THE TRANSFER OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP THEORIES ACROSS NATIONAL BOUNDARIES: A STUDY OF BRUNEI DARUSSALAM SECONDARY EDUCATION

A Thesis submitted by

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ABSTRACT

The Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education (MoE) has committed itself to utilising practice from international contexts in order to develop and improve its education system. Against this background, this research employed a mixed methods research design, to answer the question: how well do school leadership theories created in other cultures transfer to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam? Three phases were employed in the research design. First, a document analysis identified school leadership theories originating external to Brunei Darussalam, reflected within a key MoE document. Second, the questionnaire phase of the research design asked secondary principals, deputy principals, and teachers to respond to 50 leadership practices on two five-point Likert scales, which measured frequency of use and significance, respectively. And third, in the semi-structured interviews, participants were asked to comment on the reasons for the key outcomes of the questionnaire phase. Discourse analysis, which identified discursive assumptions and the positions these placed stakeholders in, was then used to interpret the responses of the interview participants. This research concluded that discursive assumptions dictated whether leadership theories from external sources, and their associated practices, transferred effectively into the Brunei Darussalam secondary education system.

CERTIFICATION OF THESIS

I, Matthew Letham declare that the PhD Thesis entitled *The Transfer of School Leadership Theories Across National Boundaries: A Study of Brunei Darussalam Secondary Education* is not more than 100,000 words in length, including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, references, and footnotes. The thesis contains no materials that have been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma, except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

Matthew Letham

Date: 30th March 2023

Endorsed by:

Professor Dorothy Andrews

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Associate Professor Joan Conway

Associate Supervisor

Student and supervisors' signatures of endorsement are held at the University.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Gumus et al. (2018) in their systematic review of papers published on education leadership models, 1980-2014, discovered that the origin of the 743 published papers they identified, was dominated by Western countries, with the most proliferate being the USA (296) and the UK (67) respectively. The only Asian nations listed in Gumus et al.'s (2018) top ten countries for publishing such papers, were China and Taiwan, with a combined total of 40 published papers on education leadership models. Further, the papers from both China and Taiwan had only been published since 2005 onwards. The academic literature on school leadership was dominated by Western countries (Dimmock & Walker, 2000; Gumus et al., 2018) and accordingly, a growing number of academics questioned the transferability of school leadership theories, without careful consideration of socio-cultural context (Bajunid, 1996; Clarke & O'Donoghue, 2017; Dimmock & Walker, 2000; Goh, 2009; Gurr et al., 2005; Qian & Walker, 2014; Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger et al., 2018; Hallinger & Truong, 2014; Walker, 2003).

Qian and Walker (2014) in researching principalship in China, considered academic theories of school leadership in general. These authors explained that although Chinese school leaders may have been aware of the same concepts of leadership promoted and discussed in Western cultures, any application of these concepts was greatly influenced by societal and cultural factors. There was no simple cross-cultural transferability of

leadership strategies, without the influence of context introducing an element of variation. Qian and Walker (2014) identified a paucity of research into the way in which context influenced school leadership. In their review of *instructional leadership*, Dimmock and Tan (2016) called for changes to the conceptual framework of this school leadership theory. One aspect of this was that the term, instructional leadership, had expanded beyond the framework of solely Western cultures and these new adaptations of instructional leadership were needed. Further, Hallinger et al. (2017) when studying the application of instructional leadership within a Vietnamese context, similarly asserted:

> Worldwide interest in principal instructional leadership has led to global dissemination of related research findings despite their concentration in a limited set of western cultural contexts. An urgent challenge in educational leadership and management lies in expanding the range of national settings for investigations of instructional leadership. (p. 1)

Therefore, in response to this situation, this research concerned whether school leadership theories shaped in specific cultural contexts, could successfully be transferred into new cultural contexts, with very different expectations and narratives.

1.1 Focus of the Research

The aim of this research was to explore how effectively school leadership theories originating in external cultures, were utilised in a South

East Asian country: more specifically, how such school leadership theories were transferred into Brunei Darussalam. The scope of the research was refined further by limiting the school leadership to the secondary sector. School leadership was defined for the purposes of the research, as principals and deputy principals. In terms of which theories of school leadership from external cultures were considered, these were restricted to those that the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education (MoE) promoted to their school leaders.

1.2 Research Questions

In this study, the overarching question of this research was: how well do school leadership theories created in other cultures transfer to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam? However, in order to respond to this main question, three further sub-research questions were set, each linked to the different phases of what was a three-phase mixed methods research design.

Before the overarching research question could be addressed it was first necessary to know: which leadership theories, created in other cultures, were promoted in Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education (MoE) documentation on school leadership? Then, once these leadership theories were identified, the research sought to discover: what is the relationship between those school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the MoE, and the leadership practices

implemented in Brunei secondary schools? In essence the research sought to find out the actuality of leadership practice in the secondary schools and compare this to the leadership narratives promoted by the MoE. Finally, the research asked: what is the experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam but promoted by the MoE? In doing so the research sought to uncover the socio-cultural discourses that influenced the way the secondary school leaders in Brunei experienced and utilised the leadership theories promoted by the MoE.

1.3 Methodology

The research, although constructionist in ontology (Berger & Luckmann, 1969; Freedman & Coombes, 1996; Potter, 1996; Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Rorty, 1989) adopted a pragmatic approach to data collection (Feilzer, 2010; Hartas, 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Muijs, 2011; Stuhr, 2010; Vescio et al., 2008). So, while acknowledging that the understanding of Brunei Darussalam secondary school leadership discovered in this research, represented a reality constructed through discourse, as opposed to an absolute truth, the research also recognised that a deeper level of understanding could be accessed through the combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

1.3.1 Research Design

Within this pragmatic framework the research adopted a three-phase mixed methods research design, combining both the exploratory sequential and explanatory sequential designs (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Matching the research questions, the initial phase of this research process was a qualitative document analysis that identified which school leadership theories, originating external to Brunei Darussalam, were being promoted by the MoE. The next phase was a quantitative questionnaire created from the contextual understanding gained in the phase one document analysis. The questionnaire asked secondary school principals, deputy principals and teachers, to respond to two Likert scales in relation to the leadership theories. Firstly, the participants were asked how frequently the identified leadership theories were applied by the Brunei Darussalam secondary school leaders in their professional practice. Secondly, they were also asked how significant the school leadership theories were to that practice. The final phase, qualitative semi-structured interviews, asked secondary school principals and deputy principals for their views on why the key questionnaire findings emerged as they did. This helped to discover the socio-cultural discourses that either supported or impeded the utilisation of the external school leadership theories promoted by the MoE in their secondary schools.

1.4 Informing Literature

This thesis explored two main areas of academic literature. The first focussed on identifying the theories of school leadership that dominated both academic discourse and practical application in schools. This then allowed me, in the document analysis phase, to identify the leadership theories promoted by the MoE. Foremost amongst these were instructional and transformational leadership (Eacott, 2017; Grissom & Loeb, 2009; Gumus et al., 2018; Gurr, 2015; Hallinger, 2005; Hattie, 2009, 2015; Marks & Printy, 2003; Robinson et al., 2008, 2009). These however were not theories which had a consensus of opinion. Instead, a number of adaptations and variations existed for both leadership approaches (Dimmock & Tan, 2016; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; MacBeath, 2006; Marks & Printy, 2003). Indeed, for elements of instructional leadership in particular, there were prominent differences between the models presented by different academics (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger, 2011; Hattie, 2009; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2008; MacBeath, 2006; Robinson et al., 2009; Seashore Louis et al., 2010). There was also a considerable amount of crossover between other theories of leadership and instructional or transformational leadership, respectively. Distributed leadership (Harris, 2012; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Spillane, 2005) had connections to both, while professional learning communities (Dimmock & Tan, 2016; Hord, 1997) had particular relevance to instructional leadership. Emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000, 2004, 2014)

and the five exemplary leadership practices of Kouzes and Posner (2006, 2013) both reflected the tenets of transformational leadership.

The second area of literature review considered in this thesis, concerned the impact of socio-cultural context on the transfer of external ideas and initiatives into a new receiving system. It specifically focussed on the transfer of Western academic theories of school leadership and their implementation in South East Asian schools (Goh, 2009; Hairon & Dimmock, 2012; Hallinger 2018; Nguyen & Ng Foo Seong, 2014; Pan, 2014). This geographical framework was employed due to some similarities of culture in the region, with Brunei Darussalam. The literature in this area strongly suggested that the socio-cultural context of the schools, impacted the application of Western theories of school leadership.

1.5 Significance

This study contributed to the field of research concerned with school leadership and in particular, the transference of leadership theories to different cultural contexts. Many academics have recognised a need to expand the academic knowledge base concerning the relationship between academic theories of school leadership, and the social cultural contexts in which they are applied (Bajunid, 1996; Clarke & O'Donoghue, 2017; Dimmock & Walker, 2000; Qian & Walker, 2014; Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger et al., 2017; Walker & Hallinger, 2015). As summarised by Clarke and O'Donoghue (2017), in reference to various educational leadership

approaches, "we need to know not only 'what works' but 'what works in different settings'" (p. 178). The significance of this study therefore, is that it addressed this area of research directly, and by doing so expanded this knowledge base. Further, although its findings were specific to Brunei Darussalam, it potentially provided general insights applicable to when school leadership theories are transferred between cultural contexts.

Qian and Walker (2014) suggested the lack of research into the way in which context influenced school leadership was in part due to the difficulty of accessing discourses and norms which were intrinsic and often hidden from view. Although I was external to the cultural context of Brunei Darussalam, at the time of the research, I was employed by the MoE, as an International School Leader in government schools. As such, I had access to both the discourses and norms present in Brunei Darussalam education leadership and was in a unique position to conduct this research. This privileged internal position, granted both understanding and access, the former of which may have been difficult for external researchers to achieve, and the latter of which may have been denied them. This research was also significant because of the unique position I held within secondary education in this South East Asian country.

The research also holds significance due to elements of its research design. Through adopting a total of three phases in a mixed method research design, the research was able to collect a broad dataset. Research

on educational leadership in the South East Asia region has often been restricted to utilising either purely quantitative or qualitative approaches (Qian & Walker, 2014; Hallinger et al., 2017; Hallinger & Lee, 2014; Pan, 2014). This research, however, was able to utilise both research paradigms in partnership and therefore potentially access, what I believed, was a deeper level of understanding.

The final significant element of the research was the high response rate to the second phase questionnaires from the Brunei Darussalam secondary school leader population. The response rate was not from a sample of school leaders but was 90.32% of the entire population of Brunei Darussalam secondary school principals and deputy principals. This unprecedented access to almost the entirety of the Brunei secondary school leader population, was a further aspect of significance for this research.

1.6 Context of the Study: Brunei Darussalam

With a population of 0.430 million (International Monetary Fund, 2022), Brunei Darussalam is a small Islamic sultanate located in the North of the island of Borneo, on the South China Sea. The country was a British protectorate from 1888, achieving independence in 1984 (BBC, 2023). Since independence, Brunei's citizens have enjoyed a high standard of living due to success in the production of oil and gas. Brunei Darusslam is an absolute monarchy headed by a sultan. At the time of writing, Sultan Pengiran Muda Mahkota Hassanal Bolkiah, had reigned since 1967. Brunei Darussalam was

the first East Asian country to adopt Islamic sharia law, which occurred in 2014.

1.6.1 Brunei Culture

Blunt (1988) identified a series of cultural discourses common to the South East Asian region and exemplified them with reference to Brunei Darussalam. In so doing, this author utilised Hofstede's (1980) four dimensions of culture, applying them in the context of a new Brunei Darussalam educational institution. The first dimension was *power distance*, which measured the extent to which individuals with less power would accept, without challenge, an unequal distribution of power. Brunei had a high power distance (Blunt, 1988; Minnis, 1999). Blunt (1998) suggested that this had an impact on the working relationships within an organisation. The work structure in a high power distance society, was hierarchical. There was little autonomy, with employees unwilling to act without first referring to the top of the structure for authorisation. Criticism, even of a constructive nature, was minimal and much of the organisation was centralised.

The next dimension was that of *uncertainty avoidance* (Hofstede, 1980)*,* or the extent to which a culture relies upon structure, clarity, and predictability, within a narrative of behavioural expectations. Blunt (1988), within the context of the organisation he studied, suggested that Brunei Darussalam had a very high uncertainty avoidance and consequently suggested this led to a lack of risk taking and a resistance to change. High

uncertainty avoidance also meant that rules and structures were valued over initiative and experimentation. As such, Blunt (1988) described a refusal within the organisation to reverse decisions.

With regard to the dimension of *individualism* and its opposing world view of *collectivism* (Hofstede, 1980), both Blunt (1988) and Minnis (1999) defined Brunei Darussalam as operating within the latter dimension. This meant that narratives of duty and loyalty were integrated into the policies and practices of society.

The final dimension was that of *masculinity/femininity* (Hofstede, 1980) which considered how differently gender roles were defined within a culture. Blunt (1988) defined Brunei Darussalam, in the context of his study, as being medium masculinity, which implied "that there are fewer women in more qualified and better paying jobs" (p. 237). However, within the Bruneian socio-cultural context there were opportunities for the women of Brunei Darussalam beyond the traditional role of domesticity: "Islamic values notwithstanding, Brunei women have substantial freedom in 'border crossing' and are relatively free to pursue education, career and social mobility within established limits" (Minnis, 1999, p. 179). As an example of this, at the time of writing both the deputy minister and the permanent secretary of education, were female.

1.6.2 Brunei Education

At the time of this study the country offered a public education system with provision for all children to attend one year of pre-school, six years of primary and five years of secondary, in government schools (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2012). Secondary education was divided into lower secondary, Years 7-8, and upper secondary, Years 9-11. The Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education had 30 secondary schools catering for students in both phases of secondary education. In addition, the MoE also operated sixth form centres. Of these, four catered for Years 12 to 13 only, but two offered a sixth form in combination with the secondary year groups. Of interest for this study, there were 32 schools offering secondary education in Brunei Darussalam.

In 2007 the National Vision for Brunei Darusslam, known as *Wawasan Brunei 2035*, was created. The vision identified three areas in which Brunei Darusslam would be recognised world-wide for by 2035. The first of these was, "the accomplishments of its well educated and highly skilled people. . . [the second] . . . the quality of life, . . . [and the third,] . . .the dynamic and sustainable economy" (Council for Long-Term Development Plan, 2008, p. 11). Wawasan Brunei 2035 further outlined several contextual considerations which had driven the creation of the vision. Firstly, although the success of oil and gas in Brunei created some of the highest standards of living in South East Asia, economic growth had not kept pace with the

growth in population. Further, despite the prominence of oil and gas in Brunei's export earnings, constituting over 90%, this industry in fact employed only 3% of the Brunei work force. The major employer in Brunei Darussalam was in fact the government itself, but the various ministries and departments did not have the capacity to cover the numbers of young people leaving education and seeking employment. This coupled with a weak business sector not providing alternative avenues of employment, meant that youth unemployment was a concern for the country. Finally, the Brunei education system was seen to be failing to equip a number of its students for employment in the 21st century. It was within this context, that Wawasan Brunei 2035 promoted "a first class education system that provides opportunities for every citizen and resident to meet the requirements of our changing economy" (Council for Long-Term Development Plan, 2008, p. 12).

Wawasan Brunei 2035 further stated that the success of Brunei education "will be measured by the highest international standards" (Council for Long-Term Development Plan, 2008, p. 12). Thus in 2018, Brunei Darussalam joined PISA, the Programme for International Student Assessment (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2018). In addition, the *Guidebook for whole school evaluation* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2017) included an aspect entitled public based assessment. The public examination in secondary schools, referred to by this aspect, were those of Cambridge International Education completed in Year

11. Brunei Darussalam measured the success of its education through internationally recognised, formal assessments.

Written in 2012, The Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education set out a plan for the country's education system entitled, *The national education system for the 21st Century SPN21* (SPN21). This document was designed to contribute to the achievement of Wawasan Brunei 2035. The SPN21 report described the purpose of education in Brunei Darussalam as follows: "Being a nation with a small population, education plays a critical role in preparing students to become successful and responsible citizens who can contribute to the future social and economic progress of the community and the country" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2012, p. 1). Successful education in Brunei Darussalam therefore, both fostered students' civic responsibilities and empowered them with the skills and understanding necessary to support the growth of the Brunei Darussalam economy, in areas divergent from oil and gas. There was a balance between equipping students with the necessary prowess to advance the country successfully into the future, while at the same time maintaining traditions, religious observances, and cultural understandings:

> While recognising the need to change, we will continue to uphold
> vigorously the values that have been the foundation of our political
> stability, social harmony and prosperity. In our work we shall be
> guided at all times by our commitment to the Brunei monarchy and

nation, our faith in the values of Islam, based on the *Ahli Sunnah Wal-Jemaah, Mazhaf Shafie* and our tradition of tolerance, compassion and social harmony. We believe that our ability to adapt and manage change is greatly enhanced by the MIB concept which is inspired by these core values. (Council for Long-Term Development Plan, 2008, p. 13)

The MIB referred to within the previous statement was *Melayu Islam Beraja* (Malay Islamic Monarchy), which was the national philosophy of Brunei Darussalam. MIB promoted a love for "religion, race, monarch and nation" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2012, p. 59). MIB was set both as a value-added aspect that was to be integrated across the curriculum and also a distinct subject in the curriculum, taught from the beginning of primary school and continued to compulsory courses taken at the tertiary level. While effective education in Brunei Darussalam was expected to foster change, driving the country forward economically, at the same time it was also expected to maintain the current socio-cultural, political, and religious status quo.

To summarise, the aims of effective education in Brunei Darussalam were as follows: the maintenance of the social and religious order; and the success of students in internationally recognised assessments, which in turn lead to the development of a work force capable of producing diversification and growth in the economy. Education in Brunei performed a balancing act

between securing the narratives of the past and implementing the changes of the future:

> The Ministry of Education (MoE) Brunei Darussalam is committed to providing an educational system that prepares our young generation for future roles as capable, creative, thinking and innovative citizens who would uphold the local social values inherent in the national philosophy embedded in the Malay Islamic Monarchy or *Melayu Islam Beraja* (MIB) concept. (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2012, p. 17)

1.6.3 The Ministry of Education

The Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education is hierarchical in nature, with schools exercising limited autonomy, and many responsibilities of school leadership centralised to MoE departments. The MoE has two branches which sit beneath both a minister and deputy minister of education. One is core education and the second higher education. It is the former under which schools were administered, however a number of departments which impacted schools were also located under higher education. These included the Department of Educators Management, which among other things, appointed teachers and school leaders to schools, and the Department of Planning and Estate Management, which held responsibility for the upkeep of school grounds and buildings. The Department of Planning, Development and Research, from whom this study

obtained support (see Appendix A), was also positioned within the higher education branch of the MoE. Figure 1.1 sets out the organisational chart for the various departments under core education. It should be noted that officially the directors of the various departments, beneath the director general, sat at the same level of the hierarchy.

Figure 1.1

Brunei Darussalam MoE Core Education Organisation Chart

Minister of Education
Deputy Minister of Education
Permanent Secretary (Core Education)
Deputy Permanent Secretary (Core Education)
Director General of Education

Department Directors			
non-hierarchical			
Dept of Schools	Dept of Administration & Services	Dept of Curriculum Development	Dept of Co-Curriculum Education
Dept of Examinations	Dept of Schools Inspectorate	Special Education Unit · Private Education Section	Public Relations Unit
Internal Affairs unit	Science, Technology & Environment Partnership Centre	Education Technology Centre	Entrepreneurship Innovation Centre

Note. Adapted from Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam Organisational Chart *https://www.moe.gov.bn/Pages/Organisationchart.aspx*

Some of the main ways the centralisation of authority impacted school leaders in Brunei schools were through the control of finances and staffing. Brunei schools had control over a limited budget, as the staff payroll was

completed centrally and repairs and improvements to school buildings operated through a centralised facilities management contract. This offered school leaders limited opportunities to pursue school improvement initiatives which required significant funding. Recruitment, retention, and transfers of staff were all handled by the MoE, sometimes with limited consultation with school leaders or the individual involved. This situation included leadership positions, teachers, and non-teaching staff.

1.7 Researcher's Position

I was not native to Brunei Darussalam, but was employed by the Ministry of Education as an International School Leader 2016-2022. This role involved leading government schools as a principal and establishing them as models of good practice. The data gathering segment of the research was conducted in late 2020 and early 2021, with the permission and support of the Brunei Darussalam, Ministry of Education. I was known both to the research participants and the Ministry of Education, as a colleague.

1.8 Thesis Structure

This thesis is presented in eight chapters. Chapter 1 has offered an introduction and background to the study, including an overview of the methodology employed and the research questions involved. The content of the remaining chapters two to eight is summarised as follows.

The second chapter in this thesis, presents an exploration of academic literature in two fields. The first was literature concerning school leadership

and the identified theories that dominated in this field. It was possible to identify those leadership theories, originating external to Brunei Darussalam, that the Ministry of Education had promoted to their school leaders. The second field concerned literature which focused on the impact of socio-cultural discourses on the implementation of school leadership theories, within contexts external to where those theories originated. In reviewing this literature, it was possible to make connections between this research and that which preceded it.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology of this research providing both the ontology and epistemology within which the research is situated. The overarching research question is presented, as well as the subsidiary questions pertinent to each phase of the mixed methods approach. The chapter also details the practicalities of each of those phases: document analysis, questionnaire, and semi-structured interview, and includes how validity was maintained throughout the phases. The sequential nature of the three phases is explained, with each building on a foundation established in the preceding one. Chapter 3 describes how the different phases of this research complemented and informed each other, which allowed access to a far greater understanding of leadership practice in Brunei secondary schools, than any of the individual phases would have done in isolation. The participants in each phase and how they were selected is also described in

this chapter. The chapter concludes by presenting how appropriate ethical standards were maintained throughout the research.

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 detail the outcomes for each of the phases of the mixed methods research design. Chapter 4 describes the data obtained from a document analysis of a key Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education document on school leadership. More specifically, leadership theories that originated external to Brunei Darussalam, but that were reflected and promoted in this document were identified. Chapter 5 presents the outcomes from the leadership practices questionnaire, in which secondary school leaders and teachers were asked to rate how frequently used and how significant were a set of leadership practices, identified from the document analysis in the preceding phase. Finally, Chapter 6 summarises the information acquired from the semi-structured interviews, in which participants explored some of the outcomes from the questionnaire phase.

The remaining two chapters are respectively the discussion and the conclusion. The results set out in Chapters 4, 5, and 6 are discussed in the context of answering the overarching research question: how well do school leadership theories created in other cultures transfer to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam? It was concluded that some of these school leadership theories in fact transferred very effectively into Brunei Darussalam Secondary Schools, while others did not. This variation was due to discursive assumptions made by the school leaders, and the way

these assumptions positioned stakeholders. Finally, a process for optimising the transfer of theories between external education systems and receiving education systems, is proposed.

1.9 Summary

As introduced in this chapter, there is recognition within academic literature that more research is required concerning school leadership theories that have been transferred to contexts which are external to where they were originally developed. This study added to the body of knowledge in this area by researching secondary school leadership within the socio-cultural context of Brunei Darussalam. The aim of the research and the research questions were outlined in this chapter, along with the methodological approach and research design that were utilised. The chapter also included a brief overview of the informing literature, upon which the next chapter expands.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The Brunei Darussalam Long-Term Development Plan included as part of its education strategy "adopting international best practices" (Council for Long-Term Development, 2008, p. 17). Further, in setting out their rationale for revising and updating the Brunei education system, the MoE stated, "Reference to the education systems and curricula of other countries indicate the need to emulate international best practices" (*The national education system for the 21st Century SPN21*, 2012, p. 20). The Brunei Darussalam MoE were committed to looking abroad for what they felt was missing in their education system and transferring it to their government schools.

Having established a commitment by the Brunei Darussalam MoE to source effective education concepts and initiatives from abroad, this research was focused on the success of transferring external school leadership theories, to the daily practices of Brunei secondary school leaders. It asked the question: how well do school leadership theories created in other cultures transfer to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam? This chapter reviews academic literature in the following areas to help address this question. First, the chapter identifies the popular theories of school leadership promoted within academic literature. This broad overview was necessary to identify in the document analysis, which of these theories the Brunei Darussalam MoE promoted to their secondary school leaders. Next, the broad process of policy borrowing in education, across

international borders, is explored. While not necessarily synonymous with the transfer of leadership theories from one culture to another, policy borrowing does provide examples of the impact of socio-cultural context, on the implementation of ideas that originated elsewhere, into a new receiving system. Finally, the transfer of school leadership theories, into cultures external to where they originated, is also reviewed. In this final section, there is a particular focus on contexts in South East Asia, the geographic region in which this study was located. The synthesis of studies in this region helped to establish key themes, which held relevance to this current research.

