

THF Workshop Reports

No. 5

# Leadership in Education: Global Perspectives



The  
HEAD  
Foundation



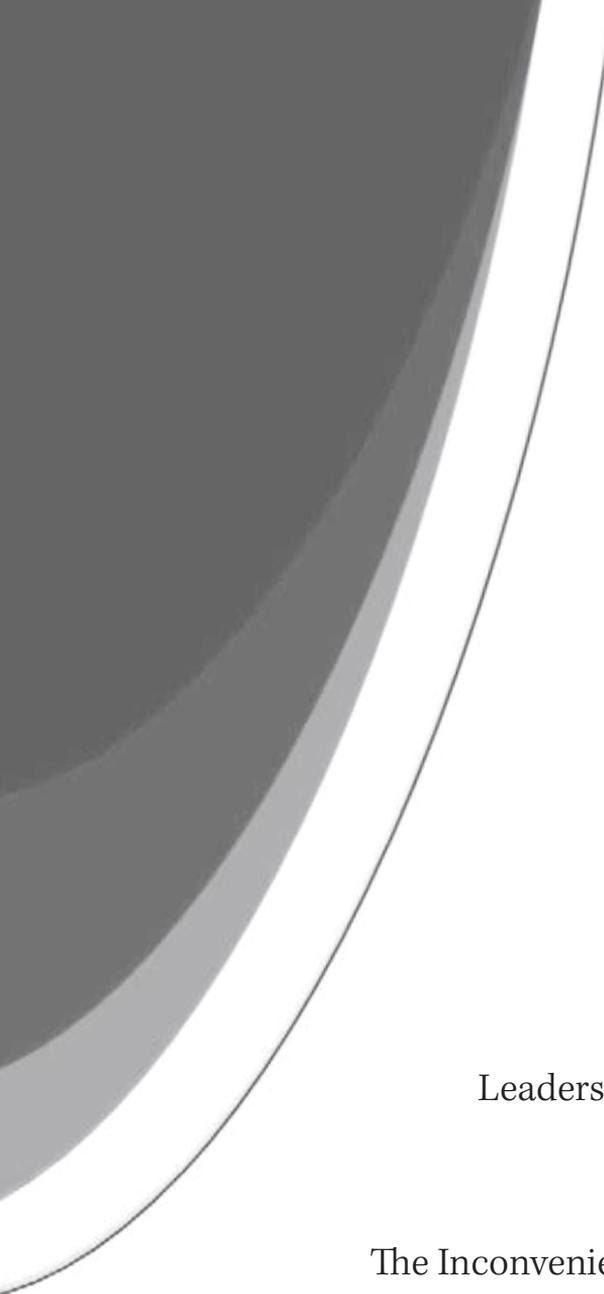
THF Workshop Reports No. 5

# Leadership in Education: Global Perspectives



The  
HEAD  
Foundation





## Table of Contents

Introduction	4
<i>by Henrik Bresman</i>	
Biographies of Presenters	6
Leadership in Higher Education in Asia: Meeting Societal Needs	9
<i>by Sachi Hatakenaka</i>	
The Inconvenient Truths of Leading Education Reform: Implications and Alternatives	21
<i>by Alma Harris</i>	
Leadership and Skills Development Issues in Indonesian Universities	31
<i>by Satryo Soemantri Brodjonegoro</i>	
Implementing Distributed Leadership in Schools: Lessons Learnt	39
<i>by John DeFlaminis</i>	



HENRIK BRESMAN

# Introduction

The rate of change facing the world is unprecedented. This context, in turn, poses unparalleled challenges for leaders in education – around the world and in Asia. These educational leaders are charged with a task of extreme importance: to educate the next generation of leaders that society needs in order to survive and thrive.

Taking on this task successfully will involve mobilising people to confront challenges that are not fully defined and have no one right answer; that require changes in priorities, beliefs, and habits; that require adaptation and learning; and that require thinking broadly about who the stakeholders are who must be engaged. In other words, taking on the task of education in the current context calls for thoughtful, bold, and innovative leadership.

In this fifth publication of the *THF Workshop Reports* produced by The

HEAD Foundation, we look more specifically at leadership challenges in education in Asia. Four education and leadership experts, Dr. Sachi Hatakenka, Prof. Alma Harris, Dr. Satryo Soemantri Brodjonegoro, and Dr. John DeFlaminis, share their insights on the key challenges faced by leaders of educational institutions as they educate the next generation. The four articles compiled in this volume are based on presentations made at a symposium held at the Foundation in November 2015.

Dr. Hatakenaka examines the leadership challenges faced by higher education in Asia. Her paper examines potential challenges ranging from revamping the curriculum to diversifying higher education, to reforming university entrance requirements, and to global issues, such as sustainability and intercultural conflict. She proposes

that higher education institutions in Asia have greater autonomy to make key strategic decisions so as to unleash the full intellectual force of higher education.

As leaders in Asia tackle the challenges of educational reform and change, they face several blind spots. Dr. Harris points out four of the major “inconvenient truths” of leading education reform in her paper: corporatised education, context and culture, inequality and poverty, and politics and corruption. She argues that these important issues tend to be placed on the periphery of decisions about reform processes. She then offers several alternative positions on educational change and improvement.

Dr. Brodjonegoro outlines the numerous challenges that Indonesia is facing, such as the skills mismatch arising from the lack of coordination between higher education institutions and employers. He believes that a looming skills shortage in Indonesia is another issue that may get worse due to competition and the increasing demand for high-quality skills, including leadership and managerial skills. Thus, producing graduates and developing workers with both job-specific skills and soft skills will continue to be a challenge for

both educational institutions and employers in Indonesia.

The last paper identifies the way forward in addressing some of these education challenges: a distributed approach to leadership. Dr. DeFlaminis describes the Annenberg Distributed Leadership Project, which involved interventions in 16 Philadelphia schools to create a stronger leadership structure in support of school improvement. Results from the study showed overwhelming differences between the distributed leadership teams and the leadership teams in control schools on a number of significant outcomes.

Collectively, these papers broaden our understanding of the types of challenges faced by leaders in the education sector in Asia. They also offer meaningful solutions for addressing those leadership challenges. Moving forward, the insights from these articles will guide The HEAD Foundation’s future research agenda. They will also inform the development and delivery of leadership development programmes for educational leaders in the region.

*Prof. Henrik Bresman  
Senior Advisor, The HEAD Foundation  
Professor, INSEAD, Singapore*

# Biographies of Presenters



## DR. SACHI HATAKENAKA

*Independent Consultant and Researcher*

Dr. Sachi Hatakenaka's work is focused on how best to develop higher education institutions and systems to meet the needs of economic and social development. Previously, she worked at the World Bank focusing on higher education and also on a wide range of education development issues. Today, she continues her advisory work for governments and universities worldwide. She brings a unique comparative and international perspective to higher education, having worked on over 20 different national systems of higher education. She has a BA in Physics from Oxford University, an MPA in Public Policy from Princeton University, and a PhD in Management from Massachusetts Institute of Technology.



## PROF. ALMA HARRIS

*Director of the Institute of Educational Leadership, University of Malaya; Professor of Educational Leadership at the Institute of Education (IoE), London*

In 2010–2012, Prof. Alma Harris was Senior Policy Adviser to the Welsh government and was jointly responsible for the national implementation of professional learning communities. She was also the former President of the International Congress of School Effectiveness and School Improvement. She is known for her work on school improvement, focusing particularly on improving schools in challenging circumstances. Prof. Harris has written extensively about leadership in schools and she is an expert on the theme of distributed leadership.



## DR. SATRYO SOEMANTRI BRODJONEGORO

*Emeritus Professor in Mechanical Engineering, Bandung Institute of Technology, Indonesia; Founder of S.S. Knowledge Foundation; Academic Consultant with the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, Japan International Cooperation Agency, and AusAID/DFAT*

Dr. Satryo Soemantri Brodjonegoro was the Director General of Higher Education at the Ministry of National Education in Indonesia from 1999 to 2007. He was Lecturer (1985–2008), Department Chairman (1992–1995), and Vice-Dean of Academic Affairs (1995–1997) at Bandung Institute of Technology. Dr. Satryo obtained his PhD in Mechanical Engineering from the University of California at Berkeley. His research areas are in tribology, fracture mechanics, finite element analysis, mechanical design, and higher education development and policy.



## DR. JOHN DEFLAMINIS

*Executive Director, Penn Center for Educational Leadership at the Graduate School of Education (University of Pennsylvania); Director, Distributed Leadership Program*

Dr. John DeFlaminis has served on and led several state-wide organisations, including the Pennsylvania Educational Research Association and the Council of Organizations in Education. He has been a Board Member in many organisations, including the Pennsylvania Association of School Administrators and the United Way of Southeastern Pennsylvania. Dr. DeFlaminis has consulted with the US Department of Education, several state departments of education, rural and urban school districts, administrative organisations, and private business organisations.





SACHI HATAKENAKA

# Leadership in Higher Education in Asia

## Meeting Societal Needs

### **Introduction**

What are the critical challenges that demand leadership in higher education (HE) in Asia?

Before launching into such a discussion, it is worth reflecting on the fact that Asia remains a mixed region, where academic autonomy is not embraced fully. There are many societies in which “freedom to speak up” is not valued either formally or informally.

The paper will examine possible challenges at four different levels: institutional, HE sector, education sector more widely, and societal. It will also explore how and why having autonomy might impact the manner in which HE can address such challenges.

### **Institutional Challenge**

One challenge that every institution

faces is the changing educational needs of students. Rapid changes in labour markets mean that a large proportion of students are going to change jobs throughout their life, when many of these jobs do not even exist today. It is essential that students are equipped with an ability to adapt; they must learn how to learn and how to think. There has been a wide call for HE institutions (HEIs) to re-examine both the content and the method of teaching. All this is already a familiar call for change, and many institutions could say that they are addressing such issues. But have they gone far enough, in an environment where knowledge itself becomes obsolete rapidly?

There is a beginning of a movement emerging around the world in curricular reforms. One trend is to introduce “breadth” rather than “specialisation” in university

education so that students have the requisite breadth to cope with changes in their lifetime. This is particularly important in institutions offering specialist degrees, as in the old European model. Other themes include active learning, problem-solving, exposure to global issues, experiential learning, and lifelong learning.

Melbourne University was one of the first to revamp its degree structure, replacing over 90 narrowly defined specialist degree programmes with just 6 broader degrees, thereby introducing breath in undergraduate education, and emphasising hands-on learning, such as capstone projects. Other universities, such as Aberdeen, have started following suit. In Asia, all of Hong Kong's HEIs have re-structured their undergraduate programmes with significant broadening of their curricula to promote holistic learning for students. There has also been experimentation with the American liberal arts model, which offers broad and often interdisciplinary curricula, which is known for grooming critical thinking. From the Netherlands, to China, the UK, and the NUS/Yale venture in Singapore, examples of introducing liberal arts education have been rising.

