

Master Thesis

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School Leadership Training in China

A Cultural Perspective

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Abstract

Since 1990 school leadership training has been conducted in China with full funding from government. To attend Qualification Training (pre-service training) and Enhancement Training (in-service training) is both a right and obligation of school principals in China. Principals of Key Schools have extra privilege to receive Advanced Training of school leadership. This thesis investigates three aspects of school leadership training in China, i.e. its organization, curriculum and evaluation.

School leadership is used as an umbrella notion for educational leadership and educational management. Culture is argued to play a framing role in the unfolding and comprehension of leadership, thus crucial for the study of school leadership. This thesis attempts to observe and analyze school leadership training in China with a cultural perspective. To understand school leadership training in China, globalization is discussed as an important dimension of its global culture, and then the particularities of China's national and organizational culture and their implications are analyzed in detail.

Educational authorities have played a triple role in school leadership training, namely, the imposer, sponsor and supervisor. Powers fall chiefly on the authorities at central and provincial levels. National curricula have been issued, while local adaptations are encouraged. Evaluation of trainees is completed by training institutions with hardly felt intervention by educational authorities. Training programs and institutions are evaluated by local authorities. The Province of Shandong has established its own rules and made adaptation in its practice of school leadership training. Analysis on it is made based on data from case study.

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Table of Contents

Chapter 1 Introduction	1
I. Research Motivation	1
II. Research Questions	2
III. Methodology	3
1. A Cultural Perspective.....	3
2. Case Study.....	5
3. Limitation and Delimitation	7
IV. Thesis Structure.....	8
Chapter 2 Conceptualization of School Leadership.....	9
I. Defining Leadership.....	9
1. Leadership Researches	10
2. Leadership as Process of Influence	11
3. Other Perspectives in Defining Leadership.....	12
4. Core Elements of Leadership Effectiveness	13
5. Threads of Leadership Definitions	15
II. Leadership and Power	15
III. Leadership vs. Management: Differentiation and Integration.....	16
IV. School Leadership: An Effort to Integrate Educational Leadership and Management ...	17
V. Forces of School Leadership.....	18
1. Typologies of School Leadership.....	18
2. Forces of School Leadership.....	20
Chapter 3 Culture and Leadership	21
I. Defining Culture.....	21
II. Societal/National Culture	23
III. Organizational Culture	24
IV. Culture and School Leadership	26
1. Leadership Varies across Cultures.....	26
2. School Leadership Studies and Culture.....	28
Chapter 4 Globalization and Education.....	29

I. Understanding Globalization.....	30
II. Globalization and Education	31
III. Globalization and School Leadership.....	33
1. Increased Power of Leadership	34
2. Increased Accountability of Performance	35
3. Required Business-like Management	36
4. Imposed Internationalization.....	37
5. Adjustment of Curriculum	38
6. Being Technology Sensitive.....	39

Chapter 5 National and School Cultures and Implications for School Leadership **39**

I. China: from Isolation to Globalization.....	40
II. Education Reforms from 1980s.....	43
1. Education of China Today	43
2. Education Reforms since 1980s	44
III. The Politics of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics	46
IV. The Tradition of Confucianism and Chinese Culture.....	48
V. Organizational Culture of Chinese Schools	50
VI. Implications of Culture for School Leadership	51
1. The Prominence of Technique for Socializing with Educational Authorities	52
2. Staff Support VS. Parents Trust.....	52
3. Reform-orientedness	53
4. Business-like management	53
5. Increased and Confined Autonomy	54

Chapter 6 An Outline of School Leadership Training in China **55**

I. A Historical Survey of School Leadership Training in China	55
1. Initiation and Early Development before 1989	55
2. Policy Evolution from 1989	57
3. Development Since 2000	60
II. Characterization from a Perspective of Policy	61

Chapter 7 Research Findings and Analysis of School Leadership Training in China..... **62**

I. Program Organization	63
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1.	Educational Authorities—the Imposer, Sponsor and Supervisor	63
2.	Admission of Trainees.....	65
3.	Program Providers and Trainers	66
II.	Curriculum Contents	68
1.	The National Curriculum for Qualification Training of School Principals	69
2.	The National Curriculum for Enhancement Training of School Principals	71
3.	Local Curricula.....	72
III.	Evaluation Systems	73
1.	Evaluation of the Trainees.....	73
2.	Evaluation of the Training Programs and Providers.....	74
<i>Chapter 8 Research Findings and Analysis of School Leadership Training at Shandong Province</i>		<i>74</i>
I.	Pre-tertiary Education at Shandong.....	75
II.	A Glance at the Development of School Leadership Training at Shandong	76
III.	The School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong.....	77
IV.	Organization, Curriculum and Evaluation.....	78
1.	Organization.....	79
2.	Curricula.....	80
3.	Evaluation	83
<i>Chapter 9 Conclusion.....</i>		<i>84</i>
I.	Summary	84
II.	Discussion.....	88
<i>References.....</i>		<i>91</i>

List of Tables

Table 2-1 School Leadership Models	19
Table 7-1 Courses Required by the National Curriculum for Qualification Training of School Principals (NCQT)	70
Table 7-2 Courses Required by the National Curriculum for Enhancement Training of School Principals (NCET)	72
Table 8-1 Student and School Numbers of Shandong 2004.....	76
Table 8-2 Advanced Leadership Training Program for Primary School Head-teachers Shandong	81
Table 8-3 Advanced Leadership Training Program for Lower Secondary School Principals Shandong	81
Table 8-4 Advanced Leadership Training Program for Upper Secondary School Principals Shandong	82

Acronyms and Abbreviations

BNU	Beijing Normal University
CPCCC	Communist Party of China Central Committee
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HEAD	Accountable School Management of Quality Pilot Project
ICT	information and communication technology
NCET	National Curriculum for Enhancement Training of School Principals
NCQT	National Curriculum for Qualification Training of School Principals
MoE	Ministry of Education, China
NPSHTC	National Primary School Head-teacher Training Centre
NSSPTC	National Secondary School Principal Training Centre
RSPT	Rules on School Principals Training
SEI	Shandong Education Institute
SPED	Shandong Provincial Education Department
SPHTOS	School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong
USA	United States of America
WTO	World Trade Organization

Chapter 1 Introduction

This beginning chapter presents my motivation of research, research questions, research methodologies and the general structure of this thesis.

I. Research Motivation

A well-known poem verse by Su Shi, one of the greatest ancient Chinese poets, goes like this: It is because I am in the mountain that I do not see it. The philosophy conveyed in the poem is that to see the truth, we often need to stand as an outsider. Pursuing a study in a foreign country undoubtedly provides a student with precious opportunity to stand outside and make reflections on his home society. As a Chinese master student in Norway, a country that is not only geographically but also culturally far away from China, I have been exposed to various distinct social research perspectives and enjoying the remarkably different contents of curricula and ways of teaching at University of Oslo. One extra reward I have reaped from this is consciousness of using critical thinking in doing social research. Keeping in mind that the sociological knowledge I have learned are Western, I am eager to look at China through them as lenses. This is the initial motivation which has driven me to do a research on China, my home country.

Having been an international coordinator at Chinese universities for more than 12 years, I have long had strong interest in school leadership studies. Finally the day came: My association with the HEAD project¹ team led me into the field. Their hard work has produced both empirical and theoretical findings that are excellent references for further study. And their warm encouragement and inspiration have made me believe that I have a chance to do a useful work on Chinese school

¹ The HEAD project, funded by the Norwegian Research Council, is a comparative action research project aiming to investigate school leadership training programmes within “the value chain of education” in five countries including Norway, England, Finland, France and USA. It is led by Professor Anne Welle-Strand, Director of the Centre for Education Management Research (CEM), BI Norwegian School of Management.

leadership training based on their methodologies and frameworks. Therefore I have determined to do a research and write my master thesis on school leadership training in China, wishing the research outcome and the final thesis an enrichment to HEAD's documentation on China. This is the final motivation that has energized and prompted me to enter the field of school leadership and conduct this research.

II. Research Questions

As a crucial node in the educational network, the role of school principals always receives focal attention from both politicians and consumers. In the last three decades, China has been carrying out social reforms continuously. The rapidly changing societal systems have been posing challenges to schools and their principals. In this context, school leadership training is not only necessary for the government to ensure educational reforms implemented as expected, but also for empowering school leaders to overcome the uncertainties, complexities, and even conflicts popping up unexpectedly.

Pre-service and in-service training are supposed to provide school principals with required and timely leadership competences. Formalized school leadership training has been conducted in China since late 1980s. How are the programs organized? What are taught in the programs? How are the school leaders evaluated at the end of the training? Unfortunately articles concerning these issues are only found in Chinese. And the research methods and theoretical frameworks adopted within them often make international educationists feel difficult to engage in discussion. I expect my research may produce a useful insight that will provide a starting point for better understanding of school leadership training in China

My main research question is:

How is school leadership training conducted in China?

Guided by this question, I expect to obtain a general picture of school leadership training in China, understand the government policies concerned, and find out the mechanisms within the training programs. This main research question is divided into three sub-research questions:

- 1) *How are school leadership training organized in China?*
- 2) *What are the contents of the curricula?*
- 3) *How are the trainees evaluated?*

In summary, this project aims to investigate mainly three aspects of school leadership training in China, namely, organization, curriculum and evaluation. With the first aspect, I target on the roles played by educational authorities and training institutions, the mechanisms of funding and admission, and the ways of learning emphasized within and beyond classrooms. In relation to curricula, I plan to find out what contents are in the curricula and why. As to evaluation, I look at the testing systems, the ways trainees are examined, and how the outcomes matter to the trainees.

III. Methodology

I am aware of the complexity of school leadership training in China, a huge country with many circumstantial varieties. To take the whole country as a single subject of research is undoubtedly a task with many dilemmas and predicaments. In order to make this task operational and generate as much useful results as possible, I have adopted the following methodologies.

1. A Cultural Perspective

Culture is an elusive notion, as it has not got any universal definition. Culture is also complex; there has been too much misunderstanding between different cultures. To a

great extent, the 2005 Muhammad cartoons controversy is also an issue of cultural conflict. It reminds us that culture does matter to our social life. Just like a person has his personality, a nation, region, and even school has its particular culture—a unique way of life. As culture is permeative, it has a framing and conditioning role in the development and transformation of social phenomena. To social scientific studies, it is dangerous to make any generalization disregarding the existence of cultural differences. And without looking at the specific culture, a research may not be able to reach the heart of the problem.

The cultural perspective is not a new topic. Actually many researchers are emphasizing its importance when they discuss contextualization, which may be seen as a form of cultural perspective. In recent years many authors have conducted research and discussed the crucial importance of culture and context and warned against the danger of decontextualization. It is especially agreed that culture can provide a solid basis for social comparative studies.

Many studies have been done on school leadership and a vast amount of literature can be found by scholars with various perspectives, but as a subfield of education, school leadership has been mainly constructed and developed theoretically by Western scholars (Walker and Dimmock, 2002). While appreciating the contributions of Western scholars to the field, we should also admit that a blind zone exists when we look outside of the West through the established theories. It is a zone that we can only see and make meaningful findings through the glasses of culture. Aware of this, a number of scholars have articulated the importance and analytic value of culture. Among them, Allan Walker and Clive Dimmock have made unremitting efforts and significant progress in establishing frameworks for research (*ibid*).

With only Western theoretical frameworks to study China, a country with extremely distinctive culture, will obviously produce inaccurate and even twisted analysis. In order to compensate this theoretical framework weakness, a cultural perspective is

adopted in this project. Together with the Western oriented theories, this cultural perspective creates potentiality for a closer look at school leadership training in China. Featuring culture constitutes a differentiating aspect of this thesis in discussing school leadership and its training in China.

2. Case Study

To a responsible researcher, a project on a big country like China may be a lifelong one. Thus a dilemma occurs: A comprehensive study is needed, but accomplishment of the project seems unreachable. To some extent it can be argued that no research can answer a question completely, not the least taking into consideration the complexity and the changing nature of our subjective world. However, we still have to make efforts and find our way out.

China has not only big size, but also has uneven societal contexts. It has 56 nationalities, and many have their own language. While having Chinese as compulsory language course, many schools in autonomous provinces dominated by minor nationalities offer local language courses as well. Differences in funding and management of schools at various areas can be discerned. The training of school leadership in China thus varied to some extent in organization, funding, teaching and official policies. In view of these issues, I have chosen to do a case study to pursue a narrowed and detailed analytical work while looking at the whole country.

There are two reasons that I go for Shandong Province for the case study. First it is because of its representativeness. According to official geographical classification, Shandong is one of the provinces of East China. It is one of the Chinese regions the population of which is dominated by Chinese nationality. Traditionally and culturally, Shandong is also one of the wider north China provinces, from which the Chinese civilization was ever originated and expanded to the whole country (Shandong is the home town of Confucius). Without special development policy granted by the central

government (like Guangdong Province in southeast China) and special political status (like Beijing and Shanghai), economically and politically Shandong is representative for a vast area of China, especially those provinces located in the eastern and northern part of China. The second reason for me to choose Shandong is the advantages in getting easy access to reliable data. Due to my former working experiences, I can easily get into touch there with people involved in policy making and implementation and training organization. I am also more familiar with Shandong's educational institutions, including the Shandong Education Institute which acts as the provincial school leadership training centre. This practical advantage has brought me with very rich data including old governmental and institutional policy documents.

My data are mainly from two resources. One is the Shandong Provincial Education Department (SPED). There I obtained the major policy documents issued by the Ministry of Education and other central government offices which give a clear picture of how the central government's policies have been transformed concerning school leadership training in China. From SPED I also managed to gain first hand policy documents concerning the training in Shandong. These include some important figures. My second main data source is the Shandong Education Institute. From the School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong (SPHTOS), I got detailed data on the local training programs, including the way to organize, the structure and contents of teaching, and the evaluation methods.

In addition to searching documents, three interviews with program administrators were done. Two of them are personal interviews, and the other is done through telephone. These interviews helped to sort out the policy documents and get an initial idea of how school leadership training is organized in China. They especially helped with double-checking the data's reliability and my understanding of them. They also provide assistance in finding out to what extent the local educational authorities and training institutions implement central government's policies.

This case study design has made the project operational and generated useful results. Therefore, while providing general analysis on China as a whole, this thesis is also able to present discussion of Shandong Province, making it possible to catch the details and feel a local variation.

3. Limitation and Delimitation

I am aware that an obvious weakness of this thesis lies in the insufficient execution of its case study. A better one could have gone further in terms of depth and width. For example, the training centres administered by local regions of Shandong were not studied. With rich data on them a much more detailed analysis on the province may be realized. If more well-prepared interviews could have been conducted with trainees, trainers, and program administrators, the data would have been greatly enriched. If questionnaires were used, many data that are beyond the written documents could have been obtained and replenish the base for analysis. Another weakness of this project could be the missing of an intensive field work. For example, participative observation might have produced data of great value that indicate the actual implementation of training programs, including those reflecting the performance and attitudes of trainers and trainees. Due to various reasons, like insufficiency of time and funding, problems including the above mentioned were not avoided. More intensive and extensive study based on this project is expected to be followed in the future.

This project does not pursue the scientific merit of positivists. Instead it seeks what Durrheim and Wassenaar (2002) call coherence. Accordingly, the goal of this project is not to produce findings that are valid, reliable and generalizable, it seeks non-positivist qualities suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985): credibility, dependability and transferability. Credibility is the extent to which the research findings are convincing and believable. Dependability is different from reliability, which refers to how the readers are convinced of the occurrences described by the

researcher. Transferability is an alternative of generalizability. It relies on the detailed contextual accounts that may create conditions for transferring understandings to other contexts (Durrheim and Wassenaar, 2002).

IV. Thesis Structure

The main body of this thesis may be divided into four parts.

The first part consists of Chapter Two, Three and Four. Chapter Two is concerned with conceptualization of leadership and school leadership, the most primary concepts of this thesis. Based on Chapter Two, Chapter Three deals with conceptualization of culture and makes discussion on its relations with leadership. With globalization considered as the global culture under which school leaders perform their job, Chapter Four make analysis on globalization and its impacts on education and school leadership.

