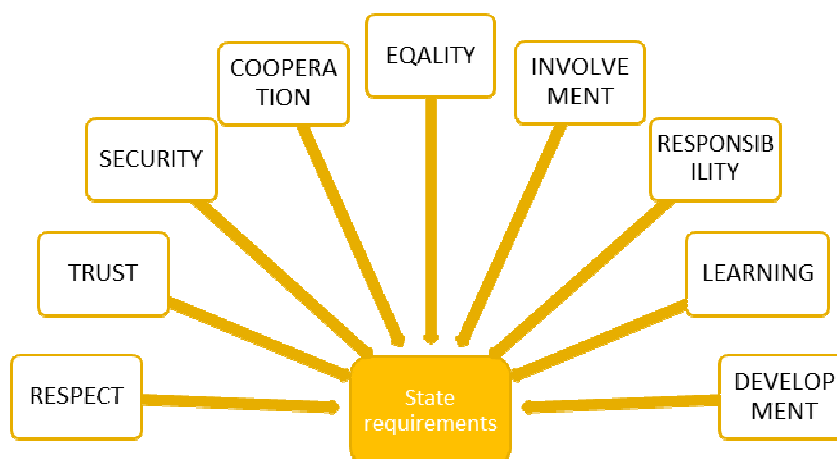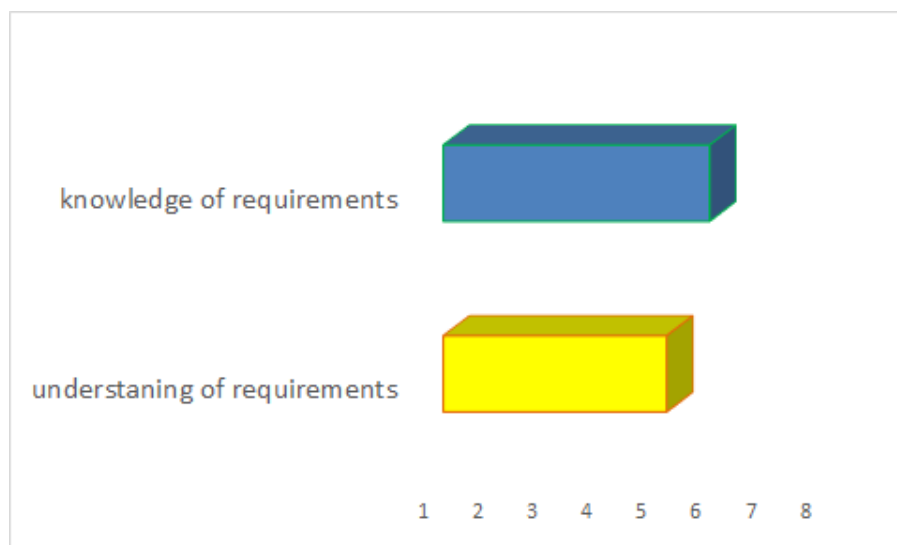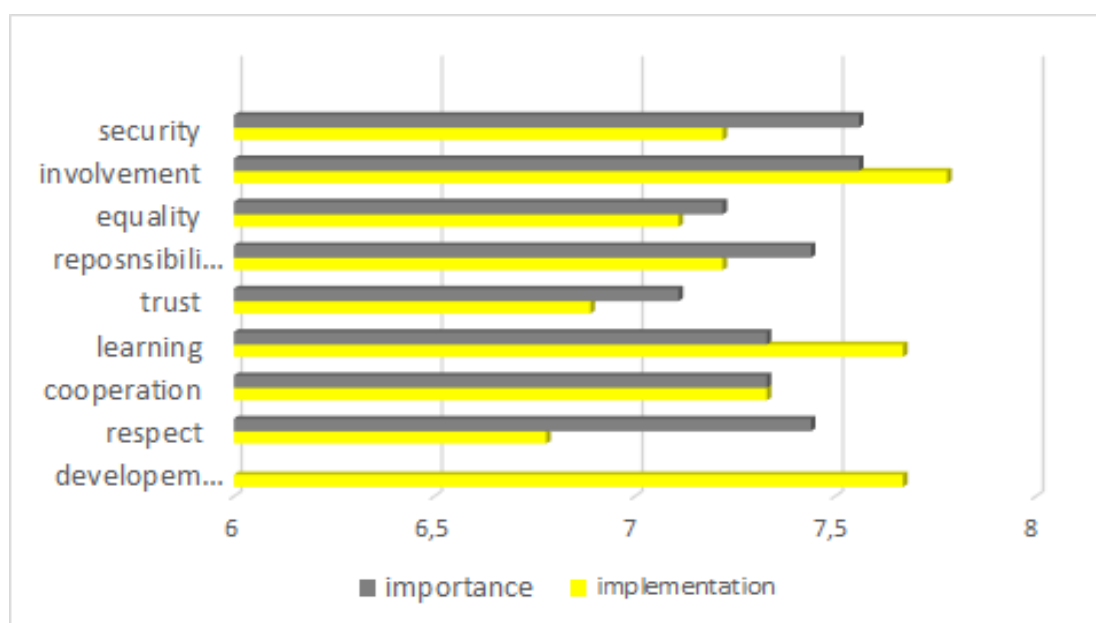

Source: Own elaboration, 2017.

Early school leaving and the processes of social exclusion – the role of mutual relations between education and social structure

Joanna Jarmużek, Izabela Cytlak[1]

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to emphasize the danger of social exclusion faced by the early school leaving students. The goal of this discussion is to establish and explain the relationship between education and social structure based on the phenomenon of early school leaving. The education helps young people to overcome obstacles, enables them to reach for and use necessary resources. Therefore the role of education in preventing social exclusion is immerse.

Keywords: early school leaving, education, social inclusion.

The aim of the paper is to establish and explain the relationship between education and social structure based on the phenomenon of early school leaving (also known as ESL, dropout, fall out of education) by school students. This phenomenon is one of the main factors of social exclusion (Beck, 2012; Putkiewicz, Zahorska 2001; Panek, Czapiński, 2015; Szarfenberg, 2004). The problem of drop out fits into the strategy of socio-economic development of the European Commission for the years 2012-2020 included in the document "*Europe 2020*" and the Polish Educational Policy. Poland has formulated the aim of lowering the level of dropout from 5.4% to 4.5%. ESL problem has been examined in the areas of social sciences and humanities (Fatyga and others, 2001; IBE Reports 2014; Kwieciński, 2002; Madalińska-Michalak and others, 2014).

We want to emphasize that the ESL phenomenon is an important risk factor of social exclusion for lower secondary school students. ESL is a very important social issue, because it is one of the key factors of social exclusion (e.g.: Beck, 2012; Panek, Czapiński, 2015; Kwieciński, 2002). According to Ulrich Beck (2012), education is an essential element of social promotion and lack of education is a potential risk of social exclusion. For this reason, the problem of ESL students has become so important, because it influences directly the future of young people and, at the macro-level, the whole society. Although earlier an attempt to analyze dropout has been made (e.g.: Fatyga and others, 2001; IBE Reports 2014; Madalińska-Michalak, 2014), in a rapidly changing social, political and economic reality, the constant and dynamic progress of knowledge and technology, changing conditions of work and educational opportunities (for example the emigration of parents) arises a need to systematize the knowledge in the analyzed field. We state that in this perspective, the phenomenon of dropping out of lower secondary school education for youth will limit the school availability, deepen social inequalities and determine the social structure. It is worth noting that for Weber, life chances meant mainly the ability to access the socially recognized assets, such as government, education, economic status, health and prestige (Putkiewicz, Zahorska, 2001).

ESL is a complex phenomenon that can be seen as both a consequence and cause of socio-economic inequalities. ESL is usually the result of the whole process of withdrawing from education caused by personal, family, social, economic and educational matters. As Zbigniew Kwieciński indicates - the drop out is one of the main cause of school selection, and defines it as a percentage of

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total students leaving, in a given school year, the educational system (Kwieciński, 1972, p. 15). For the purpose of this paper, the following definitions of ESL are used (Fatyga and others, 2001):

- Natural – as a result of the death of young people,
- Apparent – resulting from the migrations, when the cause of ESL is departure on a permanent or long periods of time. The students may return (in a certain period of time) to the local educational system or finish school elsewhere in the country or abroad,
- Actual – the students, who entered the system and for various reasons dropped out, not reaching the educational cycle to VI grade of primary school or III class of lower secondary school, and according to Bourdieu and Passeron terminology, those are the students, who school system "sacraficed" (Bourdieu, Passeron, 2011),
- Potential – students, who are having difficulties with the implementation of the program and the school compulsory (including numerous of absences, special educational needs or disabilities).

Into account should be taken here also the system solutions, which can produce the dropout, e.g. by the creation of "inferior" classes or moving students to special schools in exchange for promotion to the next grade (Putkiewicz, Zahorska, 2001, p. 99-104). Barbara Fatyga research team marks out the hidden potential of dropout (in-system), which are mostly students effectively discouraged to the institution of school by teachers or peers. This kind of dropout is a special case because of a psychosocial situation of group of students indicated here.

ESL phenomenon concerning the lower secondary school students is an important risk factor of social exclusion in the later stages of life. It is widely recognized that social exclusion produces deep and long-term damage to the living conditions, social and economic participation, emotional life, and health status of young people. It also contributes to the intergenerational transmission of poverty. In turn, insecurity in living standards, political and social isolation, feelings of estrangement and unhealthy lifestyles aggravate pre-existing conditions of social exclusion. This results in a vicious circle where socially excluded young people are in even more danger of suffering from additional material deprivation, social and emotional marginalization, and health issues, which in turn expose them to more serious risks of exclusion.

In terms of evidence-based policymaking, the proposed working definition is useful because it is flexible enough to include various at-risk groups that are otherwise left out by more rigid categories. At the same time, the focus on exclusion's process-oriented nature reduces the risk of stigmatizing specific groups, and seeks to capture the cumulative tendency of overlapping forms of exclusion. The main aspects of social exclusion can be summarized as follows, although the list is not exhaustive:

- experiencing poor living conditions (in terms of housing, nutrition, clothing, physical safety),
- being unable to participate in the social and political life of one's community (not out of choice but as a result of obstacles encountered),
- being unable to enjoy cultural and recreational activities (as a result of obstacles encountered),
- suffering from health conditions deriving from poor living standards and experiencing obstacles to accessing health care and social services when needed,
- suffering from an emotional and psychological sense of exclusion and isolation from the community and/or from society at large (worsening wellbeing).

More than one determinant is generally at play in producing these aspects of social exclusion. Poor levels of education, experiencing discrimination based on personal characteristics, monetary poverty, unemployment, lack of residence or legal status in the host-country, living in remote geographical areas, and experiences of juvenile delinquency, are often indicated as the main determinants of youth social exclusion. For example, a person with poor education is usually more

likely to be unemployed or to find a poorly paid employment and to suffer from (general or in-work) poverty. Similarly, a member of a national or ethnic minority suffering from discrimination is more likely to face barriers to exercising citizenship rights or obtaining permanent residency in a country and to have a lower income. Likewise, a person belonging to a deprived community (in terms of family background and/or social group) is less likely to have the means to pursue higher studies and to secure a stable job. The same applies to a homeless individual, who is hindered from attending education and training, and more likely to live in poverty.

Children experiencing early school living (ESL) are more likely to be susceptible or be part of youth delinquency, poverty, social exclusion, unemployment (Czapiński, Panek, 2015; Putkiewicz, Zachorska, 2001). The role of education in the process of social inclusion is undoubtable. Education helps the youth to be part of important issues. A holistic vision of education is imperative. Why inclusion? Because the world is changing, because moral values are being re-examined as stereotypical thinking is increasingly exposed. Education needs to change to accommodate everyone (European Commission Document, *Tackling Early School Leaving*, 2011). The overall goal is to ensure that school is a place where all children participate and are treated equally. This involves a change in how we think about education. Inclusive education is an approach that looks into how to transform education systems in order to respond to the diversity of learners. It means enhancing the quality of education by improving the effectiveness of teachers, promoting learning - centered methodologies, developing appropriate textbooks and learning materials and ensuring that schools are safe and healthy for all children. Strengthening links with the community is also vital: relationship between teachers, students, parents and society at large are crucial for developing inclusive learning environments (Berkman, Glass, 2000). Efforts to expand enrolment must be accompanied by policies to enhance educational quality at all levels, in formal and in non-formal settings. We have to work on an 'access to success' continuum by promoting policies to ensure that excluded children get into school coupled with programs and practices that ensure they succeed there. It is a process that involves addressing and responding to the diverse needs of learners. This has implications for teaching, the curriculum, ways of interacting and relations between the schools and the community (Kwieciński, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c; Madalińska-Michalak, 2014).

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Providing earlier finding and available scientific literature we can state that the phenomenon of ESL is dependent on such factors as sex, school achievements, belonging to the excluded groups, place of residence, parents level of education, parents occupational situation, family income. We want to state that ESL phenomenon is also dependent on factors such as the organizational structure of education (availability of schools, number and types of schools), economic structure (GDP, division of labor, the number of firms in the region, the average salary in the region, the employment rate, the unemployment rate, functioning of the special economic zone) and social structure (the structure of social classes, occupational structure, groups at risk of social exclusion, external examination results).

We want to stress out the most important factors and explain the factor leading to ESL:

1. **There is a relationship between ESL and sex of students.** The phenomenon of dropping out of school more often concerns boys than girls. This fact is confirmed by the research conducted at the request of the European Commission by the Eurydice network on the differences in learning outcomes in relation to the sex of students (EC Document, *Differences in learning outcomes and sex of students*, 2010). In Poland, as in most European countries, the participation in education rate of boys falls faster than girls. Young women learn more and longer than young men. However, that research focused on school dropouts at the stage of higher secondary education, it should be assumed that this trend has a developmental character and its initiation is reflected at the stage of lower secondary school. The rate of drop

out of the education system in relation to sex of students is respectively 6.4% for boys and 3.6 % for girls (Dolata, 2008, 77 - 78). The issue of frequent abandonment by the boys' education is also indicated by A. Borkowska a study on the ESL phenomenon. (Borkowska, 2013, 53).

2. There is a correlation between ESL and **the level of school achievements.** By the term of school achievement we understand "*beneficial changes in both in the instrumental structure (the resources of information, intellectual efficiencies, the ability to use this information in action), as well as the directional and intentionality structure of a student (the motivation, the aspirations, feelings, and attitudes)*" (Kuligowska, 1984, 29 – 30). But when there are significant differences between educational and tutorial requirements and the level of achievement obtained by the school students then we can talk about the failures. The concept of school success and failure, we can and we must always considered together. Because in the teaching process where the success ends, the difficulties and failures begin - and vice versa. Thus, the student educational achievements in the context of school failures, can significantly be related to waste school middle school students. Nonfulfillment of school expectation leads to lack of motivation of children, absence and finally may lead to ESL. Children might not be capable to deal with failure.

3. There is a correlation between ESL and the **place of residence.** A factor which intensifies the risk of falling out of education system at the stage of lower secondary education may be the student's place of residence. The high risk areas in which this problem of ESL might appear are rural areas and selected enclaves of urban communities. Although there are far-reaching differences in these two environments, the risk of the ESL is similar, but the causes are quite different. With the reference to rural environment, primary factor which is increasing the risk of early school leaving is a matter of availability of educational and cultural capital of the community. If it is low, leads to lack of motivation to continue education, caused by the perspective of failing to change (raise) the social status of the child. The factor which determines the early school leaving by young people from urban agglomerations may be living in "bad reputation" neighborhoods, which are characterized by pathological social relations and low social capital (Fatyga, 2001, 17-19; Borkowska, 2013, 53).

4. There is a connection between ESL and the **belonging to groups at risk of social exclusion (ethnic groups, disabled people, people with specific learning difficulties, etc.)** As shown by numerous studies, among groups at risk of exclusion, and consequently early school leaving, are - among others - the disabled, people with learning disabilities, students with special educational needs or ethnic groups. In Poland, particularly vulnerable ethnic group are the Roma people. Early school leaving results not only from the economic situation of the region, social capital resources of students, but also from a health implications, or ethnicity. As the Eurostat data shows, approximately 25.6 % of students leaving school are children of immigrants. Another group are students with adaptation difficulties, experiencing school failure or with emotional or behavioral problems. Their integration in public schools is difficult, often even impossible. (Nardo, Koncokova, European Social Fund and Roma, 2013).

5. There is a relationship between ESL and **parents' educational level.** It is assumed that there is a correlation between the level of education of parents and their perception of the value of education and the risk of dropout of their children. It is assumed that the lower the level of parents education, the greater risk of ESL of their children. This problem is closely linked with the issues of social inequality, indicating interrelationships between awareness of parents and care for their children's educational development (Długosz, 2011, p. 129 -170). This issue has already been noted in earlier studies and indicated as significant, therefore it is necessary to be taken into account in our research (Fatyga, 2001; Borkowska, 2013, p. 53) and closely examined along with other factors.

6. There is a correlation between ESL and **parents' employment situation.** The parents' employment situation influences the level of risk of ESL. As previous finding indicate these factors can't be categorized unequivocally. Usually the parents' occupational status is combined with the level of their income and/or level of education. In many references it is stated that its low level implies a high risk ESL (Kwieciński, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c). As a result, many approaches suggest that parents' lack of work leads to the educational exclusion of youth (Szymański, 1996; Giddens, 2007), but Fatyga survey shows that - contrary to the assumptions - parental unemployment should not be seen as a determining factor leading to ESL (Fatyga and others, 2001) However, it draws attention to the fact that more often these relationships are associated with work in the so-called gray economic zone, which is a difficult factor to state or verify.

7. There is a connection between ESL and **parents' income level.** The dropout phenomenon is seen as an extreme effect of school failure (Kupisiewicz, 2006), and one of the factors that largely determine its level is a family income. Szarfenberg stated that the problem of social justice in education is clearly shown in the relationship between the level of family income and the level of education - they are usually both proportional (Szarfenberg, 2006). Children of parents with lower incomes have limited access to many areas of education beyond the obligatory program, which frequently reduces their chances of success in school situations and raises the risk of ESL. This thesis is supported by Barbara Fatyga studies, in which it is stated that in families, whose income is insufficient to meet the basic life needs, students drop out of school in order to take casual employment or seek for other forms of getting money (Fatyga, 2001).

