



SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE: A LITERATURE REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Numerous studies in the past three decades associate high-quality leadership with positive school outcomes. The acknowledgment of the importance of school leadership has led to better attention to recruiting and preparing school leaders. Many new principal preparation and development programs emphasize the role of principals as instructional leaders (Hornig & Loeb, 2010). This focus on instructional leadership was driven in multitude by the effective school's movement of the 1970s and 1980s and has been renewed because of increasing demands that school leaders be held accountable for student performance (Hallinger, 2005). Informed by observations and interviews in hundreds of schools, Hornig and Loeb (2010) call for a different view of instructional leadership, one that includes broader personnel practices and resource allocation practices as central to instructional improvement.

INTRODUCTION

NOVICE school head leadership in schools are often described as overwhelming, and pressure- filled induction “reality shocks” (Spillane & Lee, (2014). Some rank-and-file employees will undoubtedly doubt their capability to lead a group of people and an organization. There are reluctant leaders in different organizations either in business or education. These are individuals who can lead, but they choose not to lead because they do not see themselves in a leadership situation. In most cases, the decision to lead is in their subconscious (Winston, 2017).

The decision to accept a leadership role will always require reflection and discernment. The power, authority, privileges, and benefits attached to it are enticing but the duties and responsibilities make a person step back and think about it. When no one else is qualified to lead, tenure and performance become the bases of promotion. Despite lacking the required credentials, particularly educational qualifications, one gets the promotion because he/she is the most senior among the teachers. In most cases, that leaves him/her with no other choice but to accept the offer. Some are even being forced to take leadership responsibilities because there are no other qualified candidates. Seniority is a traditional basis of appointment because it seems that most tenured may be the best choice.

Schools can be vulnerable to this, particularly the private schools due to the exodus of teachers to public schools where career opportunities and salaries are better. Commissioner for Higher Education (CHED) Chairman De Vera underscored this point and said that one of the issues encountered by private colleges and universities today is the migration of their excellent faculty to state colleges and universities. The reason is the inability to pay them higher salaries. In the last two years, this had been a serious concern as reported to CHED. The state colleges and universities have created new faculty items, and the Department of Education (DepEd) opened teacher items since the implementation of K-12. Because of this, many teachers are transferring to government educational institutions. There is a significant number of teachers who have transferred, and are moving to the public schools (Manila Bulletin, 2018).

With the given situations, the study aims to sightsee and determine the readiness of novice academic heads in leadership. It identifies the challenges, including their learning experiences and realizations as new academic heads. From the data gathered, it will provide a basis for school administration in creating a program that will prepare and develop teachers for leadership roles in the future.

The Role of the School Heads

The role of the school heads has changed and evolved dramatically over the last twenty years (Renihan & Noonan, 2012). The responsibilities of school heads and key competencies they require have increased significantly (Alberta Education, 2009). Blazer (2010) reports that, principals are expected to be instructional leaders, business managers, data analysts, community engagement experts, parent liaisons, and fund raisers. Being a principal is one of the most rewarding and demanding roles in education. There is no role more important for school improvement than the principal (Leithwood et al., 2008; Ontario Ministry of Education, 2011). Added on, school heads must complete administrative duties such as budgeting, reporting, scheduling, complying with Health and Safety regulations, and staff supervision as well as create the conditions for increasing students ‘achievement (Kaplan & Owings, 2002). Currently, one of the principals ‘s primary responsibilities is to provide leadership in the instructional program. In describing the new contemporary role of principals, The Ontario Leadership Framework (OLF) 2012 identifies five domains which contain specific skills, knowledge, and attitudes that an effective principal should demonstrate. The five domains included: setting directions where the principal builds a shared vision, fosters the acceptance of group goals, and sets high performance expectations; building relationships and developing people where the principal strives to establish genuine, trusting relationships with students, staff, families, and communities, guided by a sense of mutual respect. The principal affirms and empowers others to work in the best interest of all students.

Further, in developing the organization, OLF (2012) mentioned that the principal builds collaborative cultures, structures the organization for success, and connects the school to its wider environment; leading the instructional program where the principal sets high expectations for learning outcomes and monitors and evaluates the effectiveness of instruction. The principal manages the school organization effectively so that everyone can focus on teaching and learning; and lastly securing accountability. The principal is accountable to students, parents, the community, supervisors, and the board for ensuring that students benefit from a high-quality education and for promoting collective responsibility for student outcomes within the whole school community. The principal is specifically accountable for the goals set out in the school improvement plan.