2.1 School Leadership Theories

Two forms of school leadership are frequently identified as being prominent in academic literature: *transformational leadership* and *instructional leadership* (Eacott, 2017; Grissom & Loeb, 2009; Gumus et al., 2018; Gurr, 2015; Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger, 2005; Hattie, 2003, 2009, 2015; Marks & Printy, 2003; Robinson et al., 2008, 2009). Robinson et al. (2009) in explaining the reason why these two leadership approaches formed an important focus for their extensive review of school leadership, commented, "because they dominate the empirical research on educational leadership and because their research programmes are mature enough to have yielded sufficient evidence for analysis" (p. 78). These two forms of leadership are where this literature review begins. As a general theory of

leadership, transformational leadership was applied to a variety of institutions, including schools, while instructional leadership was a leadership construct specific to schools (Hallinger, 2003). Transformational leadership focussed on inspiring and motivating staff (Antonakis, 2001; Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bycio et al., 1995; Finnigan & Stewart, 2019; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005) in contrast to instructional leadership, and its variations, which focussed on the students and their learning (Dimmock & Tan, 2016; Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger, 2011; Hattie, 2015; MacBeath, 2006; Robinson et.al., 2009).

These two leadership theories have been compared by academics in attempts to identify the more effective approach for improving outcomes for students (Hattie, 2009, 2015; Robinson et al., 2008, 2009), although others have recognised the two leadership approaches could also operate effectively in partnership (Dimmock & Tan, 2016; Gurr, 2015; Hallinger, 2003; Marks & Printy, 2003). Eacott (2017) referred to an article by Robinson et al. (2008), comparing transformational and instructional leadership, as pivotal in determining subsequent discourse on school leadership. He suggested the use of a meta-analysis by Robinson et al. (2008) was perceived to offer unequivocal empirical evidence, that promoted instructional leadership as having a greater effect on student outcomes than transformational leadership. Hattie (2009) also utilised meta-analysis in his book *Visible Learning*, which likewise offered a section exploring the impact

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of school leadership on student outcomes. Like Robinson et al. (2009),

Hattie (2009) argued that of these two dominant forms of school leadership,

in terms of effect sizes, instructional leadership had far greater impact on

student outcomes. An effect size is a quantitative measure which, "provides

a common expression of the magnitude of study outcomes for many types of

outcome variables" (Hattie, 2009, p. 7)

It should be noted that although instructional leadership is prevalent in

the literature, some authors have been critical of Hattie's (2009) meta-

analysis recognising the difficulty of reducing the results of diverse research

studies, from wide ranging contexts, to a single effect size (Eacott, 2017;

Snook et al. 2009; Terhart, 2011). Further, Bergeron and Rivard (2019)

offered a critique in terms of the methodology of *Visible Learning,* which

discredited the statistical foundations upon which the meta-analysis was

founded and called into question the validity of Hattie's (2009) findings. The

relative effect size for transformational leadership and instructional

leadership on student outcomes, must therefore be treated with some

caution and cannot simply be accepted at face value.

2.2 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders inspired, motivated, and encouraged their

staff members to place the needs of the organisation above their own and to

operate at levels that exceeded original expectations (Antonakis, 2001;

Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bycio et al., 1995;

Finnigan & Stewart, 2019; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). These leaders also

both challenged and supported their staff members, to reach the latter's full

potential, including as a leader. This was done at an individual level,

meaning transformational leaders had to have a good understanding of the

skills and experiences of their staff, in order to be able to respond

appropriately to their developmental needs (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leadership was defined with reference to four

components (Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006). *Idealised influence*

alluded to the credibility, trust and respect the leader fostered from their

colleagues. *Inspirational motivation* referenced the leader's ability to engage

their staff in achieving a shared vision, within a culture of collaboration and

teamwork. *Intellectual stimulation* indicated the leader's ability to inspire

and challenge employees to identify new solutions and initiatives to respond

to the organisation's problems. Finally, *individualised consideration* meant

that individuals in the organisation received differentiated support to allow

them to develop professionally and reach their potential. All four components

of transformational leadership relied upon the interpersonal skills of the

leader, to engage their staff members in a process of improvement, both as

an individual and the organisation as a whole.

2.2.1 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership was closely associated with transformational

leadership, with the latter seen as building upon and extending the tenets of

the former (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass et al. (2003) suggested that prior to

the development of transformational leadership, *transactional leadership,* or

at least an aspect of it called *contingent reward*, was seen as essential for

the effective leadership of an organisation. Further, transactional leadership

was seen as a foundation upon which transformational leadership built and

expanded (Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transactional leadership was defined in terms of reinforcing desired

behaviour through rewards and penalties (Antonakis, 2001; Avolio et al.,

1999; Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006). The

transactional leader set expectations, positively compensated those who met

them and potentially punished those who did not meet expectations:

> Exhibiting transactional leadership meant that followers agreed with,
>
> accepted, or complied with the leader in exchange for praise, rewards,
>
> and resources or the avoidance of disciplinary action. Rewards and
>
> recognition were provided contingent on followers successfully carrying
>
> out their roles and assignments. (Bass et al., 2003, p. 208)

Transactional leadership had three versions ranging from the proactive

to the non-responsive: *contingent reward*, *management-by-exception,* and

laissez faire (Antonakis, 2001; Avolio et al., 1999; Bass et al., 2003; Bass &

Avolio, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006). In the first, the leader established

expectations and shared the potential rewards or consequences based on

whether those expectations were met. Bass and Riggio (2006) separated the

second, management-by-exception, into two versions, active and passive. The former saw the leader establish expectations, pro-actively monitoring performance against them, and intervening as necessary. Under the latter the leader passively waited for exceptions to the expected standards to arise before acting. With a laissez faire approach, the leader was unlikely to intervene when problems arose, or indeed to make decisions at all. The following subsection describes how transactional leadership has been included as a component of transformational leadership within a school context.

2.2.2 Transformational Leadership in Schools

Leithwood et al. (1999) and Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) described a form of transformational leadership, specific to the school context. They identified three broad categories of transformational Leadership behaviours, *setting directions*, *helping people*, and *redesigning the organisation*, claiming that the last of these in particular, was specific to their school-based conceptualisation of transformational leadership (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). They also included a fourth and final category which was transactional leadership. This included contingent reward and management by exception, but unsurprisingly not laissez faire. In addition, Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) also added four management dimensions within this final category of transactional leadership, which they suggested addressed key issues for the successful running of schools. These were the effective recruitment and

retention of staff, ensuring teachers received instructional support, the
monitoring of school activities and finally, buffering staff from external
demands that could distract them from their primary role.

2.2.3 Transformational Leadership: Related Theories

This section concludes with reference to two theories of leadership,
that although separate from transformational leadership, shared many
principles with it. The first of these, Goleman's *emotional intelligence* (EQ),
and the other, Kouzes and Posner's *exemplary leadership practices*. EQ is
the ability of leaders to effectively manage both their own emotions, and the
emotions of others, to ensure optimum outcomes for an organisation
(Goleman, 2000, 2004, 2014). Goleman (2000) identified four capabilities
which allowed a leader to display emotional intelligence: *self-awareness*,
self-management, *social awareness,* and *social skills*. Self-awareness was
the ability to identify dominant emotions within oneself, while self-
management was the ability to manage those emotions to ensure effective
working relationships. Key to self-management was acting in such a way to
foster a reputation for trustworthiness and integrity. Social awareness was
the ability to identify the emotional state of others and of the organisation as
a whole, while the final capability was the set of skills required to interact
with stakeholders effectively and maintain a structural equilibrium, within
which the organization could thrive. Included amongst the social skills were
visionary leadership, developing others, and communication. Goleman

(2000) emphasised the need for flexibility in using different styles of leadership depending on the specific context.

Based on over twenty years of research into effective leadership, the five exemplary leadership practices of Kouzes and Posner (2006, 2013) were identified as consistently being applied by successful leaders. *Model the way* referenced the need for leaders to exemplify in their own practice, the expectations they placed on others in order to foster credibility and respect. *Inspire a shared vision* called upon leaders to motivate and engage team members in working towards and achieving common goals. *Challenge the process* reflected a constant cycle of improvement, where the status quo was not accepted and suggestions for enhancement were welcomed from all levels. This practice provided a safe space from where failures could be learned. *Enabling others to act* represented a combination of both shared leadership and the development of others, by challenging staff and supporting them to successfully meet those challenges. Finally, *encourage the heart* involved finding ways to motivate and inspire staff to continue, even when the situation was extremely difficult.

All five of the exemplary leadership practices (Kouzes & Posner, 2006, 2013), along with the tenets of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000), had clear links to transformational leadership. They both recognised the importance of the leader being perceived as credible, trustworthy, and visionary. Further, they both promoted the motivating, challenging, and

developing of others. In this way, emotional intelligence and the exemplary leadership practices had much in common with the idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration of transformational leadership.

2.3 Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger, 2011), along with related leadership approaches, such as, *pedagogical leadership* (Robinson et al., 2009), *leadership for learning* (MacBeath, 2006) and *learning centred leadership* (Dimmock & Tan, 2016), had as its prime focus the learning of the students. However, despite a seeming synonymity between these phrases, a tension existed for some scholars, particularly in a trans-Atlantic context (Dimmock & Tan, 2016; Gumus et al., 2018; Hallinger, 2011; MacBeath, 2006). MacBeath (2006) described the Carpe Vitam study, a three-year research project led by Cambridge University, encompassing 22 schools from seven countries, which attempted to provide conceptual clarification of leadership for learning. MacBeath (2006) observed that the term instructional leadership, "predisposes people to think in terms of teaching rather than learning and, particularly in the American context, it hampered people's ability to focus on learning and the learner" (p. 39). It was with an awareness of these and other tensions between various interpretations of instructional leadership, that this review progressed.

2.3.1 Instructional Leadership: Direct and Indirect Influence

A further discrepancy in variations of instructional leadership and its related terms, was around the role of the school leader in improving teacher proficiency and student outcomes and whether this involved direct or indirect leadership practices (Hallinger, 2005; Hattie, 2009; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2009; Seashore Louis et al., 2010). The description of instructional leadership detailed by Hattie (2009, 2015), encouraged school leaders to work with teachers and become directly involved in improving student outcomes. Hattie (2009) identified for overall school leadership, a moderate effect size of d=0.36. However, "promoting and participating in teacher learning and development" (p. 83) received an impactful effect size of d = 0.91. and "planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum [which he described as including] direct involvement in the support and evaluation of teaching through regular classroom visits" (p. 84) an effect size of d=0.74. Similarly, Robinson et al. (2009) in a meta-analysis of selected research on school leadership, asserted that the school leadership practice with the largest effect size on student outcomes was, promoting and participating in teacher learning and development, in which,

> leaders work directly with teachers or departmental heads to plan, coordinate, and evaluate teachers and teaching . . . leaders who are actively involved in professional learning have a deeper appreciation of

the conditions required to achieve and sustain improvements in student learning. (p. 42)

In contrast, many authors questioned the direct involvement of school leaders in developing pedagogy and improving student outcomes (Hallinger, 2005; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Seashore Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010). It was suggested that historically a vision had existed of an instructional leader as a pedagogical expert, directly imparting their wisdom throughout the school (Hallinger, 2005; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Horng & Loeb, 2010). The reality of this educational super human was questioned however, using the example of large schools with a variety of subjects, where it was unlikely one leader could possess the necessary experience and skills to be credible in all the necessary contexts (Hallinger, 2005; Horng & Loeb, 2010).

Horng and Loeb (2010) summarised their findings from a range of studies completed at Stanford University, concluding that direct classroom interaction or coaching of teachers by the principal, did not have the greatest impact on student outcomes. Instead, they referred to *organizational management* in which "strong managers develop the organizational structures for improved instruction more than they spend time in classrooms or coach teachers" (p. 67). MacBeath (2006) included as one of his principles of leadership for learning, "leadership creates conditions favourable for learning" (p. 40). Like organisational management, this

principle did not emphasise direct interactions in class by the school leader, but instead focussed on the importance of creating successful conditions, which fostered successful learning. As part of this, MacBeath (2006) promoted the principal's role in managing time, to ensure teachers were able to participate in all the forms of professional dialogue and development necessary for improving student outcomes. In creating successful conditions favourable for learning, the headteacher in the Carpe Vitam study was not necessarily directly involved in class, but rather indirectly shaped the culture of the school. The indirect influence of the school leader was also asserted by both Hallinger (2005) and Dimmock and Tan (2016) in their respective reviews of instructional leadership. There existed therefore, a tension between different interpretations of instructional leadership and how direct the influence of school leaders was, in developing teachers and fostering positive student outcomes.

2.3.2 Instructional Leadership: PIMRS

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) created a survey tool titled the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) designed to investigate the instructional leadership behaviours of ten North American elementary school principals in the same school district. In their study, Hallinger and Murphy explained that the terms instructional management and instructional leadership were used synonymously. The PIMRS was based on three domains: *defines the mission*; *manages instructional programme;* and

promotes school climate, each founded on the authors' understanding of instructional leadership. These were then subdivided further into various functions, and then again into a series of leadership behaviours. For each item the respondent would rate the frequency at which the described behaviour was demonstrated by the principal. While there have been adjustments to the PIMRS over time (Hallinger 2011, 2013), this survey has remained at the forefront of much empirical research into instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger et al., 2013).

Unlike some forms of instructional leadership (Hattie, 2009, 2015), the PIMRS model incorporated aspects of transformational leadership (Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger & Lee, 2014). In creating a school culture where improvements in learning were a shared focus, the third PIMRS domain, promoted a positive school learning climate, overlapped "with facets of transformational leadership frameworks" (Hallinger & Lee, 2014, p. 6). This domain also featured aspects of transactional leadership including as it did, the provision of incentives for teachers (Hallinger, 2011). Thus, while some interpretations of instructional leadership (Hattie, 2015; MacBeath, 2006) concentrated purely on improving student learning, the instructional leadership of the PIMRS had more general leadership items, including those with a transformational/transactional focus (Hallinger, 2005).

Another potential area of discrepancy in defining instructional leadership, with reference to the PIMRS, was in terms of shared leadership,

discussed in more detail in a later section. Throughout the original PIMRS (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), the emphasis was on the principal in sole control of leading the school:

> Early formulations of instructional leadership assumed it to be the responsibility of the principal. Hence, measures of such leadership, such as the Principals' Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), focused only on the principal and neglected the contribution of other staff to instructional goal setting, oversight of the teaching programs, and the development of a positive academic and learning culture. (Robinson et al., 2008, p. 638)

This contrasted with other interpretations of instructional leadership whereby the improvement of student outcomes was a shared responsibility (Dimmock & Tan, 2016; Hattie, 2009, 2015; MacBeath, 2006; Marks & Printy, 2003; Robinson et al., 2009). It must be recognised however, that the PIMRS has developed over the subsequent decades since its inception, regarding this matter. Hallinger (2011) prompted potential researchers to explore how leadership responsibility within the PIMRS construct, is distributed in schools.

2.3.3 Instructional Leadership: The Curriculum

When discussing the first principle of leadership for learning, leadership has a learning focus. MacBeath (2006) described the necessity for

such leaders to successfully complete a curriculum balancing act between ensuring students have an in depth understanding of their subjects and that students cover the curriculum content. The assessment practices of many countries in the Carpe Vitam study however, meant that school leaders and teachers felt they had an obligation to complete the required topics, regardless of whether students had the prerequisite foundation to access them:

> Learning can be buried so deeply beneath curriculum, testing and an unremitting drive to meet prescribed targets that it makes it both difficult and risky to attend to learning that has any depth. In every country of the study, teachers worried that they would sell their students short if they did not cover the required ground, however superficial that ground might be. (p. 39)

Dimmock and Tan (2016) similarly recognised, rebalancing the curriculum, in their review of instructional leadership. They cited the responsibility instructional school leaders had to balance the learning that occurred within their schools, between the expectations of traditional high stakes testing and the reality of 21st century soft skills sought by employers. There was, therefore, a tension for instructional leaders, in terms of the content of what was taught in their schools. A tension that lay between the needs of their students, the expectations of the curriculum, and the

accountability of the assessment system (Dimmock & Tan, 2016; Knapp et al., 2003; MacBeath, 2006).

2.3.4 Instructional Leadership: Accountability

Dimmock and Tan (2016) discussed the issue of accountability as a further change required in understanding instructional leadership. They described an education system where both the autonomy and the accountability of schools had increased greatly. While schools seemingly had more freedom in the pedagogical methods they employed, they equally had more accountability in terms of what was achieved using those methods. The transparency of data comparing various aspects of school performance placed individual schools under pressure to ensure improvement and Dimmock and Tan felt this responsibility should be reflected in any modern interpretation of instructional learning.

MacBeath (2006) however, put forward a different understanding of the concept of school accountability. When discussing accountability as the fifth principle of leadership for learning, he explained that for both the United Kingdom and Australian participants in the Carpe Vitam study, this was initially associated with negative connotations of external pressures, divorced from the school's own priorities. However once accountability was considered in terms of the student's learning, this helped refocus the priorities of the school. The accountability in MacBeath's (2006) leadership for learning was an internal responsibility to improve the learning

experience. This was echoed by the accountability structure in Hattie's (2015) instructional leadership, where he suggested school leaders with high-impact mindframes "believe their fundamental task is to evaluate the effect of everyone in their school on student learning" (p. 38). In both cases (Hattie, 2015; MacBeath, 2006), accountability was sourced not from external pressures but rather from the instructional leaders holding both their schools and themselves responsible for the learning that occurred within their institution.

Dimmock and Tan (2016) also considered instructional leaders accountable for countering the educational disadvantages that social inequality could cause. They promoted issues of equity and social justice, as important for any renewed understanding of instructional leadership. This included reaching beyond their school boundaries to foster the involvement of families in their children's education. This focus on instructional leadership as a transformative force for social justice, was also reflected in interpretations of leadership for learning (Knapp et al., 2003), teachers as leaders (Crowther et al., 2009), and even transformational leadership (Johnson & Jacobson, 2005). Instructional leaders were accountable therefore, in terms of the potentially transformative nature of the learning within their schools.

Finally, Hallinger (2005) in his review of instructional leadership, presented seven characteristics in his own reconceptualisation of this theory,

one of which made the instructional leader accountable for, "fostering the continuous improvement of the school through cyclical school development planning that involves a wide range of stakeholders" (p. 13). In the context of improvement cycles, the Deming Cycle (Isniah et al., 2020; Tsutsui, 1996), popularised by Dr Edward Deming in his work in Japan in the 1950s, was renowned. This improvement cycle which consisted of four stages: *Plan*, *Do*, *Check*, *Act*, (PDCA), was not specific to education but had particular relevance to this research: within Brunei Darussalam, school leaders at all phases of education, were accountable to the MoE for reviewing their annual school improvement plan, using the PDCA cycle. However, regardless of the format utilised, instructional leaders were accountable for the creation and implementation of a cycle of school improvement (Hallinger, 2005).

2.3.5 Shared Instructional Leadership

Hallinger (2003) in reviewing instructional and transformational leadership in schools, delineated these terms by referencing the former as hierarchical and directive, and the latter as distributed and shared. In his review, Hallinger (2003) described instructional leadership as focused on the principal as the individual leading the school forward, while transformational leadership was a collaborative and collegial approach to school improvement. In contrast, Marks and Printy (2003) argued the case for *shared instructional leadership*. They believed that a traditional interpretation of instructional leadership placed the principal in the position

40

of a lone figure, dominating teacher development within the school. In this model the principal shared their expertise and wisdom with passive teacher recipients. By contrast shared instructional leadership empowered the teachers to have an active and collaborative role in the improvement of teaching and the subsequent improvements in learning:

> Shared instructional leadership involves the active collaboration of principal and teachers on curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Within this model, the principal seeks out the ideas, insights, and expertise of teachers in these areas and works with teachers for school improvement. The principal and teachers share responsibility for staff development, curricular development, and supervision of instructional tasks. (p. 371)

MacBeath (2006) also discussed the importance of shared leadership within leadership for learning, although he observed that while the schools from all seven of the nations involved in the Carpe Vitam project were committed on some level to shared leadership, the reality was that cultural and organisational factors influenced how this occurred. He offered the example of the Greek schools where traditional expectations around the hierarchy of school management and the power of the head teacher meant they found it harder to enact shared leadership.

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) wrote about *teacher leadership*, in which they recognised the importance of teachers as leaders of

improvements in pedagogy in both formal and informal roles; "Teachers who are leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders, and influence others toward improved educational practice" (p. 5). There was a recognition by these authors, of a huge potential for improved classroom practice lying dormant, as the traditional hierarchical leadership structure of schools supressed an awareness of the key role teachers as leaders could play in the improvement of teaching and learning. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) posited that although often not appointed to a formal role, teachers who had credibility as good practitioners in the art of teaching, who engaged in self-reflection and a philosophy of continuous learning and who had influence on what happened in classrooms beyond their own, were exhibiting a form of teachers as leaders. A variation on the theory of teachers as leaders, was that of parallel leadership in which the school leader took on a strategic role while the teachers had responsibility for leading pedagogical improvements (Andrews & Lewis, 2004).

Harris and Spillane (2008) suggested that as expectations upon school leaders and levels of accountability have both increased, the realisation had arisen that an individual leader could no longer fulfil such vast responsibilities alone. In response to this situation, Harris and Spillane (2008) asserted that distributed leadership had become the new norm. Like teachers as leaders, distributed leadership accepted leadership at all levels

of school regardless of whether individuals were formally recognised as leaders within the organisational structure, although distributed leadership referenced staff in general while the teachers as leaders was specific to the teaching staff (Harris, 2012; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Spillane, 2005). Thus, leadership within a distributed context, was no longer defined by roles or even responsibilities, but rather by the interactions between the leader and their followers in specific situations (Harris, 2012; Spillane, 2005). Further, as the "mantle of leadership" in different contexts was adopted by other individuals within the organisation, the leader's role was not necessarily diminished but rather altered (Harris, 2012). In distributed leadership the school leader was now tasked with creating a school culture which fostered and empowered others to take up leadership roles. In this way, it could be linked back to both shared instructional leadership (Marks & Printy, 2003), but also the principles of transformational leadership (Hallinger, 2003).

2.3.6 Professional Learning Communities

Dimmock and Tan (2016) suggested that a revised construct of instructional leadership should promote a school culture where evidence of what works was a valued commodity regardless of its providence, such as academic research, the school's own data, or teachers' experiences. Further, they suggested instructional leaders should foster a culture of research-engaged practice, with a professional learning community (PLC) presented

as the perfect environment in which an instructional leader could foster research engaged practices.

Various scholars have identified the benefits of PLCs upon student outcomes (Bolam et al., 2005; Newmann & Wehlage, 1995; Stoll et al., 2006). Bolam et al. (2005) explained that while commonalities existed between PLCs, the process of establishing such a community was specific to each school, while Stoll et al. (2006) went as far as to suggest that there was no single definition of a PLC. Hord (1997), in her seminal literature review on the PLC, approached understanding this term by describing the antecedent that in part stimulated its creation. She described a North American education system that relied on selected programs to bring about school improvement but that in reality secured change only at a surface level:

> A quick-fix mentality, especially prevalent in U.S. culture, resulted in many schools being poorly prepared for their plans for change and therefore implementing change in a superficial and less-than-high-quality way. This approach might be called the "microwave oven" theory of school improvement: Pop a new program in for four minutes with a hero principal to manage it and improvement is done. What then? (p. 6)

As a response to this less than effective method of change management, PLCs were initiated as a solution focussed approach to improving learning, that was specific to the needs of each school.

Hord (1997) also described five attributes of a PLC, many of which exhibited cross over with the leadership theories already discussed in this chapter. The first was *supportive and shared leadership,* in which school leaders demonstrated three traits, "the ability to share authority, the ability to facilitate the work of staff, and the ability to participate without dominating" (p. 17). These traits were echoed in the principles of shared instructional leadership (Marks & Printy, 2003). Closely linked to this was another attribute, *collective creativity*, where as a community the staff collaborated to bring about improvements in student learning, regardless of their formal role or rank, similar in nature to expectations for teachers as leaders (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). In *shared values and visions*, rather than staff accepting the vision of others, they were part of the creation process themselves, mirroring the second of the five practices of exemplary leadership, inspire a shared vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2013).