8. There is a correlation between ESL and **the organizational structure of education.** The school reform has not fully fulfilled the expectations of the people involved in the process of teaching and education. Zbigniew Kwieciński states that the main task of the school is to prepare people, who will be able to cope with rapidly changing conditions of life (Kwieciński, 2002b, p. 33 - 45). As he writes: "*successful overcoming of the difficulties of social life has never been so dependent on opening the minds, awakening the motivation and competence in people in order to accomplish solidarity actions in education*" (Kwieciński, 2002a, p. 5).On the other hand, Kazimierz Przyszczypkowski is looking for effective "panacea" for eliminating the tensions associated with educational tasks, in widely understood change in the local communities. He points out the responsibility of not only the country, but primarily of local government, which must take care of the educational needs of its residents, taking into account the law, education policy and the needs and capabilities of the community (Przyszczypkowski, 1999, p. 21 - 23). ESL is a complex process relating to factors present also in the school environment. Consequently, the organizational structure of education can have a significant impact on the dropout phenomenon, especially on the hidden dropout (which is often the result of social relationships in school between the ESL student and other students and teachers) (Fatyga and others, 2001).

9. There is a relationship between ESL and the **economic structure of the province.** The influence of the economic structure of the region on ESL should be viewed in two ways. On one hand, the level of industrialization, the emergence of economic zones, the entry of major companies on labor market providing dynamic economic development of the province is an important factor. But on the other hand- as the practice shows - most companies look for low-skilled workers, highly available, which leads to easy accessibility to employment, but for those with low skills. The rapid economic growth and development of real estate market - providing young people with a lot of low-skilled jobs - meant that a high percentage of students gave up further learning (Borkowska, 2013, p. 53). Therefore, important roles in shaping the phenomenon of ESL, play the economic factors and the labor market itself. In

some EU member countries, the increase of number of young people abandoning the schools and resigning to obtain the necessary professional qualifications was influenced by the easy availability of the seasonal low-skilled jobs. Zahorska and Putkiewicz research shows, that the school principals are often pointing out the cause of absenteeism of students in the school to the availability of seasonal low – skilled jobs (strawberry picking, collecting scrap metal or caring for younger siblings) (Zahorska, Putkiewicz, 2008). Very often, low employment, low skilled workers and, consequently, low wages lead to lower quality of life, including health dimension, which significantly affect the decision-making of early school leaving (Brenner, 2009). An important indicator is the level of unemployment in the region. Economic conditions, as shown by numerous studies, have significant impact on the perception of self and of other peers. Particularly important is the perception of self as excluded from the society, for the development of personality and identity of children. The feeling of being discriminated, based on social status and the desire to gain position in the peer group, can lead to social pathologies.

<center>***</center>

Education, training, and employment represent central dimensions of social exclusion. These are interlinked, as limited access to educational and training services affects employability. Unemployment does not relate only to poor living conditions and inability to afford material goods, services and housing, but in itself it inhibits people's ability to fully participate in society, build social networks and realize their potential. Beyond individual benefits, vocational learning is commonly viewed as having two purposes: increasing economic competitiveness and increasing social inclusion and cohesion. An inclusive education system benefits all learners without any discrimination towards any individual or group. Inclusive education can promote successful learning. Inclusive education is an approach that looks into how to transform education systems in order to respond to the diversity of learners. It means enhancing the quality of education by improving the effectiveness of teachers, promoting learning - centered methodologies, developing appropriate textbooks and learning materials and ensuring that schools are safe and healthy for all (Putkiewicz, Zahorska, 2001; Czapiński, Panek, 2015).

A socially inclusive society is defined as one where all people feel valued, their differences are respected, and their basic needs are met so they can live in dignity. A socially inclusive society is a society where all people are recognized and accepted and have a sense of belonging (Berry, Rickwood, 2000). Social inclusion is seen to be defined in relation to social exclusion. Some analysts have argued that both inclusion and exclusion are inseparable side of the same coin (Lindstrom Merlo, Ostergren, 2003). Social exclusion is the process of being shut out from the social, economic, political and cultural systems which contribute to the integration of a person into the community. Social inclusion is seen to be defined in relation to social exclusion. Some analysts have argued that both inclusion and exclusion are inseparable side of the same coin (Czapiński, Panek, 2015; Putnam 2008). Socially inclusive society is keen on building/increasing the social capital, which enables to engage each person in the life of the society. The community then decreases the problem of marginalization and exclusion (Putnam, 2008, Coleman, 2007).

In the future, we are planning to conduct a research concerning **screening and diagnosing ESL phenomenon in the context of social structure.** We are going to verify the data on the scale of ESL and to specify whether the support given to students and schools at risk of this phenomenon is effective in the context of preventing social exclusion. We will aim to deepen the knowledge, ability to identify ESL phenomenon and its specific types of situations in the context of the risk of social exclusion and social structure transformation. As a result, the outcome of the research will serve establishing the relationships between researched variables.

The result of the research is going to be **an in-depth characteristics of ESL and an ESL typology**, which will take into account the relationship between ESL and social exclusion in the context of Weber's concept of life chances. Theoretical analysis and empirical measurements will allow to derive the model explaining relationships between early drop out and social structure. The diagnosis of the phenomenon, together with settling it in a broader frame of social structure and social processes, can be a starting point for social policy, including education policy - at the local community and at the national level. **We assume that the data collected in the research will complement and significantly deepen the knowledge about important social phenomenon of ESL and will build a coherent typology of students, who drop out of school in the context of social exclusion.**

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Teachers' professional knowledge.
A critical analysis of newly qualified teachers' expectations and experiences

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Abstract

In this abstract, we refer to an ongoing research study at Østfold University College.

The purpose of said study is to gain further knowledge about newly qualified teachers, their competence of development and change, and how they can contribute to the schools when they start their professional career as newly qualified primary school teachers. The study also seeks to establish whether the experiences of these teachers and the schools provide grounds for discussing changes or adjustments to the education and qualification of teachers at Østfold University College (St.meld 11 2008/09).

For the study, we have used a sample consisting of various employees in three schools. All the schools are training schools for qualifying teachers. The method used is qualitative interviews (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015) with newly employed teachers, mentors responsible for the new employees, and the school headmaster.

We use theory that describes the organizational culture and the way new arrivals are incorporated (or socialized) into an organization, i.e. into the community of practice, e.g. In order to understand organizational culture we use Schön (The Reflective Practitioner), Lave & Wenger (Community of Practice), Bernstein (Sterk og svak kultur). Goffee and Jones (1996).

During the presentation, we would like to encourage debate and an exchange of experiences that may serve as critical feedback to the study and contributions to a research article on this topic.

Our findings so far indicate that the newly employed are faced with different expectations and that they contribute to changing practices in the schools to a limited extent.

Keywords: competence , newly qualified teachers, professional career, school development.

Introduction

In this article, we present the findings from a study surveying three schools in one Norwegian municipality. In this article we have highlighted the answers we received from the newly hired teachers in the hopes that it will shed new light on their experiences after finishing their studies, but also for the purpose of giving teaching colleges an insight into the daily work life of the newly qualified teachers, in order to qualify them in the best way possible for work in schools.We interviewed three different groups of agents in the school; the newly hired teacher, a teacher in a mentoring role and the school management The data are to some degree interpreted in light of the works of Hargreaves (1996), who categorises different school cultures after their type of teacher cooperation. Furthermore, it is relevant to view the research question in light of Lave & Wenger's (1991) description of a learning community and Schön's (1983) observations on how new arrivals are included (or socialised) into the community.

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Research design and methods

This study is based on a qualitative approach built on a social constructivist view on research where knowledge is perceived as situated and socially constructed (Berger & Luckmann, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Postholm (2010), this view on knowledge is based on the assumption that understanding and meaning are created when actively interacting and responsible people meet in a certain context (p. 21). Three in-depth interviews were conducted face to face (cf. Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015) with three newly qualified teachers, the purpose being to understand their experiences as novice teachers in a new school. Although we wished to maintain the flexibility inherent in the theme, context and informant, in accordance with Ryen (2002), we developed a semi-structured interview guide containing a few questions planned ahead of the interview (cf. Ryen, 2002, p. 97). This guide consisted of ten interview questions that were intended to contribute both thematically, by producing knowledge relevant to the research questions in the study, and dynamically, by creating a beneficial interview interaction that would motivate the newly qualified teacher to share their experiences (cf. Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p. 163).

We based the analytical process on Corbin & Strauss' (2015) constant comparative method when analysing data. This is a process in which «data are broken down into manageable pieces with each piece compared for similarities and differences» (p.7). The data was treated descriptively and inductively, but not without prejudice, as our prejudices are what enable us to discover and understand (according to Gadamer, 2003, p. 59). Seeing as the overall purpose was to use data to construct the theory, the coding and categorizing work was done in an iterative process through three phases; open coding, axial coding, and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2015).

The purpose of the first phase of the analysis was to develop a temporary terminology to sort the contents of the material. This process began with us reading through the data to «obtain a *general sense* of the information and to reflect on its overall meaning» (Creswell, 2003, p. 191). Next, the text was coded by hand, line by line, in a Word document. Distinct units were given temporary and tentative *in vivo* codes (Corbin & Strauss, 2015, p.85). These codes then formed the basis for an interim categorization where we attempted to collect groups of codes (terms) covering the same phenomenon in more meaningful categories (p. 220). For instance, all statements in which the informants express expectations from the employees of the school was coded as 'expectation from colleague', such as this one from a newly qualified teacher who said: «They said, 'I bet you have a lot of great, new ideas, seeing as you are newly qualified'». The strategy we used in this phase of the coding process was according to Corbin & Strauss (2015) to ask questions based on question words: what, who, how, when, and with what purpose, as well as to compare the different parts of the material.

The purpose of the axial coding was to develop and refine every single category to its fullest in terms of its properties and dimensions (Corbin & Strauss, 2015, p. 239). This process was mainly composed of two parts; sorting, categorizing, and relating the ideas and contents of the open codes into axial codes, and exploring the dimensions and properties of these categories. An example of this could be the open code 'expectations from colleagues' which in this phase was coded along the dimension 'high vs. low' under the axial code 'Team roles'. The idea is that through sorting and making explicit the causal connections between the coded categories, more general themes and statements about the material emerge Hjerm & Lindgren (2011). This may help explain and increase the understanding of the phenomenon being studied. In this way, axial coding is both demanding and creative, and Corbin & Strauss (2015) maintain that the process can be compared to art, where «the *art* aspect has to do with the creative use of procedures to solve analytic problems and the ability to construct a coherent and explanatory theory from data» (p. 65).

In the selective coding process we identified and selected the core categories, "organizational culture" and "teacher education", which we in accordance with Corbin & Strauss (2015) attempted to

relate all the axial codes to. According to Corbin & Strauss (2015) the construction of a grounded theory is «like building a pyramid with each level of concepts standing on top of the others» (p. 77). In the following the results of the analysis will be presented. In connection with this, we would like to add that pedagogical theory, cannot prescribe or control actions, but it can enable us to see and understand more of what is in reality going on in wholly new ways (Kvernbekk, 2001, p. 28).

Findings

Newly qualified teachers and their expectations to the profession

A place of study and work

The new situation demands that the newly qualified teachers receive new types of responsibility and that they participate in a faculty that is rich in both theoretical and practical competence. This includes everything from knowing where items are located to knowing how to manage a challenge that arises. The newly qualified teachers may be faced with a great challenge just getting to know and being assimilated into a culture they are not immediately familiar with.

> When you come to a school, you have to learn a bit about how they do things there. Everything from simple things like weekly schedules and instructions and the like, to bigger things like the pedagogical idea behind it all.

Finding one's place in the school's system can be a challenge, and it is to be expected that the newly qualified teacher has certain expectations linked to how he or she is going to fit into the existing system.

> I looked forward to being met in a team where one can learn that culture, maybe getting to know a few strong individuals that one can meet a little bit more.

The mentor system

While some people experience the strategic value of forging bonds with people in the new workplace, others are conscious of their own integrity. Maintaining a balance between promoting one's self and socialising can be challenging in this situation.

> You're a person in addition to all this, one who is going to survive in a group of colleagues and hope to find someone you're in tune with.

Newly educated teachers also report a discrepancy between their expectations from their studies and the experiences they made as a newly educated teacher.

> There's a completely different tempo in school in the beginning, it's really high. It's so high that it may not really be possible to learn that much.

While the qualification process for teachers is long and somewhat demanding, it is supposed to enable the teacher to contribute to the teaching with new knowledge and new ideas. It is only natural that the student expects to be able to contribute with new and updated knowledge. One newly educated teacher puts it this way:

> My expectations for the teaching profession was that maybe I could bring out a lot of what I studied in school. But I quickly came crashing down there. I felt I had nothing to contribute. There weren't many things I could remember to use when I was newly qualified.

On the other hands, newly qualified teachers also have expectations for the school which they feel are met.

> I, personally, feel that they correspond very well. And I've been thinking lately that this depends a lot on who you are as a person. I've learnt a lot and the team feeling is very strong.

Our informants differ in their views on how the mentor system works. One is happy with his or her school and says:

> I am very satisfied with the mentor system and also with the guys in my team, you know, that you can ask and ask.

Another school works in a different way.

> They said that we were going to start one of those buddy systems in the first year. I was expecting that. It never came. That buddy. And when I asked about it, they questioned it.

Theory and practice

The informants express a discrepancy between what they are taught during their studies and what they experience in the workplace.

> The messages we received at the teacher training college, or those expectations that can be created in the classroom at the teacher training college, I for one find they are miles away from reality.

The newly qualified teachers let on that there is little connection between the theoretical world of the teacher training college and the field of practice. The connection is exposed when first meeting the school reality where the theories are tested. One example is class leadership in theory and practice.

> The difference is then that they are teaching theoretical class leadership in college, and then we are supposed to learn to practice it at school. I guess that's fine, but it's quite strange when a theoretical field chooses not to orient itself towards the practical application.

Expectations from the management

The newly hired teacher has also noticed that the school management, too, has expectations. These expectations are tied to two things in particular: that they take a clear role as an adult when meeting children and teenagers, and that the teachers are united as a single organisation. The newly educated teacher observes that this type of culture can vary from school to school, and that he or she is required to conform to the school's culture.

> …it's actually quite nice to see that you are told clearly what to do, that here in our school we do it this way, and we have reasons for that and they might change, but right now we want the staff to agree about this, and then we debate it fairly frequently. And that felt safe, you know, because then you know what is expected from you.

It looks like the newly educated teachers have different expectations to the school where they begin their teaching careers. Some find little connection between their education and life in the school, others have noticed that the expectations they had are basically met, but perhaps in a slightly different way. The teacher collegiate appears to play a strong and central part in receiving the newly qualified teacher, and the team they work in becomes the number one source of support in everyday life, rather than organised support like the mentor system.

The gap between expectations created by the teacher training college and what they meet in the field of practice is uncomfortable according to some informants. Their school team becomes the forum they use for getting their professional career started. The amount of work and the factor of time-constraints and stress seem to be surprising.

Newly qualified teachers and their experience with work

Support

The newly qualified teachers showed up with different expectations for support in the place of work, from the principal or in the form of systems used in the school – for example mentor or buddy systems. The main point is whether or not the management «sees you».

> …and then I have a principal who is very clear and firm, maybe a bit firm in some situations, but who is also very accommodating and helpful to the new ones.

Support from a mentor or buddy seems to have potential as an effective measure to enable that newly qualified teachers find their place and thrive.

> Like that, then there was a sort of mentor person here. So, we had a few conversations in the beginning. I think it worked very well in that way.

However, we saw that such measures were not sufficiently systemised in every school, as seen in the following statement.

> I asked for that, said that I wanted a buddy… But there was nothing.

Several informants stress the importance of the team when it comes to support.

> …and then we had a team meeting that I got invited to before the summer. It was very nice, because we were at someone's house and dedicated a whole day to planning. The team has been the most important source of support.

The colleagues in the office community give support when the newly qualified teacher encounters challenges at work.

> I think it's mainly those I share an office with. It's quite natural in a way. If it's a bigger problem, I go to the management. It depends.

Developing the teaching role

Collectively oriented schools provide clearer rules of conduct and a greater feeling of security in the professional role, because the expectations are also clearer.

> In my team, I'm the same as everyone else. With expectations for my tasks and how they should be done. And there is more of an idea that these are our students, not mine and yours. That's very positive.

Receiving a clear role at an early stage seems to make it easier to put things in order, both when it comes to practical matters and getting to know the colleagues.

> I became a contact teacher[2] right away. So, I mean, I had a lot of things to find a system for. Our school books, how to plan everything. Getting to know my colleagues, you know. I am much more confident now.

One of the informants notes how the pupils can contribute to the teachers' understanding of what helps the pupils learn.

> I think I learn a lot from the pupils too. They've made suggestions and I've learnt a lot from that.

The data confirms that the newly qualified teachers take part in pedagogical discussions and that their opinions are heard.

> If I want to make a contribution, it is welcome. I feel like I have something to contribute to an established school.

Personality traits

The informants also point out that whether newly qualified teachers are able to contribute is somewhat depending on their personality traits.

> At the same time, I've challenged myself to find things out and learn in my own way, too.

The above statement confirms that the informant him- or herself initiated a change in order to be able to contribute more. However, it also shows that the informant failed to contribute in another context due to insecurities.

> I'm not active when we're sitting there in discussions. I feel really insecure.

Not everyone finds the transition to a new workplace and new colleagues easy.

> I was a bit timid, a bit afraid to ask too much.

Correlation between theory and practice

The informants sometimes reported that they were expected to contribute because they were so recently qualified.

> There were some people, to a certain degree, who came over and said: «how lovely that you are coming here bringing new energy and inspiration»! So that was nice, you usually have those things when you're a recent graduate.

On the other hand, they also found there were sides to the school practice that their education had failed to prepare them for.

> Nobody tells you how to be a contact teacher. What tasks you have.

It was also pointed out that the four years of educational studies have changed the students in some ways. In this case, the formational aspect is highlighted.

> What I feel has been of most use over at the teacher training college, that's the pedagogy. That you really, when you were there, didn't think about learning, but when you get out, how much you have changed in those four years of studies. It's been nice.