Principals must find a way to lead in an area where their followers may have greater experience and knowledge than they do. They must effectively use research and data as well as technology to identify the needs of students and strategies to address those needs, despite having only limited training in these areas (Hess & Kelly, 2007).

Similarly, the principal works as a filtering agent between forces outside the school and what transpires inside the building (Garcia-Garduno et al., 2011). They also stated that the principal absorbs the responsibility and pressure that stems from problems inside the school, outside the school and on the school. Navigating a pathway through these conflicts and pressures requires princi-

pals to demonstrate a level of political sophistication that takes time to develop and is learned through trial and error more than anything else (Winton & Pollock, 2013). Principals must display a high level of diplomacy (Walker et al., 2003). As Hallinger and Murphy (2013) found, principals who begin the morning with an intention to visit classrooms often find themselves waylaid by students, teachers, staff, and parents with urgent problems to be solved. Other researchers found that principals had to be skilled in understanding the contextual literacy of their setting (Wildy & Clark, 2012).

Furthermore, Ackerman and Maslin-Ostrowski, (2004) found that the principal 's life is filled with isolation, fear, and vulnerability; because of that the principal must possess a high level of emotional intelligence and truly know themselves. As Leithwood (2012) states that the combined effect of optimism, efficacy and resilience are characterized by having confidence or self-efficacy to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks, making a positive expectation or optimism about succeeding now and in the future persevering towards goals.

Clearly, the expectations of a principal are daunting. The individuals who take on the principalship need to have more than teaching qualifications and successful teaching experience to fill this role (Alberta Education, 2009). There is no one set path to the principalship or a recipe for success in meeting the goals. For principals to be successful they need to have a complete understanding of the principalship and be prepared for the various demands associated with the role.

The studies of Leithwood et al. (2004) and Robinson et al. (2008) have clearly shown the importance of the principal role in school improvement and student success. Researchers have also identified the many challenges associated with trying to meet the increased demands associated with being the school leader.

Moreover, the thrust of the Department of Education to empower school heads and emphasize school-based management has increased and intensified. The major trend of practice in current education reform aims at improving the quality of education services by the government and schools both public and private as well. In the Division of Davao City, there is a current increase in the number of public high schools which is considered as annex schools which are in places different from their mother schools. These annexes are being managed and supervised by school heads of mother schools (Dep Ed Order).

Experiences of Novice Heads

The excitement that a novice principal feels in their first principalship is often tempered by the challenges that occur at both the personal and professional level. The expectations that await them in that first year are daunting, as stated by Sackney and Walker (2006). They further stated that early in their tenure, beginning principals experienced cultural shock 'and nothing in their preparation prepares them for the change in perception of others. Crow (2007) noted that there is substantial adjustment in becoming a principal, specifically in surrendering the comfort and confidence of the familiar teaching world and accepting the uncertainty of the new principalship. District School Boards are expected to support these new principals through various leadership development programs, mentorship programs and on-the job support (Leithwood, 2013).

As reported by Wildy and Clarke (2008) that new principals needed to re- evaluate their assumptions about the principalship and that there was considerable emotional labor associated in dealing with the conflicts they faced. Principals in Western Australia reported they were challenged in several areas including dealing with poorly performing staff, finding a work/life balance, and balancing system imperatives and local needs. Clarke et al. (2011) and Quong (2006) identified that doing too much or too little is the beginning principal 's most stressful dilemma. The challenges and dilemmas identified in the research are undoubtedly compounded by the sense of isolation many novice principals experienced (Wildy & Clarke, 2008). While Daresh and Mal (2008) noted the culture, shock associated with the transition from teacher to principal and the sense of changing from one team to another.

The experiences of novice headteachers in the United Kingdom were often similar to their colleagues in Australia. Likewise, Holligan et al. (2006) reported novice headteachers had feelings of professional isolation and loneliness. Cowie and Crawford (2008) commented on the conflict novice headteachers had between the pressure to conform to organizational expectations and their own educational ideals. New principals commented on their feelings of frustration not knowing how well they were doing (Walker & Qian, 2006). The lack of feedback, direction or positive guidance is a challenge many new head teacher face.