Chapter Five constitutes the second part of the thesis, reflecting its methodology of cultural perspective. It first makes detailed discussion on Chinese national culture, and then characterizes Chinese school culture. Thereafter, it makes analysis on the cultural implications for school leadership in China.

The third part of this thesis is composed of Chapter Six, Seven and Eight, which presents my research findings and analysis. Chapter Six is an outline of school leadership training in China, including its historical development and contemporary status. It also presents a discussion from the perspective governmental policy. Chapter Seven is concerned about research findings and analysis on school leadership training in China as a whole. They are presented in three parts addressing respectively program organization, curricula and evaluation. Chapter Eight is about research findings and analysis of the Shandong Province. It first introduces Shandong's pre-tertiary education, and outlines its school leadership training development, then

presents data and discusses about the organization, curricula and evaluation of school leadership training within the province.

The last chapter is the concluding part of this thesis. It summarizes the main points of this thesis and presents a discussion on the research concerning school leadership training in China.

Chapter 2 Conceptualization of School Leadership

This chapter conceptualizes leadership and school leadership. First, leadership is defined. Although leadership as influence process is favoured, other conceptions are also introduced. In addition views on core elements of leadership effectiveness are reviewed. Then, relationship between leadership and power is discussed. Following that two concepts, leadership and management, are differentiated and a view on integrating school leadership and school management is proposed. The last part of this chapter is illustration of typologies of school leadership and discussion on school leadership forces. The purpose of this chapter is to clarify the implications of leadership and thus school leadership, and lay a foundation for further discussion.

I. Defining Leadership

Nobody can escape from leadership. “Wherever society exists, leadership exists” (Hackman and Johnson, 2004: 5). In any situation, you are either a leader or a follower. Therefore, leadership matters to all.

But what is leadership? It is intangible and elusive. It is not a notion that has one universal definition. Within different cultures and situations leadership possesses different meaning. Expectations on good leadership are even more dependent on individual and collective interests and beliefs. With undoubted importance, leadership is a core concept in various disciplines, like history, politics, sociology and psychology.

As different disciplines hold different perspectives and assumptions regarding leadership, it seems even hopeless to reach a universal definition. But a meaningful discussion can only be based on conceptually common understanding, so to discuss school leadership we still first need to look at what leadership is.

1. Leadership Researches

Modern research on leadership was only started in early 20th century, and began to yield real useful findings from late 1970s. Until then researches had been focusing on the physical and psychological characteristics of leaders, as they believed leaders were made of certain special traits. As Beare *et al.* (1997: 26) summarize, consistent findings from early studies on common traits of successful leaders include: sense of responsibility, concern for task completion, energy, persistence, risk-taking, originality, self-confidence, capacity to handle stress, capacity to influence and capacity to co-ordinate.

In the 1950s, a leadership theory movement started. Afterwards more detailed findings emerged and added to the specificities of leadership understanding and provided practical values. Beare *et al.* (1997) states that these researches have consistently confirmed the importance of two factors: task accomplishment and member relationship. And they argue ten “emerging generalizations” in the previous studies of leadership. Their points are reformulated and listed as the following:

- Transforming rather than transactional leadership is emphasized;
- Vision is compulsory to be outstanding leader;
- Vision is to be communicated to the extent that it secures staff commitment;
- Vision communication presupposes meaning distribution;
- The value issue is central;
- Leadership contributes to the organizational culture;
- School-based management is supported empirically;

- Leadership forces may be of technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural;
- Institutionalizing vision of leaders is of key importance;
- Both ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ qualities are important for a single leader

2. Leadership as Process of Influence

Traditional conceptions of leadership are often confined to power and authority, or limited to decision-making, directing or coordinating. More recent efforts in defining leadership have transcended organizational goal setting and attainment and given more attention to meanings and values (Beare *et al*, 1997). But viewing leadership as a process of influence has always been a dominant perspective.

Stogdill (1950) defines leadership as “the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal setting and goal accomplishment”. Chemers (2003: 6) defines leadership as “a process of social influence in which the leader enlists the talents and efforts of other group members, i.e., followers, in order to accomplish the group’s chosen task”. Notehouse (2001: 3) states that “leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”. The perspective of Hogg *et al*. (2003: 19) is that leadership is quintessentially a group process that “identifies a relationship in which some people are able to influence others to embrace, as their own, new values, attitudes and goals”. Yukl (2006: 8) defines leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives”. Bush and Glover’s (2003: 8) definition is centred on vision: “leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on their personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision.”

Although leadership as influence process has attracted dominant attention in the field, there are uncertainties that are confusing researches and many questions still remain unanswered. Yukl (2006) discusses three controversies in relation to influence: The first concerns the type of influence and outcome. Influence may result in followers' enthusiastic commitment, indifferent compliance or reluctant obedience. Which should be or should not be applied to defining leadership is not completely clarified yet. The second controversy is about the purpose of influence attempts, i.e. what types of purpose (ethical or unethical, group interest oriented or selfish, or both) should be recognized and included for investigating the influence process of leadership. The third controversy is the aspects of influence, i.e. how to treat the relations between rational and emotional influences and should emotional influences be considered as a type of leadership influence.

3. Other Perspectives in Defining Leadership

Besides influence process, there are a variety of other perspectives on how to define leadership.

Firstly, some theorists views leadership as behaviour. For example, Hemphill and Coons (1957; in Yukl, 2006: 3) defines leadership as the "behaviour of an individual...directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal". Witherspoon (1997: 19) sees leadership as behaviour that emerges "during interaction among individuals working toward a common goal or engaged in activity of mutual interest". Greenfield (1986) thinks leadership as purposeful act of leaders aiming to construct the social world of their followers. To him it is necessary for a leader to commit followers to what he assume is correct and good and unify the organizational members around his own values.

Secondly, there are also researches observing leadership as ability. Pondy (1978)

explains leadership as abilities to make activities meaningful. According to him, leaders ought to make tasks clear and understandable to their followers, rather than focus on how to change their behaviour. Schein (1992: 2) describes leadership as the ability to step outside the culture...to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive”. House *et al.* (1999; in Yukl, 2006:3) considers leadership as the “ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization...”

A quite different view in defining leadership is that of Ogawa and Bossert (1997). They treat leadership as an organizational quality, a systemic characteristic. Their argument is that “leadership flows through the networks of roles that comprise the organization” (p.9). Thus leadership is a phenomenon that can be seen and felt throughout the organization, which is not confined to executive positions, but may be exerted by everyone in the organization. Leithwood and Riehl (2003: 5) hold a concordant point in presenting that teachers, parents and students are all “important potential sources of leadership” of schools.

In addition, some researchers take a perspective of relationship in defining leadership. Rost’s (1991) definition is “an influence relationship among leaders and their collaborators who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes.” To Hackman and Johnson (2004:12), leadership is a form of communication. They define it as “human (symbolic) communication, which modifies the attitudes and behaviours of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs”. Meanwhile Knowles and Saxberg (1971:146) consider leadership as a source of values, “representing an elite which acts as a value carrier to be emulated by the other members of the organization, and functions to conserve whatever values prevail”.

4. Core Elements of Leadership Effectiveness

The implication of leadership effectiveness varies with specific conception of

leadership. The criteria utilized to evaluate it have been diverse, e.g. group growth, follower satisfaction, follower commitment, leader advancement, etc. Many scholars have presented their analysis based on their central concerns and particular research approaches. Nevertheless, there are some core elements of leadership effectiveness that are widely accepted and may be applied to various situations.

With the preoccupation that leadership is a social process of influence, Chemers (2003) points out that effective leadership has three essential components. In the first place there is image management, i.e. establishing credibility and legitimacy. Chemers (2003) argues that to gain credibility and authority is the first necessity for a potential leader to exert influence. There are two factors that are crucial for establishing leaders' legitimacy: competency and trustworthiness. The second essential component of effective leadership is what Chemers (2003) calls relationship development, i.e. building subordinates' capacity and motivation for accomplishing group task through coaching and guidance characterized by fairness. The third major component relevant to leadership effectiveness is resource deployment, i.e. deploying material and psychological group resources for goal attainment.

Yukl (2006) selects collective work enhancement as a measure for leadership effectiveness. He presents 10 leadership functions as the essence of effective leadership, which are: (1)help interpret the meaning of events; (2)create alignment on objectives and strategies; (3)build task commitment and optimism; (4)build mutual trust and cooperation; (5)strengthen collective identity; (6)organize and coordinate activities; (7) encourage and facilitate collective learning; (8)obtain necessary resources and support; (9)develop and empower people; and (10)promote social justice and morality. Except the last point, all other nine points are implied by and in alignment with Chemers's (2003) three essential elements.

5. Threads of Leadership Definitions

It can be claimed that there is no fully inclusive definition of leadership, and it is not possible to produce a definition that is universally agreed due to its innate elusiveness and multidisciplinary nature. In spite of this diversity, there are some common elements in the definitions of leadership.

Hackman and Johnson (2004) summarize three definitional threads. The first thread is the exercise of influence. Any leadership encompasses efforts of influence. The second thread is group context. Leadership attempt is not self-centred; instead it is group oriented aiming at meeting group needs and goals. The last thread is collaboration. Leaders and followers are interdependent. They must share mutual purposes and collaborate in making efforts to reach group goals.

II. Leadership and Power

Leadership is related to power, but to identify leadership with power is not appropriate. Hackman and Johnson (2004) point out that power and leadership are interdependent but not interchangeable.

Burns (1979) takes leadership as an aspect of power, and leaders a particular kind of power holder. He points out that both leadership and power are relational, collective and purposeful, but the reach and domain of leadership are comparatively more limited than that of power. He defines leadership as a process that leaders induce followers to “act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations - the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations - of both leaders and followers” (p.19). According to Burns, an essential difference between leadership and naked power lies in that leadership is “inseparable from followers’ needs and goals” (p.19). Bennis and Nanus (1985) conclude that power is the currency of leaders, and only wisely used power forms leadership.

III. Leadership vs. Management: Differentiation and Integration

The relations of leadership and management have been a controversy. There have been many writers trying to describe their differences. Although with slightly varied points of emphasis, their views have been somewhat paralleled in that most of them project change and maintenance of organization.

Some writers distinguish leadership and management through drawing distinction between the roles of their holders, i.e. leader and manager. Bennis and Nanus's (1985: 21) proposition has been widely quoted: "managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing." They argue that leadership and management are qualitatively different and mutually exclusive. According to Kouzes and Posner (1987: 31-32), "when we think of leaders, we recall times of turbulence, conflict, innovation, and change. When we think of managers, we recall times of stability, harmony, maintenance, and constancy."

Hackman and Johnson (2004) think the key distinction between leadership and management may lie in their focus: managers keep their eyes on the status quo, while leaders care more about the ultimate collective goal. They also contend that management shows more concern with efficiency, and leadership pays attention to effectiveness. Furthermore, they argue that management results in order, while leadership leads to change. Kotter (1990) proposes similarly that leadership is to bring organizational change through vision, while management is to create order by goal setting, organizing and monitoring.

In addition, Bush (2003) has argued educational leadership is value- and vision-related, and educational management is concerned about school's daily management, i.e. implementation and technical issues. Meanwhile, he stresses that both need to be given equal prominence. Bush and Glover's (2003:10) differentiation of educational leadership and management goes in a similar way:

“Leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. It involves inspiring and supporting others towards the achievement of a vision for the school which is based on clear personal and professional values. Management is the implementation of school policies and the efficient and effective maintenance of the school’s current activities. Both leadership and management are required if schools are to be successful.”

Overemphasizing the distinctions between leadership and management will obviously risk being arbitrary. They are not totally equivalent, but the extent to which they overlap is at least considerable. Although many researchers are trying to differentiate between them, the fact cannot be denied that leadership and management involve each other. In contrast to making impositions, some scholars choose to avoid drawing a division and intentionally blur their distinctions.

IV. School Leadership: An Effort to Integrate Educational Leadership and Management

The notions of educational leadership and educational management have been treated in a similar way as leadership and management. There have been plenty of investigations and analysis seeking to establish a border between them.

Bolam (2001: 194) thinks educational leadership has “at its core the responsibility for policy formulation and, where appropriate, organizational transformation”, and educational management is only “an executive function for carrying out agreed policy”. Dimmock (1999) entitles educational leadership and management respectively higher order tasks and routine maintenance of schools. Bush (2003) considers influence, values and vision as three defining dimensions of educational leadership, and insists that aim is the central concern of educational management. But he also points out that educational leadership overlaps with management.

Educational leadership and management may be labelled as different phenomena in terms of focal concern or others, but they are not processes that can be absolutely

separated in terms of level or sequence. Even if they are phenomena of different nature, they still overlap and enter each other. Without either of them, schools cannot operate effectively.

This thesis holds the position that school leaders are managing their schools as well as leading, and leadership and management are not separate processes within a school leader. This position is practically underpinned by the reality that primary and secondary schools usually have a leading body of only small scale, and decision-making and implementation of school policies are not fulfilled through a structure of many levels. From this position, this thesis clings on to the point that management is an integral part of leadership; therefore, the notion of school leadership in this thesis embraces both educational leadership and management. There may be concept interchanges of leadership and management, or leading and managing in the following discussions due to various contextual reasons like a particular reference or a shift of meaning stress, but school leadership is always an umbrella concept for both educational leadership and educational management.

V. Forces of School Leadership

1. Typologies of School Leadership

There has been a vast literature on school leadership. Many scholars have made theoretical and empirical efforts to analyze school leadership at different levels from various aspects. One prominent achievement lies in its typologies.

Leithwood *et al.*'s (1999) summarizes six models of educational leadership after examining four international journals' 121 articles. Bush and Glover (2002, 2003) expand Leithwood *et al.*'s (1999) work and establish an eight-model typology. In addition to these eight, Bush (2003) identifies one more, i.e. transactional model. Besides the nine leadership models, Bush (2003) also discusses six educational management models, which are formal, collegial, political, subjective, ambiguity and

cultural. Based on these authors' work, nine school leadership models are listed here each with a tentative definition.

Table 2-1 School Leadership Models

Instructional School Leadership considers teaching and learning as focus of leaders' attention directs influence via teachers to students' growth.

Transformational School Leadership drives leaders' efforts to gaining commitment and elevating capacities of staff in realizing school goals. It focuses on the promotion of collective vision and shared values.

Moral School Leadership features the values and beliefs of school leaders and emphasizes purpose building and embodiment in school structures and daily operations.

Participative School Leadership proposes school leadership distribution in terms of democratic decision-making process and empowerment of wide range stakeholders.

Managerial school Leadership assumes that schools are rationally structured hierarchical organizations and focuses on supervision and control of functions, tasks and behaviours within schools.

Post-modern School Leadership stresses the centrality of multiple individual interpretations of school staff in terms of school visions, goals, policies, strategies and so on.

Interpersonal School Leadership attaches importance to school leaders' relationship with teachers, students and other stakeholder and advocates establishing collaboration through interpersonal skills.

Contingent School Leadership stresses reflexive adaptation of leaders' response to the uniqueness of school contexts and problems.

Transactional School Leadership regards schools as political arenas with competing interest groups and leader-staff relationships as exchange of valued resources for potential interest gains.

Although with high enthusiasm in establishing typologies, all scholars readily admit that no school leader could be attributed to only one single model of leadership. The models are useful in that they provide distinctive perspectives for understanding school

leadership, but each model is uni-dimensional, focusing on one aspect and ignoring the others. With this knowledge, this thesis turns its attention to the forces of school leadership.

2. Forces of School Leadership

Sergiovanni (1984) proposes five leadership forces, which are technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural. The technical force refers to the management techniques of school leaders, with which school leaders serve as “management engineer”. The human force empowers leaders to exploit social resources to lead their schools. The educational force is a leader’s professional knowledge in education and schooling. With symbolic force Sergiovanni (1984) explains school leaders’ effort in focusing followers’ attention on important issues. The cultural force is what enables a leader to articulate his beliefs and values and establish school culture.

In order to establish a “convenient and manageable way of encapsulating school leadership”, Dimmock and Walker (2002) identify eight “elements of leadership”, which are collaboration and partnership, motivation, planning, decision-making, interpersonal communication, conflict, evaluation and appraisal, staff and professional development.