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[2] A contact teacher (Norw. *kontaktlærer*) is a teacher with additional administrative and social-pedagogical responsibilities, including contact with the pupils' parents/homes.

The theoretical part of the education is highlighted as a positive and useful feature, but again the lack of relevant practice is stressed.

> The theory part is nice, of course. But there were still a lot of things I missed when I started [teaching]. I missed a lot of the purely practical stuff. How we can handle difficult pupils and things like that.

Discussion

The informants were asked to mention what factors they felt were of importance for contributing as newly qualified teachers in their school.

The informants clearly expressed a need for support in their first year, specially in the beginning, in order to figure out the practical matters. After that, the need emerged for help with various challenges as they arose. The support could come from five different sources.

The first source is the dialogue with the principal. These conversations could concern overall conditions and what characteristics of the school the principal chose to stress. The dialogue with the principal contributes to making the newly qualified teacher feel welcome and contributes to making expectations clearer.

The second source is the team's reception. These findings are also supported by Hargreaves (1996), who categorises different school cultures by their type of teacher cooperation. The informants seem to have received a warm welcome by their colleagues in teams that have been inclusive. The teams allow you to get to know your colleagues, pupils, methods of work, routines, parents et cetera. Discussion and reflection over pedagogical and didactical themes also happen in the teams, as well as organising the teaching. This is probably where a sizable portion of the introduction to «being a teacher» happens; everything that goes with teaching and what happens outside the classroom, like writing reports, parents' meetings and cooperation with other institutions. These things matter greatly to the newly qualified, since the informants find that they are only covered to a small degree in their education.

Third, the office community helps teachers receive support with challenges that surface. Which of the colleagues then offer help and support may be up to chance.

The fourth source of support is a mentor or a buddy. The data indicate that such systems should be well in place in the schools, but they seem to work at random. One informant tells about a buddy that was promised, but failed to show, and another tells that a mentor was available in the beginning, but not later in the school year. A mentor can be very supportive when available.

One must assume that the need for help and support is greatest during the beginning at work, and that a mentor might be of most use in this period. However, there are different processes at work in a school throughout the school year, and there is a need for introduction to new routines and traditions throughout the year. It is possible that a lot of this takes place in the teams. We do not know what specific tasks are assigned to the mentor, and whether or not they are identical in all the schools. Based on this, it may be beneficial to discuss what it takes to make sure the mentor system works to the advantage of the newly qualified teacher. At the same time, it could be of interest to study whether the factors described above can be systemised so that they support each other. From the narratives in our material, it looks as though the goodwill of colleagues may be of importance, for instance in an office community, while the teams could be taking care of issues connected to the core activity, whereas the functions and responsibilities of the mentors have failed to become clear with the informants. The principal's presence and support must also be a part of this picture.

The fifth source is the pupils themselves. They could also be a support for the newly qualified teacher. One informant confirms that he or she learnt about how the pupils learn through dialogue with them.

Roles, responsibilities, and tasks

Another contributing factor mentioned by the informants is early clarification of roles, responsibilities, and tasks. Several circumstances are of importance to this.

The degree of collective orientation is mentioned as one factor. Having a clear vision of what the school hopes to achieve for the pupils gives the teachers directions for their work and creates a feeling of security through clear expectations from colleagues and management. It is a lot easier to be a new teacher and to make important decisions without the security provided by experience in a school that values cooperation and a lively pedagogical discourse (Smith, Ulvik & Helleve, 2013, p.16). To be part of a community that cooperates is a positive factor that helps make the transition from student to teacher less of a shock (Smith, Ulvik & Helleve, 2013, p.17).

Another positive experience is that of receiving a clear-cut role from the very first day, in addition to belonging to a team. This forces a need for the newly qualified teacher to learn how to systemise things from an early stage. Important parts of the teacher's professional identity are formed during the first year as a new teacher, laying the ground for the future teaching role (Hoel, 2005).

The data tell us that newly qualified teachers are heard when they contribute to pedagogical discussions. It is reasonable to assume that such contributions also contribute to acceptance and recognition in the teacher collegiate, while at the same time giving the newly qualified teacher a sense of having something to contribute to the school through a reflecting teaching community (Schön, 1983; Lave & Wenger, 1991). However, we also hear that the informants can be passive in some circumstances where changes are discussed, because they are insecure and uncomfortable in these discussions. A possible explanation is the novice's respect for the established and those with a lot of experience. Perhaps they also feel that they ought to be careful about standing out too much, out of fear of looking like a know-it-all at an early time.

To put it in other words, we may ask ourselves whether the newly qualified teacher's personality traits could play a role when it comes to understanding the best way to contribute to the community. It is about a wise and well thought out entrance into a culture in order to avoid challenging this culture too much. It looks like a feeling of security in doing one's job more or less develops over time. The informants' experiences also indicate that getting comfortable in the teaching role takes time.

Lack of correlation between theory and practice

Several of the newly hired teachers expected the schools to have developed a mentor apparatus, but throughout the data we found that this did not work as they expected it to. The team and individual persons they connected to mean more to them than a mentor system would have. Learning is personal and varies between students, depending on interest and motivation.

The informants tell us that the teacher collegiate expect the newly qualified teachers to contribute by bringing new energy and knowledge about new research and new methods.

They highlight pedagogy and theoretical knowledge as valuable contributions to their education, and that four years of educational studies have helped them change as students.

However, they also mention aspects that their education has failed to prepare them for (Smith, Ulvik & Helleve, 2013). Examples of such aspects can be the role of contact teacher and how to handle difficult pupils, which the informants think may be due to a lack of practical experience with some of the teachers in college. As far as the field of educational studies is concerned, this can bring about the debate on what qualifications the teachers need in order to offer a relevant and practice oriented education.

One informant thinks that general life and professional experience can help him feel like he has something to contribute to the school.

Summary

In this study, we have seen that students experience different challenges when starting their new profession. They point out that their educational studies contribute positively in areas like pedagogy and theory, but are not as successful when it comes to preparing the students for the parts of a teacher's duties that take place outside the classroom, and the practical needs required to handle the everyday stress in a school. The latter is probably something most people need to figure out as it seems to vary from school to school. Once in a school, they find that measures and routines meant to support newly qualified teachers are not organised well enough. One informant strongly suggests that it is up to the newly qualified teacher to actively create a system for him- or herself.

The material thus indicates that the different factors that can help newly qualified teachers to contribute at work to a greater degree should be put into context, and that newly qualified teachers also need to find out for themselves how to function to the best of their abilities. It seems that the educational studies have room for improvement when it comes to showing the full picture of what it means to be a teacher.

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What about Tigger and Piglet in school today? - A metaphor about children with challenging behaviour.

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Abstract

In this presentation, we want to discuss whether the teacher, despite good teaching skills, can overlook important aspects of the pupils' abilities and talents of personal development. Some pupils may be ground-breaking and demanding, other students may show such a quiet and delayed behaviour that they become almost invisible to the teacher. We present two cases to illustrate what a teacher can experience and at the same time question what is possible to do in relation to marginal groups of pupils. The metaphor "Tigger and Piglet" may help change the teachers thinking and action and broaden our understanding of teaching goal and various pre-developed, standardized programs in school.

The method is inspired by phenomenology (Moustakas, 1994) and is strictly inductive, based on real situations. The meeting between teachers and marginal pupils is analysed through communication theory (Rogers, 1961). Important categories will be recognition (respect), self-esteem (genuineness), emotional attachment (warmth), trust and space (empathy). The study is also linked to how knowledge is presented through human action (Molander, 1996). The stories will open for new thinking around the pupils´ development, while creating motivation and professional development for the teacher.

The cases show that Tigger needs "space" to examine their energetic and ground-breaking perspectives, which are connected to inner motivation, authenticity and accepting themselves. The Piglet needs to be challenged, in a good and safe way, in those areas where the fear is strongest. Each case will show how the teacher does meet these pupils in a good way of action.

Keywords: pupils' abilities and talents, teachers thinking and action, new thinking, professional development, authenticity and accepting.

Introduction

In this article, we will explore how teachers, as leaders in the classroom, act together with restless and challenging children as well as children who behave in an extremely calm and quiet manner. We use Tigger and Piglet (Milne, 1958) as metaphors for these children in our article. Our research question is:

What does teacher do to facilitate a helping relationship to children with challenging behaviour?

The use of metaphors can help the researchers and the reader to understand a phenomenon in new and broader ways (Svare, 2002). Some children are experienced as defying the limits of the common sense of behaviour. They may be impolite and are characterized in a negative way. Others experience these children as active and with limited control, but in a positive way. At any rate, they always get more attention than others. We will compare these children to Tigger. Other pupils may show such

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a quiet and calm behaviour that they become almost invisible to the teacher. We understand these children as Piglets.

The article is a part of a bigger issue about what is the practical knowledge of teaching. The cases will open for broader thinking around the pupils' behaviour, and may help to motivate and develop the professional knowledge of teaching and leadership. We will bring forth the voice of the practitioner, and use theory to inform about what teachers can do well in practice.

2. Method

We use a phenomenological approach to try to understand the essence or significant aspects of a helping relationship. Ernst Cassirer (1994) explains how to perceive and understand the essence of cultural phenomena. To teach is a cultural phenomenon. In cultural science, the perception *has to be* directed against the form or the essence of the cultural phenomenon. «Denn diese letzere [Kulturwissenscaft] kann den Formbegriff nicht auslöschen, ohne sich damit selbst aufzugeben.» (Cassirer, 1994 p. 90). By presenting situations and thoughts in a good situation, we will interpret the essence of what it is about the teacher's action that helps the child.

The stories we use are narratives from concrete situations in the classroom. A narrative is an exemplary case that searches for the teacher's practical knowledge (Craig, 2011). The examples are golden moments in the teachers' experiences of a good meeting with children displaying challenging behaviour. We will use Carl Rogers' theory of student-centred teaching to interpret some of the essences of a helping relationship. It is difficult to prove that our research has discovered some essential knowledge of a helping relationship. Rogers is more pessimistic, when he discusses empirical human science. "Science can of course study the events which occur, but always in a way which is irrelevant to what is occurring." (Rogers, 1961, p. 212). The use of cases to present these golden moments may isolate and dilute practical knowledge, but on the other hand, it is the best way to inform about this type of knowledge (Molander, 2015). By presenting the cases as they have been told to us, we keep an openness and curiosity to knowing in practice. The cases try to get as close to significant practical knowledge as possible. This knowledge is both practical and theoretical knowledge in action. The cases were given to us as golden moments from two different teachers, and we asked them to reflect on the stories. The reflection is their thoughts and experiences in the situation, but written in retrospection. The final cases are translated into English by the researchers.

To analyse the cases, we focus on the existential fundament in humans and between humans. That means we do not focus on the system or social reasons for the children with challenges, but we keep an open mind to see the connection in every way. Our analytical basis is Rogers' (1961) theory of a helping relationship. Even though his main focus is on therapy, he also focuses on teaching and on helping relationships in general.

Both the writers of this study have worked as teachers. Cassirer (1994) points out that the researcher should be part of the same cultural phenomenon that is explored. As former teachers, we recognize the situations and the *meaning* which the teacher expresses in connection with the theoretical approach. Teaching is a practical knowledge, which Rogers calls personal qualities (Rogers, 1961, p. 50). It is important to understand that these personal qualities are not private. They consist of a living, cultural, intersubjective knowledge, which it is possible to recognize in real life, based on real human action and thinking (Molander, 2015). This is what makes it possible to sense a cultural phenomenon and to transfer this knowledge between humans.

3. Theory

Teachers' practice

In school, the teacher has a significant position in a helping relationship. It is expected that the teacher has the competence to follow up every pupil in class. The teacher has to learn how to recognize and understand the situation of the pupils, and be the initiator of a helping relationship. This position seems overwhelming and in many ways impossible to handle perfectly. However, to children who are struggling with their own challenges, the teacher's possibility to initiate a helping relationship will be crucial.

Challenges in the child

In almost every classroom, there may be children with challenging behaviour. Both teacher and child may experience the behaviour as a problem. The child will often experience the challenges as learning problems, a lack of stable or safe relationships, and increased fear of communicating its vulnerability (Lund, 2012, p.22). Rogers says the problem is the person's own behaviour and a feeling of not being able to master the accepted behaviour, feeling overwhelmed by confusions and conflicts (Rogers, 1961, p. 282). The child may have some sort of emotional disorder and their behaviour can be a negative response to stress or not coping with the surroundings. The emotional disorder is often understood in terms of insecurity, depression, anxiety, stress, shame, rejection, loneliness, and a lack of self-acknowledgement. In 2016, approximately 5% of all children under the age of 18 had been treated for psychological problems in Norway (Helsedirektoratet, 2017).

Despite their problems having certain similar reasons, the actions of Tiggers and Piglets are very different. The Piglets internalized their problems, while Tiggers externalized their problems. The Piglets' internalized behaviour results from negativity that is focused internally. This could be feelings of loneliness, of guilt, of sadness, or even the feeling of not being loved. Social withdrawal is typical for these children, and some may have physical pain with no medical reason. We should be aware that this behaviour may be a result of parental neglect or abuse as well. They often do not stand up for themselves, and are anxious about how to interact with others. Some could also have difficulties with concentrating (Eisenberg et al., 2001). Lund (2012) shows that these youths have an experience of being invisible to both co-workers and teachers; they use different protective mechanisms that prevent social development when interacting with others. At any rate, some of the Piglets may be shy and are silent and adaptable by nature.

Tiggers show the opposite behaviour. Externalized behaviour is behaviour that is focused outside of oneself. This may be a feeling of aggression, but also an excess of energy or a restless conduct. Some may feel or behave outside the borders of accepted behaviour, and there is a correlation between this sort of action and delinquency. This means that these children may challenge the rules in school. Some of the Tiggers may be hyperactive and/or with a strong need for physical activity, and many are driven by spontaneous solutions and the feeling of happiness (Hinshaw, 1987).

Lund (2012) show that teachers often feel that both behaviours are challenging. According to Ogden (2009), introverted children are not problematic for the surroundings compared to extroverted children. Tiggers often get more attention from the teacher than Piglets. The Tigger may experience the teacher's attention as negative. Teachers put labels on children who show problematic behaviour, such as high maintenance, antisocial, bad and out of control, hard to manage, and with high demands for attention. Outside school and in other settings, the same children may be understood as dynamic and energetic. The teacher may label the Piglets as silent, shy and with little interest in their environment. Piglets may demand little attention, but need a great amount of good attention. This puts the teacher in a dilemma between what the children do express and what is the real need for attention.

The relationship with these children depends on the context of action and the attentiveness and sensitivity as part of the interpretation of the child's action.

Saga (2014) shows that teachers do find children with internalised behaviour challenging. In the study, she finds that teachers have a system perspective on these children. Such understanding helps the teacher to understand the whole situation around the pupil. In a systemic view, the problems with the child are understood as a conflict between many systems. When systems do not talk to each other or understand each other, there may be conflicts. Presented with a complexity of problems in a systemic view, the teacher could feel helplessness or alienation in the possibility of helping. Instead of finding solutions towards these children, it is easier to explain and accept the problems. Based on systematic perspectives, there has been made some standardised programs on how to act upon such children, mostly focussing on the Tiggers. In our narrative, we explore how the teachers do good without pre-developed programs and how the interaction between teacher and pupil could be a helping relationship. On the other hand, too much focus on what the teacher should do to help these children, may overwhelm the teacher and make them feel alone with the children and their problems.

A helping relationship

Rogers (1961) presents factors of a helping relationship. Helping means that at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, or improving coping with life of the other or a group. He calls this type of growth for significant learning. "It [significant learning] is learning which makes a difference – in the individual's behaviour, in the course of action he chooses in the future, in his attitudes and in his personality" (Rogers, 1961, p. 280).

Rogers uses research that enhances his view on a helping relationship. One of the studies presents success factors of personal qualities. The factors are an active personal participation, less use of procedures, emphasis on the practical care of the patient and to develop a relationship in which the patient felt trust and confidence in the professional actor. Rogers suspects that similar facts would be found in studies of almost any class of helping relationship (Rogers, 1961, p. 43). A different study focuses on how the person being helped perceives the relationship. The results show differences in the helper's orientation towards the client. Rogers points out the importance of a feeling of trust, a feeling of understanding and that the therapist clearly and openly stated feelings the client had approached hazily and hesitantly, a feeling of independence and the clients' feeling about the possibility of own choices and decisions. Anyhow, "We cannot slavishly follow such findings in a mechanical way or we destroy the personal qualities which these studies show to be valuable." (Rogers, 1961, p. 50). Rather than try to tell the reader how to use the findings, he presents questions that the findings and his own experience raise (Rogers, 1961, p. 50-56). Some of the questions are: Can I *be* in some way which will be perceived by the other person as trustworthy, as dependable or consistent (unambiguously) in some deep sense?: Can I let myself experience positive attitudes toward this child – attitudes of warmth, caring, liking, interest, respect?: Am I secure enough within myself to permit the child his or her uniqueness?: Can I act with sufficient sensitivity in the relationship to get to know the person and that my behaviour will not be perceived as a threat?, and: How can I free the child from the threat of external evaluation?

Rogers concludes that a helping person has to be psychologically mature. Signs of matureness are inner trust or secureness, unambiguous action, positive attitude towards others, courageous with the risk of involvement, an ability to understand the other's meanings and feelings, a sensitivity to the client's attitudes, a warm interest without any emotional over-involvement and the giving of acceptance without judging. The questions start with "Can I be" or "Can I act with". To be or to act with has to do with human characteristics as something essential and consistent throughout our actions. In this way, Rogers presents the virtues of a mature human being that has the wisdom to help other people.

The cases will show some of these human virtues. The cases are presented as phenomena of the teachers' experience of facilitating a helping relationship with children who display challenging behaviour. Even though we focus on the situations without the context, it is important for the reader to remember that these situations do not occur overnight. The behaviour of both teacher and pupil is based on their lived experiences. We will get some impressions of this context through the voice of the teacher commenting on the cases.