Another concern identified in the research is the challenge new principals have in dealing with the legacy of the previous principal (Weindling & Dimmock, 2006). Likewise, Walker and Qian (2006) stated that teachers often endow the previous principal with saintly virtues once they leave the school even though they noted their frailties while in the post. The novice principal, when compared to the flawed memory of the predecessor and how they lead the school, can be found wanting.

In addition, the sheer volume of work and managing the different priorities was also identified as a challenge for many novice principals (Crawford & Cowie, 2012). As a novice principal everything may appear to be a priority, the phone call from an angry parent; the need for additional instructional resources; student behavior in the halls; or the monthly Health and Safety report. Many novice principals felt unprepared for their role partially because of their frustrations as deputy headteachers where they were not given opportunities to develop leadership skills within their school (Southworth, 2002b).

On one hand, novice principals in the United States face many of the same challenges. Those challenges include dealing with the legacy of the predecessor a lack of feedback, support, or supervision (Wright et al., 2009), and developing a moral compass in multi-cultural setting (Larsen & Derrington, 2012).

On the other hand, Ibukun (2004) viewed leadership as a position of dominance and prestige accompanied by the ability to

direct, motivate and to assist others in achieving a specified purpose. Principal as a leader is also the liaison officer that mediates between the school and the society. A critical role of a principal is to mobilize the teaching and non-teaching staff towards the achievement of the school objectives. Aina (2011) posited that leadership is about concern for social justice, a compassion for the under privileged, dedicated to the growth of self-reliance, commitment, ability to communicate, courage to take risks, make bold decisions, ability to achieve the desired result and faith in the people's ability.

Similarly, Onguko et al. (2012) found that novice principals in Tanzania needed to be prepared for challenges with family instability, poverty, disease, insufficient teaching and learning resources, and leadership succession planning. Inadequate physical facilities, overcrowded classrooms, and students unable to pay for books or school fees are also the realities novice principals in developing countries face.

Moreover, when considering the experiences of novice principals in the Canadian context, Grodzki (2011) reported principals are expected to lead in schools with increased student diversity including differences in culture and language, socio-economic status, and emotional, physical, and learning disabilities. Novice principals must meet the challenge of an increase in the number of students with special needs and students who are at risk (Sackney & Walker, 2006). Novice principals began the principalship expecting to be focused on instructional leadership, but the managerial aspects of the role cause added stress and led to feelings of inadequacy. They reported that, many principals floundered as they attempted to juggle the multitude of demands. This lack of success contributes to what the authors identify as emotional response; novice principals were haunted by fear of failure, and some found the work less rewarding than they originally anticipated. Novice principals also lamented that the job was lonelier than they had expected (Grodzki, 2011).

Meanwhile, instructional leadership is distinguished as key for successful principals (Hoy & Hoy, 2009). It refers to all activities that they carry out leaving impact on curriculum and instruction (Hallinger, 2003). The principal's instructional leadership on student outcomes. In the same vein, Leithwood et al. (2006) asserted that instructional leadership has a very significant effects on the quality of school organization.

Further, Lunenberg and Irby (2006) illustrated that school principals display instructional leadership behaviors in their schools by focusing on learning, (encouraging collaboration, using data to improve learning, providing support, and aligning curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Instructional Leadership

As mentioned by Romano (2014), leadership is an interpersonal influence directed through communication toward goal attainment; the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with direction and orders; an act that causes others to act or respond in shared direction; and the pivotal dynamic force that stimulates and encourages the organization in the fulfillment of its thrusts and an eagerness to take the blame when the result of action is pessimistic. The concept that an effective leader boosts his people in the organization to infuse pride and personal gratification in their work remains an ideal belief. The development of a leader takes time, dedication, and patience, for a leader is not developed overnight or in vacuum setting (Daing, 2015).

In a global point of view, leadership entails influencing process and its outcomes that emerge between the leader and his subordinates, with the intent of empowering the followers in their quest for the attainment of the organizational objectives. It is hailed as one of the most important aspects of management, according to Almario (2016). This is in consonance with the belief of Lunenberg and Ornstein (2011) that says that instructional leadership characteristically centers on the behaviors of the teachers as they get involved in daily activities that directly affect the growth of the students. Most conceptions of instructional leadership allocate authority and influence on formal administrative roles, usually the building principals and other school administrators.