These efforts in seeking the core forces of school leadership coincide with the work of searching for the core elements of leadership effectiveness carried out in other disciplines concerning leadership. As Bush (2003) emphasizes, it is rare for a single leadership model to capture all the reality of leadership in any particular school. Directing our efforts to analysing the core forces of school leadership should provide more applicable and convenient means for understanding school leadership and guiding school leadership training programs.

Chapter 3 Culture and Leadership

As it has been pointed out in Chapter One, this research is conducted with the position that culture has a framing and conditioning role to social phenomena. School leadership does not exist in vacuum; instead it plays out within particular cultures: its growth, development, unfolding, and effectiveness are conditioned on its surrounding cultures that penetrate it. Therefore to understand school leadership, we need to look at the cultures that it belongs to first. And to make analysis on school leadership and its training in China, we can't neglect the wider Chinese national culture and the particular organizational culture of schools. Thus culture is taken as one of the principle concepts of this thesis. The purpose of this chapter is to clarify theoretically culture's role and relations with leadership..

Hereafter, this chapter first addresses defining culture, with different definitions from varying perspectives presented. Then it defines societal culture and organizational culture. Meanwhile, Walker and Dimmock's (2002) six-dimension model is introduced for making analysis on societal and organizational cultures. The last part of this chapter discusses culture's framing role for the study of school leadership.

I. Defining Culture

Culture is a catchword both in our daily life and academic work. But what do we mean by culture? Does culture has a definition?

The notion of culture is both inclusive and complex. There are a variety of competing definitions in literature, stressing its different dimensions in accordance with the particular interests of the field of study. A consensual and universally accepted definition simply does not exist.

In the early and biological application, the word culture refers to the organic cultivation.

Additionally, it is very often applied to indicating the human intellectual and artistic works or practices. In its relation to this thesis, it embodies the meaning of the tenor or spirit of a social group or society. As Brooker (1999) claims: therefore culture is

“used to refer to individual style or character, to a stage of artistic or intellectual development, to the expressive life and traditions of a social group, to a social-historical moment or a broad epoch” (p50).

Hofstede (1991) differentiates the narrow and broader senses of culture. He summarizes that culture in its narrow sense refers to “civilization”, or “refinement of the mind”, especially the outcomes of such refinement. In its broad sense, he defines culture as mental programming, patterns of thinking, feeling and potential acting. Furthermore, he distributes manifestations of culture in four levels: values, rituals, heroes and symbols. Values form the core of culture, which are “broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others”. Rituals, like ways of greeting and religious ceremonies, are collective activities that are technically superfluous but socially essential. Heroes are those highly prized models of behaviour. Symbols lie in the superficial level of culture, which are words, gestures, pictures, or objects that carry a particular meaning recognized only by those who share the culture. Hofstede (1991) subsumes heroes, rituals and symbols under the term of practice, as they are visible phenomena conveying invisible cultural meanings.

The most well known and a concise definition of culture is “a whole way of life of a social group or whole society” by Williams (1972). Meanwhile, a Marxist perspective considers culture as superstructure of society, or as Thompson proposes, a “whole way of struggle” (1961, in Brooker 1999). In relation to school leadership studies, Walker and Dimmock (2002) define culture as “the enduring sets of beliefs, values, and ideologies underpinning structures, processes, and practices that distinguish one group of people from another group” (p.16). They state that culture is multiple-level; therefore we can see societal/national culture, regional culture, local culture, organizational and school culture, etc.

In a nutshell, as an individual has personality, a nation, region, locality or organization has its particular culture - a way of life.

II. Societal/National Culture

It is agreed that cultures vary in different societies. Although nation is not strictly equivalent to society, cultures of different nations do manifest different features to certain extent. The more a nation is historically distinct, the more its culture is distinctly specific. Inkeles and Levinson (1969, in Hofstede, 1991) suggest three issues or basic problems common to all societies, i.e. relation to authority, concept of self, ways of dealing with conflicts. Inspired by Inkeles and Levinson, Hofstede (1991) establishes a four dimensional model of national cultures, and claims that differences among national cultures exist in power distance, collectivism versus individualism, femininity versus masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. In addition, Hofstede (1991) also implies a fifth dimension of culture: long-term orientation versus short-term orientation, which, as Foskett and Lumby (2003) explain, refers to the perspectives of future gains and costs.

In order to compare educational leadership conceptualized within different cultures, based on the work of Hofstede (1991) and Trompsnaas and Hampden-Turner (1997), Walker and Dimmock (2002) established a 6-dimension model for analysis of societal culture. The first dimension is power-concentrated vs. power-dispersed, which considers the power distribution in the society. The second dimension, group-oriented vs. self-oriented, is concerned about the relations between the individual and the group. Their third dimension is aggression vs. consideration, reconceptualized on Hofstede's masculinity vs. femininity dimension. An aggression culture features favouring power, competition, and achievements, while a consideration culture prefers harmonious and stable relationships and tends to resolve conflicts through making compromise instead of using force. The fourth dimension is fatalistic vs. proactive, describing a society's

general attitude towards their environment. The fifth dimension is generative vs. replicative. A generative culture encourages innovation and generation of new ideas, whereas a replicative culture is more likely to borrow and adopt ideas from other societies. The last dimension proposed is limited relationship vs. holistic relationship. With this dimension, they try to view the extent to which interpersonal relationships are limited in a given culture.

As Walker and Dimmock (2002) also point out, these dimensions are continua. They only provide tools for comparison, and should not be utilized for classifying societies and nations. It would be arbitrary to locate any society or nation to any of the extremes.

III. Organizational Culture

Hackman and Johnson (2004) define organizational culture as the organization's "unique way of seeing the world", based on its particular assumptions, values and symbols. Assumptions are the unsaid beliefs about interpersonal relations, nature of man, way of discovering truth, relations with environment, etc. Values are the yardsticks for judging what should be done. Symbols are the visible elements that reflect assumptions and values, including language, stories and myths, rites and rituals, heroes, and other material symbolic creations. The three groups of elements, i.e. assumptions, values, and symbols, constitute respectively the three levels of organizational culture from bottom up.

Hofstede (1991) uses the analogy of psychological assets to refer to the culture of an organization. He defines it as the common ways by which an organization's members think, feel and act.

Organizational culture is a sublevel of societal or national culture. But the culture of an organization is not simply a constituting parcel of a national culture. While situated in and affected by the national culture, an organization culture has its own particularities.

Hofstede (1991) emphasizes that organizational culture is a phenomenon *per se*, and different in many aspects from national culture. One explicit reason he gives for this is that membership of organization is not 24 hours a day as well as lifelong. Walker and Dimmock (2002) stress the qualitative difference between organizational and societal culture. They argue that organizational cultures differ from each other mostly in superficial practices while societal cultures differ mainly in the basic values, implying that societal culture determines the basic values of organizational cultures.

Walker and Dimmock (2002) also present a six-dimension model to account for organizational cultures in order to compare school leaderships against school cultures. The first dimension they put forward is process-oriented vs. outcome-oriented. Cultures featuring the former concern more of the process, while cultures featuring the latter give more attention to the results and achievements. The second dimension is person-oriented vs. task-oriented, explaining if organizations care more about their staff or look more to work performance. The third dimension is professional vs. parochial, explaining the staff's sense of professional commitment and devotion to organization. Open vs. closed is the fourth dimension, evaluating the tendency of organizations in conducting interaction and communication with their environments. The fifth dimension is control vs. linkage, which concerns the way control is exerted from the authority to others in the organization. They argue three aspects for this dimension, which are formal/informal, tight/loose, and direct/indirect. The last dimension in their model is pragmatic vs. normative. A pragmatic organization inclines to take flexible policies to satisfy the needs of its clients, yet a normative organization persists in its rigid and normative styles.

This six dimension model is a very useful framework for analysing school cultures. But note that they are also just invented analytical tools for characterizing organizational cultures, and cannot be used to make absolute categorization of organizations. For example, a school may look more process-oriented, but also display some signs of outcome-orientedness.

Chapter Five of this thesis will combine Walker and Dimmock's (2002) societal and organizational culture model to make further discussions of Chinese and Chinese school culture.

IV. Culture and School Leadership

Culture has a framing function for studies in social fields. To Brooker (1999), the definition of culture even possesses vitality to the study of other disciplines in terms of objects, methods and aims. Now Culture's vital implications for social studies has been widely accepted. An evidence for the increasing interest in culture showed by social researchers is the emerging of the concept of contextualization, as various contexts are actually cultures at different levels.

In the field of leadership, as Yukl (2006) admits, the research has been mainly carried out in Western countries. Hence, cross-cultural research needs to be emphasized. To fill in the blank, it is necessary to accomplish the task of understanding the specific cultures before we submerge ourselves in the particular field. We are obliged to understand leadership's relations with culture as a forehand task.

1. Leadership Varies across Cultures

Dimmock and Walker (2005) emphasize that leadership is a socially constructed process the essences of which are culturally affected. Yukl (2006) states that not only the meaning of leadership varies, but also the ways it is exercised varies across societal cultures. Leaders that grow up in different societal cultures have different internalised values and beliefs and these values and beliefs tend to drive them to exercise leadership in particular ways. Besides, values and beliefs of different societal cultures also set up different standards and expectations for leadership which frame leaders' exercise of leadership. On one hand, leaders tend to adhere to their own values and beliefs that are culturally confined; on the other, they also conform to external social norms on

leadership that are imposed by cultures.

In addition, as Yukl (2006) points out, there are many situational factors besides national culture that also influence leadership. Many of these situational factors belong to elements of organizational culture. They may include the characteristics of leadership position (e.g., level, function, and authority) and particularities of the organization (e.g., type, size and culture). Hersey and Blanchard (1982) do not use the notion of organizational culture, but in formulating their well-regarded situational theory, they have unavoidably exploited and promoted the value of it in an unconscious way. They proposed that leadership should be in accordance with the maturity of subordinates, including professional maturity and psychological maturity. What constitute professional and psychological maturity encompasses educational background, work experience, group work orientation, sensitivity of hierarchical relations and so on. These factors will certainly lead us to the notion of organizational culture. Certainly the focus of Hersey and Blanchard (1982) is on leadership behaviour towards individual followers, but the maturity level of followers may be regarded as an element of leadership context, thus an element of the organizational culture.

Systematic researches have identified both qualitative and quantitative leadership differences among cultures. One significant project is the GLOBE project carried out recently among 62 different cultures. Its research outcome shows that integrity (honest, trustworthy, just), visionary, inspirational, decisive, diplomatic, achievement-oriented, team integrator, and administrative skills are attributes that are rated highly relevant for leadership effectiveness among all cultures. But some other attributes, like ambitious, compassionate, indirect, risk taker, sensitive, wilful, etc., are rated in varied levels. The GLOBE project also found that being team oriented is valued higher for leadership effectiveness in collectivistic cultures than individualistic cultures, and being participative is valued higher for leadership effectiveness in low power distance and uncertainty avoidance cultures than high power distance and uncertainty avoidance cultures (House *et al.*, 2004).

2. School Leadership Studies and Culture

Culture is not only where school leadership is deeply embedded, but also what structures and shapes the formation, implementation, and understanding of it. The study of school leadership may only stay in the superficial level and even risk being trapped by the one-size-fits-all mistake if the national and organizational cultural particularities are disregarded. Some may argue the legitimacy of overlooking culture with the impacts of globalization on school systems. It is admitted that culture is a dimension of globalization (Wager, 2004), and the space of flows and timeless time have become the new material foundations for culture (Castells, 1996). However, while admitting the existence of cultural convergence, we must also notice that cultural diversity is only being weakened in a sense, not disappearing. Therefore, in particular school leadership study, we must look at the particular cultures concerned.

Cheng (1995) and Walker and Dimmock (2002) have taken the lead in arguing the essential instrumentality of culture in the study of school leadership and express strong support for applying culture as an important tool rigorously to both cross-country and cross-school leadership analysis and comparison. Their advocacy is made out of the fact that historically the field of school leadership has involved dominant efforts of Western academics and reflected mainly Western cultures. They criticize the “ethnocentricity underlying theory development, empirical research, and prescriptive argument” (p.15) and a disproportionate influence on theory, policy and practice exerted by Anglo-American scholars within the field.

Walker and Dimmock (2002) have established a very useful model for cross-cultural comparison of educational leadership, in which they propose four elements to be compared: organizational structures, leadership and managerial processes, curriculum, and teaching and learning. By organizational structures, they refer to the established configurations of human, physical and financial resources of a school, including the

physical facilities, revenue generation and financial distribution, curricular frameworks imposed by the larger system, the organization of time, the configuration of students, the structure of staff, guidance and counselling, and finally the decision-making structure. Within leadership and management processes, they include position of principal, leadership style, personnel participation, staff motivation, planning, decision-making, interpersonal communication, conflict resolution, staff assessment, and staff development. By curriculum, they cover goals and purposes, breadth, depth, integration, differentiation and relevance. And the fourth element, teaching and learning, concerns the nature of knowledge, teacher-student relations, teacher-parent relations, teaching approaches, learning evaluation, and guidance of students.

Chapter 4 Globalization and Education

Globalization has been a widely discussed theme in social sciences. Its extensive and profound impacts on our life and work and its prominent presence everywhere have made it impossible to avoid taking it into consideration when discussing many social issues.

Globalization is casting impacts on education as well. It has given rise to changes and reforms in many aspects of education. In the wide sense of culture, globalization is the global context hence the global culture within which school leadership is shaped, exercised, and received. To study school leadership and its training, before we step into discussion on culture at national and organizational levels, it is obviously necessary to look at culture concerned at the global level, i.e. globalization.

Globalization is seen in this thesis as the major dimension of the global culture of school leadership. Based on this perspective, I discuss in this chapter the notion of globalization and its impacts. First, it is addressed how to understand globalization.

The general social impacts of globalization are discussed by three dimensions. Then a particular discussion is made on its impacts on education and reforms. In the third section I argue that globalization has brought about impacts on school leadership in six aspects.

I. Understanding Globalization

Globalization has been a long debated subject of academics, and a thorny issue of politicians. As Wells, *et al.* (1998) stress, there are disagreements regarding the nature, magnitude and outcomes of globalization. Varied positions regarding globalization have been presented by groups of neo-liberals, liberal progressives, realists, and post-Marxists. Regarding its origin, there have also been different stances. One prevailing perspective is that globalization dates from the last two or three decades (Morrow and Torres, 2000). With the expanding of world trade, nations and individuals experience increasing interdependence economically and politically. The intensification of economic exchange results naturally cultural exchange and interdependence, especially with the reinforcement of communication technology advance.

A widely accepted consensus is that globalization is an on-going irreversible process well integrated in and structuring the development of the world economy, culture, politics and the human society as a whole. Globalization is initiated and driven by the advancement of human technologies, among which ICT (information and communication technology) is the foundation and core power. It tends to eliminate the existent nation-state borders and restructure the entire world into a “global village”. Willingly or unwillingly, all nation states have been moving towards the membership of this village, and all nations are facing the issue of making reflections on what identity they should struggle to possess in this new village.

Globalization has profound impacts on our world. Wager (2004) expounded three

dimensions of it, which are economic, cultural and political. Mok and Welch (2003:3) underscore that “it is to economic effects that one should look first.” Economic globalization is best represented by transnational corporations, the new major players in the economic and political decision making process (Stromquist and Monkman, 2000), which go beyond national borders and reach globally with their investment, production, marketing and management. One other important and tangible aspect of globalization is culture. Together with economy, the global flow of culture is inevitable and its impact has been perceived universally (*ibid*). A uniform and standardized culture is estimated to emerge with globalization. The rising of English as a global language is an immediate product of cultural globalization. Cultural globalization may imply a procedure of homogenization. Wagner (2004) holds a radical view and overlooks the emerging opportunity of other cultures by stating that globalization is Americanization. Regarding political globalization, there are arguments that the nation states are ceding sovereignty to supranational organizations like EU, OECD, WTO, etc. In addition, globalization also makes the nation state governments lose their control over both internal affairs and international relations (Green, 1997).

