PART 1
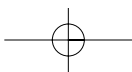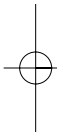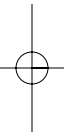
THE CHANGING ROLE AND NATURE OF HEADSHIP

1

A Changing Discourse: From Management to Leadership

Notions of leadership and management
Theories of leadership
A changing discourse

This chapter considers the role of school leaders and especially headteachers, within the context of what we know about effective leadership and management. It begins with a brief section on the nature of leadership before offering an overview of theories of leadership and the main concepts associated with educational management and leadership. The concepts of leadership, management and administration are differentiated and leadership theories briefly reviewed from the 'great man' theories of the early twentieth century through to modern conceptions of leadership – transformational, distributed and learning-centred. Finally, we explore the changing discourse – from management and management competences to leadership and leadership development, culminating in the setting up of the National College for School Leadership.

NOTIONS OF LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Numerous research studies and reports from school inspectors and others, claim that leadership, especially headship, is a crucial factor in school effectiveness and the key to organisational success and improvement. Our own work on secondary heads in the late 1980s (Weindling and Earley, 1987) reiterated what many studies were suggesting – that the quality of those at the organisational apex or how headship was enacted – was crucially important to school success. Ours was not a study of the relationship between leadership and school effectiveness however. Those studies that have specifically considered this matter (e.g. Hallinger and Heck, 1998; 1999; 2003) argue that the effect of leaders, including headteachers, is largely *indirect*; what heads do and say, how they demonstrate leadership, does affect pupil learning outcomes but it is largely through the actions of others, most obviously teachers, that the effects of school leadership are mediated. Achieving results through others is the essence of leadership and it is the 'avenues of leader influence' that matter most (Hallinger and Heck, 2003, pp. 220–6).

Leadership as a concept has always been widely written about – probably more so than any other single topic in educational management and administration – and its importance has long been recognised. Leadership itself however remains an elusive concept as Leithwood et al. note:

> Leadership as a concept and a set of practices has been the subject of an enormous quantity of popular and academic literature … Arguably, a great deal has been learned about leadership over the last century. But this has not depended on any clear, agreed definition of the concept, as essential as this would seem at first glance.
>
> (Leithwood et al., 1999, p. 5)

One of the first things that the National College for School Leadership did when it was set up in England in November 2000 was to commission a series of reviews of the school leadership literature. One of these, by Bush and Glover (2003), quoted Larry Cuban who over 15 years ago stated that there were 'more than 350 definitions of leadership but no clear and unequivocal understanding as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders' (1988, p. 190, cited in Bush and Glover, 2003, p. 4). Since that time of course there have been many other studies of leadership – several hundred per year! – and Mullen et al. (2002) talk about a 'veritable cascade' of publications on leadership and associated concepts. In their useful overview of the literature, Bush and Glover explore various definitions of school leadership (ibid., pp. 4–8) before offering their own working definition. They state that:

> Leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision.
>
> (ibid., p. 8)

As the result of a century or more of learning about leadership we have some shared insights into the nature of leadership and how it differs from management and administration. But for some, leadership is like beauty – it is in the eyes of the beholder – although most people 'recognise it when they see it!'

Any analysis of leadership would, initially, need to acknowledge two central factors: the relationship between leadership, power and authority (with authority defined as legitimate power or, following Bush and Glover, influence); and that leadership is about groups, and the interaction of people in groups. There are according to Fidler (1997) two key features associated with leadership:

● a sense of purpose and confidence that is engendered in followers
● the followers are influenced towards goal or task achievement.

Indeed, the emphasis is as much on the followers or followership (the led) and the task, rather than on the individual as leader. Similarly, as we show later, recent writing on leadership has emphasised that there is a need for leadership to be demonstrated at all levels in an organisation and not just at the top.

Over the years there has been considerable discussion in the literature about the similarities and differences between the notions of leadership, management and administration. The terms tend to have differing definitions; for example the meaning of administration in North America and Australasia is quite different from that in the UK where it tends to be associated with 'lower level' and more operational matters than leadership or management. Leadership tends to be more formative, proactive and problem-solving, dealing with such things as values, vision and mission, whereas the concerns of management are more to do with the execution, planning, organising and deploying of resources, or 'making things happen'. Management is focused more on providing order and consistency to organisations, while leadership is focused on producing change and movement (Kotter, 1990, cited in Fidler and Atton, 2004).