Changing pedagogy is perhaps best reflected in “flipped classrooms”, in which students learn the facts using online video materials before the class, and classroom discussions then being used to instil understanding and application of knowledge. Flipped classrooms have attracted considerable attention, particularly in the US in business and health-related sciences. A recent survey by the Gates Foundation found 45 per cent of surveyed post-secondary teaching staff in the US reported as having trialled it, and 29 per cent have adopted it (FTI Consulting, 2015). Last year, Nanyang Technology University in Singapore announced its plan to embrace the flipped model in half of its teaching by 2020.

Notwithstanding such innovative examples, the reality is that serious curricular reforms are few and far between globally. Some universities introduce liberal arts degrees without changing other existing degree programmes. Others introduce liberal arts as add-on courses in their specialist programmes. In Asia, many universities do not even have the autonomy, leadership, or capacity to undertake serious changes or reforms.

The final example for reflection is an ongoing reform at Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). MIT

has been a serial trendsetter in its use of technology, introducing OpenCourseWare (OCW) in 2001 and establishing Edx with Harvard a decade later. OCW's proposal to publish their course materials free-of-charge online was surprising enough to make the front page news in the *New York Times*. It was an idea proposed by the MIT faculty at the last minute, against revenue-raising options, and was exhaustively examined with the help from external management consultants (Abelson, 2007). Chuck Vest, the then President of MIT, immediately gave OCW staunch support to help make it a reality. For him, it was the right thing to do given MIT's national role and ethos, but he also argued that the value of MIT education through face-to-face interaction on campus would not be jeopardised by the publications of all its course details.

Today, we can see that he was right, or that the MIT faculty had to work hard to make sure that he was. In the meantime, MIT has gained critical insight and expertise from such initiatives, which are serving as a basis for its future. Its taskforce report on the future of MIT, published in 2014, recommends an aggressive adoption of flipped learning using MITx-type material as a base and pushing further in introducing more

problem-solving and other hands-on and creative activities in classrooms (MIT, 2014). Indeed, they are well on their way already, helped by academics who have worked with OCW and MITx and by the fact that their technological platform was designed for internal and external student users.

The taskforce report makes a wider range of recommendations, which, if implemented, should propel MIT to become an innovation centre for HE. This is unusual amongst research universities that are pioneering new models of teaching which can be simultaneously applied to (a) campus-based teaching for conventional students, (b) professional and executive education for working adults, and (c) lifelong learning offered globally online.

The leadership's call to buck the trend helped inspire key stakeholders, including their own academics, into action. It is clear that such purposeful action requires an autonomous institution and leadership at all levels. A sustained change based on incremental learning is also something that no government can dictate or plan.

**Higher Education Challenge**  
One challenge at the HE sector

level is the need for diversification. Many Asian HE systems have passed the massification phase of expansion, entering into the era of universal access. During such a phase of enrolment expansion, there is a system-level need for institutional diversity (Trow, 2005). This is because incoming students become increasingly diverse; they come with diverse preferences, interests, and academic preparation from secondary schools. Employers' demands for skills also become diverse and change rapidly. It is not enough to have only traditional research universities; there must be diversity in the kind of education offered.

Figure 1 shows one simple framework to demonstrate the possible diversity in HEIs based on two dimensions:

(a) application orientation and (b) fundamental research orientation.

The top right-hand cell is occupied by Relevant Research Institutions, which conduct fundamental research but with an eye to its relevance to society – to be the engine of innovations. A primary example is a group of American research universities which embraced the value of relevance in their early development phase (Geiger, 2004; Rosenberg & Nelson, 1994), such as MIT or Stanford. These universities have been the envy of the world for several decades because of their sustained economic contributions, particularly in the birth and development of knowledge intensive industries. They have a distinct institutional culture and institutional practices, which enable them to work better with the external world.

		Application Orientation	
		No	Yes
Fundamental Research Orientation	Yes	Basic Research Institutions	Relevant Research Institutions
	No	Teaching-focused Institutions	Practically Oriented Institutions

Figure 1. Diversity of HEIs, a framework based on research classification by Stokes (1997).

The top left-hand cell is occupied by Basic Research Institutions, which are driven principally by the core values of fundamental science, with little interest or capacity for responding to external needs. This is where the great majority of research universities in the world belong to, at least until recently, though pushes by governments for innovation is providing a powerful incentive for them to move to the right-hand cell. Indeed, this trend to emphasise relevant research rather than blue-sky research may have gone a step too far.

The bottom right-hand cell contains Practically Oriented Institutions, which aspire to meet the economy's needs for practical skills and knowledge. They offer courses relevant to practitioners and often conduct consulting and application-oriented research. Examples can range from France's Grandes Écoles (although many have been developing basic research capacity to cope with global ranking, which tend to over-emphasise scientific research), which traditionally groom France's elite, to Singapore's polytechnics, which offer cutting-edge vocational education based on strong collaborations with industry.

The bottom left-hand cell is occupied by Teaching-focused Institutions,

which are neither practically oriented nor research-oriented. US liberal arts colleges are excellent examples; they offer broad curricula with an emphasis on generic skills, such as critical thinking.

Such a classification is not meant to be definitive, but the four cells offer key "values" which should not be lost within any diversified system of HE. Indeed, many systems include institutions which are "hybrids" of such cells, but they then must tackle the tension of managing diverse teaching based on very different sets of values, goals, and norms.

Two issues require further attention if a diversified system is to work effectively. First, it is important that diversity in mission is clearly understood and accepted with different standards of excellence developed and embraced. It is easy for institutions to fall into academic drift, with PhD-qualified staff and research publications as key aims. No society can financially support scientific research in all institutions in a massified HE system, nor is it helpful for any society to have a large proportion of intellectual resources spending time and energy on producing third-rate publications, which are not helpful to anyone.

Second, pathways must be created to allow students to move from one type of institution to another – without getting locked in. Governments, such as Singapore’s, have played key roles in creating diversity and building such mobility mechanisms in place. Japan’s *kosen* – 5-year colleges which combine vocational senior high schools with junior college education – also provide good entry points to universities, including to some of their well-established national universities.

Another innovative example is America’s community colleges, which evolved from junior colleges to assume vocational training functions while maintaining key ladders for their successful students to transfer to universities. They have been described by two distinguished professors of education as the most successful institutional innovation in the 20th century American HE. Community colleges are open-door institutions and about 30 per cent of students in the Californian university system come from community colleges – an astounding level of articulation. The community college system is a product not only of institutional leaders from these colleges, but also of many pioneering and inspirational supporters from leading universities,

businesses, and foundations (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

The fact that many American universities were motivated to recruit students from diverse backgrounds was helpful in ensuring high mobility for the transfer of students and graduate students. Such mobility also helps diversify the pool of potential leaders. Chuck Vest, the aforementioned former President of MIT, was described by one friend as “an American dream”, having gone to a local university in a small town in West Virginia before moving to Michigan University, one of the highly selective research universities, for his graduate studies, where he became an academic before becoming a successful academic administrator (Marquard, 2007).

Some diversification could happen with or without design, with new institutions competing to fill gaps left by the others. Forward-looking governments, however, can play a critical role by setting up a framework of support in ensuring effective diversification. In addition, leadership in multiple institutions across the sector are critical in creative institution-building efforts to make diversity a sustainable reality.

## **Education Sector-wide Challenges**

Some challenges in K–12 education also require leadership by HE. One example is curricular or pedagogical reforms in K–12 to embrace active learning or multidisciplinary teaching. Too often, university academics are ready to oppose progressive changes in K–12. Sometimes, their opposition is appropriate; other times, their resistance reflects their narrow disciplinary interest. The critical role of HE leadership is to make a sound judgement as to whether there is a genuine societal case for change or not, and if so, to persuade their academics to create a positive force for change within HE.

Another common source of “conservatism” in education is the university entrance system. Globally, examinations associated with university entrance provide a powerful incentive for secondary students and teachers. Unless they are changed, it is unlikely that teachers in secondary schools would embrace any proposal for change. Again, HE leadership must make a critical judgement about the need for change – not on the basis of the self-interest for HEIs, but for the future of society.

Getting university entrance examinations right is a particularly

prominent issue in Asia where competition tends to escalate. Parents who believe in education as a vital basis for their children’s success demand such examinations to be “fair”. Having large numbers of applicants require simplicity in marking. The result is a tendency towards simplistic examinations, which give numerically accurate – hence “fair” – results, even though they may not measure the full range of skills which are increasingly valuable to the society, such as critical thinking, the ability to learn new domains of knowledge, and teamwork. These simplistic examinations can push students to spend a large amount of time learning by rote – this may be appealing to some Asian parents, many of whom value diligence.

There are examples of comprehensive education reform experience emerging in Singapore, Hong Kong, and Shanghai, each revamping some combination of secondary education, HE, and university entrance systems. Japan and China have launched into ambitious reforms of their university examinations more recently. The jury is still out about their ultimate level of success or indeed the final endpoints of these reforms. Again, there is a critical role to be played by governments in prompting and

coordinating these types of reforms. There is no question, however, that the full intellectual power of HE will be needed to revamp university entrance systems so that they measure skills and potential for the 21st century. Leadership in all corners of HE is critical.

### **Societal Challenges**

HEIs could and should also contribute solutions to broader societal challenges. One example is “sustainability” which has long been a global agenda with little solution to date. Jeffery Sachs (2015), Director of

the Earth Institute in Columbia University, remarked in the *Financial Times* that the recent Paris agreement helped in setting the right direction, and that “the urgent, long overdue challenge of implementation now begins”.

While many universities have done much to establish research

centres and education programmes, the Earth Institute sets the gold standard. Led by a world-renowned

economist, the Institute is a new form of university-wide academic organisation with the mission of institutionalising interaction among all pertinent fields (Cohen, 2013). It is a massive venture with 700 staff members across disciplines and with multiple centres and institutes offering research, education, outreach, and practical solutions. This is an excellent example of what Relevant Research Universities could and should do given their uniquely wide range of expertise.

There are other societal issues that dominate the world debate. Conflicts are becoming ever more intractable in a world where people, information, and, sadly, arms move freely across borders. The crisis in the Middle East, the threat of terrorism, or the ongoing migrant crisis in Europe may seem remote to Asia, but Asia has its own tensions in intercultural relationships. Ongoing tensions around territorial disputes or around Japan’s wartime responsibility show that conflicts can be hard to resolve, and may linger for generations. In an age of rapid change and the emerging powers in Asia, there will be an ever-greater need to tackle intercultural and international issues sensibly and sensitively.

Asia’s HEIs can help by building a basis for a better dialogue. Research should offer disinterested analysis

For HEIs to be proactive, innovative, and forward-looking, in order for them to meet these societal needs, it is essential that they have the autonomy to make key decisions.

about situations to provide a better basis for understanding and communication. Education should enable students to meet and work with diverse peers, and should help equip them with knowledge, not only about their own culture but also about that of others. Institutions can continuously model “fair” behaviour, for instance, by enacting fair and open debates on sensitive issues (Heyneman, Kraines, Lesko & Bastedo, 2007).