Hernes (2001) pointed out that “globalization is not symmetric”. Actually globalization is far more than being asymmetric. In its arena, some nations are better armed and tend to underestimate the needs and overlook the existence of others, while some are vulnerable and even painstakingly struggling for survival. As “a mixed blessing” (*ibid*), globalization promotes societal development, but also foments such problems as social marginalization and inequality. One irony is that the world anti-globalization movement has also been fully globalized.

II. Globalization and Education

At the inception of the New Millennium, globalization is obviously the focus of more educational studies with the challenges it is posing to schooling. Green (1997: 156) reminds us that if globalization is true, “the very foundations for national education

would have ceased to exist”.

From a cultural perspective, Suarez-Orozco and Qin-Hilliard (2004) termed two domains that present greatest challenges to education: the domain of difference and the domain of complexity. They claim that difference is rising to be normative especially due to larger scale immigration. To negotiate differences, students need to gain the ability to take multiple perspectives and reverse their mental routines. Globalization is also engendering complexity to the various facets of our society. To deal with this complexity, students need to be armed with cognitive flexibility, cultural sophistication and cooperative skills. Further, Suarez-Orozco and Qin-Hilliard (2004) argue that in four major domains globalization has impact on education: economic and capital globalization; media, information and communication technology globalization; large-scale immigration; and cultural globalization.

There have been attempts to describe the fully blown form of globalization’s impacts on education. Most researches have pointed to a fundamental shift in the very nature of education as a state “project” (Green, 1997). Underpinned by the information technology revolution, Globalization favours commodified, de-institutionalized and networked form of education. It tends to uncouple learning from traditional institutions and create radically transformed learning processes as to virtual learning networks. The newly born educational form will clearly try to get outside of the easy reach of national states and free itself from the traditional function of social reproduction (Usher and Edwards, 1994).

Education is not only a passive receiver of the impacts of globalization. On one hand, education is a driving force of globalization. By communicating technology and culture and nurturing human capital, education promotes the advance of globalization. On the other hand, education is also facing the fate of being globalized. Its property of profitability is doomed to make it get industrialized by capitals from both national and global competitors.

There are other voices on the impacts of globalization on education. Green (1997) is among those that are against the extremist views. He argues that education systems are only experiencing partial internationalization, characterized by staff and students mobility, policy borrowing, and enhancement of curriculum international dimension. He asserts: “Education cannot ignore the realities of the global market. But nor can it surrender to global commodification” (p.186).

To confront globalization and benefit optimally from globalization, all nations are faced with the task to reform education, readjusting its organization, management, contents and relations with other sectors. Carnoy (1999) observes three categories of education reforms that have been initiated by various nations. Those that target on improving economic productivity by improving labour quality are called competitiveness-driven reforms. These reforms go for mainly four directions: power decentralization (with school choice and privatization as two extensions), uniform standards of graduation and stage attainments, resource management innovation and improvement, and teachers’ quality. Carnoy’s (1999) second category is finance-driven reforms. These reforms are aimed at cutting public spending to obtain resource efficiency and schooling quality. Their primary concerns are shifting funding from higher level to lower level education, privatizing education (especially secondary and higher education), and reducing average cost (e.g. expanding class size). The third category is equity-driven reforms. Their goal is to realize equal economic opportunities by way of favouring supports to marginalized groups.

III. Globalization and School Leadership

As a common issue faced by educational systems worldwide, globalization has also posed challenges to school leaders throughout the world. In accordance with their economic, political and cultural status in the global arena, the nation-states that are concerned about their future existence have adopted varied strategies to meet the

challenges from globalization. Thus education systems have received various treatments from their national governments. Although globalization brought differentiated impacts on schools in different nations, school leaders worldwide still face some common challenges.

Under globalization, school leaders are facing unprecedented uncertainties. The development of information technology may be assumed as the root origin and globalization as the direct origin of these uncertainties. The revolution of information technology has elicited the explosion of knowledge and led to the formulation of knowledge-based production, thus caused rapid transformation of our societies at all levels. This transformation naturally entails continuous changes to the educational environment and education itself. Uncertainty may be seen as a common and total impact on school leaders caused by globalization.

From the perspective of school leadership, I assume that globalization is casting obvious impacts in the following six aspects.

1. Increased Power of Leadership

Decentralization has been a major theme in most nations' education reforms to meet the challenges posed by globalization. The policy of decentralization adopted in various countries have displayed various characters. McGinn (1992) summarised three forms of decentralization, i.e. deconcentration, devolution and delegation. Various Scholars differentiate functional decentralization and territorial decentralization (Bray, 2003). According to Bray (2003), the former refers to redistribution of power between different authorities operating in parallel, and the latter refers to redistribution of power among various geographic levels of governance, namely, nation, provinces, districts and schools. Bray (2003) points out that deconcentration, devolution and delegation are three variants of territorial decentralization.

What decentralization brings to school leaders is the increased power of leadership in various aspects. School leaders have been granted more power and freedom to distribute and allocate funds within the school structure according to the needs of school development. Many limitations from educational authorities on where and how to use public funds are being removed. With more financial power, school leaders find themselves more able to implement strategies according to their visions. School leaders have also gained more power in staff enrolment, positioning, evaluation and rewarding. This power increase makes school leaders feel they are really leading, as it centres the whole staff team on the school leader, forming a united body to work for the benefit of their school and students. Decentralization also bestows more power on school leaders in terms of student enrolment, curriculum adjustment, public relations, inter-school cooperation, school-corporation collaboration, etc.

2. Increased Accountability of Performance

Globalization has not only brought school leaders more power, but also more accountability. While decentralization has attracted more attention among academics and politicians, centralization is also happening in some countries. Bray (2003) states that the main argument for centralization is that operations can be directed with more efficiency through a small central group of planners and evaluators. The motivation behind centralization is often to strengthen evaluation. McGinn (1992) summarizes that centralization is realized through consolidation of smaller units, imposition of regulations and establishing superior boards and planning agencies. His last two forms of centralization are both related to evaluation. A typical example of centralization under the context of globalization is Britain. While offering public schools increased autonomy, the 1988 Education Reform Act of Britain also introduced the National Curriculum and a complex system of assessment and inspection by central government.

The strengthened evaluation implies increased accountabilities on school leaders. This is also in consistency with the common value that power goes hand in hand with responsibility. With more power and freedom to accomplish their leadership, school leaders are required to have their performances under the supervision and assessment of stakeholders.

School leaders' accountability may be attributed to two aspects, one is in hardware, and the other is in software. In terms of hardware, school leaders are more accountable for improvement of school facilities. These include supply of teaching facilities, innovation of classrooms and office rooms, after school student facilities and other affiliated necessary equipments. In terms of software, school leaders need to show more concern to students' examination achievements and personal developments. Lower performance of students is against the expectation of stakeholders in the age that values competitiveness.

In addition, due to strengthened evaluation systems, school leaders are placed under the supervision of an enlarged body of stakeholders, which includes private funding corporations, local communities, NGOs, public media, parents as well as education authorities at both local and central levels.

3. Required Business-like Management

With the progress of education reforms, more and more education systems are taking in market elements. Marketization of education is not only an advocacy, but seen in practice. School leaders need to realize that in education there is a potential market or quasi-market being formed, and schools are entering a stage of operating in marketized environment. Therefore, school leaders have to run their schools in business-oriented or business-like styles.

Whitty *et al.* (1998) identify the promotion of "corporate managerialism" or

“entrepreneurial governance” in education. The remarkable growth of literature in education management is also an indicator of supports to business-like management of education. The change of the nature of school leaders’ work is also an inevitable result of the change of government policies. With actual or potential reduction of public funding, school leaders have to go for the market in order to keep their schools running. Policies like choice school, open enrolments, per-capita funding etc. have forced school leaders to choose to work as managers.

As managers, school leaders have to give up their traditional ideal image of principals. First of all, they have to set a vision for their school with support of the majority of staff. Then they need to develop strategies to drive the school to go toward the shared vision. One tough and common issue that keeps afflicting school leaders will be how to address budgeting and seek funding. This will drive school leaders to take good care of enrolment situation and go into close collaboration with corporations. Another new tough issue that school leaders will have to handle is public relations. To win in the education market, marketization of schools themselves is crucial. School leaders would have to take up the role of public relations officer. This is important for schools to enjoy good profile among stakeholders in order to ensure satisfying enrolments and thus satisfy evaluators.

4. Imposed Internationalization

Under globalization, internationalization of schools is a general trend. It is an extension of globalization from economy; hence it may be seen as globalization of education. In recent years, some organizations have indicated their goal of establishing an open market of education as of other products. WTO has put this on its agenda, but the resistance from many countries looks unconquerable, as they believe their own institutions would not likely be winners in a free education market. Removing barriers against international trade in education services seems to be an important item on the WTO agenda (World Trade Organization, 1998). EU has

announced its clear vision on internationalizing education of its member countries. Through Bologna Process initiative, it has been promoting a single European Educational Space (Gonzalez and Wagenaar, 2005).

Internationalization of schools has mainly been signified by the mobility of students, teachers and researchers and joint teaching programs. Since internationalization is unstoppable, school leaders can only learn to manage it and take the advantage of it. In some countries, international education is generating considerable additional income for the schools. And in others, foreign teachers are making irreplaceable contributions to the development of students. To drive their schools to reach higher level, school leaders ought to look to the international market and challenges, and learn to deal with multiplicity of culture. Without international vision, no schools at the new millennium could move far enough.

5. Adjustment of Curriculum

Under globalization and education reforms, schools have been granted more power in designing and implementing their own curricula. This is a manifestation of power decentralization. On the other hand, adjusting curriculum is also an imposition. To meet the requirements of stakeholders and customers, schools have to come up with student-oriented and market-oriented teaching programs, prepare students for the labour market, and provide students with the competencies that the employers need. Therefore, school leaders ought to survey markets, investigate customer needs, and listen to suggestions of stakeholders for making improvements to old curricula and establishing new timely curricula.

Although prompt curriculum adaptation according to market needs is of crucial importance for the existence of schools in the competition for declining number of students, emphasis on school traditions and students' identity construction is necessary complementary strategies.

6. Being Technology Sensitive

We are living in a technology enriched age. The information technology revolution, at the core of which microelectronics and telecommunication technology lies, is restructuring our life and work. Early Negroponte (1995) has claimed that our world is becoming digital. Later Castells (2000) characterizes the new information technology paradigm with “pervasiveness of effects of new technologies” (p.61). He states that the new technologies are directly reshaping all processes of our individual and collective existence. Another characterization of Castells (2000) of the information technology paradigm is “flexibility” (p.62). He argues that the new technologies are capable of reconfigure, thus organizations can be modified fundamentally and processes can be even reversed, and our society is characterized by “constant change and organizational fluidity” (p.62).

Accordingly, school leaders ought to be technology sensitive and incorporate this sensitivity into their work. Effective leaders need to be open to innovation and reorganization of their leading structures and be flexible with their leading skills. In relation to students, school leaders need to introduce new components into curricula and new facilities into teaching with the development of new technologies, as is required for the development of students targeting their future competencies and career challenges. Today’s school leaders are facing unprecedented challenges in keeping their own competencies in learning and using new technologies.

Chapter 5 National and School Cultures and Implications for School Leadership

Chapter Four has discussed globalization, seen in this thesis as a major dimension of culture at the global level that has implications for school leadership training. This

Chapter explores culture at national level (Chinese culture) and organizational level (school culture). Chinese school leaders work within school cultures that are saturated in the national culture. Both the national culture and particular school cultures have significant implications for school leadership in China.

Hereafter this chapter will first make discussion on Chinese national culture which entails four aspects: transition to globalization, educational reforms, socialist politics and tradition of Confucianism. In the first aspect I will outline Chinese society's transition from political and economic isolation to active participation in globalization. In the second aspect I will outline the development and status quo of China's education with focus on its educational reforms from 1980s. With regard to socialist politics, I will discuss the social political environment of education in China. Finally I will present tradition of Confucianism and make analysis on the total Chinese culture with Walker and Dimmock's (2002) model. These four aspects constitute the structural forces that frame school leadership in China. In addition to the above mentioned discussion on national culture, I will discuss and make analysis on China's school culture. Walker and Dimmock's (2002) model will be used in order to formulate a characterization. Finally five major implications of the national and school cultures on school leadership in China are presented.

It may be argued that comprehension of these cultural forces at both national and organizational levels and notice of their significance are of crucial importance for understanding properly school leadership and its training in China.

I. China: from Isolation to Globalization

In the history China once enjoyed long period of complacency as a leading power in the world, as can be evidenced in a sense by the meaning of its name: Middle Kingdom – Chinese believed their nation was the centre of the world because of its leading civilization and superior power. China's decline started from its Qing Dynasty

(1644-1911). Although China was still one of the strongest world powers at Qing's early stage, it missed the two Industrial Revolutions while Western powers successfully made their transition from agricultural production to industrial production. Instead, the then Qing Dynasty adopted a national isolation policy, anticipating keeping their stability and prosperity through forbidding foreign culture's interference. Gradually China lagged behind, and Western powers knocked down their door with modern weapons. For about 150 years until mid 20th century, China was in disaster of wars against foreign invaders and chaos caused by civil wars.

From the end of 1970s when Deng took over China's leadership, China entered a new historic era that has been characterized by economic and social restructuring towards the so-called "Socialism with Chinese Characteristics". It seems that China is not going to miss the Informational Revolution and is determined to fully participate in the globalization. After nearly three decades of development driven by continuous reforms, China, the world largest developing country, has made significant transformation.

Over the past 20 years Chinese economy has been expanding rapidly by an average of 9.5% a year. Its economy is now the fourth largest economy in the world when measured by nominal GDP, only behind USA, Japan and Germany. And it is estimated to overtake Germany as the third largest by 2008, and to overtake Japan by 2015 (Bradsher, 2006). More surprisingly, earlier in 2002, there was argument that China was already the 2nd largest economy in terms of real GDP (Maddison, 2002).

With rapid growth of economy, obviously China has already become an influential player of globalization. In December 2001, it became a member country of the World Trade Organization (WTO). At the end of 2004, it rose to be the world's third largest trading nation behind the United States and Germany. It is now one of the world's top exporters of many products. Meanwhile, China is also a huge emerging market for the world. It is the United States' third largest (Morse, 2006) and the European Union's

second largest trading partner (European Commission, 2004). In recent years there has been heated discussion on its emergence as the “next superpower” or a “counter-power to USA”, and the coming of a Chinese century (Fishman, 2005; Shenkar, 2006; Bergsten *et al.*, 2006). Shenkar states that the rise of China is reminiscent of the USA a century ago. He even estimates that by 2015, China may well have the world's largest economy, restoring its imperial glory while fundamentally restructuring the global politics and economy.

As an engine of the world economic growth, China’s problems are already of significance worldwide. On a Tuesday in February 2007, Chinese shareholders’ fears of a possible new tax policy adoption by the government caused a sharp fall in China’s stock markets. It soon triggered a global sell-off across Asia, Europe and America (Cha, 2007). The US market closed down 3.29% and was the worst since September 17, 2001, the first trading day after the 911 terror attacks when the market closed down 7.13 percent (Read, 2007). Although China’s expanding has brought up some worries among many countries, as some companies speculating “move to China or go out of business”, but a slowing-down China, with the largest population (1.3 billion) and the 3rd largest territory (9.6 million square km) in the world, may cause more worries. As RAND Corporation analyst Overholt (2005) argues, the world needs a prosperous and healthy China.

China’s rapid growth has always been going hand in hand with problems that could not be overlooked. Its urban-rural disparity and regional gaps (like that between its eastern and western regions) are among the largest in the world; many of its cities and rivers are among the world’s most polluted and it has brought about a surprising scale of medical and welfare costs; and its political reform has not matched economic growth - its process of democratization is now a complex knotty issue, and it still has a long way to go before being removed from the list of least politically free countries. These in connection constitute serious challenges and threats to China’s further development. Even in terms of economy, its per capita income is now only ranked around 100th in

the world. To quote Bergsten *et al.* (2006), China is the first “poor” global superpower in history.

II. Education Reforms from 1980s

Before observing the trajectory of China’s education reforms, let’s first have a look at China’s state quo of education.