Inherent in the concept of instructional leadership is the notion that learning should be given top priority while everything else revolves around the enhancement of learning. Instructional leaders need to know what is going on in the classroom. Without this knowledge, they are unable to appreciate some of the problems teachers and students encounter in the academic environment. Instructional leaders need to work closely with students, developing teaching techniques and methods as a means for understanding teacher perspectives and for establishing a base on which to make curricular decisions (Almario, 2016).

The idea that school administrators should serve as instructional leaders not just as generic managers in their schools is widely subscribed to among educators. In the Philippine practice, though, few school administrators like the school's district supervisors, principals and department heads act as genuine instructional leaders. Their days are filled with activities of management scheduling, reporting, handling relations with parents and community, dealing with the multiple crises and special situations that are inevitable in schools. Most of them spend relatively little time in classrooms and even less analyzing instruction with teachers. They may arrange time for teachers' meetings and professional development, but they rarely provide intellectual leadership for growth in teaching skill (Fullan, 2003; Daing, 2015).

The role of instructional leader helps the school to maintain a focus on why the school exists, and that is to help all students learn (Blasen & Phillips, 2010). The focus on results; the focus on student achievement and the focus on students learning at high levels can only happen if teaching and learning become the central focus of the school and the central focus of the principal (Blankstein, 2010). A key task for principals is to create a collective expectation among teachers concerning student performance. That is, principals need to raise the collective sense of teachers about student learning (DuFour, et al., 2010).

Further, Doyle and Rice (2002) cited Brewer (2001) who outlined the dramatically different role of the principal as an instructional leader, one that requires focusing on instruction; building a community of learners; sharing decision making; sustaining the basics; leveraging time; supporting ongoing professional development for all staff members; redirecting resources to support a multifaceted school plan; and creating a climate of integrity, inquiry, and continuous improvement. Zepeda (2003), likewise mentioned that principals can promote a positive culture by acting in a certain way that sends signals to teachers and students that they can achieve more.

Furthermore, Sahin (2011) emphasized that administrators or principals should demonstrate instructional leadership skills that will help develop the unity of vision and mission of the organization and improve the culture of progress as well as the culture of education.

Moreover, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (2001) defines instructional leadership as leading learning communities, in which staff members meet on a regular basis to discuss their work, collaborate to solve problems, reflect on their jobs, and take responsibility for what students learn. In a learning community, instructional leaders make adult learning a priority, set high expectations for performance, create a culture of continuous learning for adults, and get the community's support for school success.

Likewise, Lashway (2002) suggested that the school administrators like the principal must acquire specific skills to deliver the responsibilities as an instructional leader. The certain skills posited were interpersonal skill, planning skills, instructional observation skills, and research and evaluation skills.

On the one hand, Daing (2015) emphasized the notion that teachers need to be provided with the training, teaching tools, and the support they need to help all students reach high performance levels. Specifically, teachers need access to curriculum guides, textbooks, or specific training connected to the school curriculum. They need access to lessons or teaching units that match curriculum goals. They need training on using assessment results to diagnose learning gaps.

On the other hand, Balena (2013) characterized instructional leadership as a mutually respectful practice of working together to enhance the quality of teaching and learning. They determined that the setting of directions, developing people, engaging in collaboration, and using data and research as indicators of the effectiveness of teaching and learning, which are considered as the primary components of instructional leadership.

The instructional leadership of the school heads in an academic organization is a critical factor in the success of a school's improvement in initiatives and the overall effectiveness of the school. Their primary obligation is to ensure the promotion of learning and success for all students. They can only accomplish this tremendous responsibility if they give time in stimulating learning, in encouraging collaboration, in giving support, and in helping the enhancement of the school's curriculum, assessment and instruction that greatly affect the teacher's teaching performance and efficacy (Daing, 2015).