### **Governance**

For HEIs to be proactive, innovative, and forward-looking, in order for them to meet these societal needs, it is essential that they have the autonomy to make key decisions. They must also have a sense of mission entrusted upon them to do the right thing for society and to take such responsibility seriously with proper accountability structures in place. Such a sense of social contract does not yet exist for many institutions in Asia.

While many governments began to promote university autonomy with accountability in the last two decades, governance reform is very much an unfinished business for many countries in Asia. Even in countries where a legal and regulatory framework is in place for autonomy

and accountability, institutions often lack the capacity or culture for strategic decision-making and implementation. British universities, many of which had fully autonomous governance structures from the beginning, still had to go through thorough reforms in the late 1980s and the 1990s to strengthen their accountability framework in order for them to take on the challenges of strategically managing large organisations. It is not surprising that Japanese public universities are now going through a second wave of governance reforms, a decade after a comprehensive legal and organisational reform.

Governance is important for leadership formation within HEIs as well, as it defines the kind of organisational context within which future leaders are groomed. Strategic decisions and innovative initiatives provide valuable opportunities for future leaders in HE to be involved in change agendas – a perfect grooming mechanism for forward-looking, wider leadership. Without autonomy or accountability, institutions are unlikely to generate many such opportunities.

...governance reform is very much an unfinished business for many countries in Asia.

## **What Kind of Leadership?**

If HE is to engage in any of the societally relevant challenges, such as those mentioned above, one critical quality needed in the leadership would be the ability to have an external perspective of HEIs. Leaders must not only develop a keen sense of professional judgement as to what the society needs (as distinct from what people claim they want), but also extrapolate and negotiate credibly with external stakeholders on what HEIs could and should do. Within most HEIs, particularly in research universities, such leadership is unlikely to be internally persuasive unless they are academics themselves. Leaders in such institutions must necessarily be “hybrids” who understand academic ethos, but are also able to have a persuasive voice with the external worlds, such as government, industry, and civic society.

For any significant change, it is also important for there to be leadership at all levels within an institution. Most HEIs do not operate as hierarchical organisations; top-down decisions are unlikely to work well unless strongly supported by key academics in all parts of the institution, whether they have managerial roles or not. It

is essential that there are leaders, not only amongst administrative heads of departments or schools, but also amongst “ordinary” academics. And such leaders must also be hybrids with an ability to understand the external logic.

Leadership is more challenging in an autonomous HE setting. It may also take time before other leaders emerge in key places within an institution to enable real change. MIT had humble beginnings as a technical college in the late 19th century; it is world famous today because generations of its leaders and members were able to shape it, based on what they believed was the need of society.

The hope for the future is that Asia will develop its own universities that can help to lead society. This will require building more trusting frameworks, with proper accountability; and then, within those frameworks, enabling academics to do what is right. With autonomy, leadership will have more scope to come up with a vision to inspire others. When leadership and institutions are entrusted to do the right thing on behalf of society and humanity, courage and integrity can unleash another level of creativity.

## References

- Abelson, H. (2007). *The creation of OpenCourseWare at MIT*. Retrieved from <https://dspace.mit.edu/bitstream/handle/1721.1/37585/ocw-creation-preprint.pdf?sequence=1>
- Brint, S., & Krabel, J. (1989). *The diverted dream: Community colleges and the promise of educational opportunity in America 1990–85*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Cohen, S. (2013). *Columbia's earth institute: Academic institution for the 21st century*. Retrieved from [http://www.huffingtonpost.com/steven-cohen/columbia-universitys-eart\\_b\\_3743197.html](http://www.huffingtonpost.com/steven-cohen/columbia-universitys-eart_b_3743197.html)
- FTI Consulting. (2015). *U.S. postsecondary faculty in 2015*. Retrieved from <http://www.fticonsulting.com/~media/Files/us-files/insights/reports/gates-foundation-postsecondary-faculty-2015.PDF>
- Geiger, R. (2004). *American research universities since World War II: Research and relevant knowledge*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.
- Heyneman, S. P., Kraines, R., Lesko, N., & Bastedo, M. (2007). Higher education and social cohesion: A comparative perspective. In P. G. Altbach & P. M. Peterson (Eds.), *Higher education in the new century: Global challenges and innovative ideas* (pp. 55–78). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.
- Marquard, B. (2007, December 15). Charles M. Vest, 72; brought sweeping changes to MIT. *Boston Globe*. <https://www.bostonglobe.com/metro/obituaries/2013/12/15/charles-vest-brought-sweeping-changes-mit-president/zFW9I2Xncf7SvFjgqRWf8K/story.html>
- Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). (2014). *Institute-wide taskforce on the future of MIT. Education – Final report*. Retrieved from <https://future.mit.edu>
- Rosenberg, N., & Nelson, R. R. (1994). American universities and technical advance in industry. *Research Policy*, 23, 323–348.
- Sachs, J. (2015, December 12). Let's hail the Paris Climate Change Agreement and get to work. *Financial Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.ft.com/cms/s/0/eb8eeff8-a100-11e5-8d70-42b68cfae6e4.html#axzz3xVpCIAly>
- Stokes, D. (1997). *Pasteur's quadrant: Basic science and technological innovation*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Trow, M. A. (2005). Reflections on the transition from elite to mass to universal access: Forms and phases of higher education in modern societies since WWII. In J. F. Forest & P. G. Altbach (Eds.), *International handbook of higher education: Part I* (pp. 243–280). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.



A circular black and white portrait of Alma Harris, a woman with shoulder-length hair, wearing a light-colored jacket over a white shirt. She is looking slightly to the left of the camera with a neutral expression.

ALMA HARRIS

# The Inconvenient Truths of Leading Education Reform

## Implications and Alternatives

### Introduction

Around the globe, the challenges of leading large-scale educational change and transformation remain considerable. While some progress has been made, the pathway to lasting improvement, at scale, is far from clear or straightforward in some education systems.

While large-scale comparative assessments, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), currently define the contours of much education policymaking, the international pursuit of better education outcomes remains.

While there have been many critics of PISA (*The Guardian*, 2014) and, by association, the global education reform movement that has erupted from it, PISA remains a potent policy influence at the present time.

Even though it is clear that no single education system has all the answers, this has not deterred an international fixation with “high-performing” education systems. Despite much concern about the wisdom of borrowing from the “best” systems, the policy push to emulate the “high-performing” education systems remains attractive, pervasive, and prevalent (Lingard, 2010; Luke, 2011). As a result, contemporary education reform and change is at an impasse, positioned between those who advocate “top-down” models of education change (Tucker, 2011), with all the features of the Global Educational Reform Movement (GERM), and those who promote “bottom-up” grassroots, teacher-led intervention (Evers & Kneyvber, 2016). This dichotomy is both ideologically and politically motivated but whatever its merits and demerits,

the case remains that this debate is currently overshadowing some fundamentally important truths about education reform.

This short paper outlines four “inconvenient truths” of education reform and considers the implications therein for policymakers and policymaking. It concludes by offering some alternative directions and possibilities for future education reform and change.

### **Inconvenient Truth 1: Corporatised Education**

In the drive for ever-higher performance, private sector involvement in education has increased dramatically over the past two decades. Although governments remain the main financiers of education, at least of primary and secondary education, private companies now deliver a sizable proportion of education in many countries. It has been argued that the private sector’s role in education has many advantages over the traditional public delivery of education. Realising such benefits, however, depends greatly on regulatory frameworks and the way in which governments oversee various partnerships with the private sector (World Bank, 2009).

Despite mixed evidence about the impact of private–public partnerships in some countries (World Bank, 2009), they are currently flourishing and rapidly growing in Asia. In 2010, the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Malaysia embarked upon the Trust School Programme (Hamilton, 2014), which was billed as a pioneering public–private partnership in education. Following firmly in the footsteps of the Charter Schools in USA and Academies in England, the Trust Schools in Malaysia are geared to school improvement through private and public partnership intervention. A recent declaration by MOE highlighted that 500 new Trust Schools would be created by 2025 (Hamilton, 2014).

The scale of private sector intervention in education, particularly in developing countries, is dramatically increasing – interventions may include published education material, education courses and education supplementary classes. The global “crisis” in education has presented the private sector with a unique business opportunity in the field of education. The huge dividends that the large private sector companies make, however, come at a cost. Most recently, accusations of conflict of

interest (*Financial Times*, 2012) have been a cause for concern but little, it seems, is able to stop the private sector juggernaut.

So, here is the first inconvenient truth.

Market-led education reform is now being shipped to countries that can least afford them and where the infrastructure to make them work, long term, simply does not exist. What happens when private schools actually start to fail or when the return on investment starts to diminish?

While the private sector investors can pull out and find fresh profitable opportunities, the reality is that for the young people left behind, as well as the generations that follow, their choice will be to make do with the remnants of the education provision that remains or to re-invent some form of public education that provides for and addresses local needs.

## **Inconvenient Truth 2: Context and Culture**

The next inconvenient truth concerns the importance of context

In the many popular analyses and interpretations of better PISA performance, the issue of system size is often totally discounted as some minor contextual detail that does not matter.

and culture in education reform.

While structural explanations or strategic shortfalls dominate the current policy discourse about improving education performance,

culture and context remain hugely influential factors in securing and sustaining education improvement and effectiveness (Chapman et al., 2011). The evidence shows that approaches to school or system improvement need to be properly contextualised if they are to have any real chance of succeeding (Harris & Jones, 2015).

In Malaysia, MOE has produced a substantial compilation of reform

strategies and interventions in the form of a *Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025* (MOE, 2013) to deal with the fact that education standards have fallen. Multiple activities, initiatives, and innovations are currently underway to reboot and revitalise the ailing education system. Policymakers would argue that all the right ingredients have been selected to transform educational practice and improve learner outcomes in Malaysia. And they could be right.

However, contextual and cultural issues that powerfully define, shape, and dictate educational practice and schooling remains relatively untouched. Take, for example, the issue of language. The main language of instruction is Bahasa Malaysia (BM) in Malaysia; and in Chinese and Tamil schools, there is an expectation that BM is taught as a second language. There is great pride and substantial investment in BM as the indigenous language and therefore it is given priority as the medium of instruction.

In Singapore, teaching is conducted in English and most young people in Singapore have high levels of English proficiency from early on in their school career. While this may seem, on the surface to be an irrelevant contextual difference, in reality, the ramifications and consequences are far reaching. In Malaysia, as in many other countries, the issue of language is a difficult and sensitive one to broach and confront. Therefore, often investment and attention is directed to improvement interventions and strategies that will not disturb powerfully held beliefs and cultural norms.