1. Education of China Today

According to a Ministry report, in 2005, China’s gross enrolment ratio of primary school was 99.14%, junior higher school 95%, senior higher school 52.7% and higher education 21%. China has 366,200 primary schools with 108,640,700 pupils, 62,486 junior high schools with 62,149,400 students, 31,532 senior high schools with 40,309,500 students, and 2273 higher education institutions accommodating more than 23 million young people (MoE, 2006).

With respect to higher education, in 1985 China had only 1,016 institutions holding 1.79 million students and enrolling just 340,000 new ones (Zhao, 1998). Comparing these figures with those two decades after, we can see that China has just undergone a drastic transformation in higher education from the elitist stage to a mass system, coinciding with that of many other countries addressing the same issue of globalization. As Schleicher (2006) reminded Europe, Chinese HE is “producing wave after wave of highly skilled graduates”.

Chinese education is also increasingly internationalized. The number of foreign teachers in China has been increasing each year. Student mobility between China and other countries has also exploded in the last two decades. In 2004, 110,844 students from 178 foreign countries were studying in Mainland China (MoE, 2005a). On the other hand, in the same year, there were 114,000 Chinese going abroad pursuing studies at foreign institutions (MOE, 2005b). To support Chinese studying abroad,

Chinese educational authorities at various levels have been providing financial assistance. The Ministry of Education itself has played an active and major role via its Chinese Scholarship Council by offering directly fully funding. Since 2005, the number of its yearly scholarship recipients has reached 7000 (Chinese Scholarship Council, 2005; 2006; 2007).

In China, a very centralized state, the destiny of educational development is firmly held in the hand of policy-makers. Now let's turn to education reforms in China since 1980s.

2. Education Reforms since 1980s

With the founding of the People's Republic, the socialist China transformed its economy into a fully planned one, and meanwhile, accepted with great loyalty the educational theories of and modelled its schooling system on the former Soviet Union (Hayhoe, 1992). To "prepare good communists" and ensure the correct moral teaching, tight central control policies were adopted on the polytechnicalist system and remained as a prominent feature of Chinese education until the beginning of 1980s.

Entering the 1980s, Chinese government started its education reforms in line with China's social and economic restructuring needs. In spite of its co-occurring with other countries' reforms to meet the challenges of globalization, China's education reforms have been unfolded in its own way. Two government documents actually constitute the two milestones of it.

The first is the Decision on Educational System Reform issued by the Communist Party of China Central Committee (CPCCC) in 1985 (CPCCC, 1985). Until 1984, China's economic reform in its rural area has gained remarkable progress in terms of agricultural production and farmers' living standards. Rural economic system reform, as a first step of the overall Chinese economic transformation, has accumulated solid

experience for urban reforms, including industry and service sectors. Thus in 1984, the CPCCC decided to carry out urban reforms aiming to establish a “planned market economy”. The advancing of further reforms posed demands for skilled labour and technicians for various sectors, thus educational reform became an economic imperative. The main education reform policies articulated by the 1985 Decision are: transferring full power of basic education to each province and local authorities, implementing 9-year compulsory education, expanding vocational educational at the secondary level, and increasing the power of higher education institutions and reforming the enrolment and job assignment systems of college students.

The second official document that serves as a milestone for Chinese education reform is the Program for Chinese Education Reform and Development issued by the CPCCC and the State Council of China in 1993 (CPCCC and State Council of China, 1993). Until then, economic reforms in urban areas have been deepened considerably and the country as a whole has realized rapid development and transformation. In 1992, China declared its ambition to establish “socialist market economy” at the 14th National Congress of the Communist Party of China, a major leap of both political and economic ideology from its former goal of “planned market economy”. As it always, economic development has raised demands on human capital and the education system was required to make adjustment to keep in pace with the progress of economy. In 1993, China issued its Program for Chinese Education Reform and Development. The first major policy implemented is to establish a new structure of education provision by allowing institutions other than governments to open schools. Primary and secondary school head-teachers were delegated power to be fully accountable for school operation and were encouraged to establish collaboration with local communities. Higher Education institutions were granted more power in staffing, funding and other areas of management. It was also stated that university tuition would be introduced step by step.

Following the 1993 Program’s direction of decentralization and privatization, China has taken some further steps in reforming its educational system. Being aware of the

domestic challenges from national development and global challenges for competitiveness, in 1999, CPCCC and the State Council of China issued its Resolution on Deepening Education Reform and Promoting Entirely Quality Education (State Council of China). The 1999 Decision emphasizes the cruciality of labour quality in terms of innovation spirit and practice ability and requires quality education be incorporated into all phases and forms of schooling from kindergarten to higher education. Accordingly, it was aimed to expand the scale of secondary education and higher education, grant more power to universities, and encourage more private schools. Further in 2002, China promulgated its Law of Private Education Promotion, which legalised the status of the emerging private schools (National Congress of China, 2002).

To cater for its economic and social development needs, China has executed proactively educational restructuring. Decentralization and privatization have been major evident themes of its educational transformation. Both domestic and global contexts played a role in affecting the direction of reforms. Now the old extremely centralized system has been informed more and more decentralizing, privatising and even marketing elements to meet China's national historical challenges. And these have significant implications for school leadership.

III. The Politics of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics

Political reform in China has not been unfolded to the extent as economic reform has. Since Deng, the leader of the Republic after Mao, took over leadership of the government, political reform has also been a central issue in China's politics. In contrast to its economic reform, political reform has been carried out within a restricted degree. Although the core structure has not been touched, minor and sometimes significant adjustments have taken place and affected the national development.

Looking back at the political discourses from 1980s until now, we can see a clear and

gradual change in the political discourses of the Chinese government regarding China's basic social system. Before 1980s, China pursued resolutely its route of socialism which has centrally planned economy as its central character. At the dawn of 1980s Deng put forward his theory of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics, laying a foundation for the economic reform initiatives. In 1984, after having gained certain but considerable progress in economic reforms, China revised its discourse and declared to follow a road of Planned Commodity Economy (CPCCC, 1984). Further in 1992, at the 14th National Congress of the Communist Party of China, it was declared that the aim of China's economic reform is to establish a Socialist Market Economy. And in 1993, it was written into China's Constitution that the nation pursues the road of socialist market economy. From then on, the "socialism with Chinese characteristics" has experienced remarkable economic restructuring and political adjustment in connection.

In spite of the official discourse of "socialism with Chinese characteristics", the Chinese political system has been observed in different angles. In relation to the nature and evolution of China's political system, there have been scholars applying the term state capitalism, such as Castell (2000) and Gabriel (2006). A consensus is that China is facing urgent pressures for democratization and political reforms due to problems including corruption and social stratification and the socio-economic transformation as a whole.

Within the present political system, education is seen as necessary to be held by the government in order to ensure political stability. Public funded and state-owned schools form the absolutely major provider of education in China. School leaders and teachers are actually part of the civil servant body. The nomination of school leaders goes as the deployment of government officials. School leaders ranked differently are appointed by educational authorities at different levels. Running a state enterprise, school leaders have to take care of the interests of both students and educational officials.

IV. The Tradition of Confucianism and Chinese Culture

Due to the profound and lasting influence of the old Confucianism, Chinese culture is usually labelled as Confucian culture. With the change of dynasties in China, Confucianism's influence has only been reinforced. There were ups and downs in its history, but its mysterious dynamic always ensured its return to the centre of arena.

During the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution, the then Chinese government once attempted to get rid of its influence through various radical actions by the young people. Confucianism was criticized for its support to feudalism, and historical relics related to it were destroyed. In recent years there has been considerable discussion on the penetrating of Western cultures in China. Political discourses have indicated that Confucianism is attracting more attention due to its potentiality as a counter-power against Western cultures.

What does Confucianism imply to Chinese culture? The 11 commonly held classical Confucian principles summarized by Zhang (1999, in Zhang, 2000) give a general picture of it and may help to understand its cultural implications. They are (1) free will and rationality; (2) natural equality and social inequality among men; (3) hierarchical social structure supported by talent and merit; (4) mutual obligation rather than law in maintaining social justice; (5) the dynamic operation of market mechanism with government intervention; (6) respect for hard work and appreciation of frugality and (7) emphasis on social harmony and justifying rebellion against corrupt governments.

With Walker and Dimmock's (2002) six-dimension national culture model, it is fair to make the following attemptable arguments on Chinese culture.

With long-history as an empire, the Chinese society is embedded deeply within the acceptance of hierarchic system. Power is obviously concentrated around a very small

portion of the society members, and there is a clear and rooted societal structure of vertical hierarchy. A large portion of the society members simply have no or little say to the management of the society where they live.

Chinese society is very group-oriented. The group interest is always granted higher importance than personal interest. Patriotism and collectivism are highly valued and inculcated through textbooks at schools. Individuals that sacrifice self interest and even life for protecting family interest are prized by the family. Those who brought about corporation damage or loss for self gains are harshly criticized and shamed.

Chinese culture is also one of aggression, instead of being one of consideration. It encourages competition and accomplishing success. The Chinese history is filled with domestic wars between states and Chinese people are proud of their state heroes. Women in China have not obtained equal participation in various aspects of the social operation. To win equal participation and treatment, there is a cultural prejudice that needs women to defeat.

With respect of attitude toward environment, Chinese culture is more proactive. It is widely held among its members that through personal efforts (like education), life and social status may be improved. On the other hand, some members are also fatalistic, tending to accept that they are the ruled and have to observe the rules. But generally speaking, to make one's own to life by challenging the environment is encouraged and valued.

With old developed civilization, Chinese society is generative, as can be evidenced by its great contributions to the world sciences in the history. In contemporary China, intellectual rights are not well protected due to the missing of forceful legislation, and this has discouraged its members' motivation in creation and innovation.

Chinese culture is also of holistic relationship, as it prefers harmony and confluence

rather than conflict and innovation in social relations. The issue of relations in China is highly valued, and relationship plays a crucial role in each person's life and career. As legislative structure is not yet established sufficiently and China is in a stage of social transition, social relations, or social capital (Field, 2003) means much more in China than in developed countries.

In summary, the Chinese culture seen through Walker and Dimmock's (2002) model may be described as power-concentrated, group-oriented, aggression inclined, more proactive, more generative and holistic relationship favoured. This characterization has helpful implications for the discussion of school leadership in China.

V. Organizational Culture of Chinese Schools

While reflecting the elements of the bigger national culture in their existence, Chinese schools live their own life and possess their own mental programming - organizational culture. As noted earlier in this thesis, organizational culture is affected by national culture, but it also exists as a phenomenon *per se*.

Walker and Dimmock's (2002) six-dimension model for analysing organizational culture can be applied meaningfully to general characterization of cultures of Chinese schools. It is arguable to say that Chinese school culture is more outcome-oriented, person-oriented, parochial, closed, controlled, and pragmatic.

As education is still a rare resource in China, entrance examinations exist as a tool to divide students at their graduation. Only those who score higher are granted a chance for further schooling, while the others have to join the social labour. To meet the demands of parents and students as well, Chinese schools, at least those located below tertiary level, have to invest most of their resources to ensure the students to obtain high scores in examinations. Thus being outcome-oriented becomes a marked feature of Chinese schools.

As interpersonal relations matter so much in China, the culture is also characterized by highly valued inter-person relations. In addressing whatever issues, schools have to take into consideration the relations among staff, between leaders and staff, between teachers and students, and between staff and parents and other stakeholders. This is also in consistence with the national culture's emphasis on a harmonious relationship. The passive aspect is that it costs a lot of time and other resources.

Due to the population situation, although economy has been rising at a surprising rate, the low rate of employment in China has always been a hard issue. Competition between individuals for employment and competition for development (such as funding resource) between organizations are both tough. A direct consequence from this is the obvious parochialism showed in the attitudes and actions by Chinese schools.

Parochialism naturally leads to self-isolation and declines cooperation. Therefore, it can be argued that Chinese schools are more closed to other institutions. Comparatively speaking, the Chinese politics favours a tighter control over its people. As public institutions, Chinese schools have to choose to conduct also tight control in its management.

Finally, along with economic and education reforms, schools in China have to generate their own funding in order to improve school facilities and increase teachers' salaries. In their daily operation, Chinese schools are displaying more and more pragmatism.

VI. Implications of Culture for School Leadership

Based on the above analysis of culture within which Chinese school leaders operate their leadership, we may argue the following points as significant implications of culture particularly to school leadership in China.

1. The Prominence of Technique for Socializing with Educational Authorities

The Mastery of techniques for dealing with relations with educational authorities is of crucial importance for the career of school leaders and the development of their schools as well. Appointed and supervised by educational authorities, Chinese school leaders have to first make sure that the educational officials are satisfied with their performance.

Successful leaders are those who are able to comprehend fully and implement accordingly government policies and decisions. Favourable relations with government authorities also provide opportunities for better support of funding and other resources, and vital assistance when schools are in difficult situations. Smooth relations with educational officials also generate trust and authorization and create favourable conditions for school leaders to carry out their ambitions for leading their schools.

A passive aspect of this is that it may also leads to lacking of necessary supervision on school leaders and even corruption of educational officials and leaders.

2. Staff Support VS. Parents Trust

Support from staff is more important than trust from parents. To a market-oriented school, to suffice parents is of vital importance for its existence. In China, education is a rare resource, and it is a seller's market, if there is one. Therefore, schools are never short of students and school leaders don't have to worry about losing their market. The direct outcome of this is that schools get the courage to overlook the complaints of parents about the school daily operation, classroom facilities and additional fees charged to students.

On the contrary, to win support from staff or at least the majority of staff by improving their office conditions and welfare allowances, school leaders may create

the prerequisites for implementing successfully government policies and communicating their visions and school plans such as structural school reforms. Being extremely sensitive to staff's attitude is crucial for the success of school leaders in China.

Therefore, for school leaders, establishing mutual trust and harmonious relations with the staff means much more than satisfying and obtaining support from students' parents, or the educational market.

3. Reform-orientedness

Reform-orientedness is a key element of school leadership in China. During the last two to three decades, China has been characterized by economic and social restructuring. Accordingly, education has been experiencing reforms in terms of provision, curriculum, management, and evaluation. As China is still envisioning further reforms at various aspects of its society, this reforming picture will continue to exist. In this sense, a school leader's success is to a large extent based on his ability to adjust the operation of his schools according to the larger social reform agenda and progress.

Being reform-oriented entails ability to understand and implement the government policies, take advantage of the emergent opportunities bestowed by new educational structures, and the courage to carry out new initiatives concerning school management, and the tactics to deal with personnel relations and market requirements. In China, an overwhelmingly reforming country, school leaders have to choose to be open to new challenges and mindsets and to fit in with the local communities.

4. Business-like management

Business-like management skills are necessary for successful school leaders. Public spending for education has been low in China. Although there has been a rapid

increase in the total amount of public educational expenses in the last years, financial insufficiency is still a barrier for the expanding and growth of Chinese schools. As compensation, schools are encouraged by the government to seek extra funding from the market. The extra funding obtained is fully under the control of each school and its leaders. It is a very useful resource for attracting competent teachers and purchasing teaching facilities. The difference between Chinese schools in financial situation largely lies in the funding they obtain by themselves from the market.

School leaders with business-like management capabilities tend to use their particular resources smartly to generate extra income for their schools. Direct and efficient measures may include establishing close relations with corporations, opening part-time training programs, and enrolling self-financing students.

Working like a business manager, while sticking to the merits of a professional and traditional school leader is increasingly becoming a precondition for approaching the success of school leader.

5. Increased and Confined Autonomy

Chinese school leaders have been granted more autonomy through the education reforms in the last 2 decades. This is seen in various aspects of school operation, such as funding distribution, personnel employment, external relations, and student affairs administration. As a special category of public servants, public school leaders belong to the bureaucratic hierarchy, and they are ranked according to the size, importance and status of their schools. With universities at the highest level and primary schools at the lowest, Chinese schools also form their own hierarchical pyramid.

Meanwhile the increased power of school leaders is still strictly confined and they need to be aware of the fact that they are still far from being a real boss. For example, nowadays school leaders play a seemingly dominant role in employing new staff, but

the final outcome is up to the educational authorities, as they can only make the so-called recommendations. In addition, they have no right to discharge any teacher, and it is still a power firmly held by educational officials.