In South African school settings school heads are recognized as leaders and managers who have a great role to impact on the livelihood of their schools by setting the tone and ethos of teaching and learning activities (Clarke, 2012; Naidu et al., 2008). School heads play very significant role towards the success of their schools. They carry countless responsibilities (Shen & Cooley, 2010) to manage the school administration matters such as budget and timetables, students' discipline and attendance, co-curriculum activities, facilities, safety, recruitment and monitoring of teachers, assessments, curriculum, teaching and learning materials professional development (Murphy et al., 2007), relationships with teachers and students (Quinn, 2002), and communication with parents and the surrounding community (Horng et al., 2010; Goldring et al., 2008; Spillane et al., 2007)

A school head helps the school to attain high level of performance through utilization of its resources (Lunenberg, 2001). It is expected that school head as a leader, operation and manager have the knowledge, skills, and abilities to promote the success of all students by managing the school organization and resources in a way that promotes a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

The study of Sindhvad (2009) on the school principals' capacity as instructional leaders found out that in Asia many school principals were not prepared for their new role and function in school head. More so, school heads as leaders and managers set the direction the schools are going. They are basically responsible in the overall operations of the school. The tremendous changes in scope, variety of competencies, and necessary skills of managing the school make their functions more complex, diverse, and challenging.

In addition, these functions of school heads as instructional leaders and managers are essential to the areas of management namely: the vision, mission and goals of the institution, curriculum, and instruction, financial and budgeting, school plant and facilities, student services, community relations, and the school improvement plan. The identification of these competencies needed to function on these areas brings forth the challenges faced by school heads everyday where accountability, challenges, and integrity as leaders and managers remain at stake. The essential competencies in these areas of management greatly influence the effectiveness and efficiency of the performance of the school.

Challenges of Novice Academic Heads

Transitioning from classroom teaching to school leadership tasks is usually not an easy process. Though many, particularly those who are not in the field of education will think that it is a natural progression for teachers to become academic leaders, re-

searches show that novice academic heads face many challenges in the transition. Classroom teaching and school leadership are two different but complementary domains in education. A classroom teacher who is offered a leadership role may not immediately accept the appointment due to various reasons.

Being an unattractive job, teachers hesitate to take school leadership roles. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries are facing a smaller number of applications for principal positions. There are countries finding difficulty in having suitable candidates. The number of applicants has considerably declined over the years. Researches indicate that negative images attached to the position, particularly overburdened roles, working conditions, inadequate salaries, and rewards, including lack of preparation and training are the top reasons for becoming uninterested to apply. In several countries, assistant principals and teachers don't show interest to a higher leadership position due to small additional reward that is not commensurate with the workload and duties. The younger generation of school leaders show a lack of interest in the principalship because of increased stress and work overload (Pont, Nusche & Moorman, 2011).

Promotion to leadership positions is always accompanied by challenges, including issues. A novice educational leader will encounter challenges in the transition. Any transition may be smooth or challenging that can be attributed to different factors. The factors that contributed to difficult transitions included strained interpersonal relations, poor plant maintenance, and lack of teacher support and buy-in. Factors contributing to smooth transitions included cooperative staff, working systems already in place at the schools, and familiarity with the system. The new principals reported several challenges while in their new roles, ranging from teacher lateness to student misbehavior. However, the two challenges that emerged as most significant were interpersonal relations and plant maintenance. The other relatively significant challenge reported was a lack of teacher buy-in for the vision of the respective principals (Van Jaarsveld, Mentz & Challens, 2015).

Another study revealed another challenge, particularly in rural district schools which is on culture. Some participants struggled with the specific context of the rural school. This challenge entails more preparation since many participants had no experience in a rural setting. Unaware of the culture and characteristics of the rural school, including stakeholders who have a sense of ownership in the school, novice principals had to contend with the community. Such challenges could have been avoided if they have a clearer understanding of rural education (Edwards, 2016).

In the Philippines, personal challenges are encountered by novice school heads who are members of religious congregations. They are appointed as principals out of obedience from their superiors even without knowledge and experience in managing schools. During their three-year term, they enroll in graduate school for a degree in educational leadership to equip themselves with theories (De Guzman, 2007). As they juggle school leadership tasks and graduate studies, many are not able to complete their master's degree. There is pressure to qualify themselves since they lacked the required educational qualifications particularly a master's degree. Due to the duties and responsibilities of being a school head, they are not able to earn the degree. In a teacher university that offers educational leadership and management in the graduate school, the number of graduates continue to be few. It was concluded that graduate students need more commitment and grit to complete their graduate studies (Zulieta, Sudarsana, Arrieta & Ancho, 2020).

In another study, it showed how principals face the gaps between theory, policy, and practice but there are few kinds of research conducted on these dynamics. Ethical leadership is emphasized in leadership training in the Philippines due to the presence of corruption and nepotism in its culture. The preparation for the challenges that principals will face should include sensitivity to the culture (Sutherland & Brooks, 2013).