The differences between the concepts have been considered in detail by Bush and Glover (2003), and by Ofsted (2003a) in the latest inspection framework for schools in England. The former note that:

> Leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. It involves inspiring and supporting others towards the achievement of a vision for the school that is based on clear personal and professional values. Management is the implementation of school policies and the efficient and effective maintenance of the school's current activities.

> (Bush and Glover, 2003, p. 10)

The central inspection agency in England (Ofsted, 2003a) has suggested some key differences (see Figure 1.1). Interestingly, Ofsted makes a clear distinction between leadership, management and governance – the three central themes of this book. The inspection framework, used in all state schools since September 2003, notes that:

> Leadership and management at all levels in the school should be judged by their effect on the quality and standards of the school. Leadership should provide the drive and direction for raising achievement, while management should make best use of the resources and processes to make this happen. Management includes effective evaluation, planning, performance management and staff development. Inspectors should consider the extent to which leadership is embedded throughout the school and not vested solely in the senior staff. They should explore how well the leadership team creates a climate for learning and whether the school is an effective learning organisation.

> (ibid., p. x)

How well is the school led and managed?

☐ The *governance* of the school

Assessing the extent to which the governing body:
■ *helps shape the vision and direction of the school;*
■ *ensures that the school fulfils its statutory duties, including promoting inclusive policies in relation to special educational needs, race equality, disability and sex;*
■ *has a good understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of the school;*
■ *challenges and supports the senior management team.*

☐ The quality of *leadership* of the school, particularly by the headteacher, senior team and other staff with responsibilities

Assessing the extent to which:
■ *leadership shows clear vision, a sense of purpose and high aspirations for the school, with a relentless focus on pupils' achievement;*
■ *strategic planning reflects and promotes the school's ambitions and goals;*
■ *leaders inspire, motivate and influence staff and pupils;*
■ *leaders create effective teams;*
■ *there is knowledgeable and innovative leadership of teaching and the curriculum;*
■ *leaders are committed to running an equitable and inclusive school, in which each individual matters;*
■ *leaders provide good role models for other staff and pupils.*

☐ The effectiveness of *management*

Assessing the extent to which:
■ *the school undertakes rigorous self-evaluation and uses the findings effectively;*
■ *the school monitors performance data, reviews patterns and takes appropriate action;*
■ *performance management of staff, including support staff, is thorough and effective in bringing about improvement;*
■ *a commitment to staff development is reflected in effective induction and professional development strategies and, where possible, the school's contribution to initial teacher training;*
■ *the recruitment, retention, deployment and workload of staff are well managed, and support staff are well deployed to make teachers' work more effective;*
■ *approaches to financial and resource management help the school to achieve its educational priorities;*
■ *the principles of best value are central to the school's management and use of resources.*

Figure 1.1   Leadership, management and governance – inspectors' questions (Ofsted, 2003a)

Most writers who make the distinction between 'leadership' and 'management' recognise that the two concepts overlap and that both are necessary for organisational success. Both are about motivating people and giving a sense of purpose to the school and their role in achieving it. The terms 'transformational' leadership and 'transactional' leadership are also sometimes used to differentiate the two. Such distinctions are helpful conceptually but effective leaders need to draw upon a wide repertoire of both management and leadership skills. Organisational success depends on both effective leadership and management as well as effective governance. The link between governance, leadership and management, and standards and quality is made more directly

- The proportion of schools in which leadership and management are good or better has increased significantly since 1996/97. The proportion of schools with excellent or very good leadership and management has more than doubled over the same period. There is, however, a small minority of schools in which leadership and management are still unsatisfactory or poor
- Aspects of leadership in schools are generally better than aspects of management
- There is more very good leadership and management in secondary schools than in primary schools
- The monitoring, evaluation and development of teaching and the school's strategy for appraisal and performance management are aspects of management which are still in need of improvement in many schools
- There is a strong link between the quality of leadership and management of the headteacher and key staff in a school and the quality of teaching
- Strong leadership and good management are very important in bringing about improvement in schools, particularly in schools which are implementing special programmes to address low achievement and social inclusion, including those facing challenging circumstances
- Strong leadership and good management are very important in ensuring a broad and balanced curriculum in primary schools and good subject teaching in secondary schools
- The way in which the characteristics of strong leadership and good management are applied in different circumstances is of fundamental importance.