Another contextual factor that is not adequately considered in the current education reform debate is that of

system size. In Singapore, there are approximately 350 schools, making this education system roughly the size of a small school district in USA. In contrast, Indonesia has approximately 236,000 public schools. Consequently, the challenge of reform at scale is inherently more daunting and difficult in Indonesia than in smaller education systems, such as Singapore. In the many popular analyses and interpretations of better PISA performance, the issue of system size is often totally discounted as some minor contextual detail that does not matter.

The second inconvenient truth is that context and culture are not just irrelevant background noise in education reform; rather, they fundamentally define and heavily influence educational outcomes. The inconvenient truth is that the failure of large-scale reform resides not just in the inappropriateness of the improvement strategies or in poor implementation processes but largely in a reluctance to take consider the importance of context and culture.

### **Inconvenient Truth 3: Inequality and Poverty**

Building on the importance of context and culture, the next inconvenient truth is the pervasive and persistent influence of poverty and inequality

on education performance. It should come as no surprise therefore that education performance in the Philippines, Cambodia, or Indonesia is significantly lower than that of Singapore, Hong Kong, or South Korea. A quick look at the economic performance and wealth distribution of these different countries will tell you everything you need to know (*The Guardian*, 2015). Levels of poverty and degrees of inequality, within a country, acutely impact education performance and outcomes. For example, a profound consequence of disadvantage is that attending school for many young people is simply not an option (UNESCO, 2015). International comparative assessments, however, take little account of relative levels of poverty in their rankings or in the education systems that they so readily weigh and measure.

Pasi Sahlberg (2015) has repeatedly underlined that the success of the education system in Finland, which is premised upon a high degree of equity as well as excellence. He noted:

Finland has followed the path of fairness and inclusion in building a more equitable school system. The country has invested fairly and more heavily in schools within disadvantaged communities and

insisted the best way to provide equal educational opportunities for all is through public schools. (p. 30)

The position in many countries that score far lower down the PISA league tables could not be more different. The inconvenient truth is that inequality is not only hardwired into many education systems, but it also is widely accepted, exploited, and, in some cases, actively maintained.

Such inequities play out in different ways to affect education outcomes. For example, countries that are more affluent simply produce better education outcomes by purchasing a comparative advantage (Bray & Lykins, 2012).

In Singapore, parents spend SGD1 billion a year on private tutoring. In South Korea, young people go to school twice a day, visiting private tutors after formal schooling ends to prepare and practice till the early hours of the morning. In Hong Kong, the private tutoring system is also big business as young people strive to achieve in ways that are both culturally

Levels of poverty and degrees of inequality, within a country, acutely impact education performance and outcomes.

expected and self-imposed. In stark contrast, within the poorest families, all the available financial resource is used for survival, day in, day out, and not for extra education.

The third inconvenient truth therefore is that inequality and poverty remain powerful determinants of educational success or failure. The wealthy have more chances of success and by contrast, the children of the poor, marginalised, or excluded simply do not have the means or the access to the privileges that bring rich educational rewards and life-chances.

#### **Inconvenient Truth 4: Politics and Corruption**

This is possibly the most dangerous inconvenient truth of all, particularly in certain education systems operating under certain regimes.

This truth concerns the fact that education is not free from political interference or corruption. In many countries, including a number in Asia, education remains a highly politicised process where schools operate in tightly controlled systems with little latitude for change or innovation (UNESCO, 2013).

Within such systems, teaching and education remain a powerful form of social reproduction and a prime way of reinforcing the dominant cultural

identity, religion, social norms, and values.

In the most authoritarian education systems, challenging traditional views and established norms is culturally unacceptable and also viewed as questioning those in authority. Also in many education systems, nepotism and corruption define and dictate how business is actually enacted. The pattern of allocating large-scale lucrative contracts provides an interesting window into how an education system really functions and what unwritten rules are in place. As one overseas consultant explained:

the text book publishing business is the area in the school system where there is the greatest financial corruption. There is intense competition from international publishers, much of it involving diverse forms of corruption. Text books in much of francophone Africa cost up to ten times that of similar texts published in Asia. As only officially sanctioned texts can be used in schools, the potential for corruption is great. (Bennett, 2001, p. 7)

A global corruption report (Transparency International, 2013) highlights that the “illicit nature of corruption makes it difficult

to measure its cost to education in purely financial terms. It is also often difficult to distinguish between corruption and inefficiency or gross mismanagement” (p. 3). Furthermore, the report proposes that those who possess power and resources will strive to do almost anything to capture the benefits of education for themselves and their families. Elites reproduce existing power relations through schooling, hence, corruption becomes endemic. People engage in corrupt behaviours largely because they are widespread and they feel that they cannot afford to be honest (Fehr & Fischbacher, 2005).

The fourth inconvenient truth is that, in certain education systems, the political grip is so strong that any changes or challenges to the existing status quo are simply unthinkable and impossible. In such systems, policymakers are either powerless to make the real changes required or are compromised themselves.

### **Implications and Alternative Directions**

These inconvenient truths are not unknown. Yet, in the contemporary discourse about improving schools and education systems, these truths tend to be located on the periphery and not at the epicentre of decisions

about reform processes. In this last section, seven brief propositions are outlined offering some alternative positions on education change and improvement:

1. Focus on the right things. The current global preoccupation with moving up the PISA league tables has undoubtedly diverted the attention of many policymakers away from what matters most. The relentless desire for rapid improvement has meant that issues of poverty, inequality, and context are increasingly overshadowed as policymakers invest in interventions and strategies to secure an education return.

2. Borrow design principles, not policies. The limitations of policy borrowing are well-known and well-established. Rather than borrow policies wholesale, one productive way forward could be to extract the *design principles* of a successful or effective policies and import those principles into an education system in need of improvement. In this way, the design principles can be adopted, adapted, and custom-made to fit contextual, cultural, and local needs.

3. Benchmark with systems that are similar, not different. While benchmarking against “high-

performing” education systems may be useful and insightful, many of the high-performing countries like Singapore, South Korea, or Hong Kong are remarkably unlike countries that are seeking better performance through comparison and subsequent policy borrowing. It could be more productive if countries benchmarked against other countries that were more similar in context or culture, or at least somewhat close.

4. Pay attention to education systems on the move. There are education systems that are on the move towards better performance, that is, those education systems that are beginning to show more than the green shoots of transformation and change. While the accounts of high performers, such as Hong Kong or Singapore, may be insightful and even inspirational, examining systems on the move may actually prove to be of more practical use to countries who are working their way towards change and transformation.

5. Focus on within-country solutions. Rather than looking outside for solutions, it might be more effective to focus on those aspects that are working well already *within* a system and to ensure they are more widely disseminated, shared, and implemented. In any education

system, there are always pockets of excellence; therefore, the challenge is how to extend and enhance this practice.

6. Build capability before capacity. A great deal of attention has been paid in the education reform literature to capacity-building (O’Day, Goertz & Floden, 1995). Implicit in the idea of capacity building is the notion of capability or basic skill sets. In many countries, particularly those that are developing, this basic capability is low. So, it is not simply a matter of generating more human capital as the capability is not up to delivering what is required. Therefore, investment in capability building before capacity building is an essential first step for successful education change and reform.

7. Balance private sector aspirations with public sector needs. The imperative for more private sector involvement in education is premised on the simple but often misplaced assumption that this will naturally bring about improvement and higher performance. This belief has led to a virtual takeover by the private sector in certain education systems and by association, some would argue, the destruction of public education (Ravitch, 2013). Therefore, legitimately and genuinely balancing

private sector aspirations with public sector needs has to be an essential ingredient for any future, lasting education change.

Despite what has been written and even advocated by some, there are in fact no silver bullets in education reform. There are things we know about successful reform (Louis, 2009)

and inevitably a whole set of things that reside on the periphery of our understanding. For some, these inconvenient truths will remain in the shadows, murky, unsavoury, and to be avoided. For others, these truths are fundamental causes to be championed, obstacles to overcome, and matters of moral and social magnitude.

## References

- Bennett, N. (2001). *Corruption in education systems in developing countries: What it is doing to the young*. Bergen, Norway: U4: Anti-corruption Resource Centre.
- Bray, M., & Lykins, C. (2012). *Shadow education: Private supplementary tutoring and its implications for policy makers in Asia*. Manila, The Philippines: Asian Development Bank.
- Chapman, C. P., Armstrong, P., Harris, A., Muijs, D. R., Reynolds, D., & Sammons, P. (2011). *School effectiveness and improvement research, policy and practice: Challenging the orthodoxy?* New York, NY: Routledge.
- Evers, J., & Kneyber, R. (2016). *Flip the system: Changing education from the ground up*. London, UK: Routledge
- Fehr, E., & Fischbacher, U. (2005). The economics of strong reciprocity. In H. Gintis, S. Bowles, R. Boyd & E. Fehr (Eds.), *Moral sentiments and material interests: The foundations of cooperation in economic life* (pp. 151–192). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Financial Times*. (2012, November 7). *Pearson in conflict of interest probe*. Retrieved from <http://www.ft.com/cms/s/0/e9e3e38e-28d1-11e2-9591-00144feabdc0.html#axzz3xqTyf4zx>
- Hamilton, A. (2014). The Malaysian trust school model: It's good but is it sustainable. *Policy Ideas Number 11*. Retrieved from <http://ideas.org.my/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/20141302-IDEAS-PI-11-Trust-Schools-FINAL.pdf>
- Harris, A., & Jones, M. (2015). *Leading futures: Global perspectives on educational leadership*. New York, NY: SAGE Press.