With this power dilemma exists, a capable school leader in China has to find the balance between power and confinements in order to establish his legitimacy and obtain support from both the educational authorities and his own colleagues.

Chapter 6 An Outline of School Leadership Training in China

In this chapter, I will introduce the general development of school leadership training in China by presenting an account of historical trajectory. This will entail its initial inception, growth and present status. Within this comprehensive survey, the evolution of government policies concerning school leadership training is explored and discussed. In the second section of this chapter, school leadership training in China is characterized from a perspective of governmental policy.

I. A Historical Survey of School Leadership Training in China

Here the development of school leadership training in China is presented in three stages. The first stage is the initial informal development prior to 1989. The second stage is from 1989 to 1999, during which school leadership training in China is gradually formalized in official policies and carried out throughout China. The last stage is about recent developments from 2000.

1. Initiation and Early Development before 1989

The initiation of school leadership training in the People's Republic of China might be

traced back to the early history of in-service training of school teachers in China in early 1950s. As school leaders took part in the same programs as other teachers, school leadership training was then an integral part of in-service training of school teachers. It was later in 1954 that school leadership training was first stressed as a separable issue, when the then Central People's Government issued its Directive Regarding Improvement and Development of Secondary Education.

From its very beginning, school leadership training was incorporated clearly into China's political agendas. In the 1954 Directive, it is stated that school leaders are to be trained in batches in a planned way to improve their political and professional levels. In 1955, with the approval of Chairman Mao, in order to provide in-service training to school leaders and education administrators, the then Ministry of Education established a national training institution at Beijing, the Education Administration Institute. During 1955-1960, the Institute offered one-year training to 2051 school leaders and administrators. In the following 1960s and 1970s, due to the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution (GPCR) and China's political turmoil, school leadership training in China was completely terminated (Zhuang and Sun, 2006).

After the GPCR, education in China was restored to normal rapidly. In 1980, the Education Administration Institute was renamed as the Central Institute of Education Administration and reopened its training programs for educational leaders and teachers. During 1980s, many school leaders received training at provincial education institutes, teachers' training schools, universities and other institutions. In 1982, in its Provisional Regulations on Reinforcing the Development of Education Institutes, the Ministry of Education states that education institutes ought to be well operated for the planned training of education cadres. The Ministry also points out in the document that diversified training programs ought to be provided in accordance with trainees' backgrounds. For the first time, it is stressed that education leaders' training needs to be regulated and formalized. Further in 1984, regarding the appointment of secondary school leaders, the Ministry directed that each province establish gradually its

systematic rules on the training and supervision of school leaders (MoE, 1984).

In 1986, to reinforce educational administration and leadership training, the then State Education Commission² established 6 Education Administrator Training Centres respectfully at Beijing Normal University, East China Normal University, Northeast China Normal University, Mid-China Normal University, Southwest China Normal University and Shaanxi Normal University (State Education Commission, 1986). The six Centres provided training to administrators including school leaders from the regions around their localities. The establishment of the six Centres is a milestone in the history of school leadership training in China, as it symbolizes the dawn of a new stage of training provision by specialized institutions (Zhuang and Sun, 2006).

By the end of 1980s, the professionalist nature of school leadership had been recognized within the training programs and the training was already related to the tenure of school leaders. The teaching contents entailed education theories and management know-how, but there was no uniform curriculum and the course system was not yet complete (*ibid*).

2. Policy Evolution from 1989

By the end of 1980s, the Chinese society had experienced significant transformation not least in terms of economy. Comparatively much less progress had been made in education reforms, and education had become inconsistent with the whole social development. Under such a context, seemingly school leaders have entered the focal attention of policy makers.

In 1989, the then State Education Commission issued its Views on Reinforcing the Training of Primary and Secondary School Principals, a document that constituted a milestone of the development of school leadership training in China. It is from when

² During some periods, the Chinese Ministry of Education was renamed as State Education Commission.

this document was issued that China started its official requirement of leadership training on all school principals. It stressed that school principals had lacked sufficient political and professional qualifications for the development and reforms of education, thus a special qualification training need to be conducted for all primary and secondary school principals within 3-5 years. It also clarified that the training test results would be incorporated as reference for job promotion, and newly appointed school principals must attend the training before taking over their office. The document also required that the expenses of training should be planned into and covered by public budgets, and the principals under training get salaried as usual (State Educational Commission, 1989). The significance of the document also lies in that it conveys the first systematic and complete Chinese official policy on the training of school leadership in China, thus it signals that school leadership training has entered the era of formalized and systematic organization. The issue of the document initiated a training project that involved more than a million Chinese principals.

Further in 1990, the State Education Commission issued another document to reemphasize the significance of qualification training and qualifications required on the training institutions (State Educational Commission, 1990). Attached to the document there was a Guiding Curriculum of Qualification Training for School Principals (Draft). It stipulated that the training, if conducted full-time, consisted of 300 hours within three months. Taking into consideration of the practical complexity, it also stated that the major portion of the training might be accomplished through part-time self-teaching. In this case the whole course might last for one year, but then there had to be a half day lecture each week, or totally 15-20 days of lectures during the winter or summer holiday. Later that year, the National Curriculum of Qualification Training for School Principals was issued, providing uniform teaching plan and contents. In 1991, the State Education Commission issued Qualifications for Primary and Secondary School Principals, which provided a foundation for choosing teaching contents concerning qualifications and responsibilities of school leaders

(State Education Commission, 1991).

In 1992, the Communist Party of China Central Committee and the State Education Commission issued jointly the Views on Reinforcing the Construction of Primary and Secondary School Leadership (Draft) (CPCCC and State Education Commission, 1992), which stated that school principals were to be trained once every five years and new leaders ought to have Training Certificate before assuming their positions. In 1994, the State Council expressed its ambition to have all school leaders have Training Certificates by 1997 (State Council of China, 1994).

In December 1995, the State Education Commission informed of its Ninth Five-Year Plan³ for school leadership training (1995). Because one round of qualification training had been given to all primary and secondary school leaders, with the Ninth Five-year Plan the Commission started in-service training, or the so called Enhancement Training. Thus, the year of 1996 became the start of in-service school leadership training in China. With the Five-Year Plan, the Commission also publicized a guiding curriculum which framed the nationwide in-service training until 2000 with prescriptions of goals, courses, and methods.

In the year of 1997, the State Education Commission issued its Rules on School Leader's Training Certificate (State Education Commission, 1997) and clarified its policy that every school leader must take training and obtain Qualification Training Certificate in order to exercise its leadership.

Two years after, the Ministry of Education issued its Rules on School Principals Training (RSPT) (MoE, 1999). It states clearly that taking training is both a right and obligation of school leaders, new school leaders must acquire Training Certificate before assumption of office, and school leaders at their posts must take in-service

³ The Ninth Five-year Plan for China's National Economy and Societal Development covers the period of 1996-2000. Accordingly, local governments and ministries make Five-year Plans for local regions and sectors.

training once every five years. The enforcement of the RSPT symbolizes the formalization of school leadership training in China.

3. Development Since 2000

In 1999 Chinese government decided to make a further step with its educational reform by promoting “quality education” (CPCCC and State Council of China, 1999). As the progress of reform is largely dependant on the support and efforts of school leaders, school leadership training has been attached more importance and linked with the outcome of reform. In March 2000, the Ministry of Education initiated a project for the training of 1000 key school principals, aiming to improve their capabilities for implementing quality education and cultivate a batch of outstanding primary and secondary school management specialists.

In February 2001, the Ministry of Education issued The Tenth National Five-year Plan for Education Cadres Training (MoE, 2001a). In the Five-Year Plan, the initiative for the establishment of school cadre training bases was announced. The Ministry would construct and develop the State Advanced Education Administration Institute, National Secondary School Principal Training Centre (NSSPTC) and National Primary School Head-teacher Training Centre (NPSHTC). And each province was required to set up its own training institution network according to practical demands. Higher education institutions were also encouraged to participate in the provision of training (*ibid*).

In 2002, the Ministry of Education issued a document for improving the training of primary and secondary school leaders. While stressing completing the system and improving the quality, the document pointed out that the Ministry of Education would be in charge of macro-control, and local governments were entrusted with more power of administration of the training (MoE, 2002).

In 2004, the Chinese Education Revitalization Plan 2003-2007 was announced. It emphasized the importance of the training of school leaders and called for integration of it with lifelong education (MoE, 2004).

II. Characterization from a Perspective of Policy

As the foregoing section in this Chapter has indicated, school leadership training in China may be traced back to 1950s, but its formalization as a required qualification of school leaders was only accomplished in 1999. Since then, it has been increasingly emphasized by policy makers, not the least due to its relevance to the educational reforms. The professional properties of school leader have been gradually confirmed and its distinct role has obtained attentions. From a perspective of governmental policy, the following four general features may be argued concerning school leadership training in China.

First of all, school leadership training in China is a governmental behaviour. This argument may be supported by three points. Firstly, school leaders in China are semi-public servants. Most of pre-tertiary schools in China are state-owned, and their school leaders are appointed by corresponding governments. Secondly, school leadership training is funded by educational authorities. In addition to the separate budget of governments, some training costs induced to school leaders are covered by individual schools, for example, during the training school leaders are also salaried. Lastly, the training is organized by the government in accordance with the Five-year Plans for national economic and societal development. So far school leadership training has experienced three rounds in China, respectively according to the Eighth, Ninth and Tenth Five-year Plans.

Secondly, school leadership training in China is fully incorporated into the appointment process of school leaders. According to government policies, school leaders should have a Training Certificate issued by an officially recognized school

leadership training institution. Without the Certificate, a school leader is seen as unqualified and a newly appointed school leader can not assume office. The training outcome and accomplishments also constitute school leaders' qualification for career promotion.

Thirdly, there is an extensive and open network of training providers. It is constituted of the State Advanced Education Administration Institute, Provincial Education Institutes, State/Provincial/Regional Headship Training Centres, etc (Wang, 1999). The government has established a set of standards for training institutions and encourages colleges and universities to apply for providing general and special training to school leaders (MoE, 2002).

Lastly, school leadership training is an integral part of political agenda in China. This is not only evidenced by the training contents that are always politically penetrated, but also the progressing of the whole training in China. Its birth, speeding up and formalization have been the outcome of education reform demands imposed by socio-economic development. As clearly stated in its Article One, Rules on School Principals Training (RSPT) (MoE, 1999) is designed to promote Quality Education and advance the reforms and development of compulsory education. Another evidence of China's school leadership training being politically penetrated can be seen easily through the training goals and contents articulated by all curricula. To get familiar with national policies is one of the utmost goals of all training programs.

Chapter 7 Research Findings and Analysis of School Leadership Training in China

In Chapter Six, I have sketched the development of school leadership training in China as a whole. In this chapter, I will present my major research findings about

present school leadership training in China as a whole. Deeper insight is provided in three aspects: the way the programs are organized, the content included in the courses, and the way trainees are evaluated.

Current school leadership training in China is framed by the policies conveyed in the Ministry of Education's Rules on School Principals Training (RSPT) (MoE, 1999) and The Tenth National Five-year Plan for Education Cadres Training (MoE, 2001a). And it is structured around two national curricula promulgated by the Ministry respectively for qualification/pre-service training and improvement/in-service training. By having a close look at these documents a general profile may be obtained. Description and analysis in this chapter will largely be based on the data I have found through interviews and on studying documents with the above-mentioned as the primary.

I. Program Organization

Here I will discuss three aspects: the role of educational authorities, the admission of trainees, and the program providers and teachers.

1. Educational Authorities—the Imposer, Sponsor and Supervisor

With respect to school leadership training in China, the educational authorities have played a triple role, i.e. as imposer, sponsor and supervisor. It is the Ministry of education that has initiated and imposed training on school leaders on behalf of the interests of national education. And it is the educational authorities at various levels design and promulgate training plans (of both long-term and short-term), coordinate training programs, and even distribute training quotes. It is also the educational authorities that are tutoring and supervising the development and quality of the training programs. As public funding remains to be the only financial resource for the programs, the educational authorities are also the sponsor for school leadership training.

As I have pointed out in Chapter Six, school leadership training in China is fully incorporated into political agendas. According to The Tenth National Five-year Plan for Education Cadres Training (MoE, 2001a), the underlying assumption behind school leadership training in the Tenth Five-year Plan period (2001-2005) is that it can serve the deepening of educational reforms and promoting entirely quality education. As a national educational project, school leadership training is also directed to support national strategies of social development. For example, MoE (2001a) clearly states that supporting the Great West Development Strategy⁴ is one of the major tasks that school leadership training should fulfil. In terms of funding, so far school leadership training is fully dependent on public spending. There have been no private or corporate funding involved. Educational authorities are also the ones who conduct supervision on the programs, institutions and specific curricula.

Powers concerning school leadership training are not distributed evenly between various levels of the educational authorities; instead they fall chiefly on two levels: the central and the provincial. China's Rules on School Principals Training (RSPT) (MoE, 1999) identifies the power differentiation between the Ministry and the provincial education departments: Its Article Ten states that the State Ministry of Education is in charge of the macro-management with main responsibilities including establishing rules, policies and national plans, designing basic teaching documents, recommending and assessing textbooks, setting up quality evaluation systems, and guiding provincial authorities concerning the training. Article Eleven grants provincial education authorities with the power to be in control of the training within each province, establish local training plans and policies, and take full responsibility for the implementation, supervision and evaluation of local school leadership training. In addition Article Twelve confers provincial authorities with the power of qualification assessment and approval of training institutions. In accordance with RSPT (MoE, 1999), The Tenth National Five-year Plan for Education Cadres Training (MoE, 2001a)

⁴ The Great West Development is a strategy that Chinese government has initiated to develop China's less developed Western part and to reduce the East-West gap in societal development.

re-emphasizes the powers of the central and provincial education authorities in terms of administering school leadership training.

2. Admission of Trainees

According to RSPT (MoE, 1999), attending the training is both a right and obligation of school leaders. For new appointed principals, pre-service training (or the so called Qualification Training) is a prerequisite for them to take office. To those who have taken pre-service training and passed the tests concerned, attending in-service training (or the so called Enhancement Training) and obtain a Training Certificate every five years is an obligation and indispensable condition for continuing to be in office. Therefore, admission of school leadership training programs in China is not primarily based on any results of entrance examination or qualification assessment of school principals, but on the training plans designed and implemented by educational authorities at various levels.

In China there is an elite strand of school leadership training. And this is in consistency with the existence of China's elite schools—the key schools. China's present key school system was established in early 1980s when the country was extremely short of education resources but in need of elite scientists for social development (Thogersen, 1990). As key schools enjoy privileges, leaders of key schools enjoy privileges in receiving leadership training. In addition to the normal pre-service and in-service training, key school leaders receive the Advanced Training which is supposed to provide them with exert knowledge and skills in leading schools (MoE, 1999).

So far school leadership training as both a right and obligation is only imposed and bestowed on leaders of general schools; it is not yet targeted in the same way on leaders of special needs schools, occupational schools and adult education schools. There are no existing systematic regulations on their training and no special training

institutions providing training for them. In addition, private schools have not yet come into the attention of educational authorities.

Another point that deserves mentioning is that former education backgrounds do not prioritize or devalue the qualification for the admission of trainees. For example, even if a principal has a master's degree in educational management, he is still obliged to attend the training concerned. A training course administrator at Shandong explained that an assumption behind this is that the training can provide school leaders with knowledge of recent development in both domestic and international education and society that is beyond the reach of former education. This reflects the fact that school leadership training is applied instrumentally for promoting education reforms. But according to the Ministry's National Guiding Plan for Qualification Training (MoE, 2001b), those who have obtained academic degree in education economy or education administration in the recent five years may be exempted from attending certain relevant courses.

3. Program Providers and Trainers

School leadership training programs are mainly provided at three levels: the Ministry, the provinces, and the counties.