Figure 1.2   Main findings regarding leadership and management (Ofsted, 2003b)

than in earlier versions of the Ofsted framework for inspecting schools (Ofsted, 1999a; 2003a).

The Education Reform Act 1988 reallocated the balance of responsibilities and authority for managing schools from LEAs to the headteacher and governors of individual schools. This shifted a much greater responsibility for decision-making to school level. In recent years, the proportion of funding delegated to schools' own control has increased (to around 90 percent) and this has added to the powers of headteachers and governing bodies to manage their schools.

Schools have been inspected since 1993 so what do we know about the quality of their leadership, management and governance? Ofsted has recently published an account of this (Ofsted, 2003b) and it is worth looking at their main findings (those that relate to governance are considered in Chapter 12). These are shown in Figure 1.2. A key finding – which may indeed be one of the significant consequences of Ofsted inspections themselves – was that the proportion of schools with 'excellent' or 'very good' leadership and management has more than doubled over the last five years.

Evidence from Ofsted inspections suggests that schools do better on some of the key aspects of leadership than on those of management. The most effective aspects of the work of both primary and secondary headteachers are ensuring a clear educational direction, and reflecting the school's aims and values in its work. Both these aspects suggest headteachers 'leading from the front', setting the school's agenda and direction, and promoting shared values in pursuit of the school's aims. Headteachers are less effective in carrying out some of their managerial responsibilities, such as establishing effective

governing bodies, monitoring teaching, and developing appraisal and performance management systems.

The above is of particular interest to us because, as we argue later, there is a need to ensure that the current concern, indeed preoccupation, with 'leadership' does not marginalise the importance of management and management development. Bush and Glover are of a similar mind: 'Given the now widely accepted distinction between leadership, an influence process based on values and a clearly articulated vision leading to change, and management, the effective implementation of decisions based mainly on notions of maintenance, it is vital that *both dimensions of this duality are given equal prominence'* (2003, p. 10, our emphasis). They remind us of Bolman and Deals's important comment that:

> Leading and managing are distinct, but both are important. Organisations, which are over managed but under led eventually lose any sense of spirit or purpose. Poorly managed organisations with strong charismatic leaders may soar temporarily only to crash shortly thereafter. The challenge of modern organisations requires the objective perspective of the manager as well as the brilliant flashes of vision and commitment wise leadership provides.
>
> (Bolman and Deal, 1997, pp. xiii–xiv)

Both aspects are necessary for successful schools and we agree with Bush and Glover who argue that 'in the current policy climate, schools require both visionary leadership and effective management' (2003, p. 10). But is there a danger that the latter is being sidelined in the drive to develop the leaders of our schools? The reality, of course, is that leaders and managers are almost indistinguishable and both are needed for successful schools. In fact Pedlar et al. (2003), writing in a business context, have recently noted that management *is* leadership: the ability to mobilise collective action to face a challenge. Leadership is a response to challenge which puts the emphasis on the here and now, a task and a context. For Pedlar et al., leadership therefore has little meaning in the abstract.

THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Many theories have been advanced over the years to explain how leaders lead, whether in schools or elsewhere. Bush and Glover build on the work of Leithwood et al. (1999) to develop a typology of leadership consisting of eight broad theories (Bush and Glover, 2003, pp. 11–22). These are:

- instructional leadership
- transformational leadership
- moral leadership
- participative leadership
- managerial leadership
- post-modern leadership

- interpersonal leadership
- contingent leadership.