A study on novice rural principals revealed that eight themes emerged on the challenges they encountered namely supervision of staff, sense of isolation, work life balance, the role of the superintendent, changing school boards, legacy of the predecessor, demands of the community, and board succession planning. Five of the eight themes are already found in the literature related to this study. These eight themes all impacted on the novice rural principals and their sense of success or failure in those critical first two years of the principalship. To the novice principals, no challenge was considered a big obstacle. However, when multiple challenges pile up, they are overwhelmed by the volume of work. Some participants felt supported because of the mentors and effective networking. Unfortunately, others felt that they were alone in dealing with the demands of their new responsibility (Edwards, 2016). Another study found out that novice principals were "shocked" as they transitioned into their new roles. The sense of bigger responsibility was tremendous and contributed to the other problems in being a principal namely task volume, diversity, and unpredictability. The "shock" and conditions to the transition either lessened or made the level of practice problems they faced (Spillane & Lee, 2013).

Despite the challenges they encountered, novice academic heads found ways to handle the issues. A study revealed that school headteachers experienced loneliness and isolation, particularly during the first month of their appointment. However, they managed their isolation through various approaches like having informal discussions with teachers to get to know them more. Moreover, the academic heads shared experiences and created an open environment for interaction with their teachers (Tahir, Thakib, Hamzah, Said & Musah, 2016).

The challenges encountered by novice academic leaders appear to be very overwhelming and difficult, but manageable if the proper preparations are provided. Researches revealed that novice academic leaders suggested programs that will assist future academic administrators before assuming the new role.

Preparing for the Leadership Challenge

School leadership is a challenging and demanding academic work that requires serious preparation. Novice and experienced academic leaders identified the challenges, and proposed programs to address them. To prepare for these challenges, become more confident in taking the new task, leadership training should be provided to novice academic leaders. Getting the right people for the principalship matters, including how they are trained for the position. New principals had acknowledged their lack of formal preparation but coped through in-service training and learnings from experience. Due to minimal preparation, they received, the more they became apprehensive in assuming the new role (Thody, Papanoum, Johansson & Pashiardis, 2007).

Quality school leadership is what every educational institution desire, particularly as it looks forward to the challenges of leadership. It is essential for school improvement as the leadership workforce is aging and close to retirement. With this concern, many schools in different countries provide leadership training for novice academic leaders, but they are optional. Such programs will assist in shaping initial school leadership practices and create networks where leaders can share their concerns. Moreover, it should provide an understanding and balance between theoretical and practical knowledge, including self-study (Schleicher, 2012).

Based on experience, new principals are left to sink or swim in their new tasks. In most cases, they are presumed to be prepared to have completed their graduate studies or a university training program. They get a few directions, insincere encouragement, or sporadic practical tip. However, this kind of attitude is changing because of the realization of having a shortage of high-quality school leaders. In recruiting promising school leaders, nurturing comes after their recruitment (Lashway, 2003).

The area that some participants struggled with and believed more preparation should be done was the specific context of the rural school. Many participants had no experience in a rural setting, either as a student themselves or as a teacher. They were unaware of the unique culture and characteristics of the rural school, including the sense of ownership parents, had towards the school, the role and status long-serving staff members had in the school and with the parents, and the seemingly blurred line between school and community. The mistakes or challenges some of the participants faced could have been avoided with a more detailed understanding of rural education (Edwards, 2016).

Whether in an urban or rural area, the dynamics of school leadership change. School leadership continues to evolve. The idea of growing school leadership entails that task in the school, including the qualities required to do them effectively are clear and understood. In every school, there is a variety of level of leadership that involves different degrees of complexity and accountability. Learning area head, discipline coordinator, headteacher, and assistant principal are some of the different levels of school leadership (West-Burnham, 2004). Adapting to the dynamics of school leadership today, academic heads suggested solutions to the challenges they encountered to prepare future academic leaders in handling similar issues.

Four major solutions are recommended to overcome isolation in the leadership task namely continuous discussions with other teachers, attitude change among novice headteachers, establishing a network with other academic heads, and strengthening teamwork. The ability to adapt oneself to their fellow teachers will assist in the performance of one's duties. Notably, communication with the other members of the school community, particularly the academic heads, teachers, and non-teaching is important to ensure the effective dissemination of information. Through formal and informal meetings, novice academic heads can interact, exchange ideas, give comments, and recommendations leading to the development of the school community (Tahir, Thakib, Hamzah, Said & Musah, 2016).