3. Results

The Tigger case

The seventh grade had a fairly free assignment in Norwegian (subject) that they would present to the class. The little hyperactive, blonde boy sat completely silent with his head in his hands. "Can I do this task at home?" he asked. I answered affirmatively and thought that it would not be done. A few days later the little boy came to school with a cassette in his hand. We played it for the class and I became speechless. The boy had made a 10-minute radio show, with self-produced vignettes, self-written sketches where he played all the roles himself, with clear and distinctive voices. It was magical and amazing, and so infinitely much better and bigger than I could have imagined.

It was a good day at work!

The teacher's voice

I had worked for a long time to get a good relationship with the boy and he was quite trusting in the first place. When he was little, he sat on my lap, and later I could just touch him on the shoulder to calm him down. There are many choices in all situations. The class consisted mainly of pupils who performed above average, and had positive leaders bot among the girls and the boys. It was therefore not a difficult choice to give them freedom both thematically and on how to present. Some pupils often need clear and predictable tasks to be safe, but some need air under the wings to fly. I gave him the opportunity to do it in his own way, because I did not want to lay unnecessary shackles on him, but obviously I feared that it would not be done. Boys like him perform variably, depending on the day, the subject, theme, activity and degree of freedom. He is driven by his will, inner desires and personal interests.

The Piglet case

In a sixth-grade project, the pupils were supposed to present a geographical area of Norway. I supported Ola to present Lofoten. In dialogues with him, the boy had told how much he enjoyed traveling on holiday to Lofoten and his mother's home place. In the process, I spoke with Ola alone. He showed me many pictures he had from Lofoten. Still, he had not written anything. I asked him to say what he felt when he looked at each picture. I wrote down what he tried to express. We were both tired afterwards and he wondered, with tears in his eyes, if he had to perform it in front of the class. I told him he did not, and asked if he knew about PhotoStory and showed him how to put voices on the pictures.

Ola met me the next morning to tell me he had made it. He seemed embarrassed, but I thought there was a glimpse of joy and excitement in his eyes. The presentation was a great moment, how the other pupils reacted, but even more touching was to see how Ola himself experienced hearing his own voice telling about his mother's home place.

The teacher's voice

I started with this class almost two years ago. Ola was and often is invisible in class. Sometimes he says he is fine alone, but I'm unsure. Perhaps it's something he says to convince himself. I think that human beings have a core in them to seek friendship. It's hard to get Ola to participate. If I asked the class to start a task, he would not start without individual help. He has a girl in the class which he trusts and would like to be with.

Working with lonely pupils requires a lot of effort, and it is not done overnight. You must create trust and expectations by showing that you care. These children may have been understimulated, suspicious and have difficulty relying on others. As an adult, you must repeatedly show that you are trustworthy and that you do see the pupil's attempt and development, although this development may go very slowly. This requires a patience that is daily put on trial.

A basic skill in school is oral activity. I believe in training this skill as we practice soccer. To make pupils talk about something they are interested in, gives them motivation to perform the task. Then they can spend less effort on what to present and more power on how to present. Ola's presentation of Lofoten wasn't that good, but it was a beginning. I had not thought of using PhotoStory before I saw all the pictures he had found. He got a tool he could use that was not so scary and he got the feeling of mastering the task.

I told this story to a colleague who tried to make a similar arrangement. But it didn't work out. It is not easy to say exactly what it was that made this situation work, but as a teacher in practice you look for the holistic reason to a problem.

4. Analysis and discussion

The cases show the space the teachers have in their practice. In this space, the teacher uses his or her autonomy. In that sense, there is a risk of doing wrong, but also a possibility of being helpful (Biesta, 2013). If we reduce the teacher's space of doing wrong, we will at the same time reduce their possibilities of doing good. In both cases, there are several moments when the teacher has to trust in his or her practical judgment and intuition (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1988). This judgement is significant in core moments where different values are in stake. A core moment in the first case is when the teacher has to decide if he shall allow the kid to do it his own way or not. In the other case, one of the moments is when the teacher decides that the kid should not be presenting his work in front of the others. In both moments some values are emphasized, as other values could be missed.

In the core moments, the teacher emphasizes the value of trust. In the first case, the teacher gives trust to the pupil through freedom, even though the teacher does think of the possibility of failure. The other case shows trust trough the teacher acting as dependable and consistent. The teacher is demanding something to prove his trust in the pupil. Both freedom and demands can be proof of trust. This kind of trust is not something the teacher can initiate alone. Based on the context and the situation, the teacher will act on a degree of freedom and demand. The situation must help the child to handle (in small steps) what they fear and what to fight for. If this balance is handled successfully, it will strengthen the child's self-esteem, self-efficacy and the understanding of the self. The trust is a recognition and expectancy of the child's "space" so the child can examine and connect to their inner motivation and forces.

Rogers' next question focuses on honesty and acting unambiguously. It is not easy to present this type of knowledge through narratives. It is something you have to sense in the relationship. "Thus whether he [the helper] is angry or affectionate or ashamed or enthusiastic, we sense that he is the

same at all levels – in what he is experiencing at an organismic level, in his awareness at the conscious level, and in his words and communications." (Rogers, 1961, p. 283) The narratives do not present the organismic level. The awareness level is presented in the teacher's voice. Here we can see how the teacher has a humanistic approach towards the child's problem, focusing on what works and how this is reflected in the teacher's own feelings and hard efforts to help the child and the rest of the class. These efforts are felt by the receiver as honesty in both words and action. The Tiggers' and Piglets' sensitivity towards the teacher are closely connected to these sensations and a mutual belief in the relationship.

A humanistic way of thinking is important in order to experience positive attitudes toward these children – attitudes of warmth, caring, liking, interest and respect. Even more significant is to know each other. "Once you come closer to a person, perceive his thoughts, his emotions, his feelings, he becomes not only understandable but good and desirable" (Rogers, 1961, p. 306). We would add, to get closer to the other person's vulnerability as part of the person's organismic level. Too many teachers try to give the pupils respect without really feeling this kind of liking. This makes the teacher ambiguous, which is easily sensed by the pupil without a conscious or clear mind. When two persons know each other and are brave enough to present their fears and fights, this may develop into a true, respectful relationship.

This bring us to the question of the helper's own feeling of inner security. A person has his or her own parameters in life of security or inner strength. This is closely connected to acceptance and understanding of one's own feelings, thoughts and actions. Rogers thesis is that the teacher should show acceptant of feelings. And even negative feelings have a right to exist openly in a school setting (Rogers, 1961, p. 288). Personal characteristics and attitudes are modelled (Bandura, 1977). If a child is to learn to accept and understand negative feelings, these feeling have to be expressed and not conquered. In long terms, such an attitude would bring forward a more unified human being. "[…] it is my total organism which takes over and is sensitive to the relationship, not simply my consciousness." (Rogers, 1961, p.202). In the first case, there are some small notions when the teacher tells how the child used to sit on his lap. This care can be based on the child's negative action and gives prove of acceptance without correction. This type of acceptance is helpful to free the child from the threat of external evaluation.

In some senses, the stories do differ from Rogers' criticism to the use of external evaluation and the use of conclusions or expected outcome of action. The teachers in our stories are constructive as to what the pupil should do. In the Piglet case, the teacher uses demands and the use of expected outcome. Motivation towards an outcome may feel extremely rewarding to Piglets. Bandura explains this as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) This feeling of self-efficacy is also presented in the Tigger case, but this action is more based on freedom of will. The teacher has to listen to the pupil's expressions of feelings to create a situation where these children may experience self-efficacy.

In this article, we have highlighted two cases in which the teacher felt uncomfortable, but then experienced golden moments. The reader may sense some of the notions that the narratives try to express. By these examples we have seen that the teacher's attention and attitude are very important, and that there might be some way to help children with challenging behaviour.

The Piglet case presents a child who does not demand attention and is mostly invisible. The teacher may experience a feeling of not being able to connect or reach out to the child. It is extremely important for the Piglet to been seen. This attention needs to be honest and without judgement. At the same time, the Piglet needs to be challenged, in a good and safe way. To create such situations is risky but better then ignoring the child.

The Tigger needs "space" to examine their energetic perspectives, which are connected to inner motivation. A larger degree of freedom may make them more self-disciplined, while larger use of discipline will make them demand more freedom. The Tiggers struggle with their own behaviour,

which is well known to most teachers and pupils. This behaviour may be most disturbing in the school context where there is a big focus on learning processes, outcome and assessment.

Important categories in a helping relationship will be respect, self-esteem, unambiguous action, emotional attachment, acceptance, trust and space. Such a helping relationship can be important in preventing problematic behaviour also outside the classroom. A helping relationship will give the pupil significant learnings that will be part of their own attitude, awareness and actions. Children will begin to feel valuable when they are met with an accepting attitude. This article shows the importance of finding alternative ways to develop the relationship and trust in the learning process. It shows some essential knowledge of a teacher's attention and attitudes in relationship with the pupils, and bring the pupil forward in directions of unknown opportunities.

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Cooperation of Polish educational leaders with healthcare sector for student's comprehensive development

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Abstract

The school's mission should be not only to educate, but also to shape attitudes within the scope of widely understood development – in individual, organisational and social dimension. It is worth mentioning that health is one of the basic elements of human development. It is essential not only in the biological sense, but it also has a significant impact on holistic, individual human development, as well as on his organisational and social operation – this is why health education is so important. A well-designed program of health education requires cooperation of educational leaders with healthcare sector, whereas the potential of such cooperation in Poland does not seem to have been fully discovered yet.

Therefore, the aim of the study was to seek the views and attitudes of principals of Polish schools as regards cooperation with healthcare sector within the scope of health education. In order to achieve the intended result, I applied the qualitative methods, conducting standardized, partially structured, in-depth interviews with principals of Polish schools. The analysed study results not only helped in describing the present situation, but above all allowed to develop recommendations for both educational sector and healthcare sector within the scope of cooperation, in favour of comprehensive student's development.

Keywords: educational leadership, healthcare sector in Poland, social development.

1. Introduction

A young man spends almost a half of the day in school, learning to communicate effectively in his mother language, learning foreign languages, mathematical calculations and different laws of nature. However, in school he is not only taught scientific, encyclopedic knowledge, but also grows to live in the society through the process of upbringing and socialisation, i.e. supporting certain attitudes and behaviours. School is the institution, where the student should also learn how to care for his health properly.

But how does health education look in Polish schools? How do school principals, as people directly responsible for the given facility, organise this vital process? Do the leaders of Polish schools realise the scope of health education only as the basis required by the law or do they undertake additional pro-health initiatives and develops cooperation with the health sector for students' good. The following research sought answers to these questions.

Hence, the goal of the research was to hear the opinions and attitudes of Polish schools' principals as regards cooperation with healthcare sector within the scope of health education.

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2. Theoretical framework of health education in Poland

The school's mission should be not only to educate, but also shape attitudes within the scope of widely understood development: individual, organisational, as well as social development (Dorczak & Mazurkiewicz, 2015). It is vital then not only to pass on scientific knowledge, but also to raise, which is directly connected to the student's personality development, shape his social, moral and idealistic attitude; which develops empathy and tolerance, as well as prepares to active living in a society (Maniek, 2016). With student's comprehensive development in mind, one of the most important attitudes, which should be developed already on the stage of elementary education, is pro-health attitude.

Especially given that one of the basic elements of human development is health, which for years has been at the top of major values of Poles (GUS, 2017). It plays the key role not only in biological sense, but it also has a significant impact on individual human development, as well as organisational and social functioning of a man, that's why health education is so important and should be taught already at the basic stage of education.

But what is promotion of health and health education? Is is best to separate these two notions. The promotion of health 'is a social process of educational specific, which aims for improving the health condition of society (…). However, it is worth adding, that nowadays the promotion of health exceeds shaping the knowledge and skills in the field of health behaviours, which are also the object of health education, because the scope of the former notion comprises also forming pro-health environments (…). According to the rules of promotion of health, health should be improved with an active participation of every person and in close cooperation with social environment' (Korporowicz, 2015, p. 149-150) i.a. with school. On the other hand the health education is 'a process which involves providing persons and groups with basic skills and knowledge as regards health' (Korpowicz, 2015). 'In the scope of these activities it is necessary to teach the society, especially the young, the skill of coping with difficult situations, with stress, and at the same time protect them from falling into addictions or – what appeared in the recent years – from excessive embellishment of one's own body and medicalisation of social life' (Korporowicz, 2015, p. 153).

This topic is clearly very important and is more and more meaningful for the student's comprehensive development, and yet the results of the study show that in educational programmes applied in Polish schools there are only elements of health education; there is no comprehensive, coherent programme within that scope (Dorczak & Freund, 2017).

At the same time it it worth mentioning, that well-developed health education programme requires cooperation of educational leaders with healthcare sector, while in Poland the potential of such cooperation doesn't seem to have been fully discovered so far. The already initiated cooperation of education facilities with the medical environment regards mostly school hygienists and paediatricians or family physicians, according to the Polish law.

Preventive healthcare over children and young people in school is the responsibility of the educational environment nurse or school hygienist, usually as preventive healthcare and first aid practice on the school premises. Services of school nurse/hygienist include:

- preventive services, including performing and interpreting screening tests on schoolchildren;
- group preventive fluoride services among children between 1st and 6th grade of elementary school;
- leading the seeding tests and care for the students with positive results of the tests;
- active guidance for students with health problems and caring for students with protracted diseases and disability;
- provide first aid in case of unexpected illnesses, injuries, poisonings;
- advisory for the school's principle to the best of nurse's knowledge;
- participation in planning, realising and evaluating health education.

The school nurse takes care of the children and youth till the last class of secondary school. The children, who fulfil the obligatory one year of pre-school preparation at the school premises are covered with healthcare by a nurse or school hygienist. The nurse or school hygienist i.a. performs and interprets seeding tests, which make it possible to timely discover abnormalities of physical development, motor system, eyesight, hearing, blood pressure. Moreover, by performing the seeding tests, the school nurse performs students indicative evaluation of the body statics and speech defects.

Preventive medical examinations (health checks) for children and school youth up to the age of 19, as well as mandatory protective vaccinations are performed by doctors, to whom the people are registered. A detailed description of health checks and seeding tests in particular age groups is included in the provisions of the decree of the Minister of Health dated the 24th of September 2013, regarding the guaranteed services of the basic medical care (Dz.U. dated 2013., p. 1248, as amended) (NFZ, 2015).

This the cooperation of school principals with education environment nurses and school hygienists and, in limited scope, with paediatricians or general practitioners results mainly from the provisions of Polish law. This is an absolute minimum, which must be guaranteed by the school principals, while it is worth to remember, that effective principals-leaders go beyond the schemes and base on innovative solutions (Kaczmarek-Śliwińska & Szczudlińska-Kanoś, 2015), including: the scope of health education, e.g. by initiating a real, stable and committed cooperation of school leader with healthcare sector for the sake of students' comprehensive development.

3. Methodology

To realise the pre-set goals of the designed tests qualitative method was used. It was performed as an on-line form with standardised interview dedicated to directors of Polish schools: elementary schools, secondary schools and high schools. The form consisted of three 3 open-ended questions:

− How would you define a health education?
− In which ways health education is implemented in your school?
− What do you think about cooperation of schools with healthcare institutions?

The research was conducted in August and September 2017. An overall number of 20 elementary schools, secondary schools and high school, both men and women, with different experience on the said post from different Voivodships of Poland, took part in it.

4. Results

The results of the research on broadly understood health education of students and the cooperation with medical sector from the perspective of the leaders of Polish schools, are presented below.

4.1. Health education definition according to principals of Polish schools

A vast majority of the surveyed principals of Polish schools responded to the open-ended question on the understanding of health education only by speaking only about physical health aspects, e.g. pointing out the importance of moving and physical fitness (sports), healthy diet or preventing addictions.

There were though a couple of principals of Polish schools, who understood the health education much more broadly, i.e. as care for both the physical and mental, as well as even social, aspect of health. Two most interesting utterances of the principles can be cited as an example:

'I understand the notion of health education as influencing every aspect of life, which will allow for shaping a unit, who is able to function well in the surrounding world, in physical, mental, social

and spiritual aspect. Thus the educational influence has to be represented in shaping attitudes, systems of value and introducing a healthy lifestyle'

Health education means „*actions to educate and develop, which include spreading knowledge about health, guidance on health hazards, building a high self-esteem and independence.*

The principal of one of the polish schools concluded briefly and meaningfully, that the health education in Poland is fiction.

To sum up, health education is defined as:

– taking care of physical health: **15 answers**
– holistic approach to a human being as physical, mental and social creature: 4 answers
– fiction in Polish educational system: 1 answer

= 20 answers

4.2. Implementation of health education in Polish schools

As the answer to the open-ended question regarding the realisation of health education in Polish schools, the principals generally specified more than one action adopted.

Most of the surveyed schools organise classes, courses, trainings and workshops in the scope of health education. Such answers as e.g. 'pro-health education in general education and physical education classes", „during lessons with biology, chemistry teachers', 'health education is in the core curriculum and realised in the scope of lessons. In the first stage of education as integrated teaching, and later on science, biology, technology, physical educations classes and during the hours at the disposal of the class teacher', 'trainings for teachers and students' appeared.

The information about the schools' participation in different national, and even European, programs and projects related to promotion of health, was almost equally frequent. Some of them design and realises their own school programs of prophylaxis. The responses included e.g. 'prophylaxis programs – *fruit and vegetables in school, glass of milk'*, 'through realising the program of a *Health-promoting* school, the participation in the project *nutrition- and physical activity friendly school, Stay fit'.*

Moreover, almost half of the surveyed school principals pointed out the great meaning of the cooperation with the school nurse in the scope of health education. Answers like e.g. 'the school nurse has an important part in it;, 'the school employs a nurse, who performs periodic reviews of children and youth health, performs a health check of children and youth, prepares the statistics on diseases' can be cited.

The distribution of answers of respective school principals is presented in table number 1.

It is worth mentioning though, that even though the above answers (in the Table no 1) were the most frequent, and thus grouped and highlighted, these are not all the activities of these school as regard promotion and health education. Other initiatives of the surveyed schools have been cited below:

– 'we show films about health, (also we have) leaflets, posters, wall displays, individual talks';
– 'we are the initiators and inventors of the 1st municipal Prophylaxy Contest. Even the ancient people knew, that the prevention is better than the cure';
– 'the health education problem concerns also the school principal's activity regarding creating the school space, where the students can feel safe and can care for their good mood, e.g. creativity, learning and relaxation areas';
– 'school psychologist advises the youth and their parents and talks to them in cases of: mood decrease, school phobias, problems with learning, anorexia, suicidal attempts etc. The school psychologist activities regard enhancing the self-esteem and building the identity of the children and youth'.