However, in Hord's (1997) PLC the expectation was that the vision would consist of an unconditional commitment to improving student learning, reflecting a focus on learning found in some of the versions of instructional leadership and its variants (Hattie, 2015; MacBeath, 2006). The attribute of *Shared Personal Practice* meant the PLC required staff members

that were prepared to both share their classroom practice and welcome feedback from their peers, similar to the expectations of collaboration in shared instructional leadership (Marks & Printy, 2003). The final of Hord's (1997) suggested attributes, was *supportive conditions*. This referred both to the structures of the school, such as allowing time for necessary dialogue and collaboration to occur, as well as the dispositions of the staff towards engaging in a collaborative process of improvement. Regarding this final PLC attribute several academics also referenced the creation of a culture of dialogue, as an important aspect of school leadership (Hattie, 2015; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; MacBeath, 2006). One of MacBeath's (2006) five principles of leadership for learning, "dialogue is central" (p. 41), promoted discourse that was respectful and reciprocal between staff members, regardless of their level within the school structure, and discourse which fostered improvement in learning. MacBeath (2006) highlighted however, the difficulty in sometimes achieving a mutually respectful dialogue when traditional hierarchical interactions had dominated the school setting.

2.4 Integrated Leadership

This review of transformational and instructional leadership, as well as their related theories, concludes with reference to *integrated leadership* (Marks & Printy, 2003), as it combined both of these prominent leadership styles. As discussed earlier, Marks and Printy defined shared instructional leadership as a culture where leadership was distributed and where teachers

had a responsibility to collaborate, cooperate, and support each other in the development of their pedagogical practice. These authors combined shared instructional leadership with the practices of transformational leadership, calling it integrated leadership. Marks and Printy suggested that while transformational leadership could foster a collective effort towards achieving a desired vision, it lacked the focus on the core purpose of teaching, that instructional leadership could bring. However, without the interpersonal aspects of transformational leadership, through which the school leader fostered stakeholder commitment and support, the practices promoted by instructional leadership would fail. The symbiotic relationship between the two leadership approaches within integrated leadership, was also hinted at by Robinson at al. (2009), despite these authors promoting pedagogical leadership over transformational leadership as having the greater impact on student outcomes:

> Given transformational leadership's emphasis on relationships and pedagogical leadership's emphasis on educational purposes, one could argue that both theories are needed. It is certainly important not to set up an artificial opposition between the two. Indeed, transformational leadership is increasingly incorporating elements that are specifically educational, and pedagogical leadership is attending to relational matters such as consensus on school goals. (p. 38)

The integrated leadership research of Marks and Printy (2003) included a sample of 24 elementary and secondary schools from a larger group of 300 schools, all of which had been identified as making "substantial progress in their reform efforts" (p. 378). These North American schools ranged across 16 states and 22 school districts. Data were gathered utilising both qualitative and quantitative methods, allowing the authors to identify both the leadership style of the school and the quality of the pedagogical practice within the school. Regarding the former, the researchers identified whether the schools operated transformational leadership, instructional leadership, integrated leadership, or none of these. They summarised that those schools with embedded integrated leadership, had both better quality of pedagogy and better student performance.

The international successful school principalship project (ISSPP) defined effective school leadership practice by synthesising research findings across different countries and identifying the commonalities (Gurr, 2015). Similar to integrated leadership, the ISSPP discovered that successful leaders do not engage solely in either instructional or transformational leadership but rather access both as required by the context in which they are situated. Gurr (2015) suggested that academic debates concerning the best leadership practices hold little importance to successful school leaders, as instead they adopt a pragmatic approach, utilising different aspects of various theories as required by the situation.

2.5 Servant Leadership

The next leadership theory to be considered in this literature review, servant leadership, was not specific to a school context, but was included because it had been promoted by the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education in all three of the school leadership conferences it conducted in 2021. Servant leadership demonstrated cross over with a number of leadership theories already discussed within this literature review. In promoting the leader listening to their stakeholders, developing others, and forming positive relationships through displays of integrity and trustworthiness (Cerit, 2009; Laub, 1999; van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010), servant leadership alluded to the practices of both distributed and transformational leadership. What set servant leadership apart from these however, was that according to its founding proponent, Robert K Greenleaf, the servant leader was a servant to others first, before coming to the decision to adopt the mantle of leadership (Greenleaf, 2002, 2014).

van Dierendonck and Patterson (2010) also identified two further ways servant leadership differed from other leadership theories. First, the servant leader was committed to the welfare of their followers, rather than the organisation they led. This concern for others resulted in highly ethical and moral behaviours by the servant leader. Second, the servant leader was positioned as first among equals. Their abandonment of promoting their own interests and their focus on the wellbeing of their followers, provided the

motivation for stakeholders to follow their lead, rather than any assertion of power. However, elements of these expectations are seen in other forms of leadership. Clearly the expectation of the leader being first among equals reflects the tenets of distributed leadership (Harris & Spillane, 2008), teachers as leaders (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001), and shared instructional leadership (Marks & Printy, 2003). The ethical behaviours promoted by van Dierendonck and Patterson (2010) were also present in *moral leadership* where leaders used "a system of moral values to guide organisation decision making" (Leithwood et al., 1999, p. 18). Even in transformational leadership, Bass et al. (2003) included in their description of the characteristics of idealised influence, both the practising of moral and ethical leadership behaviour and the promotion of the needs of others above their own. Perhaps the key differences of servant leadership from other leadership theories, therefore, were the overall foci on the welfare of the individuals in the organisation, rather than on that of the organisation itself, and Greenleaf's (2002) assertion, that the servant leader comes to their leadership role from the position of the servant.

2.6 Technology Leadership

Expectations for schools to utilise technology and develop students as digital citizens, became increasingly ubiquitous and thus presented new responsibilities for the school leader to fulfil (Chang, 2012; Crompton, 2017; Flanagan & Jacobsen, 2003; Raman et al., 2014; Zhong, 2017). Further,

technology in schools required heavy investment, also ensuring accountability existed for school leaders, to ensure such technology supported improved outcomes (Anderson & Dexter, 2005; Raman et al., 2014). Technology leadership as such, transcended simple resource procurement and management, to include many aspects of developing teaching and learning, within a digital context (Anderson & Dexter, 2005; Flanagan & Jacobsen, 2003).

The International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) is a membership group established for various education-based stake holders, to support the effective delivery of technology in schools (Crompton, 2017). One way they did this was by creating a set of guidelines which they defined as "the standards for learning, teaching and leading in the digital age and [which they suggested] are widely recognized and adopted worldwide" (p. 2). Standards were created according to roles in school, and thus included standards for education leaders (International Society for Technology in Education, 2019). Various iterations of the ISTE standards for education leaders have been referenced in related research, and in some cases used as the definition of technology leadership (Anderson & Dexter, 2005; Chang, 2012; Raman et al., 2014; Zhong, 2017). This literature review continues this trend by referencing as its construct of technology leadership, the latest version of the ISTE standards for education leaders (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1

The ISTE Standards for Education Leaders 2019

Standards	Standard Summary
3.1 Equity and Citizenship Advocate	*Leaders use technology to increase equity, inclusion, and digital citizenship practices. Education leaders:*
3.2 Visionary Planner	*Leaders engage others in establishing a vision, strategic plan and ongoing evaluation cycle for transforming learning with technology.*
3.3 Empowering Leader	*Leaders create a culture where teachers and learners are empowered to use technology in innovative ways to enrich teaching and learning.*
3.4 Systems Designer	*Leaders build teams and systems to implement, sustain and continually improve the use of technology to support learning.*
3.5 Connected Learner	*Leaders model and promote continuous professional learning for themselves and others.*

Note. Adapted from International Society for Technology in Education.

(2019). *ISTE Standards*. https://www.iste.org/standards

The ISTE standards for education leaders (International Society for Technology in Education, 2019) reflected many of the leadership theories already discussed, but with a focus on technology. Thus, these standards promoted the leader's role in ensuring equity between students, something that is also seen in Dimmock and Tan's (2016) revision of instructional leadership. The leader as a visionary, presented in transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006), and the practices of exemplary leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2013), were also presented in the ISTE standards for education leaders. The empowerment of teachers to utilise technology innovatively and to experiment collaboratively to improve pedagogy, reflects similar principles within professional learning communities (Hord, 1997). Building teams to initiate and sustain systems has a connection to the teamwork and collaboration of Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 2000),

while the call for continual improvement, within the same ISTE standard, reflects the expectations in instructional leadership for cyclical improvement (Hallinger, 2005). Finally, the expectation for the technology leader to be directly involved in both leading and participating in professional development, echoes some interpretations of instructional leadership (Hattie, 2009). In summary, technology leadership, as defined by the ISTE standards for education leaders (International Society for Technology in Education, 2019), was founded upon previous leadership theories, but framed within the context of technology.

2.7 Dimensions of Effective School Leadership

To conclude this review of prominent school leadership theories, the report *School Leadership and Student Outcomes: Identifying What Works and Why* (Robinson et al., 2009) was worthy of attention due to its vast scope focused specifically on school leadership. Published as part of the New Zealand Ministry of Education's *Iterative Best Evidence Synthesis* programme (BES), the document described the authors' attempts to identify the most impactful school leadership practices on student outcomes. To do so, this BES review referenced and analysed 134 studies, 27 of which directly quantified the relationship between school leadership and various student outcomes.

From this body of research, Robinson et al. (2009) identified dimensions of effective school leadership (see Figure 2.2). Five of these

were derived from the direct evidence of the 27 studies. A further six were identified from indirect evidence, where research studies focussing on interventions with positive student outcomes were explored, and the role of leadership within that success identified. Three of the dimensions of effective leadership practice were common to both those generated through direct and indirect evidence, leading to the total of eight dimensions in all.

From the five dimensions derived solely from direct evidence, Robinson et al. (2009) compared effect sizes on student outcomes through a meta-analysis (see Figure 2.2). Of those five dimensions of effective leadership for which effect sizes were calculated, the effect size of promoting and participating in teacher learning and development, *p=0.84* (Robinson et al., 2009, p. 38) was double its nearest neighbour. To place this in context, Robinson et al. (2009) considered, "an effect size of 0.2 to be small, 0.4 to be medium, and 0.6 to be large" (p. 95). Apart from this obvious outlier, the remaining four dimensions were limited in their impact on student outcomes. The best of them had a moderate impact and the worst approached a weak effect size. Despite this, Robinson et al. (2009) promoted all the eight identified dimensions, both those with an effect size and those without, as making a "difference to outcomes for students" (p. 48).

Figure 2.2

Dimensions of Effective Leadership and KSD

Dimensions of Effective Leadership			Leadership knowledge, skills, and dispositions
Dimensions from Direct Evidence	**Effect Size**	**Dimensions from only Indirect Evidence**	
● Dimension 1 Establishing goals and expectations	0.42	● Dimension 6 Creating educationally powerful connections	● Engage in open-to-learning conversations.
● Dimension 2 Resourcing strategically	0.31	● Dimension 7 Engaging in constructive problem talk	● Ensure administrative decisions are informed by knowledge about effective pedagogy.
● Dimension 3 Planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum	0.42	● Dimension 8 Selecting, developing, and using smart tools	● Analyse and solve complex problems.
● Dimension 4 Promoting and participating in teacher learning and development	0.84		● Build relational trust.
● Dimension 5 Ensuring an orderly and supportive environment	0.27		

Note. Adapted from Robinson, V., Hohepa, M., & Lloyd, C. (2009). *School Leadership and Student Outcomes: Identifying What Works and Why Best Evidence Synthesis*. New Zealand Ministry of Education. https://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/series/2515/60170

In addition to the eight leadership dimensions, Robinson et al. (2009) also identified knowledge, skills, and dispositions (KSD) required for school leaders to successfully enact the dimensions of effective leadership (see Figure 2.2). Robinson et al. (2009) did not attempt to distinguish what constituted knowledge, a skill, or a disposition, suggesting these would be artificial delineations and that instead school leaders would apply the KSD to

their context as appropriate. They also did not suggest their list was exhaustive but asserted that the four KSD they identified, were based on evidence found in their analysis. Finally, Robinson et al. (2009) asserted, that the KSD should not be considered as traits exhibited by a single leader, rather the KSD in a successful school would be distributed throughout the leadership of the school.

Robinson et al. (2009) placed their analyses of the research evidence in the context of finding answers to three questions. The first queried the impact that various leadership approaches had on student outcomes. This was a general question applicable to a range of educational environments, but the second question was specific to the setting of New Zealand: "What is the role of leadership in interventions and programmes that improve student learning in New Zealand contexts?" (p. 36). The final question queried the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to enact the practices identified from the first two questions. It was the focus on the New Zealand context of question two, that raised some concerns regarding the sources of evidence used within this BES project (Notman, 2010; Youngs, 2011). Of the 27 studies utilised to calculate the various effect sizes, 18 originated from the USA, with only one from New Zealand. Youngs (2011) suggested that within the cultural context of America, the definition of effective education could often be reduced to achievement on test scores. Therefore, the cultural definition of effective student outcomes in these American studies, may have

contrasted with the inquiry-based learning promoted by the New Zealand

Ministry of Education (Youngs, 2011). Robinson et al. (2008) in an earlier

paper discussing the same research, acknowledged that the definition of

successful outcomes for the various research papers they referenced, was

difficult to define; "without close inspection of assessment items in the

various standardized tests used, it is difficult to evaluate the intellectual

depth of the skills and knowledge being assessed" (p. 641). What was being

promoted as best practice in school leadership by Robinson et al. (2009) was

potentially based on data from a different culture, with different expectations

of its education system.

Concerns were also raised regarding the sector from which the

evidence for Robinson et al.'s (2009) meta-analysis was sourced (Notman,

2010). Much of the evidence upon which the dimensions of effective

leadership were based came from the primary sector and therefore the

applicability of the research findings to secondary leadership could be

questioned. Robinson herself, following the BES project, was involved in a

different research project which proposed that leadership approaches vary

between primary and secondary schools (Bendikson et al., 2012). The

transferability of the findings of this BES project, where one sector

dominated the sources of evidence, may therefore have been weakened.

However, Robinson et al. (2009) made it clear within their report, that they

were not presenting a set of rules to be applied unquestioningly. Instead,

they expected judicial consideration by the school leader, about the applicability of each dimension of effective leadership, to the specific context in which they were situated. Robinson et al. (2009) recognised that no one set of guidelines or rules could be extrapolated from research, and uniformly applied to different situations with guaranteed success. They suggested that part of leadership was being able to make discerning judgements on what to utilise and in what way:

> What research findings cannot do is provide situation-specific solutions for particular leadership problems, precisely because there will always be something unique about the contextual factors and their interplay. The context-specific nature of leadership means that there are no rules that guarantee positive impacts, even if faithfully followed. That is why there are no rules in this BES. What the reader will find instead are clear guidelines backed by sound theoretical explanations—guidelines concerning what leaders should try to influence and how to do this in ways that will increase the likelihood of success. (pp. 71-72)

For Robinson et al., context was key in shaping the leadership tools principals accessed to ensure effective outcomes. The impact of context on the implementation of leadership theories will be continued in the following sections.

2.8 Policy Borrowing

At the start of the twentieth century, in his paper *How far can we learn anything of practical value from the study of foreign systems of education?*, Sir Michael Sadler (1900, cited in Higginson, 1979) answered his own question by suggesting benefits could indeed arise from investigating such systems. More recently the field of comparative education has been dominated by international large scale assessment tools, such as The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), or The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement's Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) (Auld & Morris, 2014; Crossley, 2012; Sellar & Lingard, 2013; Steiner-Khamsi & Waldow, 2018; You, 2020). Applied across national boundaries, the tools are used to compare the performance and welfare of students in education systems from across the world, with governments then using this information to select which education initiatives will be borrowed from others and implemented in their own countries (Crossley, 2012; McDonald, 2012). These international large-scale assessment tools have been used to rank each national education system and in doing so, effectively define what constitutes "best practice". As an example of this process, Clapham and Vickers (2018) described England's 2016 PISA rankings in mathematics, as the stimulus to a process of policy borrowing. In response to this ranking, the Secretary of State for

Education committed the English Education system to borrowing from Shanghai, the strategy of mastery in mathematics. Shanghai, under PISA, had been ranked highly in the field of mathematics, and mastery was identified as a key policy in supporting this.

In discussing policy borrowing, Auld and Morris (2014) detailed a new paradigm in which building world class schools, on the foundations of best practices from other nations, was considered paramount. Auld and Morris identified three assumptions that formed a supportive framework for this new paradigm. The third of these was "Causal factors/processes are independent, absolute and universal. That is, they do not interfere with one another, they exert a constant and predictable effect, and they are not influenced by context" (p. 135). In order for the new paradigm to be justified, it had to be assumed that those policies and practices identified for borrowing, would work anywhere, regardless of the context they were being used in. If best practices were to be transferred from one education system to another, socio-cultural factors external to schools had to be relegated in significance. The emphasis instead was placed purely on the systems and structures that existed within the receiving school. Thus, without external factors to consider, if practices worked elsewhere and were adopted effectively, improvements would follow. Under this assumption, the importance of the wider context in which the school was situated, was considered negligible.

In contrast to the assumption detailed above, Phillips and Ochs (2003) identified the influence of context throughout their four stages of education policy borrowing between national identities. These stages were: i) cross-national attraction; ii) decision; iii) implementation; and iv) internalisation/indigenisation. In the first of these, Phillips and Ochs juxtaposed six foci of cross-national attraction against contextual factors that would impact the successful implementation of the policy. The latter included political, economic, social, cultural, demographic, historical, and religious contextual elements. In the decision stage, when governments decided on which aspects of education to adopt from other countries, Philips and Ochs provided examples of "quick fix" attempts, where the context of the receiving country did not support the policy being borrowed. Again, in the final two stages, the contextual factors of the receiving country were emphasised by these authors, as impacting on how effectively the borrowed policy could be implemented and internalised:

> The context of the 'target' country must also be considered, particularly in comparison to that of the 'home' country, regarding possible implementation (Stage III). Careful examination of the context in both the 'home' and 'target' countries is essential to evaluate compatibility and comparability and so to determine what it is possible to borrow, given different cultural mores, demographics, etc. (p. 458)

There is a sharp discordance between the assumption identified by Auld and Morris (2014) that best practice is effective, independent of context, and the impact of context identified by Phillips and Ochs (2003), throughout the four stages of education policy borrowing.

2.8.1 Implementation Gap

Educational researchers have also identified in a number of areas, *implementation gaps* (Merle et al., 2022; Sanetti & Collier-Meek, 2019), where evidence-based practices (EBPs) were not appropriately implemented in school settings. In contexts as diverse as digitalisation (Håkansson Lindqvist & Pettersson, 2019), mental health (Goldenthal et al., 2021; Langley et al., 2010; Lyon & Bruns, 2019), interventions for autism (Locke et al., 2016), national educational reform (Sanetti & Collier-Meek, 2019) or social, emotional, and behavioural needs (Merle et al., 2022), a gap existed between what was supported by evidence as being good practice and what was actually practised in schools. Merle et al. (2022) identified four determinants that impacted on the implementation of the EBPs. These were: determinants external to the school, such as funding or policy; determinants internal to the school, including school leadership and the school culture; determinants specific to the individuals tasked with implementing the practice, such as teacher's beliefs; and determinants inherent to the EBP itself, such as the expense it incurs. These four determinants can be grouped under the cohesive label of context. A dissonance between EBPs and the

context in which a school operated, potentially impeded the successful implementation of the former.

Similarly, numerous examples suggest that borrowing education policies from other nations without careful consideration of local context, may result in an implementation gap. Clapham and Vickers (2018) cited issues of teachers' specialisms, the structure of the school day and the valuing of education by the community, as impeding the internalisation in English schools, of the Shanghai mastery approach to mathematics. Lex (2012) described the introduction of inclusive education in Samoa, as failing to embed due to a lack of consideration of the socio-cultural climate. Phillips and Ochs (2003) referenced the introduction of outcomes-based education to a South African context that did not have the necessary infrastructure to support it. Gupta (2022) detailed potential contextual issues that would arise in relation to the Early Childhood Education section of the new Indian National Education Policy, which borrowed from the global North. Repeatedly, the effectiveness of policy borrowing has been shown to be dependent on understanding, or not understanding, contextual factors, particularly at the level of implementation:

> To misunderstand, or indeed ignore, how borrowed policy might play out on the 'shop floor' has major implications. An irrational, headlong dash to borrow policy illustrates how policy makers can 'miss the point'. Such a misunderstanding which, in macro-policy terms,

emanates from a misconstrued decision-making process, can be simply unworkable for those charged with implementing and internalising borrowed policy at the micro scale. (Clapham & Vickers, 2018, p. 802)

This research was focussed on the transfer of leadership theories into a context that potentially varied greatly from where the theories originated. In a similar way to policy borrowing, the socio-cultural context of the receiving system, particularly at the level of schools, and how supportive it was of the theories being introduced, was potentially a critical component of an effective transfer.

2.9 School Leadership and Context

Having reviewed the prominent school leadership theories in academic literature and discussed the impact of context on the process of borrowing best practices in education, the next part of this chapter presents a review of the transfer of theories across international boundaries, within the specific area of school leadership. The section defines what is meant by socio-cultural context, and reviews research on this issue situated within the South East Asian region. This was due to the relevance, geographically, and alignment, culturally, of such research to Brunei Darussalam.

2.9.1 Culture

In Chapter 1 the culture of Brunei Darussalam was explained utilising Hofstede's (1980) framework of four cultural dimensions: power distance;

individualism-collectivism; masculinity-femininity; and uncertainty

avoidance. These four were later expanded to include two additional

dimensions. *Long-term orientation* (LTO), based on Confucian principles,

looked to future rewards through graft and resilience, while *short-term*

orientation (STO) focussed on maintaining the traditions of the past and

seeking gratification from the present (Hofstede et al., 2010; Hofstede &

Bond, 1988). A further difference between the extremes of this cultural

dimension was that individuals within LTO cultures were prepared to

subordinate themselves, while those from STO cultures sought to maintain

dignity and social standing. The final cultural dimension was that of

indulgence versus restraint, or the extent to which individuals spent money,

participated in leisure activities, and behaved in ways of their own choosing

(Hofstede et al., 2010). With such variation within these six cultural

dimensions, difficulties were identified in the transference of ideas between

cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 2010). However, while the six

cultural dimensions presented a range of world views existing between

cultures, they did not define what was meant by the term culture.

Hofstede et al. (2010) defined culture in terms of mental

programming, where "Every person carries within him- or herself patterns of

thinking, feeling, and potential acting that were learned throughout the

person's lifetime" (p. 4). Once established, according to Hofstede et al., it

was difficult to adopt the mental programming of other cultures, as this

involved a process of unlearning. For these authors, culture was a shared

learned construct based on the individual's social context and was not

genetically inherent. Culture was also defined by Hofstede et al. as distinct

from both human nature and personality. They recognised that culture was

not restricted purely to national boundaries, as instead individuals

experienced culture, and the associated mental programming, at many

levels - national, regional, gender, generational, social class, and

employment. This recognition of culture as a learned phenomenon, with both

social foundations and a collective nature, and existing at more than one

level, reflected, to some extent, the tenets of *social constructionism* and

discourse.

2.9.2 Social Constructionism and Discourse

Berger and Luckmann (1969) created a postmodern sociological

theory, *the social construction of reality* which accounted for the diverse

range of perceptions and understandings of reality, under which humanity

operated. Similar to the mental programming of Hofstede et al. (2010),

Berger and Luckmann (1969) acknowledged the power and importance of

the everyday, practical knowledge that is employed by people to make sense

of their world. Berger and Luckmann were thus interested in those

understandings of the world which are accepted by people as everyday

reality; the common-sense knowledge of how to survive within various

socio-cultural contexts. The ontological status of an individual's everyday

reality was confirmed through interactions with others who operated under the same practical framework. The authority of such status was accepted without criticism:

> Common-sense knowledge is the knowledge I share with others in the normal, self-evident routines of everyday life. The reality of everyday life is taken for granted *as* reality. It does not require additional verification over and beyond its simple presence. It is simply *there*, as self-evident and compelling facticity. (Berger & Luckmann, 1969, p. 37)

These authors further suggested that knowledge of everyday reality would remain privileged if it continued to produce a meaningful and coherent world. If the explanatory power of the knowledge was unchallenged, it remained dominant.