- Lingard, B. (2010). Policy borrowing, policy learning: Testing times in Australian schooling. *Critical Studies in Education*, 51(2), 129–147.
- Louis, K. (2009). Leadership and change in schools. *Journal of Educational Change*, 10, 129–140. doi:10.1007/s10833-008-9111-4
- Luke, A. (2011). Generalizing across borders: Policy and the limits of educational science. *Educational Researcher*, 40(8), 367–377.
- Ministry of Education (MOE), Malaysia. (2013). *Malaysia education blueprint 2013–2025*. Retrieved from [http://moe.gov.my/en/pelan-pembangunan-  
pendidikan-malaysia-2013-2025](http://moe.gov.my/en/pelan-pembangunan-pendidikan-malaysia-2013-2025)
- O’Day, J., Goertz, M. E., & Floden, R. E. (1995). *Building capacity for education reform*. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED390118>
- Ravitch, D. (2013). *Reign of error: The hoax of the privatization movement and the danger to America’s public schools*. New York, NY: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Sahlberg, P. (2012). Quality and equity in Finland schools. *School Administrator*, 69(8), 27–30. Retrieved from [http://pasisahlberg.com/wp-content  
/uploads/2013/01/Qualit\\_and\\_Equity\\_SA\\_2012.pdf](http://pasisahlberg.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/01/Qualit_and_Equity_SA_2012.pdf)
- Sahlberg, P. (2015). *Finnish lessons 2.0: What can the world learn from educational change in Finland?* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- The Guardian*. (2014). *OECD PISA tests damaging education academics*. Retrieved from [http://www.theguardian.com/education/2014/May/06  
/OECD-PISA-Tests-Damanging-Education-Academics](http://www.theguardian.com/education/2014/May/06/OECD-PISA-Tests-Damanging-Education-Academics)
- The Guardian*. (2015). *New Oxfam report says half of global wealth held by the 1%*. Retrieved from [http://www.theguardian.com/business/2015/jan/19  
/global-wealth-oxfam-inequality-davos-economic-summit-switzerland](http://www.theguardian.com/business/2015/jan/19/global-wealth-oxfam-inequality-davos-economic-summit-switzerland)
- Transparency International. (2013). *Global corruption report*. Retrieved from <https://www.transparency.org/research/gcr>
- Tucker, M. (2011), *Surpassing Shanghai: An agenda for American education built on the world’s leading systems*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- UNESCO. (2013). *Corruption in the education sector*. Retrieved from [http://www.unescobkk.org/education/news/article/corruption-in-the-  
-education-sector](http://www.unescobkk.org/education/news/article/corruption-in-the-education-sector)
- UNESCO. (2015). *Children out of school*. Retrieved from [http://www.unesco.org  
/education/efa/global\\_co/policy\\_group/children\\_out\\_of\\_school.pdf](http://www.unesco.org/education/efa/global_co/policy_group/children_out_of_school.pdf)
- World Bank. (2009). *The role and impact of public-private partnerships*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from [http://siteresources.worldbank  
.org/EDUCATION/Resources](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EDUCATION/Resources)

SATRYO SOEMANTRI BRODJONEGORO

# Leadership and Skills Development Issues in Indonesian Universities



## **Economic Context and Industrial Structure**

Indonesia's economy has gone through a dramatic change and progress in the past two decades. The economy grew rapidly between 1990 and 1997, with an average GDP growth of 7 per cent with a profound change in the employment structure, shrinking agriculture, and expanding service sectors (World Bank, 2011). Its rapid industrial growth was led by manufactured exports, the content of which evolved from labour-intensive simple consumer goods and basic resource processing to a wide range of manufactured products with increasing technological sophistication (Aswicahyono, Hill & Narjoko, 2010; Hill & Tandon, 2010).

The Asian economic crisis, however, hit the Indonesian economy hard, leading to a massive economic

contraction of over 13 per cent in one year. Subsequent economic recovery has been remarkably swift, particularly given the fact that the country was also building new democratic processes (Hill & Tandon, 2010). Economic growth resumed in 2000, and by 2009, it was the third-fastest growing economy amongst the G20 countries, with a projected GDP growth of 6.4 per cent for 2012 (World Bank, 2012).

The industrial sector has recovered, but with the manufacturing sector slipping from its leading position and becoming an average sector within the economy. The content of "manufacturing" has also changed, with labour-intensive subsectors, such as textile and footwear, giving way to capital-intensive subsectors, such as resource-based industry and electronics. Indeed, the post-crisis manufacturing growth is described

as “jobless”, with increasingly restrictive labour regulations identified as one possible cause (Aswicahyono et al., 2010).

There is a notable absence of an obvious group of businesses which can champion effective technology transfer or innovations (Aswicahyono et al., 2010; Hill & Tandon, 2010). The high-tech-oriented state-owned enterprises suffer from the past image of massive concentrated investments, and successive democratic governments have done little to restructure them into viable forces for Indonesia – though they do have concentrations of highly trained human resources (Brodjonegoro, 2012). Their financial performance is generally poor, often “saddled with social responsibilities and subject to political influence” (Hill & Tandon 2010, p. 11). Foreign-owned firms are major players in the Indonesian economy, and their role has continued to rise through the crisis. For instance, the share of manufacturing output from foreign-owned firms rose from 22 per cent in 1990 to 37 per cent in 2005, with the greatest contribution coming from automotive products and electronics (Aswicahyono et al., 2010).

Some of these foreign investors, who in the past were not major players in

the innovation agenda, through an increasing interest in rapidly growing Indonesia’s domestic markets, may become interested in consolidating their positions within Indonesia with upstream and/or downstream investment (see Box: Attracting R&D from Foreign Direct Investors).

### **Skills as an Emerging Constraint**

In 2008, the World Bank undertook a major survey of 473 manufacturing and services firms, mainly in Java. They concluded that there was an emergence of skills mismatch, particularly as the growing segments of the economy – export-oriented and service sectors – had more demanding requirements for skills (World Bank, 2011). Their analysis was that the issue was not so much about the overall quantity of graduates or even quantity of skills, but about the quality and relevance of graduates to the labour market needs.

In another survey of over 1,400 firms in Indonesia in 2009, the World Bank (2009) found that “inadequately educated workforce” ranked fifth (along with transportation concerns) in the top-10 business environment constraints. Firms were not pointing out acute skills shortages. The number of companies expressing this concern was still only 4.3 per cent, far

**Box: *Attracting R&D from Foreign Direct Investors***

The past decade has seen a sea of change in the mode of operations of multinational companies in developing countries, with the rise of R&D-type operations, most notably in China and India. It is today widely acknowledged that foreign direct investors are motivated to invest in R&D in emerging economies for several different reasons. They may be motivated to do R&D by the need to access new markets better and to develop products to meet local market needs, as in China. Proactive policies can help. The Chinese government has been particularly proactive in its joint venture policies to demand local content, technology upgrading, and collaborations with local institutions including universities. Availability of highly educated cheap labour can also be a motivation, as was found in India.

The Czech Republic found that even as its main foreign direct investor in automobile, Hyundai, was not interested in establishing R&D facilities, the inflow of associated suppliers led to local capacity-building with a much greater collaboration between them and local higher education institutions. Similarly, Shanghai's proactive policies not only led to local company capacity, but also to many R&D projects, and establishment of chairs, and facilities in local universities which were all funded by foreign investors (van Tuijl, Carvalho, van Winden & Jacobs, 2012).

less than the 23 per cent in East Asia and the Pacific or 27 per cent in the world (World Bank, 2009). Firms were also not expressing extreme concern about the quality of higher education. In the 2008 World Bank survey, firms were surprisingly upbeat about the general quality of universities, with 88 per cent of them rating universities as “fair” or “very good” (World Bank, 2011). The rating varied somewhat between 95 per cent for public universities and 83 per cent for private universities. It is interesting that the difference was not as big as

one might have expected given the general perception about a massive and growing private education sector where the low quality is considered normal.

The World Bank's interpretation is that “fair” is actually not a positive rating. Our own interpretation is that most established firms in services and manufacturing in the modern sector, particularly in Java, have probably a fairly well-identified set of institutions to recruit capable graduates and these firms

[The World Bank found] that the issue was not so much about the overall quantity of graduates or even quantity of skills, but about the quality and relevance of graduates to the labour market needs.

are capable of identifying them from the best of the crop. A more serious issue is the concern over emergent needs. If the current trajectory of growth continues, or if economic growth is to be accelerated, the skills mismatch identified in 2008 will rapidly become acute. In particular, if growth is to be more

geographically equitable and include regions outside Java (which is good and should be), the rate of skills mismatch will be quite large. This is because the current mode of “jobless growth”, which arises as a result of stringent labour regulations and skills shortages particularly at the lower end (World Bank, 2011), demands that firms go for capital-intensive growth. This typically requires a set of higher-order managerial and professional skills from future graduates, particularly in adapting to foreign technologies and in undertaking process-innovations. In our own interviews, which tended to focus on more global and larger companies, we did not detect a serious concern about the

academic content of teaching for those recruited from the 10–20 top universities in Java. Several voiced serious concern, however, about the fact that it was extremely difficult to recruit for positions outside Java.

Even though ratings for the general quality of institutions were relatively high, several companies also expressed a serious concern about differences in the academic quality across institutions, particularly those outside Java. As stated above, this does not impact the most established firms as they have identified strong avenues of recruitment. But for the other firms, this becomes a problem as they cannot recruit the best graduates. This problem, thus, extends to the institutions themselves. Low-quality institutions suffer from the triple jeopardy of generally poorer-quality staff, inadequate or poor-quality equipment and facilities, and students who are less well-prepared for the job market.

### **Nature of Skills Mismatch**

The World Bank 2008 survey sheds some light on the nature of skills mismatch related to higher education and skills required for the jobs; this is based on views expressed by firms about the skills of their managers and professionals, who are

largely graduates. These findings are further confirmed by the preliminary analysis of tracer studies conducted by some universities (IMHERE, 2012).

The World Bank survey found that 80 per cent of the surveyed firms had found difficulties in filling vacancies for managers and 60 per cent found difficulties in filling professional positions. Although the relative importance of the three most important worker’s weaknesses (English, leadership, computer skills) are the same, the numbers differ when perceived between firms and employees, as illustrated in Figure 1.

When recruiting managers and professionals, firms felt the skills that were lacking the most were

English (44 per cent), leadership (41 per cent), computer (36 per cent), organisation (35 per cent), communication (33 per cent), and thinking skills (33 per cent). The firms also found that managers and professionals lacked practical knowledge (18 per cent) and theoretical knowledge (18 per cent) that were associated with jobs.

Young employees surveyed, however, felt that skills that were lacking were English (17 per cent), problem-solving (11 per cent), leadership (10 per cent), computer (10 per cent), creativity (9 per cent), and technical skills (8 per cent). Leadership was not selected as a more important weakness according to the employees surveyed. Figure 2 presents the responses given by the

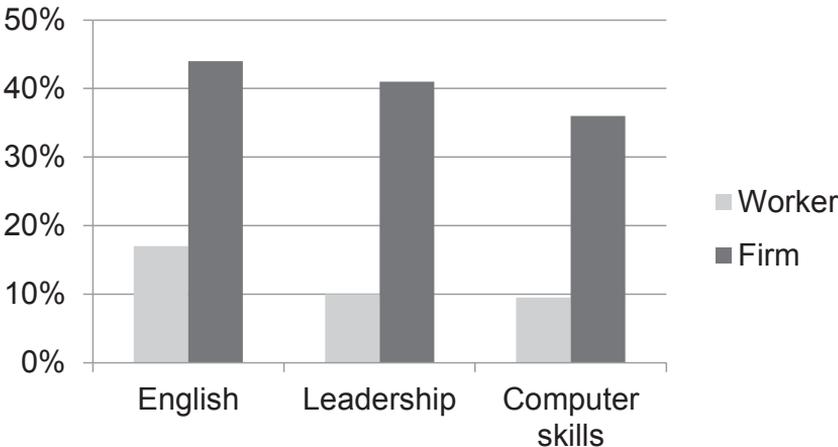


Figure 1. Discrepancy between firm’s and employee’s assessments of worker’s weaknesses.

surveyed firms when asked about the weakest manager's personality characteristics.