Table 1.

School	Courses, trainings, workshops concerning health	Participation in health programmes and projects	Cooperation with a nurse
A	0	0	1
B	0	0	1
C	1	0	1
D	1	0	0
E	1	1	0
F	0	1	0
G	0	1	0
H	1	0	1
I	0	1	0
J	1	1	0
K	1	1	0
L	1	0	0
M	1	1	1
N	1	1	1
O	1	1	1
P	0	1	0
R	1	1	1
S	1	1	0
T	1	0	1
U	1	1	0
	= 14/20	= 13/20	= 9/20

Source: own work.

4.3. Opinion of schools' directors as regards cooperation with healthcare institutions

The vast majority of the surveyed educational leaders is content with the cooperation with medical sector. Such answers like e.g. '(the cooperation) is sufficient, very good, with the local sanitary-epidemiological station', 'the cooperation with the healthcare institutions is going well' can be cited.

There was though a couple of school principals, who expressed their discontent with the cooperation with medical sector. Such answers like e.g, 'the cooperation is occasional, while it should be systematically developed', 'at the moment (the cooperation) is of residual nature', '(the cooperation) leaves much to be desired, especially in case of village schools – many schools do not have a school nurse or offers such care, but in a very limited scope of several hours a week. It is very difficult to convince specialised doctors to cooperation (of course gratuitously, because the school has no funds for this), although they would occasionally agree to conduct lectures or speeches for the students, parents' can be cited.

To conclude, opinion of schools' directors as regards cooperation with healthcare institutions:
- Adequate to needs and satisfactory: **14 answers**
- Does not meet all school's needs, as well as unsatisfactory: 6 answers

= 20 answers

Among these 20 answers one very valuable opinion of a school principle appeared, where he mentioned, i.a. that 'the cooperation of healthcare institutions is a fundamental part of the school's plan. It allows us to point the children towards the right actions and stimulates the need of taking care for oneself in them in an attractive and professional manner', which seems to be vital for their later development.

5. Discussion

The conclusions from the results of the research allow us to formulate instructions, especially useful to the school leaders in order to create a safe, students' comprehensive development-oriented, educational environment. Below the most important related ideas are presented

The results of the conducted research show, that health education is narrowly defined by the majority of principals, as taking care for physical health (15/20). Meanwhile, in health education definition mental and social dimensions for comprehensive development of a student should be involved.

At the same time it is worth mentioning, that in the majority of schools several forms of health promotion are combined. In 14 schools, which participated in the study, there are courses concerning health education, 13 of them participate in major health projects, and 9 of them point out a permanent cooperation with a nurse. Moreover, it should be highlighted, that apart from residual health education in elements of subjects teaching, the schools try to organise various events, days, games and plays as regards promotion and health prophylaxis. Here it should be pointed out that the health prophylaxis should be promoted not only among children and youth, but also in the entire school environment. It is recommendable, that all the people in the school environment, i.e. principals, teachers, administrative workers, as well as parents, should be oriented at pro-health attitudes, behaviours and actions for the sake of the students' comprehensive development.

What may be quite surprising, the majority (14/20) of schools directors is satisfied with the cooperation with healthcare institutions, but village schools point out the obvious lack of cooperation with medical staff (medical doctors, nurses), thus a systematic cooperation of medical doctors and nurses with schools should be increased and intensified.

In conclusion, we must remember that

'educational impact should be reflected in shaping the attitudes, values systems, as well as introductions to a healthy life style'

(a principle of a school).

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The Meaning of Trust in Educational Leadership – Determinants of building trust in educational leadership

Małgorzata Marzec[1]

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the factors building trust in school environment, with particular focus on leadership. School may be considered a public trust organization. It seems important then to discuss the meaning of trust from the point of view of the concept of educational leadership. The paper presents an analysis of trust in the context of educational leadership. It gives the definitions of trust and describes the meaning of trust in school environment and the model of forming trust to an educational leader. A detailed analysis of trust to a leader was conducted on the basis of the literature overview.

Keywords: trust, leadership, education, educational leadership.

Introduction

School is an organization where some determined correlations occur between particular groups and therefore social positions of particular actors and their roles resulting from them are defined. School heads, teachers, parents and students make up groups between which appear some ties. These groups have the ability to cooperate, which, thanks to the distribution of functions, allows the organization to endure. The ties occurring between particular groups are divided into objective, subjective and behavioural ones. The objectivity of ties stems from citizenship, place of residence and type of work. The subjectivity reflects the conditions that are objective for a given group, e.g. material status. These conditions are also connected to the common system of values. The behavioural character of ties is the manifestation of attitudes in the form of behaviours. There is also a moral tie that overlaps the types of ties mentioned above and is connected mostly with subjective ties. According to Kwiatkowski, educational leadership is connected to the three components of a moral tie which are trust, loyalty and solidarity. Particularly the first element plays a significant role in school. Trust in the processes of teaching, learning and educating has a particular value. Trust may be understood as a bet made on some uncertain future behaviours of others, composed of two elements: convictions and their practical expressions (Sztompka, 2007, pp. 69-71 ;Sztompka, 2004, pp. 184-185, 190; Kwiatkowski, pp.16-17).

It seems interesting to analyse trust in the context of educational leadership. The paper consists of a few parts. The first part presents the meaning of trust and defines trust with relation to educational leadership. The presented models point at the meaning of trust in the context of educational leadership, present the conditions and grounds for building trust and indicate the traits of a leader that are necessary for forming trust.

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The meaning of trust in the contemporary school environment in the context of educational leadership

In literature, the notion of 'educational leadership' can be found more and more often with reference to education. Leadership is understood not only as a characteristic of an individual (school head) but as the result of cooperation of many people in school. It could be said that leadership is an organizational feature, the potential connected not only to the charisma, authority, or vision of different individuals (school head, teachers, non-teaching staff, etc.) but, above all, to the ability to increase the participation of the organization's members in the process of making decisions (Mazurkiewicz, 2012). Modern leaders should focus on planning the processes of cooperation in a way that would give all the employees the opportunity to use their potentials coming from their knowledge, experience and motivation and to reach for some determined results and goals (Blanchard, 2007).

The observation of the changes in the system of education allows us to notice the risk and uncertainty that accompany educational processes. Various methods of coping with numerous reforms and different expectations posed to the system of education are looked for. Trust is a strategy of coping with risk. It seems that also with reference to the system education trust is of particular importance. We can distinguish institutional trust but also group, individual and systemic trust. Trust is a necessary condition of cooperation between particular groups and in the relations that appear within them. In the case of leadership, when there are many diverse groups within the school, trust between those groups is required. We could point at the trust between the school head and teachers, but also between the teachers and students or parents, or between the school head and parents. According to Fink, the 'starting point for any relationship. In fact the very foundation of human society is trust' (Fink, 2005, p. 45; Fink, p. 45; Precey (2012), p. 12). Trust is connected to the belief that the individual in charge of management is honest, and is conditioned by authentic interpersonal relations, which, in turn, makes the individual (in that case – the leader) act according to the expectations, do what they say they will do, which allows for the fulfilment of the planned goals.

Tschannen-Moran states that '*Trust con no longer be taken for granted in schools. It must be conscientiously cultivated and sustained – and school leaders bear the largest responsibility for setting a tone of trust. It is time for school leaders to become knowledgeable about cultivating trust because trustworthy leadership is at the heart of successful schools*' (Tschannen-Morgan). He describes a few points that demonstrate the meaning of trust to an educational leader; these are:

- „School leaders that have trust of their community are more like to be successful in creating a productive environment,
- Trust is a challenge for schools at this point in history, when all of our institutions are under unprecedented scrutiny,
- Much responsibility for realizing our society's vision of greater equity is entrusted to our schools. Consequently, higher expectations are especially brought to bear on those who educate our children,
- Without trust, schools are likely to flounder in their attempts to provide constructive educational environments and meet the challenging goals that our society has set for them, because the Energy need to solve the complex problem of educating a diverse group of students is diverted towards self -protection.
- Trustworthy leadership is at the heart of productive schools" (Tschannen-Morgan)

Trust can be perceived and analysed from many perspectives. The most frequently, trust is analysed as: an element of social capital, the foundation of social interactions, organization's resource, expectation of future actions of individuals and groups and relations within a given organization. Trust is voluntary as the partners in the relation make the decision as to whether it is worth trusting the other parties of the relation on their own. Trust is connected to risk as each of the parties has to bear in mind that the partner may prove dishonest and the results of the relation are uncertain. An important aspect

of trust is that it is not earned once and for all. Trust is dynamic and it changes in time, which means that it can be lost at any moment. What is more, it is built on the basis of the experience and knowledge not only of the individual who is willing to trust but also of others.

Trust is the foundation of social capital and the basis for cooperation between people. Literature brings many definitions of trust. From the psychological perspective, trust is defined as '*a complete confidence in someone, belief in someone, trustfulness*' (Sobol). On the sociological ground, trust is analysed from the perspective of interpersonal relations and its meaning for the society. Trust can be understood as '*a bet made on some uncertain future behaviours of others, composed of two elements: convictions and their practical expressions*' (Sztompka, 2007, pp. 69-71). Baier claimed that '*trust is reliance on others' competence and willingness to look after, rather than harm, things one cares about which are entrusted to their care*' (Baier, 1986, p. 128). And Zacher emphasized that '*trust is a process (of building trust, mounting of favourable conditions and creating features) and its 'product' or a given state of trust (…) Trust is often defined as a relation, whose characteristic is the expectation of partner's actions according to the cultural norms and values in a given society, or better – in a given place and time*' (Zacher, 2003, p. 33).

A similar analysis of trust is proposed by F. Fukuyama who believes that '*trust is a mechanism based on the assumption that other members of the community present an honest and cooperative behaviour based on the common norms*' (Fukuyama, 1997, p. 38). In literature, we can come across definitions of trust in the context of social capital, sociological and psychological analyses and those connected to management. However, what is emphasised the most often is that trust has a proportional influence on undertaking cooperation between the members of the group (a given community) and is a factor that conditions the endurance of such a community (Putman, 1995, pp. 264-265).

According to Uslaner, trust has to be seen as a moral value which can be considered on a normative or strategic level. '*Normative trust is a moral imperative to treat people well, even if they do not requite*' (Uslaner, 2008, p. 183). It is the basic kind of trust that we learn from our parents – the first moral teachers in our lives. This kind of trust stems from the conviction that '*the world is full of good will and good people and that everything is going to be better*' (Uslaner, 2008, p. 186). Moral trust is connected to the general assumption that people act according to certain rules and can be trusted. Whereas, strategic trust occurs in contacts with different people and is formed on the basis of knowledge, or the gathered information and experiences. '*Strategic trust reflects our expectations as to how other people behave*' (Uslaner, 2008, p. 190). This kind of trust is built gradually, depending on the gathered knowledge on other's action.

It is important to point at the levels of analysis of trust in school environment. We can quote two perspective here: with relation to an individual and as a certain indivisible whole. In the case of the first level, trust may by analysed as '*a correct anticipation of other people's actions, which influence the way in which an individual acts, as the choice has to be made before it is possible to observe other people's actions*' (Sztompka, 2007, p. 71). On the second level – an indivisible whole – trust is presented as '*a socially acquired and confirmed expectation that people have towards one another, towards the institutions and organizations that they live in and towards the moral principles of social life that determine the basic rules of their lives*' (Barber, 1983). Both levels of analysis of trust may be referred to school. In case of trust to an individual, we should address trust to particular teachers but also to the school head and students. In the analysis of trust a certain whole, the trust to school is formed as trust to a coherent institution.

In literature concerning trust, we can find many classifications of trust. At that point, it is worth quoting the types of trust suggested by Sztompka who distinguished the following kinds of trust:

- Personal (interpersonal) – it refers to particular individuals with whom we interact; in this group, we can name family, friends, acquaintances, neighbours, colleagues, people with whom we have relations of any kind. In school, this kind of trust occurs on many levels of

relations, which are: teacher-student, school head-teacher, teacher-parent, parent-school head, etc.

- Social – directed towards a group of people from the broader or closest surroundings of a given individual. It is important to stress that between the members of the community no interpersonal relations occur; it can be for instance a school community.
- Positional – embracing some particular social roles, professions, officials and positions. Relations here stem from a given social position, performing an institutional role. Trust is inspired here through professional behaviour and acting according to the standards, norms and regulations required in a given position. Here, trust to is of particular importance with reference to the school head or particular teachers.
- Public – directed towards institutions or organization, understood as a set of structural rules in which particular functions occur. It is important that direct contact with the addressee of trust is not necessary. Here, trust refers to school as an entire institution.
- Technological – it includes trust to various technical systems.
- Commercial – connected to the relations client-institution. Most often it is directed towards a product (service) of a particular mark, company. Here, trust to school may be shaped as trust to an institution offering educational services.
- Systemic – directed towards the entire system, e.g. the economy, political system or civilization. Here we can talk about trust to the entire system of education (Sztompka, 2002, p. 229).

Particularly in the case of school, personal, social, positional and public trust is important. Some factors that may foster building trust should be indicated. Trust is not an obvious thing in schools. It has to be conscientiously cultivated and sustained – and school leaders are the most responsible for shaping trust. The time has come for school leaders to pay attention to building trust. Credible and trustworthy leaders should be able to build trust because trustworthy leadership lies at the foundation of schools' successes.

In literature, the notion of 'educational leadership' appears, particularly with reference to the analysis of schools' possibilities to adapt to the ever-changing conditions of the environment. Leadership is here understood mostly not as a feature of an individual (the school head only) or even of a group (of teachers and school's employees) but as an organizational whole or the result of many people's cooperation. It is important to notice that the leadership potential is connected not only to the charisma, authority or vision of individuals but to the ability of increasing the participation of the organization's members in the decision-making process (Mazurkiewicz, 2012, p. 35). Leadership is an interpersonal phenomenon, connecting the employer with the employee. People who function in school have to accept the leader and want to be led. Lack of trust or distrust may be a source of many problems and difficulties, particularly when the organization faces some difficulties and information reaches the leader with delays. Trust to the leader may create the conditions for the development of openness and involvement of the subjects that operate in the school's area (Wyrobek, 2013).

Modern leaders should focus on planning the processes of cooperation in a way that enables the activation of the potential of particular individuals in the group, coming from their knowledge, motivation, experiences and aimed at achieving the determined results and goals. Frequently, the considerations on leadership focus on the relations between leadership style and school's organizational culture. More and more often, commonality of actions is mentioned as a way of fulfilling the organization's goals. Leaders never act individually, the best schools are communities bound by trust between people. However, it is worth looking at the issue of educational leadership in a broader way and reflect on how leadership may influence the creation of trust within the school environment or of trust to a given school.

Models of building trust and educational leadership.

Factors forming trust to the leader in school environment.

The crisis of trust is considered one of the problems of contemporary educational leadership. The school head should the guarantor of trust and create conditions for building trust in the school environment. Trust is an indispensable element of modern educational leadership that forms not only trust in school but also of the particular subjects that operate in the school's area. In literature concerning trust and leadership, we can find studies concerning factors shaping trust in school environment. Analyses of trust to leaders are conducted from different perspectives. In studies concerning trust, managerial trust, trust in organization, trust to the leader in an organization, inter-organizational trust, trustworthy managerial behaviours and trust to the leader are described thoroughly (Wyrobek, 2013). Trust to the leader may be shaped by a few factors. Most often the following are mentioned: propensity, ability, benevolence, integrity. Below, we present the characteristics of the models of shaping trust that, according to the author, may prove useful in building trust to a leader in school environment. We point at the features and competencies of educational leaders and at conditions that enable the creation of trust.
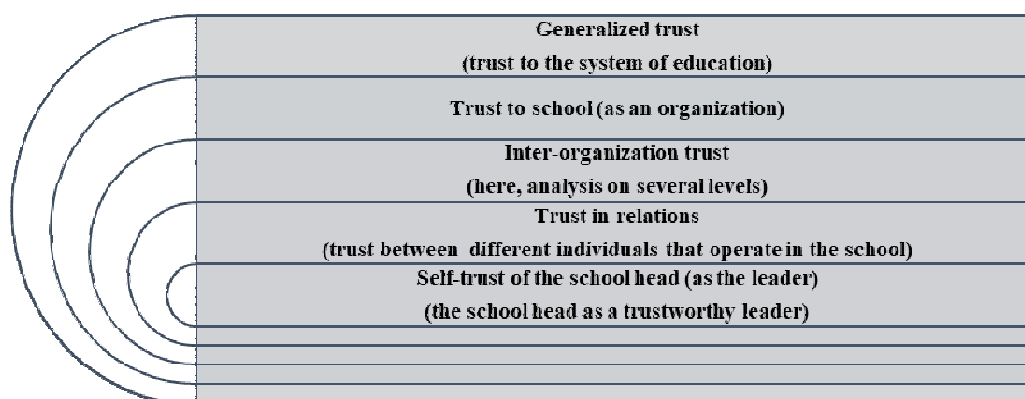
According to the model of leadership based on Covey's concept, trust may be one of the factors of efficient leadership next to credibility, delegating responsibility and creating structures and systems (Covey, Merrill, 2006). Value-centred leadership should be realized on four levels simultaneously, which are:

- Personal – attitude to oneself,
- Interpersonal – relations with other people,
- Management – delegating responsibility for tasks carried out by other people,
- Organizational – organizing people's work (connected, among other things, to recruitment of new employees, trainings, remuneration, building teams, forming systems and structures, solving problems, formulating strategies) [Covey; Szafran].

The presented model emphasises the role of the leader, his or her special influence on forming an environment in which the members of the organization will feel safe, as only in such conditions they are able to trust and then involve in fulfilling common goals. Distrust or lack of trust will be a serious barrier in communication and may inhibit the development of the organization. It should also be indicated how trust may be built from the perspective of an educational leader.