This is a useful typology but leadership can, of course, be conceptualised or theorised in many other ways. We would like to suggest that leadership theory can be broadly categorised, chronologically, under five headings. What is interesting about these five theories is that it could be said that we have come full circle with what might broadly be termed personal 'trait' theories that reappeared in the late 1990s and early 2000s. These five theories are:

- trait theory (leadership as an attribute of personality)
- style theory (leadership as management style)
- contingency theory (leadership as the conjunction of the person and the situation)
- power/influence theory (a function of power and how it is exercised)
- personal trait theory (effective leadership as superior individual performance).

To this list we wish to add a sixth – *learning-centred leadership* – which is beginning to gain ascendancy as it is promulgated by the NCSL. Brief consideration is given below to each of the first four theories, whilst modern 'personal trait' theory is examined in more detail and learning-centred leadership is explored further in the last section.

Trait theories

'Trait' theories (or 'great man' theories), popular in the 1920s, were concerned to study the attributes and characteristics of successful leaders, particularly military leaders, in order to describe what was different about them. Despite a lot of research pointing to a number of characteristics, there was little consistency in the findings. Traits most consistently found included intelligence, self-confidence, high energy levels and dominance.

Style theory

'Style' theories became popular from the 1930s onwards initially through the work of Lippitt and White in the USA, who studied autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles, and their effects on participants at summer camps. This approach led to the development of number of self-completion questionnaires that attempted to ascertain types of leader. Blake and Mouton's managerial grid, developed in the 1960s, was one of the better known of these and examined the extent to which a leader's style gave emphasis to 'people' or to 'task' (Blake and Mouton, 1964). Was the leader's concern for relationships (were they people orientated), or to achieve results (task orientated)? These two-dimensional models were further developed – for example, McGregor's (1960) 'Theory X' and 'Theory Y' (about the leader's belief about the motivation of the led) – and included continua of leadership

styles of which Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) 'tell', 'sell', 'consult' and 'share' (or 'boss-centred' or subordinate-centred' leadership) was probably the best known. More recently, Adair's (1986) notion of 'action-centred' leadership gave importance to achieving the correct balance between achieving the *task*, building and maintaining the *team*, and developing the *individual*. The language used by various leadership theorists was slightly different but the underpinning ideas essentially the same.

Contingency theory

By the 1970s and early 1980s the notion that the context within which leadership was enacted was beginning to come to the fore and Fiedler's (1967) 'contingency' theory and Blanchard and Hersey's notion of 'situational leadership' gained prominence. Contingency theory perceived leadership as the conjunction of person and the situation, and gave consideration to the power of the leader, the structure of the task and the leader-led relationship. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) developed a complex model of four leadership styles – delegating, supporting, coaching and directing – which depended on such factors as the level of support needed and the development level of team members. The development level of individuals was said to depend on competence and commitment. Situational leadership therefore meant the leader (at any level in the organisation) choosing the right style of leadership behaviour to suit both the development level of the team member and the job or task.

Power and influence

Power/influence theories of leadership see leadership as a function of power and how that power is exercised (e.g. Pfeffer, 1992). Key questions for such theorists would include who exerts influence, what are the sources of that influence and what are the purposes and outcomes of influence. Leithwood and colleagues (1999) have used the notion of power and influence to categorise leadership theories into a number of types – instructional, transformational, moral, participative, managerial and contingent.

Personal trait theory

The question needs to be asked whether modern theories of leadership, especially those which give emphasis to notions of competence and capability, are returning to the earlier 'trait' theories, albeit perhaps in more sophisticated guises. Have we turned full circle with the emphasis on effective leadership as 'superior' individual performance and the competence approach stressing the qualities of the person and the skills they possess? More recent notions of leadership styles and effective performance give prominence to such factors.