The 2011 report from the 2008 survey suggests that skills shortages are likely get worse as competition, increasing quality requirements, and changing work environments exacerbate business demand for such skills; this was also confirmed by our findings in this study. Our interview with a policymaker at the Ministry of Industry (MoI) revealed that serious shortages of workers with specific skills had already been experienced by manufacturing industries, not only in Indonesia but also in the Asian region at large. In response to the high demand for qualified welders in Batam Industrial Estate, MoI conducted a training programme for 1,000 workers to acquire welding

certificates. More than half of the graduates were directly recruited to work in Korea, leaving the Batam industries suffering with a shortage of hundreds of welders.

A preliminary analysis of the tracer studies conducted by 19 universities covering 7,440 graduates under the I-MHERE Project (a World Bank-assisted project that aimed to improve education quality and management capacity of selected public and private universities) in 2012 correlates with the World Bank survey (IMHERE, 2012). Only 62.84 per cent of the graduates thought that their current jobs were relevant to their field of education and 16 per cent of them said that their current jobs were significantly irrelevant. Meanwhile, 17.1 per cent needed more than 6 months to acquire their

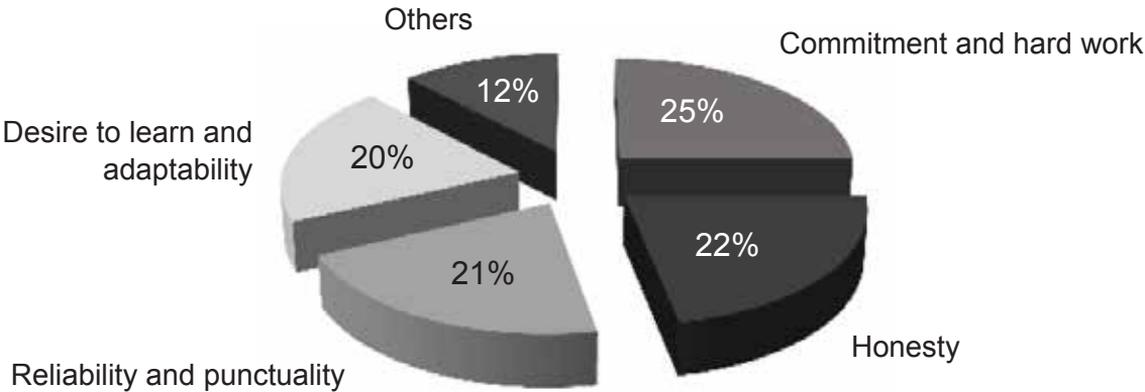


Figure 2. Weakest manager's personality characteristics.

first employment. This indicates that job opportunities are available, but relevant positions and assignments are still difficult to acquire. At the university side, some leaders of universities seem not yet to have a clear understanding of the benefits of conducting a tracer study and consider it just a requirement to be met in the accreditation process.

The overall picture shows that there is a serious problem with the link between universities and employers, particularly in understanding the latter's skills needs, ranging from more obvious ones, such as English and computing skills, to behavioural and thinking skills, such as leadership, problem-solving, and creativity. Specific job-related skills tend to be a problem, both in terms of practical and theoretical skills, but they appear to be less binding compared with these other skills. In our interview, one company was also extremely articulate in expressing its concern about contemporary students from elite institutions being generally much more competent and motivated, but lacked certain

...there is a serious problem with the link between universities and employers, particularly in understanding the latter's skills needs...

“emotional intelligence” or ability to empathically work with people from different backgrounds. It is interesting to note that employers and graduates viewed the “value of money” in universities differently – employers expressing this by rating “cost” as lowest, while graduates expressing this as highest.

### **Conclusion**

The advent of the knowledge economy brings changes in the criteria for effective workers and leaders. In particular, future and global leaders should be able to think globally and act locally through an innovative approach that can gain the respect of their communities. Producing graduates for future jobs/work and global leadership is a continuous challenge. Since Indonesia is a diverse country, a single uniform policy across the country would not work. Thus, Indonesia should have appropriate plans for different tiers of higher education institutions. Also, given that the university is a knowledge entity aiming for scientific culture and excellence, a paradigm shift from a rules-based to a knowledge-based approach in leadership is necessary.

## References

- Aswicahyono, H., Hill, H., & Narjoko, D. (2010). Industrialisation after a deep economic crisis: Indonesia. *Journal of Development Studies*, 46(6), 1084–1108.
- Brodjonegoro, S.S. (2012). Personal interview with CEOs of PT Dirgantara Indonesia and PT INKA.
- Hill, H., & Tandon, P. (2010). *Innovation and technological capability in Indonesia*. Retrieved from [http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EASTASIAPACIFICEXT/Resources/226300-1279680449418/HigherEd\\_InnovationandTechnologicalCapabilityinIndonesia.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EASTASIAPACIFICEXT/Resources/226300-1279680449418/HigherEd_InnovationandTechnologicalCapabilityinIndonesia.pdf)
- IMHERE. (2012, October 24–25). *Preliminary result of tracer studies*. Paper presented in the Workshop and Training on Indonesia National Tracer Study Network (INDOTRACE).
- van Tuijl, E., Carvalho, L., van Winden, W., & Jacobs, W. (2012). Multinational knowledge strategies, policy and the upgrading process of regions: Revisiting the automotive industry in Ostrava and Shanghai. *European Planning Studies*, 20(10), 1627–1646.
- World Bank. (2009). *Enterprise survey, Indonesia*. Retrieved from <http://www.enterprisesurveys.org/Data/ExploreEconomies/2009/indonesia#workforce>
- World Bank. (2011). *Skills for the labour market in Indonesia: Trends in demand, gaps and supply*. Washington, DC: Author.
- World Bank. (2012). *Doing business in Indonesia*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.doingbusiness.org/data/exploreeconomies/indonesia>



JOHN DEFLAMINIS

# Implementing Distributed Leadership in Schools

## Lessons Learnt

### Introduction

In a world that is changing more quickly than we can, we need more leadership capacity and teams that can accelerate our priorities. As a former Superintendent of Schools, I used a team distributed leadership (DL) approach at the Central Office to successfully lead a high-achieving school district for 17 years. I observed some of my best principals doing the same. James Spillane's work in Chicago convinced me that we could successfully do this in Philadelphia, and the research in an upcoming book documents the success of the programme components: the training plan and modules, leadership teams, build-based training, and leadership coaching.

The University of Pennsylvania, Spillane, and other consultants provided the knowledge to train, develop, and empower teams to be successful in this work. New principals

*can* surround themselves with teacher leaders, and *can* build capacity and a culture to create more dynamic and productive schools. Most achieved the Annual Yearly Progress in our project timeframe and realised positive results that improved their schools. This paper describes our implementation process and some of the lessons that we learnt.

### The Overview of the Programme

The DL Project was originally funded by a \$5 million grant from the Annenberg Foundation to the Penn Center for Educational Leadership (PCEL) in 2005. It was developed to operationalise a distributed perspective on leadership within a robust intervention project in 16 Philadelphia schools designed to create a stronger leadership fabric in support of school improvement (DeFlaminis, 2009, 2011, 2013). The Annenberg DL Project was one of the

first deliberate efforts in the nation to take on the challenge of designing and building DL capacity in a diverse set of urban schools to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The success of the project in Philadelphia schools led to a further request for a \$3.4 million, 4-year replication in 19 Archdiocese of Philadelphia schools in 2010; and also led to a third replication in the York City School District in 2015.

From inception, the DL Project was influenced and guided by the work of Spillane. His definition of DL has been our working definition:

[Leadership refers to] those activities that are either understood by or designed by organisational members to influence the motivation, knowledge, affect, and practice of other organisational members in the service of the organisation's core work. (2006, p. 11)

Since DL was relatively new in its implementation in schools, a specific research-based training and development plan did not exist that addressed our needs. Spillane's distributed perspective provided a framework for a collaborative, task-oriented leadership practice that draws upon the expertise of multiple individuals.

From a design perspective, the challenge was to develop structures and supports to enact that framework at the school level. Further, preparing teacher leaders and principals for building a distributed setting was an important priority. In the DL Programme, this was achieved by creating DL teams in each site, and providing them with a carefully designed and extensive plan for training, leadership coaching, and effective routines that could enhance leadership capacity in each site.

DL views building leadership capacity as a school-wide endeavour requiring high levels of interaction and collaboration among the staff. To accomplish this, the DL Programme first creates leadership teams that are collaborative, strategic, and instructionally focused. The DL teams identify and prioritise school needs, define the leadership work necessary to address those needs, and establish feedback systems to monitor the teams' progress. Individual team members are then charged with creating leadership opportunities for the wider faculty, supporting teachers as they take on leadership tasks.

Effective implementation requires that DL teams (a) have a strong conceptual grounding

in distributed leadership, (b) are highly collaborative, (c) know how to influence and facilitate change in others, (d) are comfortable using data to both plan and monitor their work, and (e) focus on instruction and the education infrastructure.

The DL Programme features (a) the careful selection and training of leadership team members to identify and lead instructional improvement efforts, (b) the ample professional development to build cohesive teams and help members understand the motivational, psychological, and pedagogical aspects of advocating instructional change, (c) the resources to apply to the task, and (d) the ongoing school-based coaching to guide leadership team efforts. In order to prepare teams to carry out the leadership work in the schools, the programme provides each team member and leadership coach with 80 hours of leadership development using training modules developed in collaboration with Spillane, the leading conceptualiser of leadership theory in the United States.

Thirteen modules address the leadership dimensions needed to prepare the leadership teams and include the following: The Distributed Perspective, Developing Professional Learning Communities,

Building Leadership Teams, Evidence-based Leadership, Using Data to Guide School Improvement, and Developing Evidence-based and Shared Decision-making. A more detailed description and explanation can be found in our forthcoming book,

*Distributed Leadership in Schools: A Practical Guide for Learning and Improvement* (DeFlaminis, Abdul-Jabbar & Yoak, in press).

In addition to direct professional development, team members receive approximately 5 hours per week of on-site coaching to support their work. Leadership coaches are trained with the teams and individually work with each team member, including teacher leaders and principals. The function of leadership coaches is to (a) help the teams understand the importance of their instructional and infrastructure leadership roles, (b) drive school-wide change, (c) act as strategists and assistants in building capacity for decision-making, (d) model leadership skills for teams, and (e) help teams to organise their time so they are able to focus more

The DL Programme features the careful selection and training of leadership team members to identify and lead instructional improvement efforts...

efficiently on the infrastructure issues that they target.

One key task of the leadership coach is to help teams build action plans which make those targets clearer. Each team member is expected to create an action plan that clearly states his or her goals, strategies for reaching them, and how progress will be measured. The action plan helps focus the work in each school as much as possible while allowing each site to customise in a way that engages both the DL teams and

their professional colleagues. It is our experience that this leads to the formulation of other teams of leaders in the schools and expands the leadership of teams and individuals.