We can point at a few stages of forming trust in school environment (Graph 1.). Trust should be formed in several stages, starting from trust to the school head, through trust in relations with different members (subjects) of the school community, including trust within the organization and trust to school, ending with trust to the entire system of education. The presented model includes five stages of building trust (the so-called circles of trust), which are trust to oneself – '*self-trust*' of the school head (the leader as a trustworthy person), trust in relations (between particular individuals that operate in the school), trust within the organization (on different levels, e.g. school head-teachers, teachers-children, school head-children, etc.), trust to the school as an institution (the school is treated as an organization that is supposed to achieve certain results or goals, here, the relations school head-parents, teachers-parents are important) and generalized trust (social) connected to systemic trust – here, to the system of education (the belief that a given system fulfils the planned goals and tasks).

Graph 1. Circles of building trust in school

Generalized trust
(trust to the system of education)
Trust to school (as an organization)
Inter-organization trust
(here, analysis on several levels)
Trust in relations
(trust between different individuals that operate in the school)
Self-trust of the school head (as the leader)
(the school head as a trustworthy leader)

Source: own elaboration, based on Covey S., Merrill R. (2006). *Szybkość zaufania. Jak dzięki zaufaniu przyspieszyć sukces w biznesie*. Poznań: Rebis.

Making use of the presented model, it is important to note that trust should be built gradually. The most important stage of building trust should be forming '*self-trust*' of the school head as the leader. The school head should build his or her image as a trustworthy, credible person. Here, most frequently two features of school heads that enable forming trust are mentioned, these are character and competencies.

The first feature – character – is connected to righteousness and intentions. Righteousness means honesty in action and is connected to firmness and coherence of functioning. The school head should act according to the convictions and values that he or she holds as true. Whereas intentions are connected to motifs that drive him or her and plans that are manifested in actions. In case the person has some hidden goals, it will be difficult to believe that his or her main purpose is the good of others, all that such a person does or says will be doubted. It is important that the leader cares not only for his or her interests and personal good but for the general good of the institution. In case the leader's own goals are realized in the first place, it will be hard to earn trust from others.

The other feature – competencies – is connected to the abilities and action results of a given individual. Abilities are the means that are used to achieve goals, we can name technical, organizational and social abilities here. Abilities may also be described as capabilities that refer to professionalism, experience, knowledge and talents. In reality, these are means through which the result may be achieved. Results refer to the history of a given individual's functioning and his or her experiences. If the school head does not achieve what he or she is expected, his or her credibility (trust) decreases.

Trust to the school head may be formed by a number of actions, among which we can mention the following:
- Speaking directly to particular individuals,
- Showing respect to others,
- Building transparency (so that it is possible to verify the words said, being authentic, not hiding information),
- Mending mistakes (harms),
- Showing loyalty (recognizing others' merits, representing those who are absent and cannot speak for themselves),
- Providing the results (registering the results of actions, setting clear goals of action, not justifying if the tasks are not realized)
- Facing the reality (speaking about difficult issues directly, not avoiding problems),
- Setting expectations clearly (specifying expectations clearly, discussing expectations, renegotiating expectations, not assuming that expectations are obvious for all). [based on Covey].

The second stage – trust in relations – is important also when it comes to building trust to the leader on various levels of relations. Here, we can mention the relations leader-teachers, leader-students, leader-parents, leader-other people who cooperate with the school. As far as forming this level of trust is concerned, there are thirteen behaviours that matter and these are the following:

1. Speaking directly
2. Showing respect
3. Caring for transparency
4. Mending harms
5. Showing loyalty
6. Exhibiting results
7. Self-improvement
8. Facing the reality
9. Specifying expectations
10. Assuming responsibility
11. Listening first
12. Keeping commitments
13. Giving trust (Covet, Małysa-Kaleta, 2015).

The two 'circles' of trust presented here are important from the point of view of the subject of the paper's analysis. The subsequent waves of trust are also important as the stages of building trust to the school and to the entire system of education, they are not discussed here in details though due to the limitations of the article.

However, it is important to discuss the features of a leader that may create the conditions for building trust. Tschannen-Morgan, in his book '*Trust Matters: Leadership for successful Schools,*' described five factors that create trust: benevolence, honesty, reliability, openness and competence [Tschannen-Morgan, 2014]. Benevolence is a value connected to trust and makes up its essence. Honesty is the basic value, necessary for creating trust. Honesty is connected to the character and authenticity of a trustworthy individual. Authenticity in turn is connected to the three basic aspects, which are credibility, avoiding manipulation and being 'real.' Authenticity should not be associated with playing simple roles only. Openness is a process in which people voluntarily share information, are willing to be subject to others or be under their control. Competencies are connected to having appropriate knowledge and the ability to achieve the set goals. Table 1. contains examples of behaviours shaping the five factors that create trust to the leader in school.
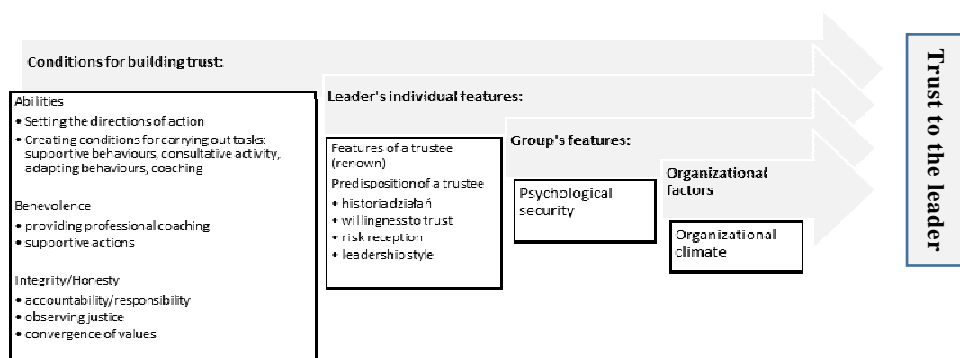
Tabele 1. Five Faces of Trust by Tchannen-Morgan

Benevolence	Caring, extending goodwill, demonstrating positive intentions, supporting teachers, expressing appreciation for faculty and Staff efforts, being fair, guarding confidential information
Honesty	Showing integrity, telling the truth, keeping promises, honouring agreements, being authentic, accepting responsibility, avoiding manipulation, being real, being true oneself
Openness	Maintaining open communication, sharing important information, delegating, sharing decision making, sharing power
Reliability	Being consistent, being dependable, showing commitment, expressing dedication, exercising diligence
Competence	Buffering teachers from outside disruptions, handling difficult situations, setting standards, pressing for results, working hard, setting an example, problem solving, resolving conflict, being flexible

Source: Tschannen-Morgan M. (2014*). Trust Matters: Leadership for Successful Schools*. San Francisco: Wiley Brand; Hoy, W. K., Tschannen-Morgan, M. (1999). Five Faces of Trust: An Empirical Confirmation in Urban Elementary School. *Journal of School Leaders*, JSi Vol. 9 - May 1999.

A complex set of factors that enable building trust to leaders may be found in the work *Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration* (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, Salas, 2007). The multi-level model systemizes the factors of building trust to leaders in organizations and presents the advantages of the existing trust (effects of trust). The most important factors of forming trust include: conditions for building trust (abilities, benevolence, honesty and additional elements), the leader's individual features (renown, leader's predispositions to build trust), group and organizational factors. The graph below presents the integrated model of forming trust to leaders.

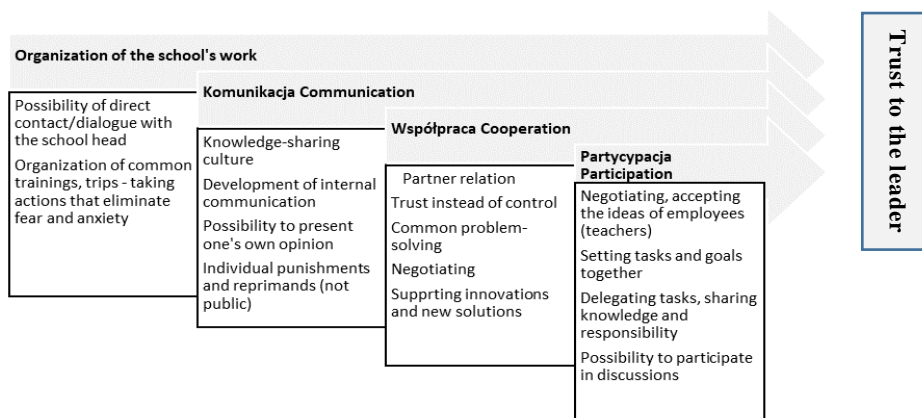**Graph 2.** The integrated model of forming trust to leaders

Trustee – here, the leader

Source: based on Integrated multi-level framework for understanding trust in leadership, Burke C., Sims D., Lazzara E., Salas E. (2014) *Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration,* https://pdfs. semanticscholar.org/5810/c556791666c5aca28ef48dd7b9eacb19784c.pdf

In the presented model, we can notice many determinants that form trust to the leader in school environment. The presented analyses allow us to distinguish various behaviours, features of a trustee (here – the leader) and of those who are willing to trust, and conditions of the organization's functioning. In the end, it seems worth mentioning the analysis of trust to the leader conducted by Poloczek: *Determinants of trust in the relationship between headmaster and teachers* (Poloczek, 2014). In the mentioned work, four basic areas of forming trust in the school reality were discussed, these are: organization of the school's work, communication, participation, cooperation (Poloczek, 2014). The graph below presents the abovementioned areas. They overlap partly with the organizational factors (organization of the school's work) presented in the previous model.

Graph 3. Areas of building trust to the leader in the school reality.

Source: based on Poloczek, J. (2014). Determinants of trust in the relationship between headmaster and teachers, *Contemporary Educational Leadership* , Vol.1, 3/2014

The best conditions for building trust in school occur when the leader, apart from his or her authority and formal management, is also considered an informal leader. In such conditions, the leader may enjoy real trust and support not only as an official person appointed to the position of the school head but also as a human. Such a leader must have some personality traits but should also have a lot of knowledge and abilities.

However, good intentions and leadership behaviours are not sufficient to increase trust and the efficiency of group work. The leader in the school environment should also care for sustaining the conditions for the development of trust in the entire school. He or she should be aware that the trust he or she is given by others in the school environment influences not only the trust to him- or herself but also the trust to other people who operate (function) in the school and the general trust to the school.

After Rogers, we can point at a few elements that should be taken into consideration in the process of building trust by an educational leader, these are:

- open communication (positive attitude, listening, disclosing information, openness to new ideas),
- consistency in action,
- creating trust on various levels (by self-knowledge – the so-called self-trust, common vision, building bridges in communication),
- building trust in team (maintaining self-esteem, support, praise, not keeping classified information, defence of others, avoiding gossiping, appreciating others' abilities and differences, improving the decision-making processes, taking into consideration other points of view, reducing conflicts, appreciating contribution) (Rogers, 1995, p. 14; Wyrobek, 2013).

To sum up, it could be stated that trust to leaders is formed by four key determinants, which are: achieving results, honesty, good intentions (benevolence) and appropriate competencies (abilities). Honesty is connected also to showing disapproval when the leader does not approve of some actions and decisions that are taken. It is also very important to show and express respect to all the people who function in the school environment. It is important to keep in mind also the organization of the school's work itself, cooperation between various subjects and co-participation of various people in the school environment.

Summary (conclusions)

Accepting various and multi-level analyses of trust to leaders, we can point at some several common areas of forming trust. Trust to leaders is analysed on multiple levels, through different groups of factors. They include the following: the meaning of trust to the leader in school environment, features (faculties) of the trustee (the leader) necessary for building trust to the leader, setting the features of the environment (school environment) for building trust to the leader, through the analysis of factors of the school's organization (communication, co-participation, cooperation) and the features of groups that function in school. We must not forget about the factors connected to the general level of trust and the willingness to trust either. In many analyses, emphasis is put on the leader's features (e.g. righteousness, benevolence, good intentions, reliability, openness, honesty, etc.) and on appropriate competencies (abilities and skills). However, it is not less significant to clearly specify the results and goals of action. In the process of building trust to an educational leader, we have to pay attention to two issues in building trust. First, the influence of the leader him- or herself on building trust has to be assessed through the analysis of 'self-trust.' Forming trust to the leader should start from an analysis of the leader's features and the conditions for building 'self-trust.' Second, trust has to be formed in various areas and relations in school environment, with relation to different subjects.

Effective distributed leadership depends upon five key factors of trust:
- *values and attitudes*: beliefs that people cared for their students and would work hard for their benefit if they were allowed to pursue objectives they were committed to
- *disposition to trust*: experience of benefits derived from previous trusting relationships
- trustworthiness: the extent to which others trusted them
- *repeated acts of trust*: enabling the increasing distribution of leadership roles, responsibilities and accountabilities, and the broadening of stakeholder participation
- *building and reinforcing individual relational and organization trust*: through interactions, structures and strategies that demonstrated consistency in values and vision and resulted in success (Day, Sammons, 2016).

Well-built trust to the educational leader plays a very important role in the school's organization. It can arouse its activity, increase the opportunities of learning, and, what is more important, reduce the uncertainty of action, broaden the scope of cooperation and create a good atmosphere for the school's functioning. Trust to the leader is a difficult and complex task that should be formed gradually and with caution. The concept of trust in the analysis of educational leadership should be considered a buffer – protection of the relations occurring in school but also an element that determines communication in school. Trust can create conditions that foster the development of school as a whole organization and the perception of school as a trustworthy organization.

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Understanding proactive leadership in crowdsourcing

Regina Lenart-Gansiniec[1]

Abstract

Crowdsourcing is a relatively new concept, nonetheless it has been raising more and more interest with researchers. More and more organisations reach for it, for instance taking into account its potential business value. It decides about access to experience, innovativeness, information, skills, and work, which are located outside the organisation, actually in the crowd. An analysis of various examples of making use of crowdsourcing by organisations encourages reflection on the factors, which determine its success. In the literature, one emphasises, among others, the significance of proactive leadership to crowdsourcing. This article is an attempt to specify the significance of proactive leadership in crowdsourcing. For the needs of specifying, evaluating, and identifying the existing state of knowledge on the significance of proactive leadership in crowdsourcing a systematic literature review was conducted. It also enabled selection, critical evaluation of the existing research, identification and synthesis of the results of all of the principal research studies and theoretical approaches. The results of the systematic literature review indicate that proactive leadership is considered to be the necessary condition for beginning any actions initiating crowdsourcing. A proactive leader takes the initiative, starts the action, initiates, is able to find the best solution, and actively searches for information in order to increase the knowledge resources. This is connected with identifying by these persons of the possibilities and willingness to introduce changes in work organisation. It creates incentives for the participation of virtual communities in crowdsourcing and propagates and promotes accepting their knowledge by the employees.

Keywords: crowdsourcing, leadership, proactive leadership, systematic review.

Introduction

Crowdsourcing is one of the new subjects, which has appeared in the last decade. In business practice, it has become a megatrend, which drives innovations, cooperation in the field of scientific research, business, or the society. More and more organisations reach for it, for instance taking into account the potential business value connected with innovative problem solving. Owing to this, organisations acquire access to the experience, knowledge, skills, and ideas which are located outside of it. Often enough the decision on applying it is a requirement and a necessity. Despite many benefits, practice shows that in some organisations attempts to implement crowdsourcing end in failure. Moreover, not all organisations are able to manage it.

In view of the above, it should be emphasised that the success of crowdsourcing is dependent to a large extent on various internal factors (Sharma, 2010) One of them is proactive leadership (Erickson, et al., 2012). In the literature devoted to management it is pointed out that it creates incentives for participating of virtual communities in crowdsourcing and propagates and promotes accepting their knowledge by employees. Despite its undisputable importance, the literature is still scarce when it comes to considerations and presenting the results of research on its importance in crowdsourcing. Most papers focus on employee proactivity, whereby attention is rarely drawn to

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managerial staff's proactivity. According to such approach, proactive leadership becomes an interesting background for the reflections on crowdsourcing. The goal of this study is presenting the importance of proactive leadership for crowdsourcing. The results of a systematic literature review related to publications from the years 2006-2017 have been presented in it.

1. Background

1.1. Crowdsourcing

The concept of crowdosourcing was introduced into economic literature by the editor of Wired magazine J. Howe in June 2006. In his article entitled "The Rise of Crowdsourcing" he describes making use by various organisations of the Internet to establish cooperation with customers and engaging them in creating innovations. The definition of crowdsourcing proposed by J. Howe, after consulting it with his editorial colleague M. Robinson, appeared one month after the article was presented in a blog run by the editor (www.crowdsourcing.com). He defined crowdsourcing in the so-called White Book as "act of a company or institution taking a function once performed by employees and outsourcing it to an undefined (and generally large) network of people in the form of an open call. This can take the form of peer-production (when the job is performed collaboratively), but is also often undertaken by sole individuals" (Howe, 2006).

J. Howe assumes that the crowd is distinguished by wisdom and each of its members possesses knowledge or skills which may become valuable to someone. The basis here is collective intelligence and mutual cooperation, which may contribute to creating values, choosing the best solutions, gathering opinions, and formulating judgements. Most authors acknowledge that the crowd is a general group, usually an undefined large group of people, online public (Kleeman, et al., 2008), which is often named users, consumers, clients, voluntary users, or online communities (Chanal & Caron-Fasan, 2008; Whitla, 2009). It is accepted that the crowd in crowdsourcing constitutes a group of amateurs, composed of students, young graduates, scientists, or organisation members (Schenk & Guittard, 2009).

A continuator of J. Howe's concept is D. C. Brabham. He proposed the first definition following numerous publications in the years 2008-2012, in his book entitled "Crowdsourcing" of 2013. According D. C. Brabham's opinion crowdsourcing is not "just old wine in new bottles". The author gives examples of open calls for solving difficult problems: creating an Oxford English language dictionary in 1800 by means of open discussions and the Alkali prize for developing an alkali method founded in 1775 by Louis XVI. In his opinion they are not examples of crowdsourcing since it is present when the organisation has a task to be performed, whereas the online community carries it out voluntarily. A result of these actions are mutual benefits for both parties. For D. C. Brabham crowdsourcing is an Internet, dispersed model of solving problems and production, a tool of social participation, planning for governments, a method of building common resources and processing a great number of them.