Berger and Luckmann (1969) identified language as holding a central role in the construction of reality. They discussed language in terms of the process of *objectivation*, in which humanity's subjective understandings of the world were transformed into solid, objective reality. They described language as having the capacity to "crystallise and stabilise" (p. 53) the subjectivity of experience. Thus, the authors suggested that while language was fundamentally a system of representation, it could offer what appeared to be objective descriptions, a blueprint of the way the world operated. This blueprint was taken for granted as reality, as individuals remained unaware

of the power of the language that they used, "I encounter language as a facticity external to myself and it is coercive in its effect on me" (p. 53). The importance of language as a tool in the construction of reality has been recognised by others (Coates, 2012; Freedman & Coombes, 1996; Potter, 1996; Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Rorty, 1989), with language positioned not as a passive description of objective truths but instead as an entity powerful enough to shape the very reality we experience:

> Postmodernists . . . focus on how the language that we use *constitutes* our world and beliefs. It is in language that societies construct their views of reality. To postmodernists, the only worlds that people can know are the worlds we share in language, and language is an interactive process, not a passive receiving of pre-existing truths. (Freedman & Coombs, 1997, p. 28)

Discourse was defined by Drewery and Winslade (1997) as "a set of more or less coherent stories or statements about the way the world should be" (p. 35). A discourse is a powerful, shared system of language, both written text and spoken dialogue, which is accepted by members of a society or culture as describing and representing reality (Weedon, 1987). Unlike the positivist ontology where reality is fixed and language merely reflects it, the theory of discourse suggests that the language of each society consists of narratives, which create and dominate its world view. In addition, just as

individuals could be members of a range of different cultures (Hofstede et al., 2010), they could also be integrated within multiple discourses.

One of the most influential figures in the study of discourse was French theorist Michael Foucault (Coates, 2012; Kritzman, 1988). Speaking in an interview, Foucault described his aim as attempting to write "the political history of the production of truth" (Kritzman, 1988, p. 112). Rather than simply accepting dominant narratives as the truth, he emphasised their "historical specificity" (Weedon, 1987, p. 107). That is, he looked to the historical context in which a discourse was formed to discover the mechanisms which allowed it to dominate. Foucault interpreted truth as a creation of specific historical, economic, and political factors. For Foucault, power was not as obvious and tangible as the conscious control of the masses by a minority, as he argued that individuals were positioned in discourse and accepted these positions as reality (Winslade, 1994). In a Foucauldian context, individuals rather than being controlled by ruling forces, could be seen as subjugating themselves by accepting the prescriptions and positions of the dominant discourse (Kritzman, 1988). To have challenged this would have been to have challenged the dominant discourses and therefore reality itself. Discourse therefore was subversive, as in accepting discursive positions individuals did not engage in conscious decision making (Davies & Harre, 1990).

2.9.3 Socio-cultural Contexts

Socio-cultural contexts, within the conceptual framework of this research, were socially constructed, with discourse acting as the fundamental building material. Incorporated within socio-cultural contexts were discourses of family, gender, employment, education, economics, religion, and politics. The term socio-cultural context included any common understanding of society, with shared assumptions about the format of activities, positions for stakeholders and rules for interaction. This research sought to identify how well school leadership theories created in the context of Western academic discourse, transferred into the context of the Brunei Darusslam secondary education system. In particular, the research sought to understand the dominant discourses, within the Brunei Darussalam socio-cultural context, which hindered or supported the application of those leadership theories within schools.

2.10 Socio-cultural Context and School Leadership

Referencing an academic report for the American Educational Research Association (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003) which summarised research into six conclusions about successful school leadership, Gurr et al. (2005) identified as a limitation to those conclusions, an overreliance on research evidence from the United Kingdom and North America. Gurr et al. acknowledged that context meant the reality of school leadership was greatly diversified across different countries, yet often in academic research, educational leadership

was treated with uniformity. In an example of this, Leithwood et al. (2008) made seven strong claims about successful school leadership in their paper of the same name, also based on a review of academic research. Included amongst these was the claim that "almost all successful leaders draw on the same repertoire of basic leadership practices" (p. 30). Leithwood et al. in attempting to discover a unified set of effective leadership practices that could be adopted and applied in any socio-cultural context, again, primarily drew upon Anglo-American research. These authors, however, did not identify this as a limitation, suggesting instead that regardless of the context in which they operated, successful leaders would utilise the same four basic leadership practices, merely adapting them to best meet the needs of their situation:

> Some would go so far as to claim that 'context is everything'. However, based on our review of the evidence, this reflects a superficial view of what successful leaders do. Without doubt, successful leaders are sensitive to context, but this does not mean they use qualitatively different practices in every different context. It means, rather, that they apply contextually sensitive combinations of the basic leadership practices described above. (Leithwood et al., 2008, p. 31)

In contrast to this, Ly (2020) detailed the extensive Global Leadership and Organization Behavior Effectiveness Research Programme (the GLOBE

research programme). A large team of investigators gathered data in 62

different countries, from over 17,000 managers, in over 900 organisations.

Amongst other things, this research established the impact of context on the

form leadership takes:

> Leadership . . . cannot be studied without taking into account the
>
> effect of cultural context . . . It cannot be assumed that a manager
>
> who is successful in one country will be successful in another. Cross-
>
> cultural leadership helps organizations understand the cultural
>
> contingencies under which certain leadership approaches work better
>
> than others. (p. 1)

The GLOBE leadership program identified different cultural dimensions which

would impact upon which leadership practices were enacted. Leadership

practices were not unified into a small set of Western behaviours, but

instead diversified as dictated by a broad range of cultural contexts.

2.10.1 Widely Shared Contexts

Moving from leadership in general (Ly, 2020), the impact of context on

the application of leadership practices specifically within schools, has also

been recognised by many academics (Clarke & O'Donoghue, 2017; Foskett &

Lumby, 2003; Goh, 2009; Gurr et al., 2005; Qian & Walker, 2014; Hallinger,

2018; Hallinger & Truong, 2014; O'Donoghue & Clarke, 2009). Hallinger

(2018) distinguished between *person-specific contexts*, brought to a school

leadership role by the individual leader, and a series of *widely shared*

contexts, which externally shaped the reality of education within a school.

While the former consisted of the experiences and world view of the school

leader, acting as a filter through which they responded to situations within

their profession, the latter referred "to features of the broader organizational

and environmental setting within which the school and the principal are

located" (p. 7). Like Gurr (2005), Hallinger (2018) argued that research on

educational leadership had failed to take into account the importance of

context, particularly *widely shared contexts*. Findings about school

leadership were often limited in pure application to the contexts in which

they were produced, contexts which predominantly were Western societies.

Hallinger suggested that academic inquiry needed to consider carefully the

widely shared contextual factors, as it was not possible to simply apply the

findings of research from one context to another.

The widely shared contexts described by Hallinger (2018) consisted of

institutional, community, socio-cultural, national, economic, political, and

school improvement contexts. Institutional context referred to the

expectations of the national and local systems in which school leaders found

themselves operating. Community context was the social hub the school

served and included factors such as rural or urban settings or socio-

economic circumstances. The national context was the set of dominant

norms and discourses that pervaded the society in which the school leader

operated. The economic context recognised that the reality in which school

leaders existed, was dependent on the economic development of the society. The political context defined what constituted success in education. The school improvement context referred to where the school was on their path towards improvement. If a school was ineffective at school improvement, this would have different connotations for leadership practices, than for a school experiencing success in this process. School leaders operated in a reality shaped by all these contexts. Therefore, regardless of what form of school leadership was promoted by academia, it would be applied by school leaders, in a manner dictated by the widely shared contexts in which they worked.

2.10.2 Transferring Theories to South East Asian School Leadership

Numerous academics have researched the effectiveness of transferring school leadership theories, and associated practices, from the West and applying them in a South East Asian context. A research study from Nguyen and Ng Foo Seong (2014) used survey data to investigate whether Singaporean school leaders demonstrated the practices of instructional leadership. These authors defined one aspect of this form of leadership as "aligning teaching practices to the school vision" (p. 6). They found that although the Singaporean school leaders had strengths in many aspects of instructional leadership, this was a weaker strand. They explained that the school leaders did not necessarily align the evaluation of their teachers with the school vision, because Singapore operated an annual appraisal system

for its teachers, with an already established criteria. As this was a national initiative, this was the teaching practice to which they had to align and there was little scope for the school vision to influence the process. Conversely, Pan (2014) in reviewing the development of professional learning communities in Taiwan, discovered that one of the most frequently enacted Taiwanese leadership practices associated with this process was the promotion of a school vision. The author pointed out that this was not surprising, as it had been a requirement in official documentation for Taiwanese school leaders to create a vision since the 1990s. In both countries discourses of institutional context influenced the practice of school leaders, regardless of what scholarly literature might have promoted or expected.

Goh (2009) considered the impact of socio-cultural context on the application of the concept of parallel leadership (Andrews & Lewis, 2004) in Singapore schools. Goh (2009) questioned the applicability of parallel leadership to a Singapore context, referencing socio-cultural factors such as collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. He also considered parallel leadership in the context of the dominant philosophy in Singapore, Confucianism. Goh suggested that many Singaporean teachers may have had difficulty adapting to a new role as a pedagogical leader, such as required by parallel leadership, because within the context of Confucianism they were expected to commit to their formal role within the group, to

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maintain the established hierarchy, to adhere to the rules that govern interactions within it, and to avoid both public challenge to authority and uncertainty in social exchanges. Related to this, Chew and Andrews (2010) reported on the embedding of teacher leadership for pedagogical improvements within a secondary school in Australia and one in Singapore. Based on a school improvement system entitled, Innovative Designs for Enhancing Achievements in Schools (IDEAS) (Crowther et al., 2009), an IDEAS School Management Team (ISMT) was formed to lead the process. The ISMT was intended to provide a safe, collegial space to analyse and improve the pedagogy within the school. However, the dynamics of this group within the Singapore school, initially failed to support such collaboration. The process of transferring IDEAS was undermined by contextual factors. A top-heavy group structure, with six heads of department, stilted the process, "At meetings, relationships between committee members were straitjacketed by their hierarchical positions and unequal power between the more senior teachers and subject teachers. It was impossible for them to dialogue and learn together about pedagogical matters" (Chew & Andrews, 2010, p. 65).

In response to this untenable situation, a new ISMT was formed with only one head of department acting as the facilitator and the remainder of the group consisting of teacher volunteers. The group was now able to function as intended, collaboratively investigating new initiatives to improve

pedagogy. As pedagogical leaders the teachers were provided a safe space in which to agree and trial six schoolwide pedagogical practices to improve learning. Teachers felt secure enough within this process that they were willing to share the practices they used within their classrooms, including videoing their lessons for use in peer analysis. While the study of Chew and Andrews (2010) details the successful application of pedagogical leadership within a Singapore secondary school, what must be noted, is that the change only occurred when the Singaporean school leaders and teachers, broke from the existing socio-cultural expectations of hierarchy:

> What also contributed toward the professional learning of the ISMT teachers was a change in the work arrangement supported by the principal. They were now buffered from the effects of a hierarchical and top-down structure of communication and flow of ideas. The new arrangement was nothing short of being revolutionary and innovative. (p. 67)

In order to enact teacher leadership in a Singaporean context, aspects of Singaporean culture had to be challenged. Indeed, a transformation had to occur in the way the teachers and school leaders interacted.

Hairon and Dimmock (2012) explored the impact of professional learning communities (PLCs), also in Singaporean schools. The authors described how education policy makers in Singapore introduced PLCs as a national policy, in recognition that centralised initiatives could not always

provide the stimulus required to foster the knowledge-based economy

Singapore valued so highly. However, while there was a clear national

commitment to PLCs as a way of refining and improving pedagogical practice

within individual schools, Hairon and Dimmock (2012) questioned what the

reality of this was at the ground level. Within the socio-cultural context of

Singapore's centralised authority and the Ministry of Education hierarchy,

they proposed a number of scenarios ranging from the successful

implementation of PLCs, with stakeholder engagement in a genuine

collaborative culture of enquiry and reflection and the valuing of teacher

input, to a hollow framework of PLC structures, where there was no real buy

in from the participants and no real change in the hierarchical dynamics of

principal and teacher. Hairon and Dimmock (2012) questioned how the

dominant discourses of hierarchy and structured interactions would impact

the need that existed in PLCs for collaboration and dialogue. The experiences

of Chew and Andrews (2010) suggested that in fact without a revolution in

cultural thinking, the latter of the scenarios suggested by Hairon and

Dimmock (2012), was more likely to occur.

The questioning of the successful transferability of the Western

concept of PLCs into a broader Asian context was also supported by the work

of Zhang and Sun-Keung Pang (2016). These two authors compared the

establishment of PLCs in a sample of schools from the two Chinese cities of

Shanghai and Mianyang. While they discovered differences in how teachers

perceived the implementation of PLCs, which the authors explained with reference to the contexts of their respective cities, there were also observations about the PLCs that were consistent to both cities:

> The traditional Chinese culture that emphasizes harmonious relationship and respect for the authority (K. Cheng & Wong, 1996) may result in teachers' superficial collaboration without deep and meaningful discussions. Such barriers exist in the schools of both Shanghai and Mianyang, under such a similar cultural tradition. (Zhang & Sun-Keung Pang, 2016, p. 226)

Hallinger (2018) referenced the application of distributed leadership in Thailand. Similar to the instances discussed, this concept of school leadership rested upon a foundation of shared and collective leadership that was at odds with the social hierarchy that existed in Thai culture. Hallinger referred to "distributed leadership with Thai characteristics" (p. 17) which consisted of a few principals with a senior leader overseeing their work, rather than a distribution of leadership roles amongst all staff. Rather than challenging the existing socio-cultural expectations to embed distributed leadership, such as occurred in Chew and Andrews (2010), in this example it was the leadership theory and its associated practices that were adapted.

All these studies seemed to suggest that often it was not possible to simply take a theory of school leadership developed in one society and seamlessly transplant it into another. Either socio-contextual factors would

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have to be challenged, or some variation would occur due to the impact of shared socio-cultural contextual factors. Indeed, if the variation was extreme enough, the question could be asked as to whether enough of the original intent remained, for the leadership practice to still retain its original label. Brunei Darussalam was committed to sourcing much of its education policy on findings from research originating external to the country. For this reason, the impact of socio-cultural context on the transference of school leadership theories, was of particular significance to this research.

2.10.3 Socio-cultural Context and Effective Education

A further factor which influenced the way leadership practices were applied within schools, was the way that effective education was defined within the specific socio-cultural context. Hallinger and Truong (2014) considered how political and socio-cultural definitions of successful education, impacted the application of leadership theories in schools. Using the example of Vietnam, they explained that politically the communist party dictated many aspects of school life, from the numbers of pupils enrolled, to the recruitment and appointment of staff. Socio-culturally Vietnamese education also reflected the principles of Confucianism, including both respect for elders, and placing the needs of the family and the community before one's own. The authors suggested that Confucianism was the source of the hierarchical nature of Vietnamese society, which in turn was reflected in Vietnamese schools, with the principal an unquestionable figure of

authority. Hallinger and Truong (2014) further explained that a Vietnamese

principal, in the social, cultural, and political context in which they operated,

would define success in their schools in terms of their managerial and

political responsibilities. Thus, to evaluate their effectiveness as school

leaders against the principles of instructional leadership might be considered

inappropriate, "We have . . . argued that related discourse on school leader

effectiveness fails to take into account the multiple goals and diversity of

values that bear upon principals as they enact their job roles on a day-to-

day basis" (p. 55).

Qian and Walker (2014) held interviews with 11 Shanghai principals to

better understand the context in which they operated and how this effected

their leadership practice. In particular, they wanted to better understand the

impact of three national reforms within Shanghai schools – including reform

of the curriculum. In discussing the impact of the curriculum reform, which

was intended "to cultivate student creativity and initiative by challenging the

existing exam-driven curriculum" (p. 62), they discovered that in the day-to-

day reality of school life, the focus in fact remained on an exam culture, due

to contextual pressures. One participant commented:

> the only criterion that society values in a high school is how many
>
> students can go on to college. The school superintendents also view
>
> schools in this way. Thus, it is meaningless talking about [promoting
>
> students' all-round development] and cultivating more Lu Bans [a

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famous craftsman in ancient China] amongst students. One hundred Lu Bans cannot compare with a zhuangyuan [person who achieves the highest score] in the High Exam. (p. 66)

Once again, the cultural expectations on what constitutes effective education, impacted greatly on the leadership practice within schools. The power lay not within the surface level rhetoric but in fact the discourses and narratives that ran beneath them. The Qian and Walker study illuminated a key point, which was, in studying school leadership it was necessary to consider the political and socio-cultural discourses that constructed the reality of effective education within a specific context.

2.11 Conceptual Framework

In her review of the associated literature, Crawford (2020) identified three purposes of conceptual frameworks promoted by various authors. These were respectively: *argumentation*, *explanation,* and *generation*. The former concerned presenting arguments which justified both the focus area of the research and its design. Explanation highlighted the relationships and connections inherent within the research, while the final purpose concerned generating research questions and research design. Of these three purposes, the conceptual framework of this research predominantly, but not exclusively, focuses on explanation. Within the context of the literature reviewed in this chapter, this conceptual framework describes "the key factors, constructs and variables being studied - and the presumed

relationship between them" (Gray, 2004/2010, p. 174). It does so utilising both narrative and graphic (see Figure 2.3) forms for enhanced clarity (Crawford, 2020; Gray, 2004/2010; Miles et al., 2014). The arguments explaining why the focus of this research is an important area of study, while having been addressed in Chapter 1, are also expanded here. This time however, they are positioned within the reviewed literature.

The literature referenced in this chapter contains a wide range of academic theories of leadership, which impact the professional practices of school leaders (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Hattie, 2015; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Leithwood et al., 2008; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Marks & Printy, 2003; Robinson et al., 2009). These theories, originating exclusively within Western cultures have been increasingly applied within the South East Asian region, with varying results (Chew & Andrews, 2010; Goh, 2009; Hairon & Dimmock, 2012; Qian & Walker, 2014; Hallinger & Truong, 2014; Nguyen & Ng Foo Seong, 2014; Pan, 2014; Zhang & Sun-Keung Pang, 2016). What these latter studies all seem to indicate however, is that the actual application of these theories of school leadership by school leaders, is impacted by the expectations of the socio-cultural context. This study therefore, recognises the importance of further researching the impact of socio-cultural context when school leadership theories, external to where they were developed are transferred to a new receiving context.

The conceptual framework of this research reflects a constructionist position (Berger & Luckmann, 1969) in which reality is created subjectively through language and discourse (Coates, 2012; Drewery & Winslade, 1997; Kritzman, 1988; Weedon, 1987). Utilising these postmodern theories, this conceptual framework identified a relationship between Western academic theories of school leadership and socio-cultural context, as discourses of both, interacted and impacted to shape school leadership within non-Western cultures. In this conceptual framework, the phrase socio-cultural context includes any discursive elements of a society or culture which define both the positions that school leaders and other stakeholders adopt, and the rules of interaction between them. As such, socio-cultural context, includes, among others, the discourses of politics, religion, economics, education, employment, gender, and family.

The academic theories of school leadership detailed in this chapter, do not necessarily maintain their intended form, when applied in new socio-cultural contexts. Instead, they may be adapted or potentially even altered to the point of not being recognisable, as the discourses of the new context act upon them. The various effects of discourses when Western academic leadership theories are transferred into non-Western socio-cultural contexts, are represented in Figure 2.3 by the lines travelling towards the centre of the concentric circles. The curves in the line represent the various levels of adaptation applied to the leadership theories due to the impact of socio-

cultural context. The greater the curve the greater the adaptation. The variety of lines shows that the discourses may support the application of some leadership theories in their pure form, (the straight line) while others will be altered (the curved lines). Still other leadership theories may not be applied within schools at all, (the line not reaching the centre circle), as the social cultural discourses will not support their utilisation.

Figure 2.3

Conceptual Framework

Western

Academic

Theory

School

Leadership

Non-Western
Socio-cultural Context

Political

Family

Religion

Gender

School
Leadership
Practice

Economics

Employment

Education
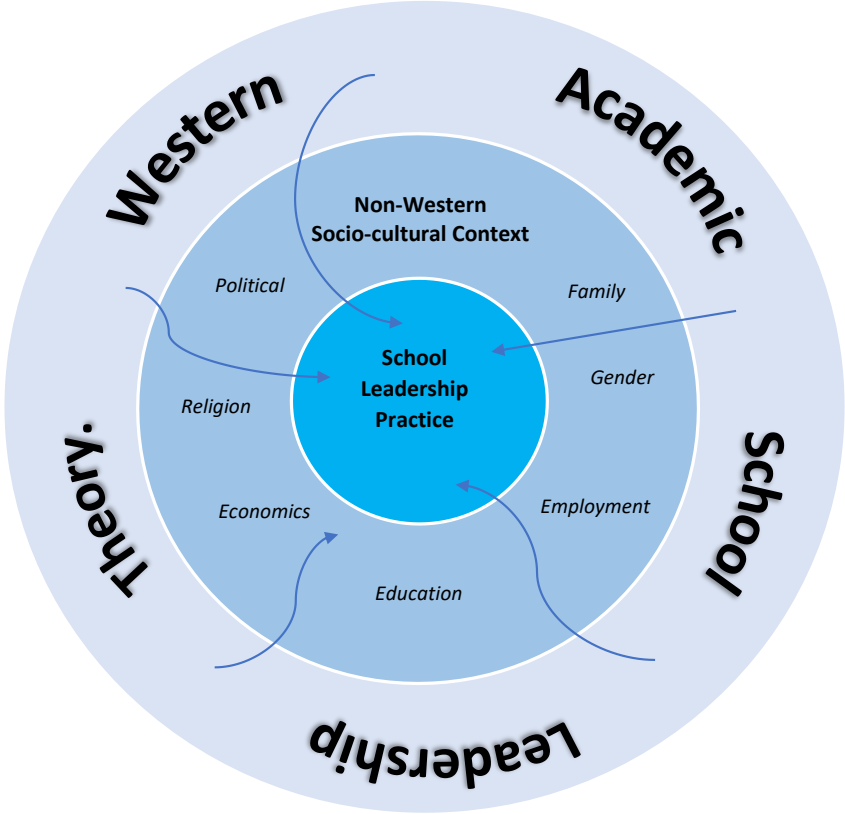
2.11.1 Conceptual Framework: Methodological Application

Within the context of this current research, this conceptual framework represents what occurred when Western academic school leadership theories, interacted with the dominant discourses of Brunei Darussalam. In this context, the outer circle becomes: Western Academic Theories of School Leadership Promoted by the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education. The next circle of the conceptual framework becomes: the Socio-cultural Context of Brunei Darussalam, while the centre circle becomes: Brunei Secondary School Leadership Practice. The relationship between the Western academic theories and the Brunei Darusslam MoE was clarified through a document analysis. It identified which theories the MoE promoted to their school leaders as good practice. The relationship between those theories promoted by the MoE and the actual professional practice adopted by the Brunei secondary school leaders themselves, is represented by the lines travelling towards the centre of the circles. By utilising a questionnaire, this research was able to discover the frequency that those leadership theories, and their associated practices, were being utilised by Brunei secondary school leaders, and how significant they were considered to be. Finally, the relationship between the Western school leadership theories promoted by the MoE, the Brunei socio-cultural discourses and the leadership practices of the Brunei secondary school leaders, is represented by the variations in the lines. The impact of the Brunei socio-cultural discourses on the leadership practices

employed by the Brunei secondary school leaders, was identified via semi-structured interviews. All three of these phases are detailed in the next chapter on methodology.

2.12 Summary

This chapter has identified a broad range of academic theories of school leadership. While some stood in isolation from each other, others demonstrated crossover and even integration. However, some of the leadership constructs explored in this chapter, contradicted each other, including in some cases, those that operated under the same title. Despite these variations, it was apparent that no leadership theory utilised in isolation, provided all the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to successfully respond to all the eventualities that arose in leading a school. Further, the most successful school leaders were not devoted followers of one leadership construct over another, but instead utilised practices from a variety of theories, as dictated by the requirements of the situation.