Researches on leadership succession and preparation often mention the importance of mentorship. Every incoming academic leader need mentorship from senior academic heads, particularly in the beginning years. They need support and guidance from experienced academic leaders, specifically in developing required skills like effective communication with teachers, time management, and supervision of instruction to become effective academic leaders. Hence, preparing new academic leaders like principals becomes an integral component of effective school systems. Effective and well-prepared mentoring programs, which provide an appropriate match between mentors and mentees, are essential to assist new principals, and other academic heads (Gumus 2019). It cannot be assumed that newly appointed academic leaders or principals have all the skills and competencies to lead their schools successfully. The job is considered lonely and intimidating, but it can be resolved through an effective mentoring program. Having competent and experienced mentors will guide the new academic heads employing structured, reflective activities and experiences. (Holloway, 2004). This is evident when new headteachers validated that mentoring had enhanced significantly their professional values as middle school managers. Through this, a culture of knowledge sharing was born that gave them more confidence and improved their practical knowledge on educational leadership (Tahir, Haruzuan, Said, Daud, Vazhathodi & Khan, 2015).

The provision of effective mentoring programs is supported by the study of the Southern Regional Education Board in Atlanta, USA. It was explained that mentoring programs give initial credentialing to aspiring principals by asking them to demonstrate mastery of competencies before credible mentors. However, reality shows that many new academic leaders are left to "learn on the job." They plan and design programs without the guidance of their successful peers. Considering the increasing amount of accountability, the training for principals or any academic leader should not be a "sink-or-swim" approach. Preparing future or new academic leaders is not about cutting corners, but a tedious process to enable them to grow. Quality school leaders result in quality schools. They work hard to get the job done and lead the school to its vision. Poorly prepared school leaders remain in the system and hinder the growth of the school. Hence, the mentoring program must be a rigorous and challenging internship supervised by experts in educa-

tional leadership (Board, S. R. E. 2009).

Aside from mentorship, senior and novice school leaders propose an induction program for newly appointed academic heads. Different forms of induction programs are provided by the United States, Australia, Hungary, and Denmark to ensure the readiness of the incoming academic leaders. Only 18% of academic leaders felt prepared when they assumed office.

School Governance

Decentralization reforms have been introduced since the 80's in different parts of the developed and developing world. In developing world countries, the shift from centralized to decentralized systems has often occurred under the influence of international donor agencies and global education institutions (Kingdon et al., 2014) arguing that decentralization and increased autonomy and accountability at the local level ensures that schools respond to local priorities and values, increasing client satisfaction and improving educational outcomes overall (Barrera-Osorio, 2009; Bruns et al, 2011). Evidence to support the claimed benefits of systemic decentralization is less optimistic. Research on the politics of decentralization indicates that many of the expected benefits do not apply particularly in the context of poor rural areas where "local elite close up the spaces for wider community representation and participation in school affairs." (Kingdon et al., 2014, p.2).

Decentralization in the form of school-based management (SBM) varies according to whom the authority for decision-making is devolved (e.g. principal, teachers, parents, or a combination between the three) and the activities over which authority is being provided (e.g. budget allocation, hiring and firing of teachers and other school staff, curriculum development, textbooks and other educational materials, infrastructure improvement, monitoring and evaluating of teacher performance and student outcomes). Examples of SBM are well documented around the world, although rigorous evaluations of SBM initiatives programs are less accessible. Overall, the evidence suggests: (1) SBM policies do change the dynamics of the school, mobilizing either parents or teachers to get more involved; (2) a positive impact in reducing repetition rates, failure rates, and to a lesser degree, dropout rates; and (3) mixed evidence on the relationship to student outcomes depending on the country, with some studies showing positive association (e.g. El Salvador, Kenya, Mexico, and Nicaragua) and other showing no effects on standardized tests scores (e.g. Brazil and Honduras) (Bruns et al 2011).