1.2. Proactive Leadership

Leadership is defined as a process, ability, or relation, through which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group to aim for the leader's goals or the goals shared by the leader and his/her followers. Another definition talks about the ability to go beyond the specific organisational culture and initiate a process of evolutionary changes which increase its adaptational capabilities. J. Kouzes and B. Pozner define leadership as a relation between house who aspire to lead and those who follow them (Kouzes & Pozner, 2007, p. 24). The following tasks are important in leadership: understanding the context of the organisation, importance of the employees, formulating a vision, communicating the directions of action to employees, motivating them, building teams, encouraging to create ideas,

inspiring to take action, breaking through institutional barriers in the organisation (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2002, p. 18), and orientation on learning.

The contemporary managerial staff should be an active creator and architect of organisational processes and be distinguished by the ability to capture from the organisation's surroundings the appearing possibilities. The need for creating organisational values, building effective teams, and inspiring the employees gains on importance. It is more often said that a manager is to be proactive. Proactive leadership is defined in the subject literature in various ways. It means behaviour and attitude in which the managerial staff takes over the initiative, begins some action, initiates is able to find the best solution (Seibert, et al., 2001) and actively and continuously searches for information in order to expand the knowledge resources (Crant, 2000). It also focuses on implementing changes to the organisation, but also its own behaviour (Parker, Williams & Turner, 2006). This is connected with identifying by these persons the possibilities and willingness to introduce these changes (Crant, 1995), effective leadership (Crant, Bateman, 2000), or entrepreneurship (Becherer & Maurer, 1999). Proactive people possess the ability to scan the surroundings in search for opportunities for change (Baterman & Crant, 1993), to define effective methods of realising goals, foreseeing and preventing problems, carrying out tasks in a more effective way. They are also distinguished by perseverance, being oriented on achieving results, and a vision of the future (Frese & Fay, 2001). These behaviours are called the chain of behaviours in a progress of proactive goal achievement (Bindl & Parker, 2009; Frees & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008).

2. Methodology

In the search for the dependence between proactive leadership and crowdsourcing a systematic literature review has been conducted. According to its methodology, the entire procedure includes three stages: (1) selecting databases and a collection of publications, (2) selection of the publications, development of a database, (3) bibliometric analysis, contents analysis, and verification of the usefulness of the obtained results for further research.

The first stage constituted a choice of the subject of research. This concerned specifying a collection of publications, which would be analysed. The basis at this point was selecting the databases. The analysis covered full text, greatest databases which include the majority of journals dealing with strategic management i.e. Ebsco, Elsevier/Springer, Emerald, Proquest, Scopus, and ISI Web of Science. The principal issue in defining the collection of publications is the choice of key words connected with the subject of research in order to identify potentially significant scientific articles from the point of view of the analysed problematic aspects. In each of the above-mentioned databases key words were used which meet the following criteria of inclusion: "crowdsourcing", "crowd sourcing", "proactive leadership" in the abstract, title, and key words. The base of publications obtained in such way was further analysed and selected in the next stages. As a result of searching through the chosen databases over 10,000 publications were obtained selected from English language bases.

The second stage is based on imposing limitations and database selection according with the "snowball" procedure. Therefore, the following limitations were imposed on the identified articles: full text, reviewed publications and the area of management sciences. Publications related to IT, social, technical, mathematical, medical sciences, and humanities were excluded from the collection. Duplicating publications, books, dissertations, and book chapters were eliminated. Articles in their full version, published in journals and the so-called proceedings were included.

The third stage will be the basis for identifying the areas for further research exploration valuable from a cognitive point of view and important for the development of the theory of management. At this stage, the usefulness of the obtained elaborations for realisation of the research aims was verified. Those publications, which did not strictly concern crowdsourcing, but rather treated it as a secondary

subject, were discarded. Only those publications were deemed important from a research point of view, which leading object of analyses was the term "crowdsourcing" placed in the title and key words. As a result, a literature base was obtained in the form of 20 publications selected from English language bases.

3. Proactive leadership and crowdsourcing

It is pointed out in the literature that crowdsourcing is a multidimensional concept. Taking into account the postulate for analysing crowdsourcing in a holistic way according to this approach (organisational, virtual community, and technological level), further considerations will be expressed according to the guidelines indicated in the literature (Zhao & Zhu, 2014).

The organisational level: the initiator. The initiator is defined In the literature as the "crowdsourcer", namely a person or persons who are able to mobilise for action a potentially useful crowd (Kramer & Cook, 2004). The initiator may be a private person, organisation, institution, or local government unit. In most cases the initiators are commercial and public organisations, but also private persons who possess funds, an appropriate supply base (inter alia: access to a platform, project promotion, payment of gratification) to carry out a crowdsourcing initiative. The role of the initiator is to direct to the crowd, through a crowdsourcing platform, an open call for cooperation and to define the tasks envisaged to be solved. It is important at this point to define by the initiator the goal, scope, schedule, expectations, awards, or recipient group. The initiator should also, in the duration of the project, exercise control over its course, e.g. evaluate incoming ideas/solutions, answer the participants' questions. From the initiator's point of view, not without significance is benefiting from crowdsourcing, inter alia: access to talents, external knowledge (Burger-Helmchen & Penin, 2010), valuable information (Greengard, 2011), resources (Brabham, et al., 2009; Chen, 2016), skills, experience (Oliveira, Ramos & Santos, 2010), mobilisation (Zhao, Zhu, 2012), and competences (Chanal & Caron-Fasan, 2008). It may also be used for creating open innovations (Brabham, 2008; Burger-Helmchen & Penin, 2010), building competitive advantage (Leimeister & Zogaj, 2013), improving business processes (Burger-Helmchen & Penin, 2010; Brabham, 2008; Balamurugan & Roy, 2013), optimising the costs of the organisation's activities, or business models (Garrigos-Simon, et al., 2014).

On the organisational level, the factors of success of a crowdsourcing initiative are important because the organisation invests in, inter alia, hiring or purchasing a platform, involves a team of employees, and secures awards for the potential winners. Its success depends on various factors (Villarroel & Reis, 2010). For instance A. Sharma (2010) discerned the organisation's vision, strategy, its relations with the environment, human capital, and trust. R. Buettner (2015) reviewed 217 publications devoted to crowdsourcing and identified the following factors: organisational culture and climate, openness to new knowledge, involvement, developing employee skills, managing individual and group efficiency, transformational and proactive leadership, (however, the former has been considered as the initial condition for effective conducting of crowdsourcing, whereas the latter as the necessary condition when using crowdsourcing), a transparent, responsible, sustainable, and reliable work environment. Other authors also point out to organisational culture (Qin, Van der Velde, Chatzakis, McStea & Smith, 2016). L. B. Erickson, E. M. Trauth and I. Patrick (2012) analysed 106 reviewed academic papers. In addition, eighteen semi-structuralised interviews with managers of American small, medium, and large enterprises have been conducted. The results of the research indicate the importance of organisational goals, desired results, common tasks, organisational perception, and proactive leadership. The researchers acknowledged that organisational perception is connected with the importance of employee and managerial staff openness to accepting ideas generated by the virtual community, organisational culture that is open to innovations, an innovative organisational structure, system of communicating and creating inter-organisational ties.

Hence, at the organisational level the following seem to be important: (1) employee motivating and (2) management. First, the employees' motivation to crowdsourcing. It is pointed out more and more often that new solutions will not be accepted if the employees do not see the benefits (Simula & Vuori, 2012; Louis, 2013). This refers to the fact that the employees' internal motivation may stimulate making use of knowledge coming from the crown and it is connected with the state of acceptance and readiness to accept knowledge coming from virtual communities. The reason is the need and willingness to make use of this knowledge to connect it with the knowledge already possessed. This may bring about creating new ideas, improvements at one's work post or for the whole division/department (Gong, et al., 2012). This may depend on internal and external motivation. Within the self-determination theory, internal motivation is connected with satisfaction, curiosity, and happiness related to acting and improving one's competences (Frey & Jegen 2001). In order for a given person to be internally motivated, two needs have to be satisfied: independence and possibility to make decisions (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Whereas, the external motivation is connected with receiving by the employees of financial compensation or avoiding penalty (Frey & Jegen 2001). In other words, external motivation may appear in a situation when an individual carries out his or her work because of control or fear of a penalty.

The literature on crowdsourcing indicates that in the context of motivation the possibility to share information (Bonabeau, 2009), learning something new (Boudreau & Lakhani, 2013), realising independent work are important (Schenk & Guittard, 2009). Nevertheless, these conditions only concern the virtual community. F. Ederer and G. Manso (2013) found out that the employees' motivation is increased by a possibility of receiving incentives from the very beginning of a crowdsourcing initiative. A. Wendelken, F. Danzinger, Ch. Rau and K. M. Moeslein (2014) think that employee motivation to crowdsourcing is influenced by career, personal development, willingness to play, reputation, and learning, while financial awards and altruism are not the sources of motivation. According to S. Fernandez and D. W. Pitts (2011) organisational climate, appreciation in the work process constitute factors which motivate employees to crowdsourcing, which means that the more the employee feels a part of the process of making decisions related to his or her work, the more he or she will be inclined to innovation. K. Palin and V. Kaartemo (2016) conducted research in a Finnish company VR, active in the railway sector and offering services related to bus transports and catering (case study, 18 semi-structured interviews: with 5 managers and 13 employees). The aim of the study was to identify the external and internal factors which impact employee motivation to crowdsourcing. The obtained results lead to an ascertainment that what is important and motivating to the employees is knowledge about crowdsourcing, time, faith in the ability to undertake some change, atmosphere at work, support on the part of co-workers, a feeling of being able to influence the organisation's policy, support from the superior, and experiences in the face of challenges, especially in the technical aspect. This research refers to the statements of other researchers about the inter-organisational conditions for crowdsourcing success (Villarroel & Reis, 2010; Stieger, et al., 2012; Simula & Vuori, 2012). Kesting an Ulhøi (2010) ascertained that the employees' attitude contributes to crowdsourcing success. By the same token, considering the importance of the employees, it is pointed out that it is important to motivate them to share knowledge within the organisation (Aalberset, et al., 2013).

Second, management. Management constitutes an important factor which determines making a decision about crowdsourcing. In particular this concerns costs, coordination, and risk. The will to save money or lack of funds for realising an action may constitute the premise for making a decision about crowdsourcing (Zhao & Zhu, 2012). Next, coordination of actions or the mechanisms of coordination in the organisation are of key importance to crowdsourcing. Their lack may mean resource leakage. Therefore, the organisation should possess workflow management (Potter, McClure & Sellers, 2010), members management (Dow, et al., 2011), and agreement management (Psaier, et al., 2011). Therefore, proactive leadership play a key role in reducing and eliminating obstacles in the potential failures of crowdsourcing. Proper management of human resources may increase trust and by

the same token the motivation among the employees engaged in crowdsourcing. Moreover, those employees who have good relations with their superiors are also more inclined to innovation. It is the managerial staff that contribute to an increase or decrease of employee motivation to accept external knowledge (Sonnentag, 2003). What is important here is training of employees in crowdsourcing, promoting the entire crowdsourcing initiative, ensuring resources to realise and continue crowdsourcing, communicating changes, which is connected with ensuring the possibility of constant giving answers to employees' questions – so that they do not perceive crowdsourcing as a threat and do not feel disoriented. Generally speaking, it is important not only to constantly inform the employees about the benefits of crowdsourcing, but also supervising the use of new knowledge in daily work. Which means that all employees should have an equal share in benefiting from crowdsourcing. To this end, the human resources department should define what benefits, resources the organisation may obtain thanks to crowdsourcing. Only such actions cause that new knowledge acquired within crowdsourcing will be applied at work (Jayanti, 2012). For example S. J. Adriole (2010) studied 100 organisations and proved that only 6% of their employees made use of the knowledge acquired from online communities in their work and 4% to support decision-making processes. In this aspect it may be ascertained that proactive leadership may be considered the necessary condition for starting any activities which initiate crowdsourcing (Erickson, et al., 2012; Louis, 2013) and it is indicated as the main element of the organisational level of crowdsourcing (Erickson, et al., 2012; Louis, 2013).

At the level of the virtual communities the following is pointed out: (1) virtual community's motivation and (2) virtual community's work coordination. First, the virtual community's motivation. It is emphasised in the literature that this community is driven by various motives when it decides to participate in crowdsourcing (Estellés-Arolas & González-Ladrón-de-Guevara, 2012, pp. 4609-4618). The most important ones include, among others: possibility of creating new products (Fuchs & Schreier, 2011), innovation (Füller & Matzler, 2007; Sawhney, et al., 2005), interacting with other members of the virtual community (Faraj et al., 2011; Von Hippel, et al., 2011; Sawhney, et al., 2005), testing one's skills, facing a difficult task and willingness to learn something new, developing knowledge (Sloane, 2011), which is important for the organisation's growth (Nooteboom, 2000). Another reason is also knowledge sharing. The role of the managerial staff, creating incentives for virtual communities' participation in crowdsourcing, is not without significance. Second, virtual community's work coordination. In crowdsourcing it is important to specify by the managerial staff the methods of acquiring, managing, and motivating the crowd to take action, the criteria of the target group, appropriate size and diversity of the crowd, and thus a selection of appropriate members of the crowd to the task's specifics. However, it is pointed out that its diversity may be beneficial for obtaining good quality solutions and ideas and it decreases the risk of failure. A lack of or inadequate development of the mechanisms which coordinate the work of the virtual community, in particular the criteria of crowd selection, method of acquisition, management, motivating, or evaluation may contribute to increasing the costs and losing control over crowdsourcing and even failure of the whole crowdsourcing initiative. Not without importance is not only developing by the organisation of mechanisms that encourage the members of the online community to act, but also trust towards the platform and the organisation. It is suggested here to implement control mechanisms that provide safety to the online community's members for example safety connected with protection of data sent by them. The ethical, legal issues and those connected with privacy may constitute the main problems while implementing crowdsourcing (Whitla, 2009).

The technological level includes requirements that a crowdsourcing platform, which brings benefits to the organisation and appropriate functionalities for the Internet users, should meet. An incorrectly chosen crowdsourcing platform may contribute to obtaining low quality of the ideas developed by the virtual community and an aversion of the crowd to interact with crowdsourcing. Therefore, the following parameters are important: reliability, range, capacity and storage, efficiency,

safety, comprehensiveness, types and methods of available interactions, throughput, platform range, types of the administrator's powers, access to the platform by means of various devices and operational systems, possibility to subscribe and unsubscribe at any time, collecting a large quantity of data, multi-level access to the tasks, a module of communicating with the organisation and virtual community members, intuitiveness of its operation, authentication mechanisms, coordination, allocating to a specific task, help-desk option, declaration of the crowd's skills, supervision, monitoring, feedback, negotiations by the crowd of the task completion deadline, aggregation of results, procedures for protecting the organisation and the virtual community members' intellectual property, and idea archive (Spreitzer, 2008). This translates to the level of crowdsourcing quality, its intensiveness, willingness to add entries, and knowledge sharing (Soliman, 2014).

4. Conclusions

The analysis of crowdsourcing levels and the existing theoretical papers and research results authorise to formulate the following conclusions:

1. Proactive leadership is considered as the central element and one of the conditions of crowdsourcing project success.
2. At the organisational level the issues of motivating employees to accept knowledge acquired from the virtual community and developing mechanisms of coordination, costs, and crowdsourcing risk are important. A proactive leader not only inspires the employees to take action, but he or she also propagates and promotes crowdsourcing and provides appropriate resources for its implementation and realisation.
3. At the virtual communities' level the mechanisms of motivating the crowd to act and coordinating their work are of importance. This means that a proactive leader has knowledge of the factors which motivate the virtual community to take action (Brabham, 2008, 2010; Lakhani, et al., 2007) and the methods of maintaining it. A proactive leader not only motivates the virtual community to act, but also creates a friendly environment for these communities.
4. Not without importance is the technological level, i.e. a crowdsourcing platform appropriately chosen by a proactive leader that is friendly to the virtual community, which enables acquiring good quality ideas, openness in building the Internet users-organisation and organisation-organisation relations and interacting, including willingness to cooperate in future initiatives.

The theoretical findings enable drawing of a conclusion that a simple dependence between crowdsourcing and proactive leadership does not exist. Nonetheless, proactive leadership is considered as the necessary condition for all actions which initiate crowdsourcing, in particular during the entire endeavour. Also, the voices of academics may be heard which talk about the importance of transformational leadership to crowdsourcing. In this aspect, the holistic, multilevel research oriented on identifying the proactive and transformational leadership's impact on crowdsourcing is of importance. An attempt to find the answer to this question will contribute to eliminate the negative consequences and obtain maximum benefits from crowdsourcing.

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Impact of humanistic management on education, leadership, and public administration development management

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Abstract

For some time there have been changes in the functioning of the public administration. These changes are dictated by the most frequently changing organizational and legal environment. This is also the impact of new management solutions in the management of public institutions and new insights into the needs of adapting the requirements of today's public administration. In this respect, it is important to promote and educate the whole society about the possibilities of applying changes concerning existing public administration entities. Hence, such an instrument, which can influence the way of looking at the whole public administration, is to use humanistic management, which has a real impact on education and the change of the whole public administration. The article is devoted to the influence of humanistic management on education in public administration, based on an analysis of available literature devoted to humanitarian management. Research will also be devoted to humanistic management, as well as an analysis of scientific discussions conducted at the level of many scientific publications devoted to the broadly understood humanistic management in the public sector.

Keywords: education, management, humanities management, public administration.

Introduction

Not everyone is aware of what the humanistic management is, what is the extent to which it can be used, and what real benefits one can actually make of it. This is why a broad cognitive education, dedicated to the humanistic management model, should focus on a person who must move and adapt to the ever-changing world of the organization. It has to be constantly emphasized that the public administration constantly needs new impetus for its development. Such an incentive may be the analysis of the use of humanistic management elements in the system of efficient and effective management of resources held by it. This article is devoted to the influence of humanistic management on education in public administration, where the leadership of the educational leadership plays a large role, thus influencing the management system of the individual. The experience gained from broadly understood educational leadership provides valuable practical and practical guidance. It will be useful to analyze available literature devoted to the humanistic management trend. Research will also be devoted to humanistic management, as well as the analysis of scientific discussions conducted at the level of many scientific publications, devoted to the broadly understood humanistic management observed in the public administration.