Also considered, was the process of policy borrowing and the influence of socio-cultural context, when perceived best practices were applied in new settings. Often socio-cultural context caused a gap between the selected policies and their successful implementation. Related to this, the literature review considered various examples where Western academic theories of school leadership, having been transferred to South East Asian countries, were impacted by socio-cultural context. The review of these studies

suggested that such leadership theories applied in cultures external to where they originated, in response to the dominant socio-cultural discourses, will often undergo some level of adaptation, or simply not be embedded at all. On rare occasions the socio-cultural discourses of the receiving culture may be challenged, to allow the transfer of the theory, and its associated practices, in its original form.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter details the various components that comprised the methodology of this research. It begins by positioning the research within a constructionist ontological framework. The chapter then proceeds to refine the research ontology, until it adopts the tenets of pragmatism. Within a pragmatic framework, a three-phase sequential mixed methods research design is introduced. The phases of data collection in the order they were completed, are then presented: document analysis, questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews. This includes the process of each phase, how validity was secured, and how the data was analysed. The chapter concludes with a section on ethics and how an ethical stance was maintained throughout the research.

3.1 Philosophical Approach

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) defined a research paradigm as, "a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions that a community of researchers has in common regarding the nature and conduct of research" (p. 24). The dichotomy of the quantitative and qualitative methodologies dominates research paradigms, with the ontological beliefs most prominently associated with these being the *positivist* for the former, and the *constructivist* for the latter (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Mertens, 2003; Nastasi et al., 2010; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The quantitative paradigm is framed within an ontology which posits reality as objective and that humans interact with it

accordingly. Contrastingly, the qualitative paradigm exists in a world view

where reality is subjective, created through human language and discourse.

There is a continuum of world views held by social researchers and at its

extremes, are these two contrasting paradigms (Cohen et al., 2011; Gray,

2004/2010; Hartas, 2010b; Muijs, 2011). Depending on where a researcher

positions themselves on this continuum influences their choice of research

methods. In explaining the chosen methodological approach for this

research, it was important to first consider where the research was

positioned within that range. To do so, it was necessary to gain a better

understanding of some of the important movements that have caused such

conflicting views.

3.1.1 Modern and Postmodern World Views

Many authors have suggested that defining *postmodernism* is both a

difficult and complex task (Cohen et al., 2011; Harvey, 1990; Potter, 1996).

However, beyond these complexities, an understanding of postmodernism

can be gained by considering it in relation to the movement that preceded it,

modernism, "No one exactly agrees as to what is meant by the term, except,

perhaps, that 'postmodernism' represents some kind of reaction to, or

departure from, 'modernism'" (Potter, 1996, p. 7). Throughout the *modern*

age there was an underlying theme of the universal (Bauman, 1992).

Modern humanity was engaged in a quest to understand an objective reality

through the discovery of universal truths. Success in this quest was to have

granted humankind control over the natural world. Consequently, certain knowledge and understandings of the world were privileged as being true and therefore beyond challenge (Bauman, 1992). Any dissent against such knowledge was dismissed as heralding uncertainty and disorder.

Aligned to the modernist movement were both *structuralism* and *positivism*. From a structuralist perspective underlying the physical observable world were intrinsic and universal structures or rules of being (Kurzweil, 2017; Payne, 2000). Identifying the essential underlying configuration was comparable to deciphering a code. Structuralists could give meaningful interpretation to the manifestations that occurred in their area of interest, by referencing them against the structural framework they had identified. Claims of an essential underlying structure were made despite the existence of cultural variation and social anomalies (Payne, 2000).

Positivism denoted an epistemology of reason and scientific enquiry (Cohen et al., 2011; Hicks, 2004). Cohen et al. (2011) recognised French philosopher Auguste Comte as the founder of modern positivism, and the creation of sociology as a distinct area of academic endeavour. Comte promoted the study of sociology through similar methods to those utilised in empirical research: "Comte's position was to lead a general doctrine of positivism which held that all genuine knowledge is based on sense experience and can only be advanced by means of observation and

experiment" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 7). From this foundation, positivist sociologists aligned their approaches with those of the natural sciences. Consequently, they also operated under the assumption that there were general laws of society, which could be identified and applied universally.

In the context of these simple definitions of modernism, structuralism, and positivism, it was possible to understand what was broadly meant by postmodernism. The American philosopher Rorty (1989) suggested that as early as the eighteenth century, through a combination of social upheaval and literary experimentation, "the idea that truth was made rather than found began to take hold of the imagination of Europe" (p. 3). The Romantic poets and the revolutionaries of their age came to realise they had the power to manipulate reality through language: "What was glimpsed at the end of the eighteenth century was that anything could be made to look good or bad, important or unimportant, useful or useless, by being redescribed" (p. 7). Both artists and writers began to experiment in their respective fields, for ways of producing insight into truth which was no longer considered to be solely the domain of empirical study.

Payne (2000) also identified disillusionment with scientific progress, as contributing to the advent of postmodern thought: "Even before the term 'postmodern' began to be used, there was a widespread revulsion against the idea that science was intrinsically objective, truth based and benevolent" (p. 24). He went on to suggest that the application of science to destruction

and chaos, in the form of the Nazi genocide and the American atomic bomb, coupled with its failure to resolve twentieth century crises, such as disease and pollution, created an environment in which the ontological claims of modernist thought were challenged, and postmodernism evolved.

According to Hicks (2004) both Kant and Nietzsche were prominent in the philosophical heritage of postmodernism with the former rejecting reason as a medium to access reality, and the latter suggesting that as there are an infinite number of perspectives, so there are an infinite number of ways in which each aspect of the world can be interpreted. Nietzsche (cited by Norris, 1991) recognised the importance of rhetoric in shaping logic and reason and as such was critical of objective truth claims. The argument put forward was that reality is forged in language and as such no perspective represented the universal. In contrast to modern theorists therefore, postmodernists did not accept the existence of eternal truths (Hartas, 2010c). Rather, attempts to describe such truths were interpreted by postmodernists, as but one possible understanding of reality amongst many.

In the context of these understandings of both modernism and postmodernism, the ontology of this research fell within the latter. In studying how leadership theories from other cultures were utilised in the Brunei Darussalam secondary school system, this research was not seeking absolute truths nor underlying universal structures. The research was instead attempting to understand the experiences of Brunei secondary

school leaders, with these external leadership theories, and in doing so recognised that any findings were specific to the socio-cultural context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam. These experiences were socially constructed by the discourses that surrounded school leadership in the socio-cultural context.

3.1.2 Pragmatism

While the ontology and epistemology of this research was both postmodernist and social constructionist, I was not interested in the conflict of the *paradigm wars*, that existed between quantitative and qualitative social science researchers, based on their respective stances of positivism or interpretivism (Feilzer, 2010; Gage, 2009; Gorard, 2010; Muijs, 2011; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Similarly, this research did not accept the tenets of the *incompatibility thesis*, which promoted the complete absence of interaction between these two styles of methodology (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Hartas (2010a) discussed how quantitative research was often prioritised politically above qualitative work, for both its perceived empirical rigour and its perceived ability to provide solutions which could be applied to all contexts. However, I recognised the importance that both forms of research methodology could bring, and in doing so, adopted, the position of *pragmatism* (Feilzer, 2010; Hartas, 2010c; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Muijs, 2011; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Tashakkori

& Teddlie, 1998; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Pragmatism was developed as a philosophy in America by Charles Sanders Pierce, William James and latterly James Dewey (Feilzer, 2010; Hartas, 2010c; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Muijs, 2011; Stuhr, 2010; Vescio et al., 2008). Like social constructionism, it refuted the existence of one absolute truth, instead valuing the knowledge that is obtained, regardless of its providence: "The key question for pragmatists is not 'is it true?' or 'is it right?', but 'does it work?'" (Muijs, 2011, p. 6).

Pragmatists start from a position of recognising the shared purpose of researchers, regardless of their ontological and epistemological position. Researchers all seek to understand the truth of a chosen field of study, whether that truth be absolute or interpretivist (Feilzer, 2010). Pragmatists reject the dichotomy of objective and subjective approaches, and the inherent combative nature. A pragmatic approach to research allowed the researcher access to the most appropriate techniques, as dictated by the needs of their research question (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Combining quantitative and qualitative data ensured the researcher could access a scope of knowledge inaccessible from just one of the approaches, as the pragmatist researcher could now either hone in to the micro or zoom out to the macro (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). This research study, while denying that quantitative methods provided access to positivist objective truth, still recognised the valuable insights to be gained from these methods. The

ontology for this research study therefore, was pragmatic, while the methodological approach was mixed.

3.2 Mixed Methods Research Paradigm

A number of scholars have promoted the mixed methods research as a viable addition to the mainstream qualitative and quantitative research methodologies (Hall & Howard, 2008; Johnson et al., 2007; R. B. Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Johnson et al. (2007) in a seminal text, reviewed various definitions of mixed methods from key protagonists, to identify common themes and discuss some of the key elements of such research. These authors aligned the worldview of mixed methods research with pragmatism, albeit on a continuum with each extreme defined by a stronger sense of realism or alternatively pluralism. Johnson et al. (2007) also referenced *the fundamental principle of the mixed research*, in which quantitative or qualitative research strategies, were tactically combined in ways which complemented their strengths and negated their weaknesses. These authors identified that mixed methods research provided a depth of data for answering a research question, unattainable from either qualitative or quantitative approaches used in isolation. In the methodology of this research, gathering a rich and deep pool of data to respond to the research questions, was a key consideration in choosing a mixed methods approach. Finally, Johnson et al. (2007) suggested that mixed methods researchers should be aware of and sensitive

to the socio-political nuances of their research context. The current mixed methods research, set in Brunei Darussalam, was particularly considerate of the socio-cultural context of this society and how it influenced secondary school leadership.

3.2.1 Convergent and Sequential

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) described two mixed methods research designs, that form the foundation for a number of variants: *the parallel mixed design;* and *the sequential mixed design*. The first of these, also synonymous with the *convergent design,* involved qualitative and quantitative research methods being conducted simultaneously, though not necessarily starting and finishing at the same time (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Both strands then contributed to answering the research question. By contrast, in the sequential mixed design one strand was completed before the next was started, with the latter strand building upon what had been discovered in the initial phase. It was the latter design, the sequential mixed design, that I adopted as the most relevant methodological approach.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) took the sequential mixed design and separated it further, into two distinct approaches depending on whether the quantitative or qualitative strand had occurred first. *The exploratory sequential design* began with the collection of qualitative data which provided the researcher with an understanding of the context they were

studying. They then used this understanding to design and administer a quantitative research tool, unique to the focus of their study. Alternatively, *the explanatory sequential design* began with the collection of quantitative data, which identified key themes, while the qualitative data allowed the researcher to understand some of the contextual intricacies behind those themes. In the context of this research both the exploratory sequential and the explanatory sequential approaches were combined in a three-phase mixed methods design (see Figure 3.1). A further benefit of the explanatory sequential design, was that the initial quantitative phase could also aid in effective sampling, helping to identify participants to partake in the qualitative phase.

Figure 3.1

The sequential mixed methods design of the current research

Exploratory Sequential Design   **Explanatory Sequential Design**

QUALITATIVE

Explore the socio-cultural context

QUANTITATIVE

Use the contextual understanding afforded by the previous phase to design a quantitative research tool

QUALITATIVE

Identify the key themes from the previous phase to explore in more depth with a sample of participants
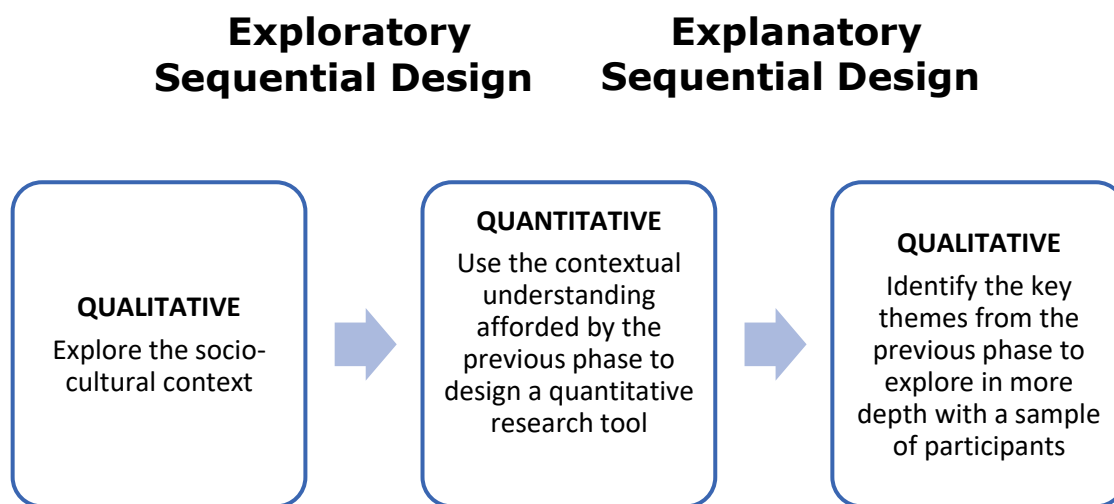
3.2.2 Mixed Methods: Research Questions

Many academics argued that it is the purpose of the research and the related research questions, that constitute the key consideration to selecting a mixed methods research design (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Johnson et al., 2007; Nastasi et al., 2010; Plano Clark & Badiee, 2010; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). In a mixed methods research design an effective fit with the research purpose, and related research questions, was therefore prioritised above the epistemological inclinations of the researcher (Cohen et al., 2011). Plano and Baddie (2010) presented two models that explained the link between research questions and the subsequent methodologies that were selected by the researcher. The second of these, *research questions dictate methods* was a linear model aligned with the tenets of pragmatism. The research methods chosen were selected purely on their potential to answer the research questions. The ontology of the researcher was relegated to the background. As this current research operated under the tenets of pragmatism, this model was adopted in designing the methodology.

This current research also followed the recommendation of Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) to identify for each method in the research design, specific research questions. These are referred to from this point forward as sub-research questions, as this research worked from an overarching question equitable to the general purpose of the research. Figure 3.2

presents both the overarching question and sub-research questions that this study sought to answer. The three sub-research questions were sequential in nature, each one requiring information from the previous in order to be answered.

Figure 3.2

Overview of Research Questions

Overarching Question	How well do school leadership theories created in other cultures transfer to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam?
Qualitative Sub-research Question 1	Which leadership theories created in other cultures are promoted in Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education documentation on school leadership?
Quantitative Sub-research Question 2	What is the relationship between those school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the Ministry of Education, and the leadership practices implemented in Brunei secondary schools?
Qualitative Sub-research Question 3	What is the experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam but promoted by the Ministry of Education?

This mixed methods research design (see Figure 3.3) began with a qualitative document analysis of a key Ministry of Education policy document on school leadership to answer the first secondary research question: which leadership theories created in other cultures are promoted in Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education documentation? In keeping with the exploratory sequential research design, the document analysis also provided the contextual knowledge necessary to create a quantitative questionnaire

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designed to answer the next secondary research question: what is the relationship between those school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the Ministry of Education, and the leadership practices implemented in Brunei secondary schools? Thus, the questionnaire analysed the relationship between the school leadership theories, which originated external to Brunei, but were promoted by the Ministry of Education, and the leadership practice in Brunei secondary schools.

Figure 3.3

The sequential mixed methods design of the current research

Exploratory Sequential Design   **Explanatory Sequential Design**

| **Document Analysis** Analysis of a key Brunei Darussalam MOE document on school leadership, identifying significant school leadership theories originating from other cultures, embedded within it. | **Questionnaire** Secondary school leaders and teachers invited to rate both the frequency of use of those theories, and their significance, in Brunei secondary schools. | **Semi-Structured Interviews** Exploration of the themes identified through the questionnaire from a sample of secondary school leader participants. |

Finally, an explanatory qualitative phase was conducted as a follow-up to the quantitative results of the questionnaire, in the form of semi-structured interviews with a sample of school leader participants. This phase responded to the final secondary research question: what is the experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam but promoted by the Ministry of Education?

3.2.3 Mixed Methods: Validity

Johnson et al. (2007) promoted the concept of *multiple validities legitimation* in mixed methods research. This involved applying the tenets of validity for the dominant research approach in each phase, as well those of mixed methods research as a whole. Thus, each phase of this mixed methods research addressed issues of validity consistent with the research paradigm being applied in each phase. These are discussed in the subsequent sections on each of those research phases: document analysis, questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews. This section discusses those aspects of validity that apply to an overall mixed methods research design, rather than its constituent parts (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Johnson et al., 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Regarding the exploratory sequential design, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) suggested that failure to construct the quantitative tool on the foundations of the qualitative results could threaten the validity of the research. In this research, the

questionnaire from the second phase was created based on the leadership theories identified in the document analysis. Creswell and Plano Clark also suggested validity could be undermined in the exploratory sequential design if the quantitative tool did not undergo systematic steps in its creation. They advocated as one solution to this problem, the completion of a pilot of the quantitative resource. A pilot of the questionnaire was conducted in this research, prior to its use with the research participants. The details of this are shared in the section on the questionnaire phase. Finally, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) recommended a large sample of participants for the quantitative phase, that were not involved in the preceding qualitative phase. As the initial qualitative phase in this research, was a document analysis without participants, this threat to validity was not applicable.

Regarding the explanatory sequential design, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) proposed that risks to validity consisted of failing to do various things, including failing to identify the important findings from the quantitative phase to review with participants. This research carefully identified the key quantitative data it shared with participants. This involved a pilot interview, which aided in refining the format of the data presented to the interviewees. A further threat to validity in the explanatory sequential design was failing to link the quantitative results with the qualitative ones. Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) suggested the strategy to reduce this threat to validity was to select a qualitative participant sample from the

quantitative phase, who would "provide the best explanations" (p. 252). This research selected a representative participant sample for the final phase of the research design, to ensure the responses were not biased by any one subgroup. These interviewees, representative as they were of the participants in the questionnaire phase, were therefore in the best position to provide explanations as to the results captured in the questionnaire.

3.3 Document Analysis

The next three sections detail each of the three phases of this research as they occurred. It begins therefore with the document analysis, proceeds to the questionnaire phase, and concludes with the semi-structured interviews.

Traditionally documents were utilised in historical studies, where access to direct data points were unavailable, but in the context of contemporary social research were pushed to the periphery, as a source of evidence (McCulloch, 2004, 2011; Miller & Alvarado, 2005; Robinson, 2010). Documentary evidence, however, is promoted by many authors as valid research data, either as the sole source of that data or as a supporting source in a larger study (Bowen, 2009; Miller & Alvarado, 2005; Robinson, 2010; Wood et al., 2020). Bowen (2009) cited five purposes for a document analysis within research, the first of which mirrors the function of this phase of the current research, "documents can provide data on the context within which research participants operate—a case of text providing context, if one

might turn a phrase" (p. 29). This research utilised a document analysis to provide contextual information on school leadership in Brunei Darussalam, from which the questionnaire tool of the second phase was constructed.

Altheide et al. (2008) positioned the process of document analysis within the frameworks of postmodernism, social constructionism, and discourse. They described document analysis as a flexible and reflexive process, which identified dominant discourses through studying a range of documents where, "the emphasis is on discovery and description, including searching for context, underlying meanings, patterns and processes, rather than on mere quantity or numerical relationships emphasized in traditional quantitative content analysis" (p. 128). The research question for this phase of this mixed methods research was: which leadership theories created in other cultures are promoted in Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education documentation on school leadership? In asking this question I acknowledged that the MoE's documentation was also a social construct that had to be understood in terms of its purpose and the cultural narratives surrounding it. This document analysis, therefore, was concerned with identifying the key discourses of school leadership promoted by the Ministry of Education within Brunei Darussalam to its school leaders.

3.3.1 Document Analysis: Process

Although document analysis was defined by Altheide et al. (2008) as an emergent and flexible process, these same authors did provide some

generic steps to this research method. Starting with familiarisation of the types of documents being analysed and moving on to the selection of six to 10 specific documents, the document analysis process continued with the researcher selecting various categories of data to be collected and devising a format to support this. Finally, the format for collecting the data, underwent a process of testing and editing as needed. The document analysis within this research varied from this process in that it focused on only one document, the *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019), henceforth referred to as the Competency Framework. In keeping with the research question for this phase of the study, the document analysis identified one category of data to be retrieved from the Competency Framework. This was the leadership theories, originating external to Brunei Darussalam, that were reflected in the document. The process for identifying these leadership theories was refined over a period of time as I returned to the Competency Framework on several instances, to ensure the accuracy of the identified leadership theories.

Bowen (2009) cautioned against blindly including documents within a study without carefully considering their providence and relevance to the research question. Within the context of the research question for this phase however, the *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019) was, at the time of the

document analysis occurring, the key document. Authored and produced by the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education, its authenticity and accuracy could not be questioned. Later the competency framework was combined with an additional document to form the *Guidebook for Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Standards and Competency Framework* (Department of Educators Management, 2021), henceforth referred to as the Guidebook*.* The relevance of the Competency Framework to the context of this research was absolute, as its core purpose, detailed within the Guidebook, was to "set national expectations of what Brunei requires of its school leaders" (p. 6). Within the Competency Framework were the understandings of leadership that the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education promoted to its school leaders. Whether or not these discourses of school leadership reflected the reality found within Brunei secondary schools, was something addressed in subsequent phases of the research design.

Bowen (2009) also identified three potential weaknesses of document analysis. *Insufficient detail* acknowledged that documents were not created for the purposes of research, and therefore, in fulfilling their actual purpose may have not included the detail required by the research. In the context of this research, the purpose of the document and the purpose of the research were aligned. The Competency Framework presented the MoE's expectations for Brunei school leaders, which I required in order to identify those leadership theories, that while originating external to Brunei, were reflected

within the document. *Low retrievability* referenced access, or the lack

thereof, to documents (Bowen, 2009). Indeed, both the Competency

Framework and the subsequent guidebook were not in the public domain.

However, the framework was the key document for the initial phase of this

research and as the research was completed with the support of the Brunei

Darussalam Ministry of Education, I was able to gain access to it. Further

requests to access either the framework or the guidebook can be made

through the Department of Planning, Development and Research, Ministry of

Education, Brunei Darussalam.

Finally, Bowen (2009) referenced *bias selectivity*, an area also

identified by other authors (Gray, 2004/2010; McCulloch, 2004). Bowen

(2009) discussed how a document might only reflect the official narratives of

an organisation, to the exclusion of both other stakeholder voices and

narratives contained within less formal texts. In the context of this

document analysis however, only the official narratives were required, as the

voices of other stakeholders would be heard in subsequent phases.

3.3.2 Document Analysis: Validity

Regarding validity within qualitative research, a range of terms have

been applied to this concept, without one being unanimously agreed upon

(Dellinger & Leech, 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Burke, 2006). One way of

understanding qualitative validity, however, is through the concept of

authenticity (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Dellinger &

Leech, 2007). Qualitative research could be considered valid if the data it presented was an authentic representation of the participants and their context. This document analysis ensured authenticity through *descriptive*, *interpretive,* and *theoretical* qualitative validity (Maxwell, 1992). First, this document analysis ensured descriptive accuracy, by referencing directly from the Competency Framework itself, to ensure the links made between it and the academic theories of school leadership, originating external to Brunei, were appropriate. Based on this sound foundation of descriptive accuracy, both the interpretive and theoretical validity of the document analysis were next secured through *respondent validation* (Torrance, 2012), also referred to as *member checking* (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). This was a process which involved sharing responses or summaries of responses with participants, to ensure an accurate representation of their position had been captured. Although the document analysis lacked respondents per se, the leadership theories identified as being reflected in the Competency Framework, were shared with the Brunei Darussalam, Ministry of Education, Department of Planning, Development and Research personnel for their consideration through both summary reports and presentations. As the Ministry of Education authored the Competency Framework, this ensured the links I identified were appropriate representations of the author's position. In this way the my interpretations

and the theoretical framework attached to the Competency Framework, were both valid.

3.4 Questionnaire

Gillham (2007) identified as the starting point for any questionnaire both the general aim of the research and the more specific research questions. This phase of the research sought to find what the relationship was between the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the Ministry of Education, and the leadership practices implemented in Brunei secondary schools. Thus, the questionnaire, at the middle of the three-phase research design, had the aim of gaining a better understanding of whether what was occurring in Brunei secondary schools, reflected the leadership theories identified in the preceding document analysis.

This phase of the research study was completed by Brunei secondary school leaders and teachers. For the purposes of this research a school leader was defined as either a principal or a deputy principal. Both the principals and the deputy principals (school leaders) completed two separate questionnaires: a leadership practices questionnaire and a demographic information questionnaire (see Table 3.1). The demographic information questionnaire asked questions about contextual information concerning the school leaders, for example, experience in role, gender, and age. The Brunei secondary school teachers however, only completed the leadership practices

questionnaire. This was because a key reason for gathering the demographic

information, was to identify a representative sample of participants for the

following phase's semi-structured interviews, in which only principals and

deputy principals took part.