One of us (DW) was involved in an influential study into effective leadership and management commissioned by the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) in the early 1990s (Bolam et al., 1993). The research

focused on those schools whose staff felt they were well managed and led. Through the use of questionnaire surveys of the 57 schools and detailed case studies it highlighted many factors making for effectiveness (see Chapter 9). In particular it noted that effective leaders were characterised by particular managerial and personal qualities. For example, *ineffective* leaders were said to demonstrate the following:

Managerial qualities

● Being insufficiently decisive.
● Failing to delegate sufficiently or leaving staff too much to their own concerns.
● Failing to unite the staff, and to build a sense of a community whose members were all pulling together.
● Failing to communicate effectively.
● Lacking proficiency in managing fellow professionals.
● Failing to display interest in and concern for staff, or to praise and celebrate their achievements.
● Being disorganised and insufficiently thorough, especially as regards administration.

Personal qualities

● Lacking dynamism and failing to inspire.
● Being insufficiently forceful.
● Failing to be at ease with others.
● Inability to accept any form of questioning or perceived criticism.

Very similar findings emerged from our earlier studies of headship (Weindling and Earley, 1987, p. 70) and middle managers (Earley and Fletcher-Campbell, 1989, p. 52). Both these research projects investigated teachers' and others' perceptions of effectiveness. How leaders enact leadership or leadership styles are important as they impact on how people feel and are motivated to perform at higher levels. It is known that effective leaders use a range of styles according to the demands of the situation (contingent or situational leadership). Research by the management consultancy firm Hay-McBer (better known in England as the Hay Group), who were responsible for developing the 'Leadership Programme for Serving Heads' in England, suggested six leadership styles. These are:

● coercive (main objective: immediate compliance)
● authoritative (providing long-term direction and vision for staff)
● affiliative (creating harmony among staff and between leaders and staff)
● democratic (building commitment among staff and generating new ideas)
● pacesetting (accomplishing tasks to high standards of excellence)
● coaching (main objective: long term professional development of staff).

Other research in business and industry has shown that highly effective leaders are characterised by such things as an awareness of the environment, they are positive and optimistic and possess such traits as the desire to be best, a willingness to take risks and to create a 'no blame' culture. They also surround themselves with good people, continually ask for feedback and are self-evaluative. Effective leaders are said to like people, they relate well to them and enjoy seeing them grow (in Bennis's terms 'releasing intellectual capital' [1999]). They are interested in new ideas and challenges. But it is lonely at the top of any organisation and there is a need for external support of some kind. Effective leaders are said to operate as facilitators, advisers, teachers, supporters and coaches.

In recent years the notion of 'emotional intelligence' has been seen as critically important to effective leadership and 'superior performance'. According to Daniel Goleman (1996; 1998; Goleman et al., 2002), the leading exponent of the concept, the higher an individual rises in an organisation the more important emotional intelligence (EQ) becomes. He claims there are five domains of EQ:

- self-awareness (ability to recognise one's emotions, strengths/weaknesses, a sense of self-worth/confidence)
- self-regulation (ability to control your emotions rather than allowing them to control you)
- motivation (strength of will needed to meet goals, drive to improve, initiative, etc.)
- empathy
- social skills.

The first three domains relate to an individual's emotions, while empathy and social skills refer to other people's emotions: the ability to recognise them and to nurture relationships or inspire others.

As far as job performance is concerned Goleman (1998) claims that EQ is (at least) twice as important as IQ or technical skills. He states that three 'motivational competences' typify outstanding performance of individuals. These are:

- achievement drive (striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence)
- commitment (embracing the vision and goals)
- initiative and optimism (mobilising people to seize opportunities and allowing them to take setbacks and obstacles in their stride).

Hay-McBer or the Hay Group (of which Goleman is a partner) have studied individual leaders, whom they call 'star' performers and compared them with average performers. They claim the former are in possession of EQ competences. It is also believed that leaders can obtain 30 percent extra from their people if they are able to 'light their blue touch paper'. This 'discretionary

effort' is said to be strongly affected by the climate that is personally felt and that up to 70 percent of that climate is created by the team leader, by the way they behave and conduct their affairs. Advocates of emotional intelligence claim that if leaders – and not only those at the top of the organisation, but all those with a leadership role – can ignite that 'touch paper' then it is possible to obtain that extra performance from team members. It is stated that for leaders (at all levels) EQ is 90 percent of what separates 'star' performers from others.