*Our Programme Logic Model and Theory of Change*

Our work in schools was guided by the programme logic model and theory of change, which was developed even before the first project began and further refined over time. Our logic model is shown in Figure 1. The first column

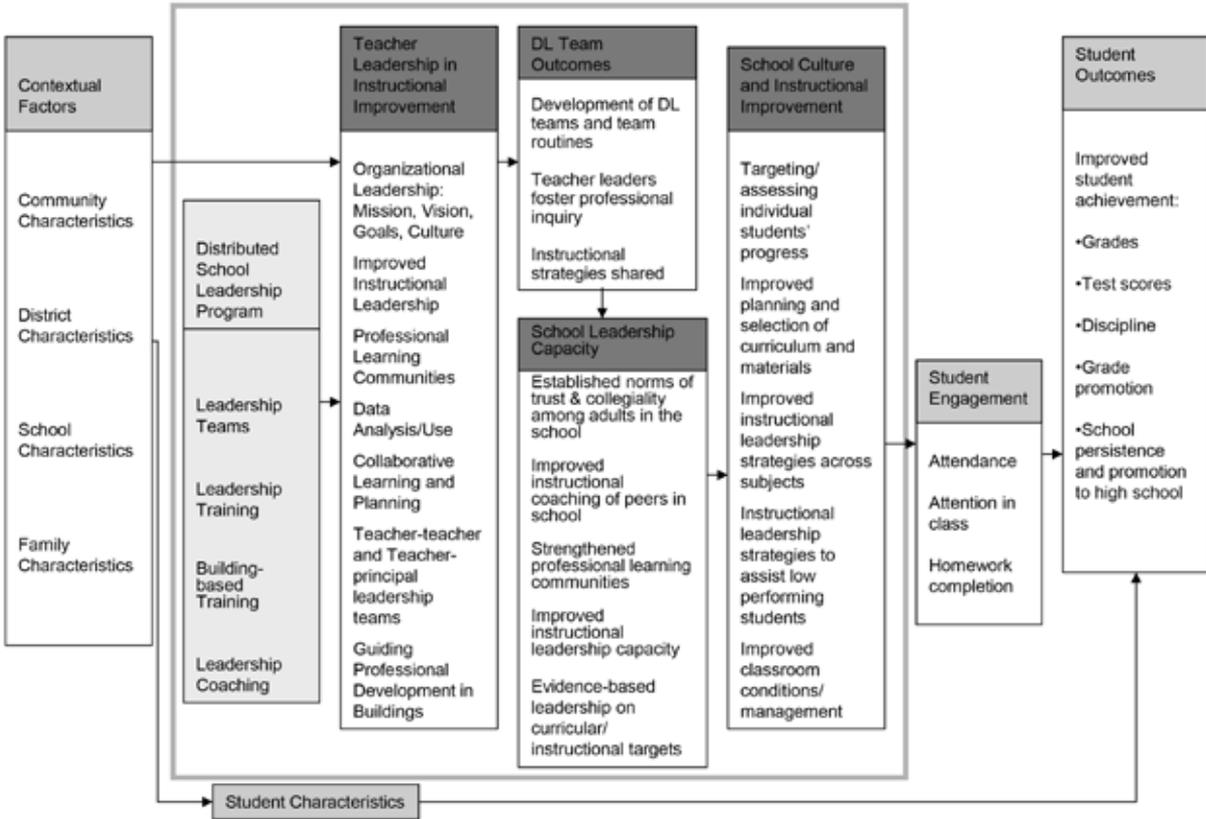


Figure 1. Program logic model (DeFlaminis, 2009).

depicts the contextual factors facing schools, which we know influence the experiences of both students and school faculty. Our programme emphasis is shown in the second column where we build, train, and coach leadership teams to develop organisational leadership, instructional leadership, and professional learning communities, while also guiding professional development. We had believed that the DL teams would foster professional inquiry and share instructional strategies, as well as build additional leadership capacity in the schools. These efforts did produce both culture change and instructional improvements in the schools, which contributed to both student engagement and student performance outcomes.

In addition to this programme logic model, we used a theory of change (see Figure 2) that was developed by our evaluators and the Project Director which outlined a linear change process intended in our original project and was a strong representative of expected outcomes for subsequent replications and our new teams.

Since these were targets of data collection and evaluation, they were excellent guides for implementation

and pleasing when consistently found in our projects. While the major outcome of improved student learning school-wide was not achieved in our first project, it was projected at a greater level in the second, as discussed in the Lessons Learnt section of this paper. The more consistent outcomes of all projects to date are: teacher leadership in school improvement, team outcomes (in student achievement), school leadership capacity growth, school culture change, and instructional improvement.

Since these were targets of data collection and evaluation, they were excellent guides for implementation and pleasing when consistently found in our projects. While the major outcome of improved student learning school-wide was not achieved in our first project, it was projected at a greater level in the second, as discussed in the Lessons Learnt section of this paper. The more consistent outcomes of all projects to date are: teacher leadership in school improvement, team outcomes (in student achievement), school leadership capacity growth, school culture change, and instructional improvement.

### *Evaluation Summary*

The continuation and replication of the DL Programme has occurred based on the positive evidence from

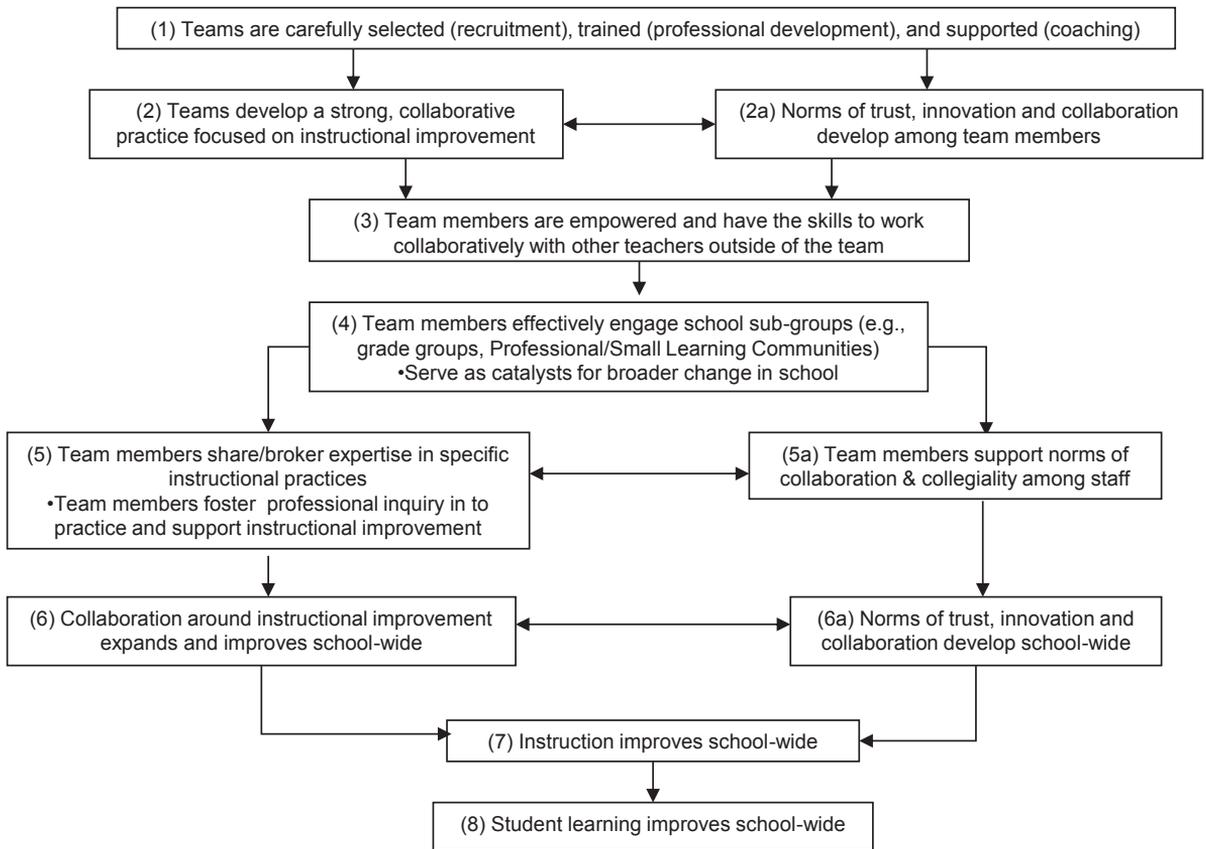


Figure 2. Theory of change (DeFlaminis, 2009).

the original Annenberg Project, and confirmed by a rigorous mixed-method cluster randomised control trial (Supovitz & Riggan, 2012) conducted by the Consortium for Policy Research in Education (CPRE).

The strongest evidence of the Project's impact on the DL teams and their work came from survey data comparing leadership teams in the DL schools against those in comparison schools. These data showed

overwhelming and statistically significant differences between the DL teams and the leadership teams in the comparison schools on a number of leadership team outcomes. These included measures of effective team functioning, school leaders' sense of efficacy, trust levels among team members, trust levels between team members and their principal, perceptions of school influence, teacher satisfaction, and member learning opportunities (Supovitz, 2009).

These findings, supported by the data from a variety of sources focused on the high-functioning leadership teams, provided evidence that DL impacted both team effectiveness and culture (Supovitz & Riggan, 2012). The data showed that culture was impacted significantly in a 2-year timeframe. Specifically, the experimental evidence of improved team culture was found to be statistically significant in the following areas: trust, collective responsibility, efficacy, influence, satisfaction, and opportunities to learn.

### **Lessons Learnt**

Our 10 years of DL development has revealed significant implications for school improvement and reform. Our experience in operationalising and implementing DL has shown us that it can be successfully done, even in randomly selected urban schools, including high schools. We have seen it build relationships and trust, increase staff efficacy and motivation, develop collective responsibility and leadership capacity, and increase satisfaction. We have also learnt and are still learning lessons about how to make it work best and what its limits are that prevent it from working effectively.

The remainder of this paper will focus on and discuss factors that the writer

feels are most important in carrying out this work in schools and in school systems.

1. The principal's support and involvement was essential to, but not always sufficient for, the success of a distributed leadership school.

We believed that if teacher leaders could benefit from our training design, principals and coaches could as well. The paucity of ongoing quality leadership training in every site confirmed that belief. We had many principal turnovers in our 10 years (despite a pre-condition that principals remain in place) and have observed several

effects. We have seen strong principals really added to their team's development and developed the greatest talent in teacher leaders. We have seen teacher leaders support new and inexperienced principals to moderate to high levels of success. When an inadequate principal, however, found a context that had many needs (poor climate of trust,

...improved team culture was found to be statistically significant in the following areas: trust, collective responsibility, efficacy, influence, satisfaction, and opportunities to learn.

disorganisation, faculty conflict, etc.), even a good team could not make a difference without direct intervention or support.