Table 3.1

Questionnaires Completed by Participants

Participant Group	Leadership Practices Questionnaire	Demographic Information Questionnaire
Secondary School Principals	Yes	Yes
Secondary School Deputy Principals	Yes	Yes
Secondary School Teachers	Yes	No

In the creation of any questionnaire, the questions can be structured

with a range of predetermined responses or more openly, where the

respondent has the opportunity to answer in their own words (Cohen et al.,

2011; Gillham, 2007). The leadership practices questionnaire from this

research (see Appendix B), limited the data to set answers by acquiring

participant responses to a five-point Likert Scale (Bell, 2010; Cohen et al.,

2011; Gray, 2004/2010). This was offset against phase three of the research

design, where a sample of participants had the opportunity to provide open

responses in semi-structured interviews.

The leadership practices questionnaire was constructed using the

information obtained from the previous phase, the document analysis, of this

mixed methods research. The questionnaire asked the secondary school

leader participants to respond by rating on two Likert scales, that is, how

often they used 50 leadership practices in their own professional conduct, as well as the significance of those leadership practices to their own professional conduct (see Figure 3.4). Of these leadership practices, 45 could be linked both to the MoE's *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019), and to leadership theories originating external to Brunei Darussalam that were reflected within it. A further five leadership practices were included as outliers. The outliers, referred to as non-explicitly referenced leadership practices, were five practices from prominent leadership theories, identified in the Chapter 2 literature review, that were not directly referenced within the Competency Framework. The leadership practices questionnaire for the secondary school teacher participants, asked them to respond to the same leadership practices, also on two five-point Likert scales. However, the questions were worded slightly differently to those of the school leaders. The teachers were asked how frequently they saw their school leaders using the leadership practices and how significant they were to their school culture.

Figure 3.4

Leadership Practices Questionnaire Extract

SCALE A / *SKALA A* How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*					LEADERSHIP PRACTICES *AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	SCALE B / *SKALA B* How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school? *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*				
1 never *tidak pernah*	**2** rarely *jarang*	**3** sometimes *kadangkala*	**4** frequently *kerap*	**5** very frequently *sangat kerap*		**1** not significant *tidak signifikan*	**2** slightly significant *kurang signifikan*	**3** of some significance *agak signifikan*	**4** significant *signifikan*	**5** very significant *sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	1. Monitoring teachers' performance *Memantau prestasi para guru*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	2. Creating a safe environment for stakeholders to share ideas and support each other in moving the school forward *Mencipta persekitaran yang selamat bagi para stakeholder untuk berkongsi idea dan menyokong antara satu sama lain untuk kemajuan sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The participants were invited in writing, by the MoE Department of Planning, Development and Research, to attend a session in a secondary school's lecture theatre, during which the questionnaires were completed. It was explained bilingually with the participants, both orally and in writing, that participation in the questionnaires was voluntary, and that returning a completed or partially completed script would be taken as consent. The Brunei secondary school leaders and the Brunei secondary school teachers attended separate sessions a day apart. For the Brunei secondary school leaders, the demographic information questionnaire was completed first and collected prior to the participants starting the leadership practices questionnaire, to ensure participants experienced anonymity in their responses to the latter. During the sessions all the questionnaires were completed on paper.

The way in which scales in a questionnaire are presented can influence the responses that are obtained (Cohen et al., 2011; Hartley & Betts, 2009; Schwarz et al., 1991; Tourangeau et al., 2004). Tourangeau et al. (2004) identified five heuristics associated with positional formatting, which could potentially influence participants responses to scale questions in a questionnaire. These authors suggested it was important for the researcher to recognise these heuristics in their questionnaire design in order to minimise participant error, "respondents will answer more quickly and more reliably when the options are positioned in the order suggested by the heuristic" (p. 372). To this end this current research was formatted in alignment with the *Left Means First* heuristic*,* which suggested that any response item on the left of a scale represented the first extreme of that scale, and that the scale would continue logically to an opposite, at the far end.

Studies have also found variations in the way that participants have responded to scales in questionnaires based on the ethnicity of the participants (Chen et al. 1995; Dolnicar & Grün, 2007). The Bruneian secondary school leaders and teachers participating in the questionnaire, operated in a high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, collectivist, medium masculine cultural context as discussed in Chapter 1 (Blunt, 1988; Minnis, 1999). As such there was a possibility that they would not wish to be seen to challenge leadership practices that had been adopted by the Ministry

of Education. For this reason, the format of the questionnaire did not identify any of the leadership practices it presented, as being endorsed by the Ministry of Education. Instead, the questionnaire worded each of the 45 leadership practices to ensure they maintained the intention of the content in the *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019), without quoting directly from this document.

Further, it was important to ensure that the questionnaire responses were representative of the participants' experiences, and the participants were confident in their anonymity. This was particularly important as this research was completed in partnership with the Ministry of Education, so it was vital, not only that the participants could not be identified as individuals linked to their questionnaire responses, but also, that they themselves were completely confident this was the case. With Brunei being such a small country, with limited secondary schools, any demographic information linked to responses, could potentially have been perceived as a way of identifying individual participants. This was why, apart from a single question at the start of the leadership practices questionnaire asking the school leader participants to identify their role, this research asked demographic information in a separate questionnaire, which was collected prior to participants starting the main leadership practices questionnaire.

3.4.1 Questionnaire: Pilot

An important way of responding to the potential influence of the heuristics, or cultural context, as well as ensuring the validity and reliability of the questionnaire data, is by trialling questionnaires prior to their implementation (Cohen et al., 2011; Gillham, 2007; Litwin, 1995; Oppenheim, 1966/1999). A pilot was therefore completed prior to the administration of the actual questionnaires to Brunei secondary school principals, deputy principals, and teachers, which allowed the research to identify any misconceptions influenced by formatting and presentation. Utilising a smaller group of participants, who exhibited similar demographics as the intended research participants, I was present with the group as the pilot questionnaire was completed. This allowed me to witness any participant misunderstanding of either the wording or formatting, as it occurred. Once the pilot questionnaires were completed, I also discussed with the participants their experiences of it.

The participants for the pilot were a sample group of Brunei primary school principals, deputy principals, and teachers (see Table 3.2). All three participant groups completed a pilot of the leadership practice questionnaire, with the former two groups also trialling the demographic information questionnaire. This was an appropriate cohort of participants with whom to trial the questionnaires as the *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership*

Competency Framework (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019),

was designed for school leaders at both the primary and secondary level.

Table 3.2

Pilot Questionnaire Participants

Primary School Roles	Number
Principals	9
Deputy Principals	12
Teachers	11
Total	32

The structure of the pilot closely mirrored that intended for the actual

questionnaire sessions with Brunei secondary school leaders and teachers.

Consequently, in response to an invitation from the Ministry of Education,

Department of Planning, Development and Research, the participants

gathered in person in a school lecture theatre. The respective Participant

Information Sheets (PIS) were read to the participants in both English and

Malay before each questionnaire. Questions from the participants were also

taken and answered before they completed the questionnaires. The

participants kept their questionnaires but indicated completion by folding

them in half, in such a way that no details were left showing. The

questionnaires were then collected one row at a time. The major difference

in the implementation of the pilot, was both the primary school leaders and

teachers attended one session together, whereas in the actual questionnaire

the secondary school leaders and teachers attended separate sessions.

In the pilot there were also two formats of the leadership practices questionnaire distributed, referred to respectively, as the original format and the reversed format (see Table 3.3). These were identical except for reversing the order in which the scales were presented. In the original format, scale A asked about the frequency leadership practices were used and scale B asked about their significance, whereas in the reversed format, scale A asked about significance and scale B about frequency. The order of the scales was tested in the pilot to check whether it would have a statistically significant effect on the outcomes.

Table 3.3

Pilot Questionnaire Original and Reversed Formats

Primary School Roles	Number of Participants
School Leaders	Original: 11 Reversed: 10
Teachers	Original: 6 Reversed: 5

When everyone had completed the questionnaire in the pilot, I went through the PIS and then the questionnaires themselves, inviting comments from the participants. The review of the latter included the instructions, as well as each item within the questionnaire. The pilot participants expressed that in general, both the format and content of the questionnaire and the PIS were clear and easy to comprehend. The participants made a few suggestions on aspects of the Malay translation, such as minor vocabulary

edits. An example of this, from the demographic information questionnaire, was to retain within the Malay, the English expression "middle leaders", as there is no corresponding phrase in Malay.

The format of the session also required a few changes to enhance its effectiveness. In the pilot, the PIS and leadership practices questionnaire were distributed as the participants entered the lecture theatre. However, because there was approximately a 25-minute differential between the first and last person entering, some had already read the information in the PIS and consequently were not focused while it was read to them, before they started the questionnaire. Further, because those same participants had already read through the items in the questionnaire, they tended to complete it a lot earlier than their colleagues, leaving a long gap between the first respondent finishing at nine minutes and the final participant at over seventeen minutes. To try and engage the concentration of all the participants at the same time, the PIS (see Appendix C) in the actual questionnaire sessions with Brunei secondary school leaders and teachers, was given out once everyone was seated in the lecture theatre. Then once the PIS had been read out aloud to the participants, in both Malay and English, the leadership practices questionnaire was distributed. Unlike in the pilot, the instructions at the beginning of the questionnaires were also read to the participants, again bilingually. In the secondary school leaders'

session, this routine was also repeated with the demographic information questionnaire.

Of the 21 school leaders who participated in the pilot questionnaire, three did not respond to the item identifying them as either a principal or a deputy (see Table 3.4). It was assumed this was a conscious decision to leave the question blank, although there is a chance, they accidently missed the page upon which this was the only item. Of the remaining five participants who left items blank, three of these involved full pages, suggesting they could have skipped a page by accident. However, one of those participants left three pages towards the end of the questionnaire, making it unlikely that this was due to accidently missing those pages. This may have been due to their awareness of others being finished around them and feeling pressured to stop, making it important both that participants received the questionnaire at the same time, as already discussed, and that they felt comfortable they had the necessary time to complete the task. As a result of the missing questions, an extra instruction was added to the questionnaire sessions, asking the participants to check back through their questionnaire to ensure they had responded to all the items, before they folded it in half to indicate completion.

Table 3.4

Pilot Questionnaire Missing Questions

Role	Format	Items	Scale	Full Pages
School Leader x3	Reverse	1	-	-
Teacher	Original	40-49	A&B	3
School Leader	Reverse	34-36	A&B	1
Teacher	Reverse	44-46	A&B	1
Teacher	Reverse	21-23, 25, 31-32, 37-39	B	-
Teacher	Reverse	42	A&B	-

Note. Item 1 asked "Are you a principal or a deputy principal?"

In the pilot leadership practices questionnaire, regardless of which scale was being responded to or the direction of the scales, most responses where either a three: sometimes/of some significance, a four: frequently/significant, or a five: very frequently/very significant (see Table 3.5).

While this may have reflected the reality of leadership practices in Brunei primary schools, this may also have reflected cultural norms as discussed earlier. There was a chance that this occurred because participants felt that they would be judged and therefore scored their responses based on what they thought should be answered, rather than on what accurately reflected their own experiences. The involvement of the Ministry of Education, through the Department of Planning, Development and Research may have affected the responses from the pilot participants. As such, in the

actual questionnaire sessions, the anonymity of the responses was emphasised, as well as the access arrangements to the data, by making it clear that only the research team would see the raw data from the questionnaires.

Table 3.5

Pilot Questionnaire Frequency of Response Types

Format	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Original	2	42	315	820	501	1680
Reverse	0	32	247	645	552	1476
Total	2	74	562	1465	1053	3156
Percentage	0.06%	2.34%	17.81%	46.42%	33.37%	100%

The pilot also had a few instances of participants scoring very low on the frequency scale: "how often do you use the following leadership practices?", only to score highly on the significance scale: "how significant are the following leadership practices to your own practice in school?". For example, one school leader graded, "Basing decisions on the school's vision" as never for the first scale but significant for the latter. Likewise, a teacher described, "Utilising academic research to inform decision making" as never seeing it enacted in their school but being of significance to their school's culture. This incongruence of some partnered responses, suggested that possibly some participants were misconstruing the significance as being general, as opposed to specific to their school context. To counter this, in

the actual questionnaire sessions with secondary school leaders and teachers, phrases emphasising the need to respond to the leadership practices questionnaire from the context of the participants' own experiences, were capitalised. In addition, during the introductory preamble for the actual questionnaires, not only the PIS was read out to the secondary school leaders and teachers, but as previously explained, also the instructions to the questionnaire. In terms of the formatting for these instructions, phrases were written in bold, to again emphasise that responses should come from the experiences of the secondary school leaders and teachers, in their respective schools, rather than whether they considered a leadership practice to be significant in general. For example:

3. Scale A, on the left-hand side, asks you how often **you use** the leadership practice described in the statement. Please note there is no right, wrong or expected answer. **You are being asked to reflect on your current leadership practice within school and to respond accordingly**.

4. Scale B, on the right-hand side, asks you how significant the leadership practice described in the statement is to **your own practice** in your school. This is asking you whether you feel the leadership practice is an important part of your professional conduct or less so. Again, there is no right, wrong or expected answer. **You are being asked to reflect on your current leadership practice**

within school and to respond accordingly. (Leadership Practices Questionnaire p. 1)

Finally, this was followed by going through the first leadership practice in the questionnaire as an example, which involved explaining that if this practice was never used by the school leader or seen by the teacher in their school, it should be scored a one; if it was rarely used by the school leader or seen by the teacher in their school, it should be scored a two; and so on. This emphasised that the frequency of use and the significance of the leadership practice should be responded to in the context of personal experience, not generalities.

As can be seen in Table 3.6, the strategies which responded to the feedback from the pilot do seem to have had some impact on the types of responses the secondary participants gave to the leadership practices questionnaire. The number of items in which five was selected as the participants' response reduced by 11.76% and correspondingly, the percentage of ones, twos, and threes, increased. Whereas in the trial less than three percent of responses were a one or a two, in the actual leadership practices questionnaire over eight percent were. That said, it must still be recognised that 67.67% of responses to the leadership practices questionnaire, from all secondary participants combined, across both scales, were either a four or a five. In contrast only 8.48% of responses were a one or a two.

Table 3.6

Frequency of Response Types: Pilot and Research

Questionnaire	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Pilot	0.06%	2.34%	17.81%	46.42%	33.37%	100%
Research	1.74%	6.74%	23.85%	46.06%	21.61%	100%

Finally, for the purposes of analysing the original and reversed formats in the pilot questionnaire, the 50 leadership practices were divided into ten themes (see Table 3.7). The Mann-Whitney U Test was then used to compare the means generated for these ten themes, between the original and reversed formats. The reversed format had a larger mean rank (12.80) than the original format (8.21) and thus tended to take larger values, however, a statistically significant difference was not found (U = 27.000, *P* = .082). Thus, the *P* score generated through this analysis, *P* =.082, supports the null hypothesis that the distributions between the two groups were the same regardless of the order of the scale and for this reason no reverse format was offered in the actual questionnaires with secondary school participants.

Table 3.7

Responses in Different Formats of the Questionnaire

Leadership Themes	Original Format	Reversed Format
Decision Making	4.0919	4.2869
Stakeholders' Engagement	3.9860	4.1795
Emotional Intelligence	4.1348	4.1632
Shared Division	3.8873	3.9917
Distributed Leadership	4.1118	3.9600
Equity	3.8529	4.1444
Setting Targets	4.0588	4.1556
Management	4.1863	4.1556
Instructional Leadership	4.1936	4.4464
Non-Explicitly Referenced	3.9191	4.1069
Average Response	4.042250	4.159020

3.4.2 Questionnaire Participants: School Leaders

The secondary school leader participants in both the leadership practices questionnaire and the demographic information questionnaire were highly representative of the population of secondary school leaders in Brunei Darussalam. The Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education had 30 secondary schools catering for students in Years 7 to 11. In addition, there were a further six sixth form centres. Of these latter, four catered for Years 12 to 13 only, while two offered a sixth form in combination with secondary year groups. For the purposes of this research, the four pure sixth form centres were not included, while the two schools with both secondary and sixth form students were included. This was because the scope of this research was the

leadership practices of secondary school leaders in Brunei Darussalam. Thus, only those schools with a secondary component were included. Brunei Secondary schools have one principal and two deputy principals.

School leader participants from 32 schools were asked to take part in both the leadership practices questionnaire and the demographic information questionnaire. This created the potential for 96 participants; however, two International School Leaders did not take part in the study, as although they were principals of Brunei government secondary schools, they did not meet the criteria of being Brunei citizens. In addition, one school did not have a principal, due to the latter's recent appointment to a position overseas. Consequently, that school only sent the two deputy representatives. This reduced the maximum number of possible participants from 96 to 93.

Apart from these exceptions, the principal and the two deputy principals from each of the 32 schools were invited to attend the session, in which both questionnaires were administered. The total number of school leaders who attended the session was 84, with each school covered by at least one representative. Of these 84 participants, all responded to both the leadership practices questionnaire and the demographic information questionnaire, although some participants chose to leave some questions blank. The 84 participants represented 90.32% of the entire population of secondary school leaders in Brunei. The data for the school leaders therefore was not being generalised from a small sample of participants to the entire

population. Instead, it represented over 90% of that entire population, a situation that supported high validity and reliability of the data.

3.4.3 Questionnaire Participants: Teachers

Each of the 32 Brunei government schools with secondary aged students, was invited to send three teacher representatives to complete their version of the leadership practices questionnaire. The three participants from each school had to have a teaching role in the school, and as such could not be the principal or deputy principal. They also had to have been with the school for at least two years. Where possible, it was requested that the teachers came from different departments and that at least one of those departments taught in the Malay medium, and one in the English medium. This was to ensure a broad range of views were represented. While most schools were able to adhere to these requests, there was some variation in the representative groups who attended (see Table 3.8). All the 32 schools were represented in the participant sample. Apart from two schools, who sent only two representatives, and one school, which sent one representative, the remaining 29 schools were all able to send three teachers. As such, the sample consisted of 92 participants out of a potential 96, all of whom returned the leadership practices questionnaire with clear responses, although in a few cases some questions were left blank. The response rate was therefore 95.83%.

Table 3.8

Teacher Representation from Participating Schools

Structure of each secondary school's representatives	Number of Schools
Group A 3 Teachers, 3 departments, Both English and Malay medium subjects represented	20
Group B 3 Teachers, 2 departments, Both English and Malay medium subjects represented	3
Group C 3 Teachers, 3 departments, English medium subjects only	2
Group D 3 Teachers, 2 departments, English medium subjects only	3
Group E 3 Teachers, 1 department, English medium subject only	1
Group F 1 or 2 Teachers	3

3.4.4 Questionnaire: Analysis

As explained earlier, this questionnaire consisted of fifty items, to which participants responded on two five-point Likert scales. A debate, concerning the analysis of Likert responses as ordinal or interval data, has existed for many decades, (Allen & Seaman, 2007; Jamieson, 2004; Joshi et al., 2015; Knapp, 1990; Kuzon et al., 1996; Norman, 2010; Stratton, 2018; Sullivan & Artino, 2013; Wu & Leung, 2017). One side argued that data collected from Likert scales was ordinal in nature, as although the numbered responses on the Likert scale were equal intervals, the categories they

represented were not (Jamieson, 2004; Kuzon et al., 1996). This meant, that for these academics, labelled by Knapp (1990) as the conservatives, the application of parametric analysis to such data did not make sense (Jamieson, 2004; Knapp & Brown, 2014; Stratton, 2018; Sullivan & Artino, 2013). These concerns can be exemplified with reference to a traditional five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The conservatives argued that the range of emotional intensity between 1=strongly disagree and 2 = disagree, was not necessarily the same as between 2=disagree and 3=neutral. Therefore, responses of 2=disagree and 4=agree could not be averaged out to achieve 3=neutral. Further, if responses were averaged to achieve a decimal mean falling between two Likert scale categories, how that figure was to be interpreted was questioned. In this context the conservatives argued that only non-parametric analysis could be applied to Likert scale data. Despite such concerns however, parametric tests, were often applied by researchers using Likert scales, as they were considered more powerful than nonparametric variations (Allen & Seaman, 2007; Jamieson, 2004; Knapp & Brown, 2014).

In contrast to the conservatives, those academics labelled by Knapp (1990) as liberals, argued that although ordinal in nature, for the purposes of analysis the Likert scale intervals could be treated as equal. Gaito (1980) argued that confusion between measurement theory and statistical theory had mistakenly resulted in the assertion that statistical procedures were

dependent on scale properties. For Gaito (1980), the mathematical

procedures stood separate from the source data, regardless of whether it

was ordinal, interval, or otherwise, "Statistical procedures do not require

specific scale properties. The assumptions for the use of statistical

procedures can be clearly stated and are based on the mathematical aspects

underlying the procedures" (p. 567). Knapp (1990) explained the liberals

also referenced research which empirically supported the position, that

applying parametric tests to ordinal data had minimal impact on the

outcomes (Baker et al., 1966; Champion, 1968). More recently, Norman

(2010) conducted research which evidenced both that parametric analysis

can be completed with ordinal data and that when this occurs, it produces

stronger data than that from nonparametric tests:

> Parametric statistics can be used with Likert data, with small sample
>
> sizes, with unequal variances, and with non-normal distributions, with
>
> no fear of "coming to the wrong conclusion". These findings are
>
> consistent with empirical literature dating back nearly 80 years. (p.
>
> 631)

This research adopted the stance of the liberals and at a descriptive

level of statistical analysis, utilised the mean as a measure of central

tendency. The mean responses on the Likert scale were compared between

the three participant groups: secondary principals, deputy principals, and

teachers. An approach to strengthening the use of parametric tests with

Likert scale data, involved grouping related items, and using a combined mean under a single theme (Allen & Seaman, 2007; Boone & Boone, 2012; Stratton, 2018; Sullivan & Artino, 2013). Thus, at an inferential level, this was applied in the analysis of the leadership practices questionnaire, as related leadership practices within the questionnaire were grouped together under ten leadership themes. These were then assessed for internal consistency by applying Cronbach's alpha (Allen & Seaman, 2007; Stratton, 2018; Sullivan & Artino, 2013). All ten themes were found to have a good, or very good, level of reliability as discussed in the next section. An ANOVA test was then performed on the themes comparing the responses of the three participant groups to identify statistical significance. This was followed up with the application of a post hoc Tukey's honest significance test to identify between which of the three groups the significance lay.

As a final observation concerning this debate, Norman's (2010) research directly rebutted Jamieson's (2004) claim that:

> The legitimacy of assuming an interval scale for Likert-type categories is an important issue, because the appropriate descriptive and inferential statistics differ for ordinal and interval variables and if the wrong statistical technique is used, the researcher increases the chance of coming to the wrong conclusion about the significance (or otherwise) of his research. (Jamieson, 2004, p. 1217)

However, further consideration of Jamieson's (2004) claim, and in the specific context of this research, was that the questionnaire was not the final set of data. The accuracy of the conclusions in the leadership practices questionnaire was confirmed by the responses of the interview participants in the final phase of this mixed methods research. During the semi-structured interviews, participants were asked to consider the questionnaire results presented to them and were able to engage with these in the context of their own experiences. At no stage during the semi-structured interviews did they dismiss the data presented to them as irrelevant to their reality of secondary school leadership.

3.4.5 Questionnaire: Validity

Of the four types of quantitative validity identified by Hartas (2010b) as being prominent in social and educational quantitative research - *internal*, *external*, *construct,* and *ecological*, the latter two had the clearest application to this research. Regarding internal validity, this quantitative phase of the study was not attempting to identify a cause-and-effect relationship between a treatment and an outcome. Nor, regarding external validity, was it attempting to create research data that had generalisability outside of the socio-cultural context of Brunei Darussalam. Construct validity however referenced the measurement of abstract concepts and asked whether the researcher's defined components of those concepts, were both appropriate and reflected in the measurement tool (Cohen et al., 2011;

Gray, 2004/2010; Hartas, 2010b). The construct of leadership presented within the questionnaire, needed to be a valid representation of this concept. The accuracy of the 45 leadership practices as components of school leadership promoted in Brunei Darussalam, was secured through the document analysis that took place in the first phase of this research. Those leadership practices were identified from, and could be directly linked to, the *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019). As a construct of school leadership within the context of Brunei Darussalam, they were therefore both accurate and valid. Their credentials as components of school leadership in Brunei were further established in the process of the pilot questionnaire, in which participants fed back on the questionnaire process. The leadership practices featured in the questionnaire, emerged as accurate to the Brunei setting.