Popularity of the concept of humanistic management

The very idea associated with humanities in management has an extremely rich tradition dating back to the beginning of the last century. Humanistic management is increasingly popular and recognised by both theorists and practitioners. It is necessary to mention the important efforts of

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J. Kociatkiewicz and M. Kostera to define humanistic management. They believe that it is an internally consistent research programme aimed most importantly at discovering and improving the fate of a human being who functions and serves his or her specific purpose in the world of changing organisations. In this context, the core issue is the need to understand individual (personal) experience of each and every member of an organisation. However, one has to bear in mind that cognition based on the experience of every individual may not be reduced only to delivering a universal message because then such actions may fail (Kociatkiewicz, Kostera, 2013, p. 11). Such an approach naturally triggers an attempt to analyse humanistic management in terms of changing organisations, in this case, in terms of public administration.

It can be assumed, although there are different opinions in this regard, that "the fathers and precursors" of management sciences are two scholars: Max Weber (1922/2002) and Friderick Taylor (1911). Max Weber gave birth to the concept of humanistic management, which began to develop particularly intensively at universities. Friderick Taylor contributed to research on economics whose results were used at universities and economic schools. Those trends frequently overlapped and supported each other. An example here can be a systemic approach represented by Ackoff (Ackoff, 2010) or even the sociological school founded by Cyert and March (Cyert & March,1992). Such actions are most often a manifestation of valuable intellectual trends and the output within the individual concepts. And that is one of the most valuable features of management sciences – their interdisciplinarity (Kociatkiewicz, Kostera, 2013, p. 10). However, taking into account the past, one may note that both fields (humanities and economics) remained independent and separate in terms of subject, especially due to various opinions and methodological analyses.

Table 1. Characteristics of the economic and human sciences in management sciences

Specification	Economic trend	Humanist trend
Representatives	Adam Smith (ekonomia) Frederick Taylor Henri Fayol	Adam Smith (filozofia moralna) Max Weber Elton Mayo
Paradigms	Functional and radical-structuralist	Radical-Humanist and Interpretative
Methodology used	Quantitative case study	Qualitative case study
Main subject of research	Organizations (and management) from a typical efficiency perspective	Organizations (and management) from a human perspective and human management
The most common research goal	Increased organization and management efficiency, knowledge of organizations and management mechanisms from the perspective of market and financial principles	Increase the well-being, security of people in organizations, learn about organizations and management mechanisms from the human perspective

Source: adapted for: Kociatkiewicz J., Kostera M. (2013), Humanities Management: Outline of the Program, Management Problems, Vol 11, 4 (44), p. 11.

People took a considerable interest in the very humanistic perspective relatively long ago. That interest is also visible not only internationally, but also domestically. For example, there are papers combining management and culture, education and other aspects of the development of typically humanistic elements in the organisation authored, among others, by A. K. Koźmiński (2013), K. T. Konecki (1992), M. Kostera (2003), B. Glinka (2008), B. Nierenberg (2011), R. Batko (2013), M. Zawadzki (2013) and Ł. Gaweł (2013). These authors are a perfect example of how important a thorough discussion is and the desire to explain new, often unexplored areas focused on learning about aspects of humanistic management. This trend continuously points to the need for understanding the individual (personal) experience of members of any organisation. It is not a simple

issue, since each of these members has a different worldview, different expectations and different things motivate him or her in their journey to discover his or her purpose in life as well as in the process of his or her personal and professional development.

When referring to the very process of the phenomena under analysis, scholars focused on the humanistic aspects of management should also be aware of the limitations imposed on the laws discussed by them. They should also pay more attention to the occurrence of unpredictable and unexplored situations, taking into account the opinions of all the others. Such actions are, in fact, of great cognitive value. On one hand, they teach new things, while on the other, they show how a person functions in a constant organisational flux in reality (Kociatkiewicz, Kostera, 2013, p. 13). One should remember that any known rights and experiences that have been explored by man may be in the near future processed by people (Davis, 2008, p. 161). However, human nature and the mind of a human being still fascinate humanities scholars because it is people who are in the centre of the world and it is thanks to people and their desire to learn and know that make social changes possible.

When it comes to understanding the research programme for the humanistic trend discussed, one has to emphasise that it is clearly aimed at learning about, and improving, people's lives in the world of dynamic and ever-changing organisations (Kociatkiewicz, Kostera 2013, p. 13). Appropriately, in the first place there is often the understanding of the experience of members of an organisation where each of them has a different worldview. Such activity circles around the strength of personal experiences of people and becomes an important element of the creation of so-called added value of an organisation, the added value which is aimed at attempting to clearly convey a message.

The interest of humanities scholars in the foregoing is shown, among others, by their referring to literature and certain culture-driven texts. One may also note the impact of educational leadership on the perception of new phenomena and processes related to education at organisations. This essential dialogue provides cognitive satisfaction by applying various case studies which are a kind of method of teaching management (Flyvbjerg, 2011). In addition, as explicitly stated by M. Kostera, a more structured methodological reflection on the aforementioned texts emerged in the 1990s. A really convincing justification for the use of literary fiction to learn the principles of effective management may be found in a book of N. Phillips who proved the existence of benefits arising from the use of fictional and real sources in studies of organisations (Phillips, 1995). One cannot omit M. Kostera here who in her book described archetypes, i.e. relatively universal patterns of behaviours of organisations' members. The author in a very interesting way draws attention to those behaviours which have an extraordinary power to inspire and drive people to face new challenges. However, on the other hand, such commonplace and universal behaviours can, in a destabilising manner, prevent from meeting new people, phenomena or environments (Kostera, 2010). Nevertheless, one has to strive towards a situation in which every person is able to change reality, where only good changes may contribute to organisational development and transformations, and thus to the development and transformation of the world.

Symptoms of education, management, and communication in public administration

When analysing the humanistic management model, its components and ways of affecting reality and people themselves, one must not forget of how important education is for that complex process. A crucial role there is always played by the management of educational institutions. On one hand, it can be knowledge of employees who are engaged in daily tasks and duties of public administration bodies. On the other hand, education may be identified with the necessity to inform society about any actions and decisions that are taken by the public sector. Often, this is closely related to the obligation to inform people about the public mission funded with public funds. Respecting that law results from Art. 61 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland, in accordance with which every citizen has the right to obtain information on the activities of public authorities and public officials (Constitution of

the Republic of Poland). Another legal act, i.e. the Act on Access to Public Information, Art. 1.1, transparently highlights the importance of informing interested parties about the activities of public administration, bearing in mind that any piece of information on public affairs constitutes public information within the meaning of the Act and is subject to disclosure as per the Act (Act on Access to Public Information).

Education in public administration has become an indispensable element of the development and transformation of organisations. Well-trained employees employed in public administration mean well-performed tasks aimed at satisfying the needs and expectations of people (citizens). Such well-trained employees also mean appropriate characteristics and use proper communications at the level of public administration in the government, local governments and educational institutions. Hence, to ensure effective communication in the public sector, of great relevance is effective internal circulation of information as well as testing the possibility of information collection and dissemination channels, in particular when it comes providing citizens with information. In that area, of importance is appropriate education for employees to allow them to properly provide people with relevant information, as well as an adequate understanding of the role employees of all levels play in following the information policy applicable in their organisation (Dobek-Ostrowska, 2012, p. 70).

The core component of the effective application of the right to information in communication between the public administration and citizens is, above all, respecting the principles (criteria) of good information. Undoubtedly, the role of education of employees employed in the public sector has to be mentioned here, which is great importance in the educational process e.g. educational leadership. Managers of educational and cultural institutions can take serious decisions which are successfully used by public sector entities. The quality of services offered and the manner of collaboration with the citizens in various activities depend on employees' know-how and involvement in tasks entrusted to them. T. Goban-Klas identified a few of the most important principles of proper communication implemented in public administration (Goban-Klas, 1999, p. 14):

- usefulness – every piece of information should match in terms of content and quality a specific need most often associated with taking a decision in an individual case;
- availability – every piece of information should be available for interested parties; additionally, it has to be cheap and widespread among eligible recipients;
- operability – a feature where every piece of information has to be undeniably up-to-date and obtained without undue delay;
- accuracy – information communicated has to be adequate, it has to be relevant for issues discussed and it cannot lack any important elements;
- transparency – information communicated by public sector employees has to be provided in a relevant and comprehensible language, it also has to be comprehensible;
- genuineness – one of the most important features where every piece of information has to reliably present given circumstances;
- credibility – information presented to the public has to come from a reliable, documented and verifiable source;
- reliability – reality has to be reflected as accurately as possible;
- verifiability – a source of information has to be evaluable and verifiable.

However, in order for the public sector, including educational institutions and people employed there, to perform their tasks and duties efficiently, they have to be properly trained and educated in their responsibilities. What is more, they have to regularly improve their qualifications and competences, which are an important element of the process of communication with the citizens. Education should be present at every level of work of an official (public officer) since laws and working conditions change and the circumstances in which public administration functions also

change, and this results in a need to adapt the skills of employees of public administration bodies to changing reality and new challenges.

Development management and education in public sector

Many scholars studying typically educational components, basing their work on international research on organisations (e.g. OECD), undertake many research projects. Moreover, they present and successfully disseminate research results, identifying the most useful educational practices to plan educational space in the most efficient and effective way. D. Istance and H. Domont present really important and interesting conclusions about learning which may be successfully implemented in public administration. In a chapter summarising their book entitled "The Nature of Learning. Using Research to Inspire Practice", they highlighted specific conditions to be met by educational environments to make processes in such environments successful (Istance, Dumont, Benavides, 2013, pp. 480–513). Those conditions include, among others, the following:

– focusing on all the participants of the communication process, encouraging them to actively participate in communication and ensuring conditions for development (Schneider, Stein, 2013, pp. 134–135);

– focusing on the social aspect of learning; also, striving to build well-organised collaboration-based education and science (De Corte, 2013, p. 89);

– ensuring that relevant specialists are aware of the role played by incentives and related emotions in the achievements of employees employed in public administration (Boekaerts, 2013, p. 170–171);

– fostering combinations of various fields of science and specialist issues dealt with on a daily basis by public administration employees (De Corte, Furco, 2013, p. 87 and pp. 357–358).

The author's review of the literature on the subject connected with a cross-section analysis in the field of organisation, management and development management sciences, allowed three main trends of research to be identified concerning the important role of education and learning in organisations (i.a. Dalkir, 2005; Easterby-Smith, Araujo, Burgoyne, 1999). The following trends were identified:

– organisational learning, OL;

– learning organisations, LO;

– knowledge management, KM.

Despite the fact that these trends are separate from each other, with the individual research approaches analysed over different periods of time, a belief currently prevails that the trends complement each other and are intertwined (Crossan, 2008).

In addition, one has to note that incentives and believing in one's own abilities are often said to be essential conditions contributing to the development of employee competencies associated with learning and based on the leadership guidelines, often at educational institutions. Under such organisational and legal conditions, a learner is always required "to know and understand his/her preferred learning strategies, the strengths and weaknesses of his/her skills and qualifications, and to be able to search for the education and training opportunities and guidance and/or support available" (Recommendation... 2006, p. 13). The quoted Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council is very universal and it can successfully affect any of the aspects of public and social life. However, the said learning-to-learn ability based on comprehensive education requires employees of public administration, as indicated by the Recommendation, to gain fundamental ICT skills. Thanks to the skills gained, public sector employees can access new knowledge, process it and correctly apply it.

However, public sector employees display a growing tendency to value learning and education. Recently, the recognition of this fact has gained ground, shedding new light on public administration and raising awareness about the increased level of competence in the sector. The observed tendency

reflects well on the entire public administration since it facilitates its evolution with the use of new solutions in the area of management, law and organisation. Such solutions include electronic administration, some elements of which have been gradually introduced in the sector. Electronic administration, or e-administration, is a support tool used to streamline the management of tasks completed by public administration. As evidenced by the implementation of new solutions and progressive introduction of changes in the management of individual growth of an employee, public administration units take measures to effectively improve their performance with the use of resources offered by modern ICT (Romaniuk, 2016, p. 162). For several years, innovative information technologies have been successfully implemented in the sector. This shift could occur thanks to the proper training received by the employees who test new solutions in the course of their daily work. Particularly conspicuous changes have been observed in educational entities. Their introduction was dictated by new legal regulations, which are an important factor which governs the evolving relationships between public administration entities and their clients. New technological and communication solutions are essential for providing education and accurate information constantly adapted to the changing expectations of the public (Szpor, Martysz, Wojsyk, LEX 2015). Implementing electronic administration across Europe triggers an alteration in the business processes based on ICT. With the advent of e-administration, the entire public sector will gradually be forced to display qualities that inspire trust. Thus, as pointed out 10 years ago by M. Butkiewicz, administration should be:

- open and comprehensible for every citizen, with clear and predictable rules of managing public institutions;
- efficient and effective, offering the highest quality of service while properly managing public resources at its disposal;
- friendly towards the citizens, with its tasks (set out in relevant acts on public administration) and public awareness contributing to the mutual trust (Butkiewicz, 2006, p. 60).

The modern approach to administration outlined above, exploiting methods adopted by typically educational facilities, is aimed at eliminating faults and inefficiencies of the sector.

In addition, this approach should help increase the performance of public administration within the scope of social policy and market economy.

If they cannot complete all the required tasks, public sector entities which use different models of management (of education, growth, or humanistic management) lose their adaptability to the changes observed in their closest environment. Consequently, such administration ceases to solve emerging social or economic problems. Its employees stop learning, which weakens their investment in the job and the will to face difficulties (Olejniczak, 2012). Therefore, employees and the entire administration need an incentive to embrace organisational learning and education. A set of measures that could provide such an incentive includes:

- education of employees in the area of rationalising public spending and respecting citizens' rights;
- opening employees in the public sector to the idea of participative management within the scope of public issues, a need which seems particularly urgent at the level of local self-governments;
- heightening public expectations regarding the standard of services provided by the administration, which can be partly achieved by providing employees with education;
- increasing pressure on employees in the light of the widened scope of public services and their growing availability;
- searching for alternative and effective methods of completing tasks assigned to employees;

– actively fostering growth in the academic circles doing research on learning organisations in the public sector and promoting culture conducive to broadly defined education.

A discussion of the process should not disregard the issue of organisational learning practices which seem to be gaining ground in different administration systems. The education system of the entire public administration, the growth management system used, and employees charged with different responsibilities, are all components of a natural pool of the organisational changes observed. Thus, there is a certain convergence between the two phenomena (Dubnick, Frederickson, 2011). In many cases, the convergence results from the highly international nature of reforms altering the mechanisms of public management, including humanistic management.

The visible intensity and the scope of organisational practices introduced in the public sector may be perceived as a natural tide of changes occurring in the public administration in the area of education and organisational learning. The type of organisational learning discussed is strongly identified with participative management and enables identifying the direction of changes in most public administration units. Highly emphasised in educational organisations, the practices of organisational learning and the tenets of the whole educational system are increasingly exploited in public administration. However, in many situations those practices are falsely regarded as an avant-garde of reforms in public administration, which should be disproved. What public administration needs is innovation and the courage to experiment with different types of training, increasingly popular coaching, and ICT solutions at different levels of complexity. Therefore, good practices and the framework of educational system should never be transferred to public administration to the letter. The policies introduced always need to be adapted to the particular situation and needs of the organisation (Minniberger, Plaschnik, Płoszaj, 2012), since broadly defined public administration, like any other organisation, has its unique qualities. To conclude with a compelling observation offered by R. Galar: 'Maintaining the ability to find your own solutions takes precedent over the pursuit for the illusion of remedies tested across the globe' (Galar, 2009, p. 304). In other words, the public sector should establish its own methods of management, organisation, and education, which will yield a profit, i.e. the increased satisfaction of its future clients.

Finally, my observations related to the assessment of educational system employed in public administration can be concluded with reference data from the Warmińsko-Mazurskie province. The data regards planned spending for education of employees in the Marshal's Office of the Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province in Olsztyn for 2015.

Table 2. Education expenditure plan for 2015

Form of education	Financial resources			
	General budget	**Other**	**Including EU funds**	**Together**
training	134 335,00 zł	634 190,00 zł	568 890,00 zł	768 525,00 zł
Courses, including language courses	15 665,00 zł	220 360,00 zł	220 360,00 zł	236 025,00 zł
Studies	24 000,00 zł	304 000,00 zł	299 000,00 zł	328 000,00 zł
SUM	**174 000,00 zł**	**1 158 550,00 zł**	**1 088 250,00 zł**	**1 332 550,00 zł**

Source: own elaboration based on budget resolution of Warmińsko-Mazurskie voivodeship approved by the Order No. 2/2015 Marshal of Warmińsko-Mazurskie Voivodeship dated 9th January 2015.

In accordance with the Acquisition of Higher Competence Plan approved on 11 December 2014, the office planned to spend PLN 1,332,550.00 in 2015, obtained from general (§ 4300, 4700) and other resources (§ 4700, 4708, 4709, 4300, 4308, 4309). 86,94% of that sum (or PLN 1,158,550.00)

included expenses on trainings, courses, and studies from non-budgetary resources. The plan was included in the budget of the Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province, approved under the Regulation No. 2/2015 issued by the Marshal of the Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province on 9 January 2015. Furthermore, under the Resolution No. 67/796/15/V of the Provincial Executive Board from 15 December 2015, it was amended and the expenses on training and courses financed from the budget were decreased by PLN 3,000.00. Such educational expenses of a public institution demonstrate the importance of incorporating training in the management of the public sector. Such initiatives have an undeniable impact on increasing the level of competence among the employees, which ensures better quality of public services provided.

Summary

The changing environments of functioning organizations make it necessary to adapt their activities to new challenges. These changes also apply to employees employed in public administration at all levels of management. They must continually improve their competences through systematic education of their knowledge. Undoubtedly, an important element of this process is the use of humanistic management ideas and educational leadership experiences, which is strongly connected with the human being, provides valuable guidance as to how to properly educate people.

The emergence of new management solutions in the management of public institutions and broadly defined management of development, necessitates adaptation to contemporary functional requirements. Hence, adequate education and adequate staffing provide the assurance of effective implementation of these activities, contributing to the creation of a public-friendly public administration, while enhancing confidence in such institutions.

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