2. The Central Office's support was not essential to the continuing success of a school DL team in very large centralised districts. In small, often decentralised districts, the Central Office could support or detract the DL work. We developed our plan for the Annenberg DL Project with high involvement and support of the Central Office who believed in and was a part of our early development in Year 1. In Years 2 and 3, two turnovers in Central Office leadership occurred. Year 2's CEO believed in and liked the programme, visited our schools, and supported the professional development schedule we needed for training. Cohort 1 had full support during that time and Cohort 2 had a good start. In Year 3, the new Philadelphia CEO did not support DL and had her own agenda for training, necessitating changes and conflicts in scheduling and focus of action plans. While some Cohort 3 teams had difficulty with competing agendas, Cohorts 1, 2, and some of 3 moved forward in spite of the not-so-strong support.

In our third project, the district was under state control and had

a recovery plan that favoured DL (which had district and state support), but had other mandates that the Central Office was required to implement. Sometimes, these mandates distract from DL's focus and action plans, although it is too early to know how damaging these distractions will be.

3. Agreements with the Teacher Unions about contract issues and role expectations for principals and teacher leaders greatly supported our success. Annenberg was insistent that we anticipate ways that a DL implementation would impact the District's collective bargaining agreement and reach agreement on those issues *before* we began the project. It took 8 months to accomplish that and we had the full support of the Central Office in those discussions and meetings. This made a huge difference in tone and collaboration. Things went so smoothly that over the course of the project, the Union became one of our greatest supporters and modelled one of their own projects on the Annenberg DL initiative. Further, role expectations in the Archdiocese were so clear that we seldom had the occasion to request someone to comply with an expectation that might have been violated.

The third project was initiated by the State Teacher's Union because they believed that DL could add substantial teacher leadership to the task of meeting the recovery plan needs of the district. To date, we have financial support, full cooperation, and collaboration on all plans and obstacles.

4. DL that is focused on instructional improvement required the district to have a coherent curricula, instructional plan, and authentic literacy and assessments in place in order to achieve gains in measured student outcomes. Progress in instructional practices and school improvements did occur without these requisites.

Mike Schmoker (2011) maintained that three simple things are “essential” for schools: reasonably coherent curricula (what we teach); sound lessons (how we teach); and far more purposeful reading and writing in every discipline, or authentic literacy (integral to both what and how we teach). In addition, he recommended checks for understanding or formative assessments as critical to a lesson's success. Unfortunately, he found that “as numerous studies demonstrate, these essential elements are only rarely implemented; every credible

study confirms that they are still pushed aside by various initiatives every year, in the majority of schools” (p. 2).

When we began the Annenberg Project, we met with Central Office leaders to develop understanding and support, and to reduce conflicts and redundancies. We were told to develop strong teacher leadership capacity and school culture outcomes targeted to instructional improvement but not to focus on curriculum, instructional strategies, or other interventions because “[the district] planned to have them in place” and would be training on them. The curricula were revisited and strengthened in those early years but *no* plan for instruction was ever put into place with any of the three changes in superintendent and administrative leadership.

We added training late in the Annenberg Project (Year 4) with our Penn Literacy Network because project participants requested instructional support. It never made up for the district's lack of a coherent plan for learning, including both curricula and instruction, and impacted our results and our effects on student learning. While we saw wonderful effects on individual projects and action plans, we never

realised the extent of student effects anticipated.

This was not true for the second project which was further along in its “essentials”, and was moving to the Common Core Standards and developing curricula and training the entire district on Understanding by Design. In our latest project in York, Pennsylvania, it has been essential that teams bring leadership to the infrastructure (curricula, instruction, formative assessment, and a strong literacy plan) of the education system. We decided to begin by auditing these areas to gauge where the district stood.

On this project, we are building parallel projects and capacities in DL and educational infrastructures. Spillane (2015) defined infrastructure as “those structures and resources that are mobilised by school systems in school organisations to enable (and constrain) classroom teaching, maintaining instructional quality, and lead instructional innovation” (Slide 6). He pointed out that “design of the formal organisation infrastructure shapes the informal organisation” (Slide 6). Our goal is to effect school improvement and school culture to build a better system for student achievement.

It is important to note here that 10 years of underdevelopment can leave devastating effects on school districts and their systems, including technology, behaviour management, professional development, among others, which might be in disarray because of neglect, lack of resources, substantial turnover, changes in population, and other reasons. We have found substantial issues here that were not anticipated and exacerbated the needed interventions to impact student achievement most effectively. DL teams can be helpful here but programme leaders must gauge how much infrastructure and systems work can be taken on successfully to avoid overload. There are learning limits here.

5. Action plans were useful routines to crystallise the teams’ knowledge and intent, and to monitor progress. Leadership coaching is an important support for guiding implementation and developing new leader support and learning.

Action plans were added in Year 1 of the Annenberg Project to crystallise the teams’ ideas and to track their progress in a formal fashion. They worked effectively for that purpose in all projects. While

the district and the Archdiocese had improvement plans and strategic plans, the action plans allowed individual group members and teams to frame individual or group foci for their efforts. Their progress was motivating and substantial, and helped to monitor progress. Plans not completed became a source of concern with one team and led to a “needs improvement” intervention. That team progressed successfully, but needed the prompt of the plan to get back on track.

Leadership coaching is a critical strategy for creating and sustaining effective teams (Hackman, 2009). DL coaches are experienced leaders who are trained with their teams, attend team meetings, and work with the team members as needed. Coaches are essential to individual leadership development and efficacy. Yoak (2013) indicated that one issue in the lack of transfer of training is that, in general, training programmes do not explicitly impact metacognitive skills of trainees. Yet, metacognitive skills – the ability to think about one’s thoughts, feelings, and behaviours – are essential features in mastering new skills (Carver & Scheier, 1998). Our experience (Yoak, 2013) reinforces the role of coaches in the way DL teaches leaders to consider and come to understand their own

leadership thinking as a participant in the programme.

6. Trust was a critical component in advancing and speeding up a leadership team’s progress in a school improvement project.

As one considers the theory of change developed by the evaluators and the Project Director to capture the sequence of the intent of this programme, the norms of trust, innovation, and collaboration are early stages of development. Bryk and Schneider (2002) asserted that “trust fosters a set of organisational conditions, some structural and others social psychological, that make it more conducive for individuals to initiate and sustain the kinds of activities necessary to affect productivity improvements” (p. 116). Abdul-Jabbar (2013) wrote, “Bryk and Schneider... cite leadership as the driver for relational trust, but that the conclusion of the research, while educational leaders know *what* they must do, they still do not know *how* they are to do it” (p. 43). Abdul-Jabbar maintained that DL offers a solution to this problem and focused his dissertation on this topic.

Trust entered into our work on DL in all projects. One elementary

school in the Annenberg Project made no progress for 2 years because a DL team member created trust issues. After we intervened on that issue (and worked with the faculty on a trust agreement and later reconstituted the team), progress was made. There were many other school examples across projects. Abdul-Jabbar's (2013) case study on a high school illustrated how trust building and restructuring had a major impact on the school's climate, trust, and progress.

7. DL teams were able to accelerate the focus and action on important instructional and school-wide priorities.

The Executive Summary of the 2012 final evaluation and research report on the Annenberg DL Project (2006–2010) ended with the following paragraph:

The DL project demonstrates that an intensive effort to influence and expand the leadership capacity of schools can have a positive impact on leadership practice, leadership team functioning, and support for instructional improvement. It further suggests that distributed leadership might be best thought of not as a reform in itself, but rather as a means of

implementing reform. (Supovitz & Riggan, 2012, p. 1)

The evidence indicated that teams were generally effective, can serve as a useful vehicle for initiating significant changes in schools, and that many action plans and school priorities were addressed.

Perhaps the excitement and the primary value of the DL project lies in the ability to build teams, leadership capacity, and address more quickly and completely school-wide projects that have not been completed with existing structures and leadership. John Kotter (2012) proposed an operating system that parallels DL's structure in schools. He explained that many innovative companies are creating a second "operating system" to address the challenges produced by mounting complexity and rapid change. This second system is devoted to the design and implementation of strategy that uses an agile, network-like structure and a very different set of processes. This data-based system continually assesses and reacts with greater agility, speed, and creativity than the existing one.

To some extent our DL teams function much like those second systems in Kotter's business

examples. Wharton's Michael Useem (2012) has said to superintendents (at the Study Council Meeting, 25 April, 2012) that "research reveals that the quality of top management teams better predict company performance than the CEO alone"

(p. 2). In a world that is changing more quickly than we can, we need leadership capacity and teams that can bring all our priorities to our attention. This may be this programme's greatest strength and lasting contribution.

## References

- Abdul-Jabbar, M. (2013). *Distributed leadership and relational trust: Bridging two frameworks to identify effective leadership behaviors and practices* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ScholarlyCommons, University of Pennsylvania. (AAI3562478).
- Bryk, A. S., & Schneider, B. (2002). *Trust in schools: A core resource for school improvement*. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1998). *On the self-regulation of behavior*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- DeFlaminis, J. A. (2009). *The design and structure of the building distributed leadership in the Philadelphia School District Project*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, California.
- DeFlaminis, J. A. (2011). *The design and implementation of the Annenberg Distributed Leadership Project*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana.
- DeFlaminis, J. A. (2013). *The implementation and replication of the Distributed Leadership Program: More lessons learned and beliefs confirmed*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, California.
- DeFlaminis, J. A., Abdul-Jabbar, M., & Yoak, E. (in press), *Distributed leadership in schools: A practical guide for learning and improvement*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Hackman, J. R. (2009). Why teams don't work. *Harvard Business Review*, 87(5), 98–105.
- Kotter, J. (2012). Accelerate: How the most innovative companies capitalize on today rapid-fire strategic challenges – and still make their numbers. *Harvard Business Review*, 90(11), 1–13.

- Schmoker, M. (2011). *Focus: Elevating the essentials to radically improve student learning*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Spillane, J. P. (2006). *Distributed leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Spillane, J. P. (2015). *The distributed perspective. Module two of the distributed leadership series: Unit 4, From diagnosis to design* [PowerPoint Presentation for York City Training, Slide 6, August 14, 2015]. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University.
- Supovitz, J. A. (2009). *Distributed leadership evaluation memo*. Philadelphia, PA: Consortium for Policy and Research in Education, University of Pennsylvania.
- Supovitz, J., & Riggan, M. (2012). *Building a foundation for school leadership: An evaluation of the Annenberg Distributed Leadership Project, 2006–2010*. Philadelphia, PA: Consortium for Policy Research in Education, University of Pennsylvania. Retrieved from <http://www.cpre.org/building-foundation-school-leadership-evaluation-annenberg-distributed-leadership-project-2006-2010>
- Useem, M. (2012). *The leaders checklist: Notes from a joint study council meeting*. Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania.
- Yoak, E. (2013). *Learning for leadership: Understanding adult learning to build school leadership capacity* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ScholarlyCommons, University of Pennsylvania. (AAI3610081).