Ecological validity questioned whether the research results had actual relevance to the participants involved, "Ecological validity is concerned with the extent to which the findings from a study reflect people's attitudes and everyday experiences" (Hartas, 2010b, p. 77). The key to achieving this form of validity in this phase of the research, was again that the questionnaire as a research tool, was created from the findings of the document analysis. The findings of the questionnaire were relevant to the participants and ecologically valid, because the questionnaire as a research

tool, was founded on the expectations from the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education.

A further potential concern regarding questionnaire validity was the potential lack of focus that participants might give to the questions (Cohen et al., 2011; Gillham, 2007). In a questionnaire there was no way to check the sincerity of the participants' responses, or even the accuracy of their recollection: "People tend not to take questionnaires seriously; their answers may be frankly frivolous. And because they are impersonal, the honesty and integrity of answers may not be seen as a priority" (Gillham, 2007, p. 13). The quality of the responses for this questionnaire was addressed, at least in part, by the way the questionnaire was administered. The use of the session to administer the questionnaire, as opposed to doing it remotely, provided participants with the space and time necessary to give considered responses and myself the opportunity to persuade them of the necessity of doing so.

Cronbach's Alpha test of internal consistency between items on a scale, was run for the leadership practices questionnaire. More specifically, this test was run for each of the 10 themes, under which the leadership practices described in the questionnaire, were grouped (see Table 3.9). Responses to both scale A and scale B, for each leadership practice included in the theme, as well as the responses of all three participant groups, were combined for the purposes of the Cronbach's Alpha test. Each of the themes

had a Cronbach's Alpha value in excess of 0.7, which is generally agreed as the acceptable threshold for internal reliability (Pallant, 2010).

Table 3.9

Cronbach's Alpha Test of internal reliability

Themes	Valid Cases	Excluded Cases	No of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Decision Making	168	8	16	.852
Stakeholder Engagement	170	6	14	.870
Emotional Intelligence	172	4	16	.870
Shared Vision	173	3	8	.842
Distributed Leadership	174	2	10	.875
Equity	174	2	6	.789
Setting Targets	172	4	6	.758
Management	176	0	6	.754
Instructional Leadership	169	7	8	.803
Non-Explicitly Referenced	173	3	10	.798

3.5 Interviews

Various authors have described a range of interview formats from highly structured to unstructured (Cohen et al., 2011; Hobson & Townsend, 2010; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Hobson and Townsend (2010) summarised the range of formats by presenting three continuums, the extremes of which respectively read, *structured/unstructured*, *formal/informal*, *respondent/informant*. The former term in each pair was presented as falling within the parameters of quantitative research and the latter within those of qualitative. The structured/unstructured dichotomy referenced whether the questions that were asked had set responses or were open ended, whether all the questions were to be asked of all the

participants and whether the order in which the questions were asked, was to remain consistent for all participants.

In this current research, the participants were taken through a PowerPoint presentation of prominent themes to emerge from the questionnaire data. Presented as simply and clearly as possible, these slides, and associated questions, formed the general structure of the interview. Participants were invited to share their thoughts on what some of the reasons may have been, for the key questionnaire findings. While all the participants received the same stimuli and the associated questions, in a set order, those questions encouraged open responses, which in turn sometimes led to individualised follow up questions. Further, an opportunity was provided within the format, for the interviewees to share any thoughts on school leadership that had not arisen within the context of the set questions. The questions in this current research were open ended, without set responses. This combination of aspects of both the structured and unstructured meant these interviews were best considered semi-structured (Drever, 1995/2006; Longhurst, 2010).

Formal and informal (Hobson & Townsend, 2010) referred to the relationship between the interviewer and the participants. While the invitation to participate in the interviews of this current research, had a sense of formality, as it came through a letter from the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education, the interview itself had aspects of informality. The

school leader participants were already familiar with me, as at the time of

the interviews, I had operated as a principal in Brunei Darussalam

government schools for the past four and a half years. Further, the

interviewees were invited to ask for clarification on any of the data that was

presented or the related questions to that data. There were no restrictions

on their responses in terms of time taken to complete them or indeed the

content of what they shared. In these ways, while the interviews maintained

a purposeful structure, the relationship between myself and the participants

tended more towards the informal end of the continuum, than the formal.

Finally, the respondent/informant classifications (Hobson & Townsend,

2010) referenced control over the direction of the discussion and who held

this power. In a respondent interview the interviewer remained in control,

whereas for an informant interview, the interviewee was able to lead the

discussion into areas of their choosing. As explained earlier, the interview

questions asked in this research encouraged open responses from the

participants. In addition, at the conclusion of the interview participants had

the opportunity to share any additional information about school leadership

that had not emerged from their responses to the questions. However, it

must also be acknowledged, that for most of the interview, the interviewee

acted as a respondent, and it was the PowerPoint slides, with key data from

the leadership practices questionnaire, that controlled the direction of the

interview. Participants were therefore in the main, respondents to the data represented on each slide and the associated questions.

3.5.1 Interviews: Videoconferencing

The interviews in this research were conducted and recorded through the videoconferencing platform of Zoom, a *synchronous* form of communication (Archibald et al. 2019; Deakin & Wakefield, 2014; Khalil & Cowie, 2020; Mann, 2016; Sullivan, 2012). Synchronous communication, such as video conferencing, was completed in real time, replicating the context of traditional face-to-face interviews. In videoconferencing, the interviewee could see the face of the interviewer, which helped to build rapport between the two. It also allowed social cues from the former, which encouraged the latter to share their thoughts (Khalil & Cowie, 2020). Such social cues in interviews, also known as *active listening* (Cohen et al., 2011)*,* included non-verbal cues such as head nodding, smiling and eye contact, as well as small positive verbal cues such as uttering "yes", "right", "sure" … in response to comments made by the interviewee (Drever, 1995/2006; Gray, 2004/2010). The participants in the current research were able to see the my face throughout the Zoom interviews, and I employed active listening skills to encourage their responses.

Discussing accessing female interview participants in Saudi Arabia, Alkhateeb (2018) observed that the dominant social discourses meant that the participants could only be accessed through Skype audio interviews, as

these provided them with a level of privacy appropriate to the cultural context. The interviews in this current research took place in a Muslim country under Sharia law, and the dominant cultural narratives had to be respected and reflected in the format of the interviews. While the context in Brunei Darussalam regarding male/female interactions is possibly not as restrictive as that of Saudi Arabia, the use of videoconferencing did provide an appropriate platform for myself, as a male researcher, to interview female participants. One female participant in this research, while happy to take part in the study, chose not to engage her video function during her Zoom interview. She did not give her reason for this, simply asking if she could do so. With just audio, the interview was able to progress without difficulty. I remained visible to the participant, ensuring that they could see my social cues, as previously discussed.

Deakin and Wakefield (2014), in discussing the use of Skype videoconferencing for interviews, warned it could restrict the number of participants who took part, due to the technological knowledge and resources required to interact in this way. In this current research, due to the COVID 19 pandemic, all the participants in the interviews had experience of videoconferencing, albeit through a different platform, as both conferences and professional development sessions, organised by the Ministry of Education in Brunei Darussalam, had been conducted in this way. They also had access to technical support within their schools if needed.

Finally, the school leaders all had access to school laptops, though some opted to use their personal laptops to access the Zoom interviews (see Table 3.10). Whichever way they chose to do it, the interviewees all had access to the necessary technological knowledge and resources to allow the interviews to take place via a Zoom videoconference successfully.

Table 3.10

Access to internet and devices

Participant	Location	Internet	Resource
Participant A	Home	Home Wi-Fi	Personal Laptop
Participant B	School	School Wi-Fi	Personal Laptop
Participant C	School	Data	Personal Laptop
Participant D	Home	Home Wi-Fi	Personal Laptop
Participant E	School	School Wi-Fi	School Laptop
Participant F	Home	Home Wi-Fi	School Laptop

Archibald et al. (2019) in researching the experiences of participants in qualitative Zoom interviews, identified as an advantage of this online platform, the screen sharing function. Like the interviews in this current study, those referred to by Archibald et al. involved the sharing of PowerPoint slides. The PowerPoint stimulus material for the interviews within this current research was in the form of a presentation, which served two purposes. The first was to remind the participants about the process they had been through with the leadership practices questionnaire. The second was to present the key themes to emerge from that questionnaire, in order for the participant to suggest possible reasons for those results. Regarding

the latter, Chrzanowska (2002) explained that stimuli in an interview supported participants in expanding their responses, from those they might offer without such prompts. The stimulus material of this current research was designed to have the same effect. Indeed, without presenting the results from the leadership practices questionnaire visually, it is questionable how accessible this material would have been to the interviewees (Crilly et al., 2006; Torronen, 2002). At the very least it would have required intensive verbal explanation from myself before the participants would have been sufficiently informed to offer a response.

A further issue for consideration, when utilising a videoconferencing platform for research interviews, was the reliability of the internet connectivity, both for the researcher and the participant (Alkhateeb, 2018; Archibald et al., 2019; Khalil & Cowie, 2020; Mann, 2016; Sullivan, 2012). The domestic internet in Brunei Darussalam was strong enough to support the Zoom platform, and thus I conducted the interviews from my home. In schools however, the internet signal could at times weaken, depending on the number of users. A third option was to use mobile data through a hotspot connection (see Table 3.10). In two cases, where interviews were conducted with participants who used school internet, there were connectivity difficulties in the introductory stage of the interview, as participants were unable to hear me clearly. In one case, the internet signal strengthened, while in the other, the participant turned off their video to

prioritise the audio quality. Once again, although their video was off, they could still see me.

The convenience of videoconferencing offered regarding the logistics of interviews, has been identified as a positive aspect of this research technique (Archibald et al., 2019; Deakin & Wakefield, 2014). The flexibility of the online platform allowed participants to select sessions convenient to them. Similarly, in the context of the current research, accessing participants was likely to be most successful, when interview slots provided the greatest amount of convenience possible, and the least amount of disturbance to their busy lives. Participants were therefore encouraged to select the interview times most convenient for them. In addition, often the ability to access a geographically spread sample population, with a minimum of logistical issues, was also seen as a strong advantage of online interviews (Archibald et al., 2019; Khalil & Cowie, 2020; Mann, 2016; Sullivan, 2012). This is true of this current research as well, for while Brunei Darussalam is a small country in the context of area, the interview participants within this research were spread out within it. As such the removal of the need to travel for a face-to-face interview, was yet another factor adding to the convenience of video conferencing.

A number of authors discussed the difficulty of accessing consent when interviews take place in an online context (Deakin & Wakefield, 2014; Khalil & Cowie, 2020; Sullivan, 2012). However, in the case of the interviews in

this research, a signature on a physical consent form was obtained prior to arranging individual interviews. The Ministry of Education, Department of Planning, Development and Research, prepared 30 packs, each consisting of a covering letter from the Ministry explaining to the participant the context of the research and inviting them to take part, a participant information sheet (see Appendix D) and a consent form (see Appendix E). I then organised for initially six selected packs to be delivered to the appropriate schools, independently of the Department of Planning, Development and Research. In this way the anonymity of the participants was secured. The consent form was then collected three working days later. Thus, the participant did not have the inconvenience of having to either obtain or return the consent form. Ten of these packs were issued to secure the six interviews that took place, as some school leaders who were chosen, opted not to participate.

3.5.2 Interview: Pilot

Drever (1995/2006) discussed the importance of completing a pilot to test the effectiveness of the interview format. Speaking specifically about interviews via Zoom videoconferencing, Khalil and Cowie (2020) promoted the completion of a practice interview to ensure technical difficulties were overcome. The pilot interview for this current research fulfilled both objectives but was perhaps most important in ensuring the stimulus material was effective.

The interview structure for this research was trialled with a primary school principal of a Brunei Darussalam government school. The principal had also participated in the trial of the leadership practices questionnaire and therefore understood the context of the research. From the feedback secured from the participant, from my own participation in the trial and from observing the video of the interview, it became clear that the representation of some key data in tables and diagrams, was unclear and required too much verbal explanation: "Diagrams are not inherently intuitive however, and if the reader of the diagram does not understand the visual language of the representation then they will have difficulty accessing, interpreting and decoding its meaning" (Crilly et al., 2006, p. 346). There was a need to add supporting information to some slides, which helped create context, and to remove extraneous information from others, which reduced confusion.

The pilot interview, therefore, supported me in ensuring that the stimulus material effectively performed its purpose of allowing participants to understand and comment on the key themes to emerge from the leadership practices questionnaire. It is worth noting that, while I attempted to make the information on the slides equally accessible to all the interviewees, it was always unlikely that the data would be decoded with the same ease by everyone in the participant group. Different participants understood the data with varying degrees of efficiency. This is another

reason why therefore, the interviews were semi-structured, as different individuals required different levels of explanation to access the data.

3.5.3 Interview: Participants

Mann (2016) suggested that usually qualitative research will have between six and 12 interviews. However, he also pointed out that this number will vary depending on whether the interviews provided the primary data for the study or formed one data set of many. In this current research, the latter was the case and consequently the number of interviews was at the lower end of this range. Six participants were therefore selected from the 84 who completed the leadership practices questionnaire. Candidates were identified using the data obtained from the demographic information questionnaire that was completed at the same time. In this way, the compilation of the interview sample remained representative of the participants in the questionnaire phase (see Table 3.11). For each of the six participants originally selected, there were a further four reserves with similar or the exact same demographic features. In the end, four of the original six participants agreed to take part in the interviews, with a further two interviewees selected from the reserves. Importantly the ratios for different demographic criteria were maintained and the sample could be considered representative of the larger school leader participant group.

Table 3.11

Composition of Interview Sample

Demographic	Characteristic	Interview Participants	Questionnaire Participants
Role	Deputy Principals	67%	69%
	Principals	33%	31%
Gender	Male	33%	39%
	Female	67%	61%
Ethnicity & Religion	Malay/Muslim	83%	83%
	Other	17%	17%
Qualifications	Graduate	67%	67%
	Masters	33%	31%
Age	30-40	17%	18%
	41-50	67%	69%
	50<	17%	13%
Experience in Role	< 1 Year	17%	11%
	1-4 Years	50%	48%
	5-10 Years	33%	41%

3.5.4 Interview: Analysis

This research operated from a constructionist ontology and accordingly the interview analysis was not searching for an objective truth but instead attempted to identify the dominant discourses that surrounded and impacted on secondary school leadership in Brunei Darussalam. In this context the interview data for this research was subjected to discourse analysis (Cohen et al., 2011; Gee, 2005; Gill, 2000/2006; Holt, 2011; Kogan, 1998; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Parker, 2004; Potter & Wetherell, 1995, 1994/2002; Talja, 1999). Parker (2004) discussed the delineation between content,

thematic, and discourse analysis. Content analysis was restricted to quantifying the appearances of certain words and phrases in a text, while thematic analysis sought to identify commonalities of meaning that existed across the data. Discourse analysis however, expanded upon the latter by analysing those commonalities within the framework of discourse. Thereby, the themes were understood within a wider system of meaning, which was independent of the speaker themselves. Further, where thematic analysis attempted to package data into coherent sets of meaning, disregarding those responses which did not fit with the proposed summary, discourse analysis incorporated such outliers in its analysis (Gill, 2000/2006; Parker, 2004; Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Talja, 1999).

Discourse analysis however is not a unified approach and could be separated into various different forms (Gill, 2000/2006; Holt, 2011; Kogan, 1998; Potter & Wetherell, 1994/2002; Talja, 1999). Prominent among these were *Foucauldian discourse analysis*, and *discursive psychology* (Holt, 2011; Kogan, 1998; Potter & Wetherell, 1994/2002; Willig, 2014). The former identified the broader institutionalised systems of language that prioritised certain understandings over others, positioned individuals in specific hierarchies, and supported particular actions. The latter, related to, but distinct from, conversational analysis, completed examinations of speakers' interactions in order to identify both the verbal and non-verbal discursive resources which established discourses. While there was cross over between

the two, in general the former operated at the macro and the latter the micro.

Foucauldian discourse analysis was selected over discursive psychology for a number of reasons. The interview analysis of this research explored the assumptions embedded within the wider cultural context in which Brunei secondary school leaders operated. It attempted to identify the discourses that promoted or suppressed the application of different leadership theories in Brunei Darussalam secondary schools. It has been suggested that the ideal context for discursive psychology was that of naturally occurring language (Potter & Hepburn, 2005; Potter & Wetherell, 1995). Interviews in contrast, such as those completed in this research, were artificial scenarios complicated by the influence of the interviewer. The format of the semi-structured interviews in this research was formed by and restricted to the questionnaire data that was shared with the participants, rather than the open-ended format used by some as an alternative to naturalistic material (Holt, 2011; Potter & Wetherell, 1995). Finally, discursive psychology, operating as it did at the micro level, included the analysis of non-verbal devices such as pauses, intonation, and intakes of breath (Gill, 2000/2006; Holt, 2011; Potter & Wetherell, 1995). The participants in this research, although confident in their use of English, were still responding to the semi-structured interview in their second language. An analysis employing discursive psychology of their non-verbal traits, may

have been compromised. For example, any pauses may have had more to do with thinking in a second language, than as a discursive practice, "Foucauldian versions of discourse analysis … require less detailed transcription of the various non-linguistic features of speech than does discursive research inspired by conversation analysis" (Willig, 2014, p. 4).

Discourse analysis, particularly that of a Foucauldian nature, recognised the power of language to position individuals and groups within the discourse (Holt, 2011; Parker, 2004; Willig, 2014). The use of Foucauldian discourse analysis attempted to identify the positions that the speaker internalised for themselves and those that they assigned to others within the framework of the discursive resources they were using. It also sought to identify how such positioning might extend or limit actions available to an individual. This research applied such an understanding of positioning to its analysis of the interview transcripts and considered what impact positioning could have on the application of leadership theories, originating external to Brunei Darussalam, but being promoted in the nation's secondary schools.

While not speaking specifically about Foucauldian discourse analysis, Potter and Wetherell (1994/2002) described *variation as a lever,* which allowed the researcher to prize open the discourse and access the construction supporting it. For these two authors, this constituted "probably the single most important analytic principle in doing discourse analysis" (p.

55). Similarly, Parker (2004) suggested that in traditional psychological analysis of attitudes, data that varied from the identified themes were ignored, while in discourse analysis it was valued as offering insight into both how a discourse functioned and how the individuals were positioned within it. Discourse analysis, rather than ignoring data that contradicted the overall conclusions of a research study, embraced it, "unlike some styles of analysis which suppress variability or simply gloss over instances which do not fit the story being told, discursive analyses require rigour in order to make analytical sense of texts in all their fragmented, contradictory messiness" (Gill, 2000/2006, p. 180).

Variation and contradiction held relevance to the analysis of the semi-structured interviews in this research. The interview analysis in this research utilised variation to support identification of discourses that impacted on Brunei secondary school leadership: particularly, variations between the key narratives about school leadership promoted by the MoE and the discourses that impacted the leadership practices in schools. Variations in the participants' responses also helped in identifying key underlying concepts.

Proponents of discourse analysis suggested there was not a set of defined processes to follow (Cohen et al., 2011; Gee, 2005; Gill, 2000/2006; Holt, 2011; Parker, 2004; Potter & Wetherell, 1994/2002; Talja, 1999; Willig, 2014). Instead, there were guiding principles within the framework of which the analysis could occur:

it is important to bear in mind that discourse analysis is not so much a recipe as a perspective from which to approach a text. It is a perspective on language which allows the researcher to produce a particular kind of reading of a text, a reading which foregrounds the constructive and performative properties of language. (Willig, 2014, p. 344)

Despite this lack of prescription, authors such as Holt (2011) and Willig (2014) promoted discourse analysis which involved a repeated, detailed reading of the text. In the case of the interviews in this research, not only were the transcripts referred to repeatedly, but the video recordings were also returned to on numerous occasions. Further, various authors (Holt, 2011; Parker, 2004; Willig, 2014) also suggested that questions could be utilised to support the researcher in their reading of texts, in order to identify underlying discourses. Willig (2014) put forward examples of such questions, of which this research selected the following two:

- What sorts of assumptions (about the world, about people) appear to underpin what is being said and how it is being said?
- What may be the potential consequences of the discourses that are used for those who are positioned by them, in terms of both their subjective experience and their ability to act in the world? (p. 344)

For each piece of data presented to the interview participants, the reasons they offered for the data, were subjected to these two questions. A

final question, specific to this research, was then included in the analysis:

How would the identified discourses support or hinder the utilisation of those

leadership theories, which originated external to Brunei Darussalam but

were promoted by the MoE?

In seeking responses to these questions and identifying the discourses

involved, I recognised that this was an interpretation rather than an

objective truth. The research also recognised that the participant responses

were themselves constructed within the discursive setting of the interview,

in which the participants and myself, as the interviewer, were positioned in

specific ways (Holt, 2011; Potter & Hepburn, 2005; Willig, 2014). These

issues are discussed in the following section on validity.

3.5.5 Interview: Validity

Many authors (Berger, 2015; Cohen et al., 2011; Gray, 2004/2010;

Hobson & Townsend, 2010; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Longhurst, 2010;

Mann, 2016) have discussed the need for the interviewer to be cognisant of

how they themselves might influence the interview, with, among other

things, their own biases and preconceptions. Factors such as the

interviewer's age, dress, grooming, cultural heritage, or socioeconomic

status (Drever, 1995/2006; Gray, 2004/2010) may also affect the responses

of the interviewees, as indeed may the relationship between the interviewer

and interviewee (Mann, 2016). Regarding the latter, Mann (2016) discussed

a continuum of relationships which ranged from no prior relationship,

through to colleagues, on to friends and concluded with family, suggesting

for each of these contexts there were advantages and disadvantages, and

that the implications of these needed to be considered by the researcher. All

these influences of the interviewer on the interview process threaten the

validity of the data produced. The interview is not a neutral forum of data

collection:

> The interview is a social situation and inherently involves a relationship
>
> between the interviewer and the informant. Understanding the nature
>
> of that situation and relationship, how it affects what goes on in the
>
> interview, and how the informant's actions and views could differ in
>
> other situations is crucial to the validity of accounts based on
>
> interviews. (Maxwell, 1992, p. 295)

Hobson and Townsend (2010) reasoned that for the interviewer to

completely avoid exerting an influence on the interview process was an

impossible endeavour, as ingrained as our biases and world views are within

all our interactions. Instead, these authors suggested that the researcher

needed to increase their awareness of these influences and in doing so try to

limit their impact as much as possible. From the bias that remained, the

researcher had to be open and transparent about its possible impact on their

research:

> Most 'qualitative' researchers accept that . . . what is important is to
>
> embrace reflexivity, to be transparent about the 'baggage' that they

may have bought to the research, and open about the potential effects that this may have had on their research findings. (p. 228)

In this research, I was known to the interviewees prior to the interviews. At one level I was their colleague, having operated as a principal in Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education schools for over four years. At another, I was a consultant brought into the country to share good practice and support school leaders to bring about school improvement. Finally, I was also a researcher, working with the cooperation and authority of the Ministry of Education. All these different connections to the interviewees had the potential to impact their responses. As a colleague, I had credibility with the interviewees which meant they were confident sharing with me. As a consultant however, the participants would sometimes look to me to check if their responses were "right" or to ask for my view. In the interviews therefore, I consciously minimised my input and instead encouraged the participants, to ensure the voices of the latter could be clearly heard. I provided the participants with the space to share their views and narrate their stories. As I was a researcher working in cooperation with the Ministry of Education, some participants did reference the security of their anonymity. I reassured the participants that they could respond to the interview questions, confident that only myself as the researcher would be able to identify from whom the responses had come. In order to ensure the information received from the interviewees was a valid representation of

each participant's world view, I was aware of my own influence on the interview process. Through such reflexivity, I endeavoured to limit the impact of my own world view on this phase of data collection.

While an interviewer will inevitably bring their own biases and perceptions to the context of the interview, the participant will also have cultural discourses that may influence their willingness to disclose information and indeed influence what information they offer (Cohen et al., 2011; Gray, 2004/2010; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Due to such discourses, they may choose to forgo sharing the reality of their situation, instead presenting what they perceive as being socially desirable responses. This situation is then potentially compounded if the interviewer is from a different culture to that of the interviewees, (Cohen et al., 2011; Gray, 2004/2010; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Mann, 2016; Miltiades, 2008; Vázquez-montilla et al., 2000). Vázquez-montilla et al. (2000) in their work with Hispanic families, discussed the importance of establishing the research's authenticity so participants viewed it as a legitimate process to which they were willing to contribute. This included the interviewer establishing themselves not just as an academic, but as someone who understood the interviewee's community, so that the latter was assured what they were saying would be represented correctly. Linked to this, the authors also talked about the need to establish an affinity between the researcher and the interview participant, in order that the latter felt comfortable disclosing their information. They suggested

such affinity was established through commonalities both parties might have in their background. Finally, Vázquez-montilla et al. (2000) also referenced the importance of accuracy of data representation, which they suggested can only occur if the interviewer shares a cultural understanding with the interviewee.