Another policy explored globally and in the last decade in Africa is the Capitation Grants schemes, where fixed amount of funds is introduced based on the number of students enrolled as a way of replacing revenue lost by schools due to abolition of school fees and contributions as part of universal primary education policy mandates. Capitation Grants funds are meant to finance the purchase of textbooks and teaching materials, fund repairs, administration materials and examination expenses. These funds are also meant to contribute to the reduction of social exclusion as children from poor households can more easily afford to attend school. The evidence in Africa (e.g. Ghana, Tanzania) suggests net enrolment rose sharply after the introduction of capitation grants, especially in the early grades of elementary (Uwazi, 2010; Akyeamong, 2011); however, the enrolment growth places a greater challenge for systems unprepared to deal with increasing enrolments in terms of infrastructure and with attendance and dropout issues associated with the influx of larger numbers of previously unserved students. Studies show that the benefits of capitation grants are sometimes offset by budget and management issues, such as insufficient grant funds to buy the minimum teaching materials and textbooks, money budgeted centrally that is not always received at the schools, lack of clarity about the timing of disbursements, and funds arriving in small amounts rather than meaningful amounts, all of which causes difficulties at school level budget planning (Uwazi, 2010). Despite clear gains in funding levels and control at the school level over funds for material resources, the contribution of capitation grants to improved quality learning outcomes are unclear.

School governance also varies among countries in terms of type and level of involvement of the private sector in education. Private sector interests in many countries have been increasingly involved in the form of philanthropic initiatives, private management of public schools (e.g. contract schools and charter schools in the US, School Management Initiatives in Pakistan, Concession schools in Colombia), government purchase of educational services from private schools (e.g. secondary education in Uganda, and other experiences in Ivory Coast, the Philippines, New Zealand, Venezuela, and Pakistan); and voucher programmes that enable parents to choose providers in a competitive market place of public and private school providers (e.g. Colombia, New Zealand, Netherlands, Milwaukee in the US, Pakistan, and Chile) (LaRocque, 2008). Despite the increasing presence of government subsidized and non-subsidized private education provisions around the world, studies of the effects on school quality and improvement and on education systems overall are inconclusive. Here we summarize evidence from a recent review of research on privatization in developing countries, where the emphasis is on low-cost private schools for lower income families (Day Ashley et al., 2014).

The strongest evidence suggests improved teaching in private schools in terms of higher levels of teacher presence, teaching activity and practices associated with improved results. These findings seem contradictory to the finding that teachers in low-cost private schools that target lower income families are often less qualified, have lower salaries and weak job security in comparison to their public-school counterparts. One explanation is that teachers are more accountable to their employers in private schools, and are less likely to be absent from school or not actively teaching in the classroom as expected. A contributing factor is that private school teachers may be more compliant with employer expectations regarding the use of selected instructional programs, materials and practices. At the same time, researchers note an absence of consistency in defining high quality teaching in the literature on privatization, and the difficulty comparing findings between schools or countries. In sum, the evidence that the quality of teaching prac-

tices is actually better in private schools is not conclusive at the present time (Hermosilla, 2014).

There is mixed evidence that private school pupils achieve better learning outcomes. Many of the studies do not control adequately for the effects of students' background on student learning outcomes or show longitudinal evidence of student and school performance. Evidence on the effects of private schools on students' outcomes is not uniform across countries, different types of private school configurations, and even across subject matters. There is moderate evidence that the costs of education delivery can be lower in private schools in comparison to public schools. This is often attributable to lower teacher salaries and benefits (Hermosilla, 2014).

The emergence and expansion of low-cost private schools in regions of the developing world such as Africa, is often argued as means of achieving goals of universal access as well as improvements in quality. The evidence is weak and inconclusive, however, on how well private schools geographically and demographically reach the poor and otherwise traditionally marginalized families and students in urban and rural areas, notwithstanding the lower costs (Hermosilla, 2014).

The relationship between private schools and parents is not well understood, for example, whether private schools routinely account for results to users, are responsive to demands and complaints, or involve parents in decision-making and student learning in positive ways. Research on parent perceptions of private schools indicates that parents often believe that they are of better quality than public schools, although parents' perception of better quality are likely to be informed informally and not by actual comparative evidence of student performance (Hermosilla, 2014).

Conclusion

Leadership and Governance provides a Development Plan established collaboratively by the stakeholders of the school. The school is organized by a clear structure and work arrangements that promote shared leadership and governance and define the roles and responsibilities of the stakeholders. Thus, good governance and leadership are both prerequisites in achieving academic excellence and development as a whole.

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