In the educational world there is a growing body of research on highly effective practitioners. For example, a small-scale study of highly effective headteachers in England found that they were characterised by the following:

1   The ability to work simultaneously on a variety of issues and problems.
2   Has clear, shared values and vision.
3   Passion for pupils' development and achievement.
4   Understands the need for and practices well developed interpersonal skills.
5   Sets high expectations.
6   Uses monitoring and evaluation for improvement.
7   Prepared to take risks.
8   High levels of knowledge, understanding and professional confidence.
9   Appropriate use of structures and systems.
10 Efficient use of time.
11 Political awareness and skills.
12 Integrated approach to strategic and operational issues.
13 Whole school perspective and approach.
14 Positive commitment to staff development (Lawlor and Sills, 1999).

The methodology used by Hay-McBer (critical incident analysis and behavioural event interviews) has also been deployed to identify highly effective classroom teachers (Hay-McBer, 2000).

A CHANGING DISCOURSE – FROM MANAGEMENT TO THE LEADERSHIP OF LEARNING

An analysis of the recent history of the training and development of heads and other senior school staff would suggest that 'leadership' as a concept is currently very much in the ascendancy. This is true not only of England. As Fullan notes 'virtually every state department in advanced countries passed new policies for developing and certifying educational leaders' (2003a, p. 16). However, a decade or so ago the dominant training and development discourse in England was not about leadership per se, as much as it was about developing and improving the 'management' of schools. Indeed, the government of the time set up a task force – the *School Management Task Force* – specifically to address such matters (DES, 1990). This was a time when the full force of the 1988 Education Reform Act was being felt and when local

management of schools (LMS) was coming into its own. Many heads were having to come to terms with a 'whole new world' and our own ongoing study of headship documented this changing scenario in full (Earley et al., 1994/95; Weindling, 1998).

At about the same time, national occupational standards for managers (not leaders) of organisations were developed by the Management Charter Initiative with a version for educational managers (Earley, 1992). Leadership (when it was discussed) was often seen as a subset of management; there was no equivalent set of leadership skills and tasks, rather the demonstration of leadership was contained within a framework of management competences (Earley, 1993). The evolving national standards for headteachers (TTA, 1998a) could also be said to be informed largely by this management-dominated even managerial discourse. They can interestingly be compared with the second version, put out for consultation in 2004, which gives greater prominence to 'leadership' (NCSL, 2003c).

The move away from 'management' and towards seeing 'leadership' as the key factor underpinning school success was fully realised when in November 2000 the National College for School Leadership was established with the explicit aim of transforming leadership in English schools. The late 1990s also saw the growth of a number of regional leadership centres, and a national college for other sectors within education has also been established. The establishment of leadership colleges and leadership centres has seen an accompanying growth of discussion and debate about the nature of leadership, its constitution and enactment. Senior management teams also were now increasingly referred to as the 'leadership group' (DfEE, 2000d) and middle managers were now seen as middle leaders (NCSL, 2003b; also see Chapters 9 and 10).

The emerging model or theory of leadership that underpins current discourse, as expounded by NCSL and others, is one of transformational and instructional leadership (e.g. see NCSL, 2001) or, even more recently, 'learning-centred leadership' (Southworth, 2003). These forms of leadership focus less on the leader – leadership is not perceived as simply a trait of an individual – and more on the sharing of leadership throughout the organisation. It is an inclusive leadership and one that is *distributed* throughout the school. In addition, and most significantly, 'learning-centred leadership' also has close connections to learning and pedagogy and andragogy. It is about learning – pupil, adult (teachers, staff and governors), organisational learning and leadership networks – and teaching. The notion of learning-centred leadership has developed from both transformational and instructional leadership.

Transformational leadership, one of the types of leadership mentioned earlier, conceptualises school leadership along a number of dimensions, and gives emphasis to building vision, establishing commitment to agreed goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualised support, and explicating and encouraging high expectations for staff (Bass, 1999; Campbell et al., 2003; Gold et al., 2003; Hallinger, 2003a; Leithwood et al., 1999). However, there is no evidence to suggest that, *on its own*, this form of leadership brings about anything but modest improved consequences for pupil outcomes, and

for this reason the transformational approach to school leadership has been complemented by the instructional leadership model (Earley et al., 2002; Hallinger, 2003a). This model typically assumes that the critical focus for attention by school leaders should be the behaviours of staff as they engage in activities directly affecting the quality of learning and teaching in the pursuit of enhanced pupil outcomes.