The Ministry of Education administers the National Primary School Head-teacher Training Centre (NPSHTC) and the National Secondary School Principal Training Centre (NSSPTC) established particularly for the advanced training of nationwide elite school leaders (MoE, 2001a). The NPSHTC was established on the former North China Education Cadre Training Centre located in Beijing Normal University (BNU). It is actually institutionalized in the BNU Education Management Institute. NPSHTC is under the joint administration of the Ministry of Education and the BNU. The BNU actually exercises daily management of NSSPTC on behalf of and in collaboration with the Ministry of Education. The NSSPTC was established in 1989. It is located on

the campus of East China Normal University (ECNU), Shanghai. As a Ministry centre, it is under the joint administration of the Ministry of Education and the ECNU. An obvious advantage of incorporating the two national training centres into BNU and ECNU is that they can exploit the resources of the best two normal universities in terms of knowledge, facilities and staff.

The primary role of these two national centres is to provide leadership training to China's key school principals in accordance with ministry schemes. They represent the newest knowledge and best training and are regarded as the top provider of elitist training. In recent years, some local educational authorities that possess financial advantages have entrusted them with training of local school leaders in order to get access to what they believe. These deals are fulfilled through paying negotiated fees. This extra income has obviously helped to improve the national centres' facilities for regular training programs, but it remains to be debated on the side effects of these activities that aim to generate extra income.

The second major level of training providers entails the normal universities, education institutes and other universities under the administration of provincial educational authorities. They play a crucial role in terms of training quality and quantity, as they are the institutions that possess special training facilities and capabilities compared with other institutions in each province. As urban schools locate closer to these institutions, they have easier access to and benefit more from the leadership training conducted in those institutions.

The third level of training providers lies in the teacher training centres located in big counties. Although these institutions are short of resources and facilities, they have played an important role in providing training to those school leaders that work for remote rural schools.

With regard to teachers involved in the training programs—the trainers, as also provided by the RSPT (MoE, 1999), educational authorities require training institutions employ a considerable number of external professionals, administrative leaders and successful principals as part-time teachers. By doing so, school leadership training is achieved through close cooperation with the universities, institutes or schools that host the training institutions. This has proved to be both effective in assuring minimum teaching quality and efficient in cost saving.

At present, an extensive network of training institutions exists providing training to school leaders throughout China. With the underpinning elitist beliefs and values, this network also takes a form of pyramid: with the well funded and facilitated Ministry centres on the top, the provincial institutes and universities at the middle, and the county centres lacking resources at the bottom.

II. Curriculum Contents

Roughly speaking, there are mainly three types of programs of school leadership training in China: the Qualification Training, the Enhancement Training and the Advanced Training. The first type is about equivalent to pre-service training, whereas the latter two constitute the in-service training in combination. As it has been discussed earlier in this chapter, the structure of in-service training with bifurcation has resulted from the elitist mindset on education in China. In relation to Qualification Training and Enhancement Training, the Ministry of Education issued very detailed curricula.

In regard to the teaching contents of Advanced Training, there is no detailed and clearly-defined Ministry plan except a general requirement given earlier in 1995, which states that the Advanced Training ought to be carried out in the form of and focused on project research according to circumstantial and practical needs of schools. However provincial educational authorities are demanded to design corresponding

curricula and implementation models. In addition, middle-aged and young school leaders are encouraged to study part-time degree programs in educational management as an extension of Advanced Training (State Education Commission, 1995).

Hereafter, I will generalize the main curriculum contents that are reflected by the National Curriculum for Qualification Training of School Principals (NCQT) (MoE, 2001b) and the National Curriculum for Enhancement Training of School Principals (NCET) (MoE, 2001c); then briefly discuss the influence on training contents from local authorities.

1. The National Curriculum for Qualification Training of School Principals

The aims of Qualification Training are stated explicitly in the NCQT: assisting school leaders to acquire the indispensable ideological and political qualifications, moral standards, required knowledge and management abilities. Around these aims, the NCQT presents a 300-hour program structured in three parts: Basic Courses, Elective Courses, and Comprehensive Practice.

The Basic Courses is 200 hours long, including 6 courses totally: (1) Deng (Xiaoping) Theory and Contemporary Chinese Education (20 hours); (2) Modern Education Theories and Practice (50 hours); (3) Basic Education Legality (30 hours); (4) School Management Theories and Practice (50 hours); (5) Primary and Secondary Education Research (20 hours); and (6) Basic Modern Educational Technologies (30 hours). The first course is an introduction on Deng's theories of politics and education development. The second course concerns China's Quality Education theories and practices, school psychology, moral education, curriculum theories and pedagogy. The third course is about basic educational legality, national and local educational laws and rules, and educational legal case analysis. The fourth course, school management, involves management theories, principalship culture, daily school management,

departmental work management, and case analysis. The fifth course provides basic theories and methods of research and the skills to manage research. The last course focuses on basics of educational technology and computer application.

The second part includes only elective courses lasting totally 60 hours. Main areas that are demanded to be covered within them are Introduction on Contemporary Humanities, Social Sciences, and Natural Sciences; Regional Development and Education; Chinese Traditional Cultures and Education; Chinese and Foreign Education History; and Comparative Education. These elective courses are targeted towards expanding the perspectives of trainees.

The last part is the 40-hour comprehensive practical activities, which entails school visits, seminars and case discussions. These practical activities are expected to assist the trainees to learn to apply theoretical knowledge and improve problem-solving abilities.

Table 7-1 Courses Required by the National Curriculum for Qualification Training of School Principals (NCQT)

	Total Hours	Courses
Basic Course	200	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Deng Theory and Contemporary Chinese Education 2. Modern Education Theories and Practice 3. Basic Education Legality 4. School Management Theories and Practice 5. Primary and Secondary Education Research 6. Basic Modern Educational Technologies
Elective Course	60	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduction on contemporary Humanities, Social Sciences and Natural Sciences 2. Regional Development and Education 3. Chinese Traditional Cultures and Education 4. Chinese and Foreign Education History 5. Comparative Education.
Comprehensive Practice	40	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Field Visits 2. Seminars

		3. Case Analysis
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2. The National Curriculum for Enhancement Training of School Principals

According to the NCET, the aim of Enhancement Training is to provide the trainees with information on the new development of society, economy and education, help them to master modern management theories and educational technologies, and reinforce their consciousness of learning and creation. The training is required to emphasize learning new knowledge, sharing new experience, and exploring new issues.

The NCET provides that school leaders are obliged to attend Enhancement Training for no less than 240 hours accumulatively every five years. It consists of three parts: Basic Courses, Elective Courses, and Comprehensive Practice.

Among the basic courses, there are totally 15 courses listed each of which is 10 hours long. Among them, Contemporary Society and Education is concerned with topics like sustainable societal development and education, the strategy of reviving China through science and education, politics and international relations, economy and education, and contemporary development of science and technology. Comparative Education concerns mainly comparative perspective of education reforms. Educational Policy and Laws introduces new rules and policies issued by Chinese government. Quality Education involves both theoretical and experiential studies of quality education. Curriculum and Teaching Reform entails the history and status quo of reforms, curriculum design, management and evaluation, and classroom teaching model reform. School Management includes modern management and school development, internal school management system reform, human resource management, school leadership and case analysis. Educational Assessment includes evaluation theories, and evaluation of teachers and students. Other courses include Contemporary Educational Theories, Moral Education, School Curriculum

Development, Analysis of School Costs and Benefits, School Diagnosis Consultation, Psychology, Education Technologies, and Educational Research.

The second part lasts for 70 hours, and is left with provincial authorities or training institutions to choose topics to be included. The third part involves field visits, seminars, case analysis, and designing school reform schemes, and it lasts for 20 hours.

Table 7-2 Courses Required by the National Curriculum for Enhancement Training of School Principals (NCET)

	Total Hours	Courses
Basic Course	150	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Contemporary Society and Education 2. Comparative Education 3. Quality Education, Educational Policy and Laws 4. Curriculum and Teaching Reform 5. School Management 6. Educational Assessment 7. Contemporary Educational Theories 8. Moral Education 9. School Curriculum Development 10. Analysis of School Costs and Benefits 11. School Diagnosis Consultation 12. Psychology 13. Education Technologies 14. Educational Research
Elective Course	70	To be decided by provincial educational authorities or training institutions
Comprehensive Practice	20	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Field Visits 5. Seminars 6. Case Analysis 7. School Reform Scheme Designing

3. Local Curricula

The Ministry stresses the guiding nature of both curricula, the NCQT and the NCET,

and encourages and requires local authorities to establish their own operational curricula based on them and local circumstances and needs. Educational authorities at various levels are also encouraged to develop special courses according to particular local economic, societal and educational practices (MoE, 2001b, 2001c).

III. Evaluation Systems

In terms of evaluation system within the training programs, I will present here my findings in two sections. One section is about the way to examine the trainees attending the programs. The other is concerned with how the training programs are evaluated by education authorities. Regarding both aspects, the Ministry of Education has only sketchy prescriptions, leaving space for regional authorities to rule according to the local situation of training receivers and providers.

1. Evaluation of the Trainees

The compelling influence of school leadership training results from the value attached to the test results. As to participants of the Qualification Training, a successful result of their study is the Qualification Certificate without which they have no access to their office as principal or head-teacher. And to those incumbent leaders, without attending the Enhancement Training and obtaining the Competence Certificate, they will be asked to leave their office (MoE, 1999).

According to the NCQT, a test is given at the finish of each compulsory course. In addition, the essays, research reports and reform designs by the trainees are also evaluated. Based on these results, in combination with attendance, a final grading result is granted. The Ministry supports attempts by the training institutions to set up credit grading system. As to the Enhancement Training, the Ministry has no detailed prescription on examinations. It is only pointed out that Competence Certificate will be issued to those who have studied the required courses and passed the tests.

2. Evaluation of the Training Programs and Providers

The Ministry of Education has showed awareness of the vital importance of the quality of training programs towards the training outcome since it started the Qualification Training in 1990. But due to systematic evaluation was missing there was ever confusion in organizing the programs in terms of teaching quality. In 1999 the Ministry enforced evaluation over training programs and providing institutions. Since then, training institutions have to pass evaluations conducted by educational authorities in order to continue to provide training (MoE, 1999). In its Tenth National Five-year Plan for Education Cadres Training (MoE, 2001a), the Ministry prescribed two measures to ensure the quality of school leadership training. The first is to enforce Qualification Recognition System to evaluate the applying institutions and choose final training providers. The other measure is to establish a system to evaluate the training programs and providers. The evaluation entails training needs investigation, training aims design, training plan, teaching contents and methods, trainers, training administration, training outcomes, and training facilities. Since then, each province has established detailed local regulations on how to evaluate training programs and training providers.

Chapter 8 Research Findings and Analysis of School Leadership Training at Shandong Province

This chapter is to present a profile and analysis of school leadership training in Shandong Province, directed and coordinated by the School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong (SPHTO). In the last chapter I have made general discussion and analysis on the whole development, organization, curriculum and evaluation of school leadership training in China. Given the fact that China is a huge country and reforms have decentralized certain educational authorities to local regions, the training plays out with local adaptations in each province. By presenting

the particular aspects of Shandong in implementing the training prescribed by central government, I wish to provide an insight into a more specific level of school leadership training in China.

Hereafter, I will first give a brief introduction on Shandong's pre-tertiary education in order to provide background knowledge for understanding school leadership training in the province. Then I will present precisely the province's historical development of school leadership training since 1990. After that, an introduction is made on the School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong. The last part is concerned with detailed data and analysis on the organization, curriculum and evaluation of school leadership training in Shandong Province.

I. Pre-tertiary Education at Shandong

Shandong is located at the east coast of China, with an area of 157,000 square kilometres and a population of over 91 million. Like other Chinese eastern provinces, it is better developed economically than those in western and middle China. In 2003, within the province there were 18303 primary schools, 3761 junior high schools and 845 senior high schools (Shandong Government, 2004).

Due to the national policy of population control, the scale of Shandong's compulsory education has been declining. In recent years both the school number and enrolment in primary and lower secondary education have been decreasing. With the expanding policy on upper secondary education, the number of senior high schools and enrolment has gone up obviously.

In 2004, the number of primary school reduced by 1360, and junior high school by 54; but the number of senior high school rose by 17. The total enrolment in 2004 are 6.3 million in primary schools, 4.4 million in junior high schools, and 1.9 million in senior high schools (excluding vocational schools) (Shandong Government, 2005)

(See Table 8-1).

Table 8-1 Student and School Numbers of Shandong 2004

Primary Education		Lower Secondary Education		Upper Secondary Education	
Student No.	School No.	Student No.	School No.	Student No.	School No.
6.3 million	16,943	4.4 million	3,707	1.9 million	862

II. A Glance at the Development of School Leadership Training at Shandong

Systematic school leadership training in Shandong started in 1990 when the central government required all school principals attend Qualification Training. The then policy in Shandong was that all school leaders aged below 55 (male) or 50 (female) must receive the training. And those below 35 are also encouraged to attend formal education programs in Education Management with certain financial supports from government. Teachers education institutions at provincial, regional and county levels were then utilized for leaders' training (Shandong Education Department, 1990).

In 1992, the Department issued Qualifications and Approval of School Leadership Training Programs. It provided that training programs for primary school and lower secondary school leaders need approval from regional education authorities, and those for upper secondary school leaders need approval by provincial education department (Shandong Education Department, 1992). In the same year, to ensure the training quality, the Education Department issued four documents regarding the Qualification Training: Rules on Trainees, Rules on Lectures, Rules on Self-teaching and Trainees Regulations. These rules provide how the trainees were expected to attend the training and how the programs ought to be organized and carried out. Also in 1992, the Department issued the Testing Regulations for Qualification Training of School Leaders, providing a framework of testing contents, methods and procedure.

During China's Eighth Five-year Plan period (1991-1995), totally 38520 school leaders in Shandong received leadership training, including 12782 secondary school

principals and 25738 head-teachers. In 1996, all school leaders in office held Training Certificate (Shandong Education Department, 1996).

Shandong started Enhancement Training of school leadership following the agenda prescribed by the central authority. In 1996, together with its Ninth Five-year Plan, the Shandong Department issued the first Guiding Curricula for Qualification Training and Enhancement Training. In 2000, the Advanced Training programs were carried out designed to provide further leadership training to those excellent school principals. During the Ninth Five-year Plan period (1996-2000), by the end of 2000, 24500 school leaders have received Enhancement Training (Shandong Education Department, 2001).

In 2001 Shandong issued its Rules on School Principals Training Shandong. It provides the specifics such as power distribution between provincial and local education authorities, types of training programs, training institutions, funding, etc. It also stresses that the School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong (SPHTOS) is in charge of administering school leadership training in the province.

Also in the year of 2001, Shandong also issued its Tenth Five-year Plan for school leadership Training and its new Guiding Curricula. The new plan includes the “512” Advanced Training project, a project aiming to train 50 upper secondary school principals, 100 lower secondary principals and 200 primary school head-teachers through the Ministry training centres and Shandong Education Institute. Regarding funding, the Plan states that government funding standard is 1200 yuan (about \$155 US) per person, and multiple sources ought to be created to increase funding supply.

III. The School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong

As above-mentioned, the formal school leadership training in Shandong is under the charge of School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong (SPHTOS).

It is a division of the Shandong Provincial Education Department established in 1991 following the directive of the State Education Commission. Its main mandates are:

- Schematization of principals training of Shandong;
- Formulation of guiding Curricula;
- Coordination of school leadership training in Shandong;
- Supervision and evaluation of the training bases in Shandong.

The management of SPHTOS itself is moulded as the two national training centres (NSSPTC and NPSHTC). Although a division of the provincial educational authority, its daily management is under the leadership of the Shandong Education Institute (SEI), a provincial higher education institution specialized in training teachers for Shandong. On one hand, by locating itself within SEI, SPHTOS enjoys the advantage of using SEI's resources for carrying out its own programs, including teachers and facilities; on the other hand, there are always potential conflicts between Shandong Provincial Education Department and the SEI in SPHTOS's daily operations and long-term strategies, such as staffing affairs and funding allocations.

As in the national level, school leadership training in Shandong is also provided in three forms: Qualification Training, Enhancement Training, and Advanced Training. In the following section, I will discuss their organization, curriculum contents and evaluation methods. As in all these aspects Shandong follows the directive given by the central government, school leadership training plays out within the national frames. I will avoid repeating the same general findings and only present some particular data.