Instructional leaders are concerned to promote and develop their schools as learning organisations or professional learning communities in order to help bring about the school's learning goals for its pupils (see Hopkins, 2001; NCSL, 2001; 2002). Transformational leadership focuses on developing the organisation's capacity to innovate but as Hallinger (2003a) has noted, the similarities between the two leadership models are more significant than the differences. Indeed, Marks and Printy (2003) use the term 'integrated leadership' – both transformational and instructional – in eliciting the instructional leadership of teachers for improving school performance. Responsibility is shared and the head is no longer the sole instructional leader but the 'leader of instructional leaders' (Glickman, 1989, cited in Marks and Printy, 2003). Both Hallinger (2003a) and Marks and Printy (2003) see headteachers who share leadership responsibilities with others as less subject to burnout than principal 'heroes' who attempt the challenges and complexities of leadership alone.

Therefore the modern conception of leadership in schools focuses strongly on 'learning' and does not reside within any one individual. Indeed, it is seen as an essential component of the organisation and it is part of the head's role to develop leadership capacity – and learning – within the school (Harris and Lambert, 2003). Leadership is dispersed throughout the whole organisation and it is not the leader but leadership that is the key factor. Today's leadership needs to be decentralised and distributed in every part of the organisation so those on the periphery who are first to spot challenges can act instantly on them (Pedlar et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the leadership demonstrated by the chief executive or head, at the apex of the organisation, is obviously crucially important. Part of that leadership is to distribute or disperse responsibility and to empower others to give of their best and, in schools, to keep learning at the centre of their activities. As Egan (1993, p. 80), writing in a business context, notes 'if your organisation has only one leader then it is almost certainly short of leadership'. Leaders are people who, as Senge comments, 'lead through developing new skills, capabilities and understandings. And they come from many places within the organisation' (Senge, 1990, p. 15). More recently Goleman et al., have put it as follows:

> There are many leaders, not just one. Leadership is distributed. It resides not solely in the individual at the top, but in every person at every level who, in one way or another, acts as a leader to a group of followers – wherever in the organisation that person is, whether shop steward, team head or CEO.
>
> (Goleman et al., 2002, pp. xiii–xiv)

The NCSL's think tank similarly saw leadership as a function that needs to be distributed throughout the school community. Its view of leadership is quite clear, it is 'not hierarchical, but federal and involves clarity of direction, structures and support' (NCSL, 2001, p. 11).

Notions of dispersed or distributed leadership raise interesting questions about its character, the degree of dispersal and the relative importance of leadership at different levels. For example, is the leadership demonstrated by the headteacher of equal value to that demonstrated by subject leaders or classroom teachers? The NCSL's think tank report is quite clear about this: 'instructional leadership is not inextricably linked to status or experience. It is distributed and potentially available to all' (2001, p. 11) and that: 'Successful school leadership is not invested in hierarchical status but experience is valued and structures are established to encourage all to be drawn in and regarded for their contribution … Collaborative work has been found to increase the involvement, engagement and affiliation across all staff ' (ibid.).

Notions of dispersed or distributed leadership are considered further in Part 2 and a useful review of the literature is provided by Bennett et al. (2003). However, it is clear that unless attention is paid to the effectiveness of those leading at the top of the organisation – in our case headteachers – then notions of dispersed leadership become meaningless. A headteacher recipient of a knighthood in the New Year's honours list put it well when he said: 'I work with a lot of talented teachers, but the role of the head is an essential precondition. In any organisation, people can only work within the climate that is set. That's what leadership and management are about. I don't think you get good schools without good heads' (Sir Dexter Hutt, cited in *Times Educational Supplement*, 2 January 2004, p. 10). Thus, headship – the main focus of this book – remains crucially important, as do both leadership and management. The next chapter looks at the transition to headship and the different stages which heads go through.