IV. Organization, Curriculum and Evaluation

This section presents the typical data and discussion on school leadership training in Shandong. It consists of three parts: organization, curriculum and evaluation. Only

typical data that do not overlap with those of national programs are discussed.

1. Organization

This part is concerned with the distribution of training at three levels of institutions in Shandong, the relations between institutions and provincial authorities, and the general structure of the training program.

School leadership training in Shandong is provided in institutions at three levels. At the provincial level, the Shandong Education Institute offers both Qualification Training and Enhancement Training to principals of key schools. In addition, it also provides Advanced Training programs to those seen and selected as best-performing school leaders. At the regional level, there are local teachers' colleges and other tertiary institutions accommodating principals from local key schools. These institutions can only provide Qualification Training and Enhancement Training. At the county levels, there are the traditional Teachers' Schools that are specialized in training primary school teachers. They are only authorized to provide training to primary school leaders.

Shandong adopts an open and competition policy in selecting training institutions. Those institutions that wish to provide training have to submit an application including training plans and facilities. It is the Shandong Education Department that determines who are qualified and chosen as training providers. So far the power to choose and edit textbooks is also held by the provincial authorities. And after the trainees have gone through the program, the training institutions have to transfer the diplomas, the Training Certificates to the corresponding educational authorities from which each trainee receives his own.

Shandong emphasizes the importance of field visits and practices for the study of school leadership. Field visits are included in all training programs. And participants

are encouraged to combine their study with practical work. There are intervals within each program through which the school leaders may stay in office and reflect on what they have been trained.

Each Advanced Training program in Shandong lasts for one year. It is carried out in three stages. The first stage, 42 days long, is for lectures, group field visits and research project proposal. The second stage is for individual practice, investigation and project research. The last stage, 10 days long, is for thesis defending and testing. Each Advanced Training class consists of about 50 trainees.

2. Curricula

This part is about the curriculum contents of the training programs in Shandong, with focus on the province's self-designed Advanced Training curriculum.

In relation to Qualification Training and Enhancement Training, the curricula of Shandong consist of the same modules as the national curricula. As to the contents of each module, only the module of elective courses is composed of topics with local character, such as Education Reforms in Shandong.

As the Ministry of Education does not issue any national curriculum for Advanced Training, Shandong has constructed its own. According to the Curriculum for Advanced Training of School Principals Shandong, each training program lasts for 252 hours, and consists of four modules. The first module is the 42-hour Contemporary Society and Education which includes six topics. The second module is Education and Pedagogical Teaching lasting for 78 hours and is composed of 9 topics. The third module is School Management Research, which is 60 hours long and entails 7 topics. The last module, School Running Strategies and Management Practice, is 60 hours and involves field visits and investigation, designing reform plans and thesis writing and defence.

The specific teaching contents of the four modules prescribed by the curriculum vary between primary school, lower secondary and upper secondary school principals. For topics included in each module respectively for training of primary school, lower secondary and upper secondary school principals, please see table 8-2, 8-3 and 8-4.

Table 8-2 Advanced Leadership Training Program for Primary School Head-teachers Shandong

Modules	Hours	Contents
Contemporary Society and Education	42	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sustainable Development and Education 2. Challenges of WTO Membership 3. Knowledge Economy and Innovation Education 4. Technology Development and Talent Cultivation 5. Deng Theory and Education Reforms 6. Chinese and Foreign Education Reforms
Education and Pedagogical Research	78	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Primary School Moral Education Effectiveness 2. Quality Education and Classroom Teaching Reform 3. Psychological Education Research 4. <i>Program for Compulsory Education Curriculum Reform</i> 5. Ideas and Innovation in New Courses 6. Primary School New Courses and Teachers Role 7. Primary School New Courses and Evaluation Reform 8. Primary School Courses Standards and New Textbooks 9. Modern Technology and Application
School Management Research	72	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Modern Management Research 2. Internal Management Reforms 3. Schools with Special Character 4. Primary School Headship 5. Primary School Staff Development 6. Primary School and Management by Law 7. New Courses and Primary Education Evaluation
School Running Strategies and Management Practice	60	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Field Visits and Investigation 2. Drafting School Reform Program 3. Thesis Writing and Defending

Table 8-3 Advanced Leadership Training Program for Lower Secondary School Principals Shandong

Modules	Hours	Contents
Contemporary Society and Education	42	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sustainable Development and Education 2. Challenges of WTO Membership 3. Knowledge Economy and Innovation Education 4. Technology Development and Talent Cultivation 5. Deng Theory and Education Reforms 6. Chinese and Foreign Lower Secondary Education Development
Education and Pedagogical Research	78	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lower Secondary School Moral Education Effectiveness 2. Quality Education and Classroom Teaching Reform 3. Lower Secondary School Student Psychology 4. <i>Program for Compulsory Education Curriculum Reform</i> 5. Courses Standards and New Textbooks 6. New Courses and Explorative Learning 7. New Courses and Student Development
School Management Research	72	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lower Secondary School Internal Management Reforms 2. Lower Secondary School with Special Character 3. Lower Secondary School Principalship 4. Lower Secondary School Staff Development 5. Lower Secondary School and Management by Law 6. Educational Evaluation and Upper Secondary School Entrance Examination Reform
School Running Strategies and Management Practice	60	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Field Visits and Investigation 2. Drafting School Reform Program 3. Thesis Writing and Defending

Table 8-4 Advanced Leadership Training Program for Upper Secondary School Principals Shandong

Modules	Hours	Contents
Contemporary Society and Education	42	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sustainable Development and Education 2. Challenges of WTO Membership 3. Knowledge Economy and Innovation Education 4. Technology Development and Talent Cultivation 5. Deng Theory and Education Reforms 6. Chinese and Foreign Upper Secondary Education Development
Education and		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Upper Secondary School Moral Education Effectiveness 2. Quality Education and Classroom Teaching Reform

Pedagogical Research	78	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Upper Secondary School Student Psychology 4. Upper Secondary School Student Learning Forms 5. New Courses and Teachers Role 6. New Courses and School Development
School Management Research	72	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Upper Secondary School Internal Management Reforms 2. Schools with Special Character 3. Upper Secondary School Principalship 4. Upper Secondary School and Management by Law 5. Upper Secondary Education Evaluation and Higher Education Entrance Examination Reform 6. Upper Secondary School Modern Management
School Running Strategies and Management Practice	60	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Field Visits and Investigation 2. Drafting School Reform Program 3. Thesis Writing and Defending

3. Evaluation

The evaluation of trainees' learning achievement is conducted by each training institution. The intervention by the educational authority in this aspect is hardly felt and is only expressed in the principles prescribed by it. At the course level, the way to evaluate the trainees is determined by the course lecturer.

According to both curricula for Qualification Training and Enhancement Training, in addition to the normal paper tests, theses and reports based on field investigations are also applied as tools for trainee evaluation. As a customary rule, the final evaluation upon completion of the program consists of 60% test score, 20% home work quality, 10% personal report or thesis, and 10% seminar score. Due to the loose requirements, most trainees are able to pass the final evaluation and thus be awarded the Training Certificates. With regard to the Advanced Training, the trainees are required not only to submit a thesis, but also submit a report of no less than 3000 Chinese characters for the field visit and exploration.

Chapter 9 Conclusion

This chapter is constituted by two parts. The first part summarizes the main points of this thesis. The second part is a discussion on the research concerned.

I. Summary

Leadership is intangible and there is no universal definition for it. Traditional conceptions of leadership are often confined to power and authority, whereas recent efforts in defining leadership have emphasized its meaning and value dimensions. The dominant perspective has always been the one that sees leadership as a process of influence. Within the educational domain, leadership and management are often distinguished. I have preferred in this thesis to using school leadership as an umbrella concept for educational leadership and educational management. School leadership may be generally discussed in 9 models, namely instructional, transformational, moral, participative, managerial, post-modern, interpersonal, contingent and transactional models. Each model provides understanding that projects one single aspect of school leadership. Elements of school leadership are seen in collaboration and partnership, motivation, planning, decision-making, interpersonal communication, conflict, evaluation and appraisal, staff and professional development.

Culture is a catchword yet complex. It can be defined as “a whole way of life of a social group or whole society” (Williams, 1972). Its manifestations are distributed at four levels: values, rituals, heroes and symbols. It is multiple-level, as we can distinguish societal/national culture, regional culture, local culture and organizational culture, thus school culture. To observe and compare societal cultures, we can make use of a six-dimension model: power concentrated vs. power-dispersed, group-oriented vs. self-oriented, aggression vs. consideration, fatalistic vs. proactive, generative vs. replicative, and limited relationship vs. holistic relationship.

Organizational culture is based on the organization's particular assumptions, values and symbols. It is a phenomenon *per se*, and may be found different in many aspects from the wider national culture. Organizational culture may be analyzed with a six dimension model too: process-oriented vs. outcome-oriented, person-oriented vs. task-oriented, professional vs. parochial, open vs. closed, control vs. linkage, and pragmatic vs. normative. Leadership is deeply embedded within culture, and culture frames and shapes the formation, implementation, and understanding of leadership, thus school leadership.

Globalization has been long debated. It is an irreversible process structuring the development of the world economy, culture, politics and the human society as a whole. It is initiated and driven by the advancement of human technologies, among which ICT is the core power. As "a mixed blessing", globalization promotes societal development, but also foments social marginalization and inequality. In relations with education, culturally globalization is presenting challenges of difference and complexity, and it favours the commodified, de-institutionalized and networked form of education. Therefore nation states are forced to reform the organization, management and curricula of their educational systems. Three categories of reform can be differentiated: competitiveness-driven reforms, finance-driven reforms and equity driven reforms. As the global culture for school leaders to exercise leadership, globalization has brought them increased power and accountability, but also has been posing requirement for business-like management, internationalization, adjustment of curriculum and technology sensitiveness.

After three decades of reforms and rapid growth, China has become an influential player of globalization. To cater for its economic and social development needs, China has executed proactively educational restructuring with decentralization and privatization as two major trends. The old extremely centralized system has been informed more and more decentralizing, privatising and even marketing elements to meet national challenges. Political reform in China has not match the progress of

economic transformation, but a clear line of change in the political discourse by the government can be seen regarding the nature of China's basic social system. With the present system, state-owned schools are the dominantly major provider of education and school leaders are included in the civil servant body. Confucianism is the core of traditional Chinese culture and is receiving more emphasis as a counter-power against Western cultures. Chinese culture is characterized by power-concentrated, group-oriented, aggression inclined, more proactive, more generative and favouring holistic relationship. With regard to school culture, Chinese schools are more outcome-oriented, person-oriented, parochial, closed, controlled, and pragmatic. The national and organization culture have forced school leaders in China to emphasize association with education authorities, concern more support from staff than trust from student parents, perform reform-oriented and business-like leadership, and exercise strengthened but also confined autonomy.

Early in 1950s China started its initial form of in-service training of school leadership according to its political agenda. In 1980s training was provided to many school leaders at provincial education institutes, teachers' training schools, universities and other institutions. In addition the State Education Commission established 6 Education Administrator Training Centres as special training institutions. Until the end of 1980s, there was no uniform curriculum. In 1989 China started its official requirement of leadership training on all school principals. In 1990 China issued its first national curriculum for school principal training. In 1991 it issued its Qualifications for Primary and Secondary School Principals, which provided reference for training contents. In 1992, China promulgated that school principals were to be trained once every five years and new leaders ought to have Training Certificate before assuming their positions. In 1997 China issued its Rules on School Leader's Training Certificate and in 1999 its Rules on School Principals Training. In 2000, China initiated its training for key school principals in order to speed up quality education reform. China's Tenth five-year plan requires the Ministry of Education to develop the State Advanced Education Administration Institute, National Secondary

School Principal Training Centre and National Primary School Head-teacher Training Centre, and each province establishes its own training institution network. From a perspective of government policy, school leadership training in China may be characterized as governmental behaviour, leader appointment process, widely networked, and serving political agenda.

Current school leadership training in China is framed by the policies conveyed in the Rules on School Principals Training (RSPT) and The Tenth National Five-year Plan for Education Cadres Training. In terms of organization, the educational authorities have played a triple role, namely imposer, sponsor and supervisor. Powers concerning school leadership training fall chiefly on the central and the provincial levels. Attending the training is both a right and obligation of school leaders. In addition to the normal pre-service and in-service training, key school leaders receive Advanced Training. Former education background is not recognized as either high priority or influential weakness of trainees' qualification. School leadership training in China is given in three forms, namely Qualification Training, Enhancement Training and Advanced Training. National curricula have been issued in relation to Qualification Training and Enhancement Training. Local authorities are required to establish their own operational curricula. Regarding evaluation, the Ministry of Education has only sketchy prescriptions. Without the Qualification Certificate, new principals can not get access to their office. And without the Competence Certificate, incumbent leaders can not continue their office. Evaluation is done through tests, essays, research reports and reform project designs. The Ministry of education has also enforced evaluation over training programs and providing institutions.

School leadership training in Shandong Province is in the charge of School Principals and Head-teachers Training Office Shandong. Systematic training started in 1990 as required by the central government. In 1992, Shandong issued documents on qualification standards of school leadership training program and on the procedure of application for opening the programs. Shandong has also issued Rules on Lectures,

Rules on Self-teaching, and Trainees Regulations, Testing Regulations for Qualification Training of School Leaders. In the Ninth Five-year Plan, Shandong issued its first Guiding Curricula for Qualification Training and Enhancement Training. In 2001 Shandong issued the Rules on School Principals Training Shandong. Within the Tenth Five-year Plan, Shandong implemented its new Guiding Curricula and initiated the “512” Advanced Training project. The training in Shandong is also provided in three forms - Qualification Training, Enhancement Training, and Advanced Training - in institutions at three levels, provincial, regional and county. Shandong has adopted an open and competition policy in selecting training institutions. It emphasizes the importance of field visits and practices. Advanced Training programs in Shandong are carried out in three stages and last for one year. The curricula of Shandong for Qualification Training and Enhancement Training consist of the same modules as the national curricula. The module of elective courses is composed of topics with local character. In addition Shandong has developed its own curriculum for Advanced Training as a national one is missing. The evaluation of trainees is conducted by each providing institution. The intervention of educational authorities is hardly felt and there are only general principles prescribed. In addition to paper tests, theses and reports based on field investigations are also evaluated. At the course level, the power of evaluation falls into the hand of course lecturers.

II. Discussion

To a great extent, it can be argued that school leadership training in China has been elaborately structured, substantially developed, and widely networked. It is imposed top-down by the central government, and thus becomes a compulsory training. It provided all school principals an opportunity to learn and renew their leadership competences every five years.

We can also see a somewhat widely accepted distribution of power in the whole

training's structures among educational authorities and training institutions and between the trainers and trainees at various levels. First, there is the central government to decide the general principles as to what, whom and how to train. Secondly there are the local authorities to implement the training policies and enrich them with local adaptations. Thirdly we see the authorized training institutions and teachers give the training to school leaders and judge their learning outcomes. Finally we also see school leaders – the trainees - are consulted by educational authorities for specifically what and how to learn and how the training quality has been.

But, to what extent is the training proper?

As a top-down policy, school leadership training has been exploited as an instrument to spread government policies and foster executors and followers of education reforms. Are the real needs of school leaders to be competent principals fully met? Is it even fair to the school leaders to attend this training, although free, that is structured to articulate official policies? Is the training appropriate for Chinese education to meet the challenges of globalization? Where is the meaning of leading put?

Before grading school leadership training in China as a whole, we need to investigate how the school principals judge the training structure, quality, and even necessity. We need to compare the judgement of the trainees with the goals expected by the authorities in order to evaluate the whole training enterprise. Only by doing so, we can approach an insight that is based on deep analysis against the wider environment.

Anyhow, This thesis has made an attempt to investigate school leadership training in China and answer three questions, i.e. how it is organized, what it trains, and how it examine the trainees. This investigation is first based on theoretical review and discussion on school leadership. As a particular angle from which this thesis looks at leadership, culture is also theorized and discussed. Within it globalization and national development are taken as dimensions of the global and national culture of school

leadership respectively. For a closer look at the local level, school leadership training in Shandong is also discussed and analyzed. Based on this work, and with reflections on the above-mentioned questions, further research may be carried out to reach a deeper understanding of school leadership training in China.

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