This current research recognised that there was the potential for responses to be affected by issues associated with cross-cultural dialogue. I am Caucasian while the interviewees were Bruneian, leading to potential misunderstandings or possibly an unwillingness of the latter to share their thoughts with the former. Further, the official language of Brunei Darussalam was Bahasa Melayu, whereas the interviews took place in English. These potential socio-cultural pitfalls were addressed on a number of levels within the current research. First, I was familiar with not only Bruneian society and its expectations, but more specifically with leadership in the government schools. As such, the I was able to exhibit the authenticity and affinity required for valid data to be successfully obtained. The MoE prepared a set of 30 official letters requesting participants support for the research. Anonymity was maintained as I selected from this larger set, six letters to send out with the associated documents. In a high-power distance culture, with low uncertainty avoidance, this ensured that the research had the required authority and thus interviewees could feel comfortable engaging with the process. Regarding language, one of the

criteria for participating in the interviews, was that the interviewee was comfortable engaging in dialogue in the English language, which participants had to acknowledge with a tick, on the consent form. While Bahasa Melayu was the official language of the country, all secondary school leaders spoke English, most fluently, due to, among other things, an education where all but a small number of subjects were delivered in the medium of English.

Maxwell (1992) in detailing descriptive validity in the context of interviews, observed that such validity can be undermined even when the words are presented accurately within transcripts. This can be caused by omissions from quoted material and misrepresentation of intonation and where stresses fall. In order to ensure descriptive validity therefore, once again respondent validation (Torrance, 2012) was employed. The respondent validation was also supported by Maxwell's (1992) interpretive validity, or the degree to which I had accurately interpreted the meaning of the participants' responses, as it was a summary of my interpretation of the participants' responses to each question, that was sent to each participant for them to edit and approve. By providing a summary, rather than the transcript itself, this negated issues such as transcript accuracy or intonation. It also negated potential problems that can arise from providing interviewees with direct transcripts of their interviews, as this can cause participants to feel foolish when presented visually with the broken nature of spoken language in a transcript (Dearnley, 2005; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

The transcripts were created by a reputable transcription firm, recommended by my supervisory team.

3.6 Ethics

The National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Research Council and Universities Australia, 2018b) identified four aspects of research ethics that comprised their guidelines. The first of these was the merit and integrity of the research, which referenced respectively both the benefits the research offered to individuals, communities or the academic world, and the credibility of the framework upon which the research was structured. The participant information sheet for both the questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews stated, "It is expected that this project will not directly benefit you. However, it may benefit the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education, by helping them identify leadership practices they need to support their school leaders in developing" (see Appendices C and D). This research also offered potential benefit to academia, as it investigated issues regarding the cross-cultural transference of academic theories and practices from one culture to another.

The next aspect was justice, which referred to a research process that selected and treated participants fairly and which ensured any benefits of the research were distributed equally among those who might benefit from them. This description of justice in ethical research, can also be associated

with honesty and transparency, as set out in *The Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research* (National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Research Council and Universities Australia, 2018a). This research was both just and honest, as all participants were aware of the research process and how the results were to be used. Through both the bilingual participant information sheets and the oral instructions for the latter two phases, respondent validation for phases one and three, the consent form for the interview phase, as well as the presentation sessions and reports to the Ministry of Education, transparency was ensured. The outcomes were shared with both the participants and the Ministry of Education, though, as already discussed, were possibly of most benefit to the latter group.

The third aspect of ethical research from *The National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Research Council and Universities Australia, 2018b) was beneficence. This described a study where the benefits outweighed any potential risks to the participants. From the start, the potential risks to the participants in this research were minimal, however possibly the most prominent risk was the anonymity of participant responses. This risk was managed to ensure that this did not occur, as previously detailed, and the research posed negligible risk to its participants. As it was at the same time beneficial to the Ministry of Education and social science academia, the

research remained ethical in terms of maintaining the balance required for beneficence.

Finally, *The National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Research Council and Universities Australia, 2018b) combined all three of the preceding aspects under the label of respect. Respect is also listed in *The Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research* (National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Research Council and Universities Australia, 2018a). The former document defines respect for people as "a recognition of their intrinsic value" (National Health and Medical Research Council the Australian Research Council and Universities Australia, 2018b, p. 11) and promoted the importance of participants being allowed to make their own decisions. In the context of this research this was something that clearly occurred, as the participants had the opportunity to opt in or out of both the questionnaire and the semi structured interview phases, and in both these latter phases of the research design the participants were in control of the responses they offered.

Before this doctoral research was able to be undertaken with participants, approval had to be obtained from the University of Southern Queensland's Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) (see Appendix F). Regular follow up milestone reports also had to be submitted to the same organisation to review the ongoing study. This was a rigorous process

designed to ensure the research was of an acceptable ethical standard. The research was successful in gaining the HREC approval, ID H20REA194.

3.7 Summary

Applying the framework provided by Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), the following statement of purpose, acts as a summary for this methodology chapter. The purpose of this research study was to learn how well school leadership theories created in other cultures transfer to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam. A three-part sequential design was used that combined both exploratory sequential and explanatory sequential components. There were three interrelated phases of data collection and analysis.

The exploratory sequential component involved collecting qualitative data in the form of a document analysis to shape a quantitative questionnaire tool. In the initial qualitative phase of the study, an analysis of the *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019) was completed, and its findings used to structure and create a questionnaire. The questionnaire data was collected from secondary school principals, deputy principals, and teacher representatives in Brunei Darussalam. The purpose of the questionnaire was to analyse Brunei school leaders' utilisation of the leadership theories from other cultures as promoted by the *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019).

The school leaders' demographic information questionnaire supported the sampling process for the subsequent semi-structured interviews. The explanatory sequential component involved explaining the quantitative results of the questionnaire through follow up qualitative semi-structured interviews. The semi-structured interviews took place with a representative sample of school leader participants. The semi-structured interviews aimed to explain why the results of the questionnaire in phase two occurred as they did, in the context of dominant socio-cultural discourses.

This three-phase approach to answering the overarching research question combined qualitative and quantitative methods in a manner which emphasised the strengths of each method and negated their weaknesses. In combining these three data collection methods a depth of information was obtained that would have been unachievable from application of any one of them in isolation. The next chapter details the outcomes from the initial phase of this mixed methods research – the document analysis.

CHAPTER 4: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

This chapter contains the details of phase one of this research, the document analysis that was conducted on the *Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework* (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019). The Competency Framework set out the expected standards for Brunei school leaders in their supervision of all levels of government schooling in Brunei (see Figure 4.1). The phrase school leaders, in this context, was therefore inclusive of principals, deputy principals and assistant principals at primary, secondary and sixth form levels. The Competency Framework was also considered relevant to aspiring school leaders, in roles such as senior master/senior mistress or head of department. The Competency Framework was initially separated into two domains: *shaping the future* and *securing accountability.* Shaping the future had two standards: *managing a well-run school;* and *leading an ambitious and inspirational school.* Securing accountability had three standards: *growing great teachers and successful and happy students; creating a learning community for all;* and *building partnerships for improvement*. The Competency Framework included a brief introduction for each standard.

Figure 4.1

The Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework

Domain 1: *Shaping the Future*		Domain 2: *Securing Accountability*		
Standard 1: *Managing a well-run school*	**Standard 2:** *Leading an ambitious and inspirational school*	**Standard 3:** *Growing great teachers and successful and happy students*	**Standard 4:** *Creating a learning community for all*	**Standard 5:** *Building partnerships for improvement*
Competencies • Human resource management • Financial management • Facility management	**Competencies** • Visionary • Strategic planning and management • Change management	**Competencies** • Instructional leadership	**Competencies** • Emotional Intelligence • Building an effective team • Mentoring and coaching • Cultural and ethical competence	**Competencies** • Stakeholder collaboration • Negotiation and conflict management
CROSS-CUTTING COMPETENCIES:				
Communication	Decision Making		Data Literacy	

Note. Adapted from Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam. (2019). *Brunei Darussalam school leadership competency framework*.

4.1 Competencies

Within each standard lay the competencies, although three - communication, decision making and data literacy, were considered to cut across all five standards. Each competency was divided into a series of guiding questions and for each of those questions there were four sets of descriptive criteria levelled according to proficiency at four stages - requires development, emergent, proficient, and exemplary. To achieve the final grade of exemplary, it was necessary to achieve all the proficient criteria as well as additional exemplary ones. Finally, for each competency there were

also examples of the types of evidence a Brunei school leader might utilise to justify their assessed operating level. Figure 4.2 presents competency 10: mentoring and coaching, as an example of the content contained within each of the 16 competencies.

Figure 4.2

Competency 10: Mentoring & Coaching

DOMAIN 2: SECURING ACCOUNTABILITY STANDARD 4: Creating a Learning Community for All *Competency* 10*:* **MENTORING AND COACHING**					
GUIDING QUESTION	**REQUIRES DEVELOP - MENT**	**EMERGENT**	**PROFICIENT**	**EXEMPLARY** *Proficient plus…*	**EXAMPLES OF EVIDENCE**
Does the school leader: mentor and coach staff members to improve leadership, management and instructional practice?	Possesses basic knowledge and skills in mentoring and coaching others to improve leadership, management and instructional practice.	Possesses adequate knowledge and skills in mentoring and coaching others to improve leadership, management and instructional practice.	Possesses sound knowledge and skills in mentoring and coaching others to improve leadership, management and instructional practice.	Confident in mentoring and coaching staff members for their development and achieving maximum potential in teaching and learning excellence. Mentor and coach others through regular contact times and promotes positive outcomes in the mentee and coachee. Highly capable in training the next wave of mentors and coaches. Highly effective in creating a mentoring and coaching culture.	Listens and paraphrases what coachee has said to ensure clarity and understanding. The leader is capable of sharing and guiding others in their development through documented mentoring and coaching programmes. Consistently invests time to develop others leadership by mentoring and coaching.
mentor and coach other school leaders?	No evidence in the ability to mentor and coach other school leaders.	Shows some evidence in the ability to mentor and coach other school leaders.	Actively involved in mentoring and coaching other school leaders to develop their leadership capacities.		
Listen to staff members concerns, goals, values and beliefs?	Listens to staff's concerns, goals, values and beliefs via words without showing empathy.	Listens to staff's concerns, goals, values and beliefs via words with empathy.	Actively listens to staff's concerns, goals, values and beliefs via words and body language with empathy.		

Note. Extract from Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam. (2019). *Brunei Darussalam school leadership competency framework*.

The purpose of this document analysis was to provide a response to the first sub-research question: which leadership theories created in other cultures are promoted in Brunei Darussalam MoE documentation on school leadership? The analysis examined each competency in the Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework, in order to identify which of the academic theories of school leadership, identified in the Chapter 2 literature review, were reflected within them. All of the theories identified in this document analysis were developed outside of Brunei Darussalam and as such were being promoted in a context very different from where they originated. The chapter is structured in the order of the standards and as such starts with those competencies grouped under standard 1 and concludes with the cross-cutting competencies. Near the start of each section on each standard, the competencies in the standard, their respective guiding questions and a leadership theory identified in the analysis that can be linked to the competency, are summarised in diagrammatic form. These diagrams were constructed as part of the document analysis. While additional leadership theories also associated with each of the competencies, are discussed throughout each section of the analysis, in order to provide an effective overview and present with clarity, the diagrams are restricted to one theory that mirrors closely, the guiding questions and their associated criteria. Inclusion in the document analysis does not necessarily mean a leadership theory has complete alignment with a competency. Instead, the

essence of the leadership theory is present within the competency, or a significant part of the theory is present within the competency.

4.2 Standard 1: Managing a Well-Run School

Within the Competency Framework, standard 1, managing a well-run school, is introduced with reference to the school leader organising effective systems and structures. This standard consists of three competencies, each regarding a different aspect of management: human resource, financial, and facility. Prominent in the first competency, human resource management, are transformational leadership and its associated theory, transactional leadership. The latter two competencies reflect aspects of the dimensions of effective leadership detailed by Robinson et al. (2009). Figure 4.3 sets out both the guiding questions attached to each competency in standard 1 and a related leadership theory. The analysis that follows, details the ways that the leadership theories identified in Figure 4.3, are reflected within the competencies.

Figure 4.3

Standard 1 and Related Leadership Theories

<table>
<tr>
<td colspan="4" align="center">STANDARD 1:
Managing a Well-Run School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td colspan="2">Human Resource Management
Does the school leader:</td>
<td colspan="2">Financial Management
Does the school leader:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><i>provide and communicate clear expectations for staff performance?</i></td>
<td>Transactional Leadership:
(Bass et al., 2003,)</td>
<td><i>know how to plan, manage and maximise the school budget and resources according to learning initiatives?</i></td>
<td>Dimensions of Effective Leadership:
Resourcing strategically (Robinson et al., 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><i>monitor progress of staff using multiple data sources or evidence to assess staff effectiveness</i></td>
<td>Transactional Leadership:
(Bass et al., 2003,)</td>
<td rowspan="2"><i>build staff's capacity on financial matters based on Financial Regulations?</i></td>
<td rowspan="2">Practices of Exemplary Leadership – Enabling others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td rowspan="2"><i>provide timely, frequent and actionable feedback to improve staff effectiveness?</i></td>
<td rowspan="2">Transformational Leadership:
Individualised Consideration (Bass & Riggio 2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td colspan="2">Facility Management
Does the school leader:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><i>effectively recognises and supports high and low performers?</i></td>
<td>Transformational Leadership:
Individualised Consideration (Bass & Riggio 2006)</td>
<td><i>ensure a safe, clean and conducive school environment?</i></td>
<td>Dimensions of Effective Leadership:
Ensuring an orderly and supportive environment (Robinson et al., 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><i>cultivate positive rapport and trust among staff?</i></td>
<td>Transformational Leadership:
Idealised influence (Bass & Riggio 2006)</td>
<td><i>implement clear and systematic routines and procedures that lead to orderly conduct?</i></td>
<td>Dimensions of Effective Leadership:
Ensuring an orderly and supportive environment (Robinson et al., 2009)</td>
</tr>
</table>

4.2.1 Human Resource Management

The first competency in standard 1, human resource management, in its guiding questions, grade descriptors, and examples of evidence, refers to three groups with whom the school leader is expected to work.

Predominantly staff are referenced, but staff and students, and teachers and students, are also both included (see Table 4.1). While the introduction to standard 1 describes its focus as "improving teaching and learning" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 1), staff is referred to in all but one of the group labels, and the label from which it is missing, teachers and students, is only used once. It can be assumed therefore, that the focus of this first competency extends beyond teachers, to include non-teaching staff as well, such as clerks, grounds people, and cleaners.

Table 4.1

Frequency of References to Human Resource Groups

	Staff	Staff and Students	Teachers and Students
Number of References	21	5	1

The occasional inclusion of students within a competency on human resource management, however, can be considered somewhat surprising, as traditionally this area concerned leaders managing employees in the organisation's workforce. Boxall and Purcell (2011) defined human resource management as "referring to the activities of management in organising work and employing people" (p. 1). Students are clearly not employed within schools and thus their inclusion in the descriptors for this competency, seems incongruous with their role in school. For the purposes of this document analysis therefore, the leadership theories linked to this

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competency, have a more traditional understanding of human resource management and therefore reference staff.

As a theory of leadership in general, although Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) applied it specifically within the context of schools, transformational leadership is not restricted to a subset of staff members such as teachers but is applied to all staff of an organisation (Antonakis, 2001; Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bycio et al., 1995). While leadership theories specific to school contexts (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger, 2011; Leithwood, et al., 2008; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Robinson, et al., 2009) also promoted professional development, the emphasis on curriculum and learning outcomes, tended to focus such development on teachers rather than staff in general. Because of its wider implications to employees both in and beyond the classroom, transformational leadership is therefore a better fit with the criteria set out under the human resource management competency.

As discussed in the literature review, transformational leadership can be defined with reference to four components (Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006). All four of these components hold relevance to the human resource management competency. Idealised influence which alludes to the credibility, trust, and respect the leader fosters from their colleagues, is reflected in the expectation for the proficient Brunei school leader to "Cultivate and sustain a positive rapport and trust among staff" (Ministry of

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Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 2). Intellectual stimulation, which indicates the leader's ability to inspire and challenge employees, is represented in the expectation that the exemplary Brunei school leader will "grow high performing staff and students by increasing responsibilities and challenges" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 1). Regarding, individualised consideration, which ensures individuals in the organisation receive differentiated professional development pathways, this competency asks whether Brunei school leaders "effectively recognise and support high and low performers?" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 2), with the expectation in the examples of evidence, that the Brunei school leader will have "a clear action plan to support low performing staff" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 2). Further, this competency expects staff to be "matched to their strengths and expertise" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 1), with the proficient Brunei school leader consistently providing "systematic actionable and timely feedback to staff [which promotes] reflection with action" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 2). Finally, inspirational motivation, references a leader's ability to gain stakeholder support. Ultimately the exemplary Brunei school leader is charged with helping staff "to internalise performance expectations and their rationale" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 1). The exemplary Brunei school

leader is both so inspirational and motivational that staff adopt as their own, the roles and responsibilities that they have been set by the school leader.

The only time the human resource management competency specifically references teachers, is when it tends towards the nature of transactional leadership. Thus, the competency states that one form of evidence where Brunei school leaders might provide enactment of this competency, is when they are rewarding "high performing teachers" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 2). To receive such rewards the teacher must achieve pre-established expectations, so the proficient Brunei school leader "Provides and communicates clear expectations for staff performance consistently and ensures all staff understand their expectations" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 2). They then monitor "progress of staff consistently and use multiple data sources or evidence to assess staff performance" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 1). This emphasis on monitoring also falls within transactional leadership, for without monitoring, the Brunei school leader will not know whether the appropriate expectations have been met, and the subsequent rewards deserved:

the leader specifies the standards for compliance, as well as what constitutes ineffective performance, and may punish followers for being out of compliance with those standards. This style of leadership implies closely monitoring for deviances, mistakes, and errors and

then taking corrective action as quickly as possible when they occur.

(Bass et al., 2003, p. 208)

Other authors (Finnigan & Stewart, 2019; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005) make the link between monitoring and transactional leadership, specifically within the school context. Along with transformational leadership, the principles of transactional leadership are reflected in this competency, where expectations are set, and monitoring is used in order to discern whether they have been met.

4.2.2 Financial Management

The first guiding question of the financial management competency, asks whether the Brunei school leader knows, "how to plan, manage and maximise the school budget and resources according to learning initiatives?" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 3). This emphasis on prioritising spending according to actions required to enhance learning, mirrors resourcing strategically; one of the dimensions of effective leadership identified by Robinson, et al. (2009) in their extensive analysis of school leadership practices, "When identifying and obtaining resources, leaders in high-performing schools: use clear criteria that are aligned to pedagogical and philosophical purposes" (p. 41). In both sets of leadership practices, there is a commitment to focusing resources on improving pedagogy. In combining the word strategically with resourcing however, Robinson et al. (2009) explained clearly that they focussed on a school

leader's ability to secure resourcing specifically for pedagogical purposes. As such these authors separated this from other financial skills such as fund raising or grant writing, as these may not necessarily be directed towards strategic educational goals. In contrast however, exemplary Brunei school leaders are encouraged under the financial management competency, to "consistently be resourceful in generating extra funding" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 3). As such, while there is crossover between this competency with Robinson et al.'s (2009) resourcing strategically, the expectation of general fund raising, without specific reference to pedagogical purposes, does create a tension between the two.

A further tension occurs due to a contextual difference in Brunei Darussalam. The resources referred to by Robinson et al. (2009) included the recruitment and retention of high-quality human resources, or more specifically teachers. Other theories of school leadership also emphasised the importance of this area (Hord, 1997; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2008), but as Hallinger (2018) pointed out, there is a discrepancy between the autonomy Western school leaders enjoy in teacher recruitment and that experienced by their South East Asian colleagues. Within Brunei Darussalam, all staffing appointments, not just teachers, are handled by departments external to the school. As such the school leader has little or no say over who is assigned to their school and whether they remain there. For this reason, while there is some cohesion between resourcing strategically and

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the financial management competency, it has limitations due to the context

under which school leaders in Brunei operate.

The final guiding question in this competency, asks whether the Brunei

school leader builds their "staff's capacity on financial matters based on

Financial Regulations. . . [with the exemplary school leader empowering] . .

. staff to plan and monitor budgets within their appropriate areas" (Ministry

of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 3). In both developing the skills of

their staff regarding fiscal aspects of school operations and allowing them to

apply these in the context of their own budgets, the financial management

competency reflects Kouzes and Posner's (2013) practice of exemplary

leadership, enabling others to act. Enabling others to act, similarly

acknowledged both the importance of developing others and giving them

opportunities with the appropriate support, to be successful.

4.2.3 Facility Management

Robinson et al. (2009) listed as a further dimension of effective

leadership, ensuring an orderly and supportive environment and suggested

that, "indicators for this dimension include a focus on cultural understanding

and a respect for difference; provision of a safe, orderly environment and a

clear discipline code; and minimal interruption to teaching time" (pp. 42-43).

Many of these indicators are reflected in the facility management

competency, although the final one, protecting instructional time, is instead

directly addressed in the Standard 3 competency, instructional leadership.

The proficient Brunei school leader both, "Effectively ensures the school environment is safe, clean and conducive by following proper SOPs. . . [and] . . . Implements and sustains clear and systemic routines and procedures . . . that lead to orderly conduct" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 3), clearly mirroring the expectations of the dimension for effective leadership, for a safe, orderly, and disciplined environment. In addition, included amongst the examples of evidence for the competency, is the expectation that "school compounds are safe and conducive by taking into account the school community's perception" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 3). The first part of this statement reinforces the commitment to safety and order already discussed, but the latter part insists that stakeholders' views must be reflected within the school environment, and therefore has connotations of cultural understanding. Such connotations will be further solidified in later competencies, particularly stakeholder collaboration and communication. There is a clear link between the facilities management competency and the dimension for effective leadership, ensuring an orderly and supportive environment.

One final observation regarding the facility management competency again refers to the cultural context of Brunei Darussalam secondary school education. Facilities management, like staffing, is a centralised system. Schools are expected to report faults or maintenance issues to the appropriate department, and then wait for a response. There is the

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opportunity to pay for their own maintenance, but this is limited by the funds available to the school. With both human resourcing and maintenance issues fulfilled, at least in theory, by MoE run systems, school budgets are reduced to reflect this. Thereby, when the competency framework calls on the proficient Brunei school leader to keep their grounds and buildings "safe, clean and conducive", their ability to do so has to be considered in the context in which they work. Limited budgets and long waiting lists can hinder this.

4.3 Standard 2: Leading an Ambitious and Inspirational School

Under standard 2, Leading an Ambitious and Inspirational School, there are three competencies: visionary, strategic planning and management, and change management (see Figure 4.4). This section begins by presenting observations about the standard as a whole and identifying themes that exist across all three competencies, before looking specifically at the latter two competencies. The visionary competency is not addressed individually, as all its guiding questions are covered in the initial discussion. Once again, the leadership theory of transformational leadership and its associated theories, such as emotional intelligence, are reflected in Standard 2, but there is also, within this standard, reference to elements of other leadership approaches, including instructional leadership.

Figure 4.4

Standard 2 and Related Leadership Theories

Standard 2: Leading an ambitious and inspirational school			
Change Management Does the school leader:		**Visionary** Can the school leader:	
ensure clear and measurable goals are established and focus on critical needs when implementing changes?	**Transformational Leadership:** Group goals (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005)	*lead and manage the school with a clear shared vision?*	**Transformational Leadership:** Vision (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005)
collect, analyse and use data to inform change?	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)	*communicate the school's mission, vision and values clearly to inspire others and get buy in?*	**Transformational Leadership:** Inspirational motivation (Bass & Riggio 2006)
identify and prioritise problems and their root causes in managing changes?	**Associated KSD of Effective Leadership:** Analyse and solve complex problems (Robinson et al., 2009)	*translate the vision into actions?*	**The five practices of exemplary leadership:** Enabling others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)
develop and implement effective and innovative strategies to address change?	**The five practices of exemplary leadership:** Challenge the process (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)	*develop response plans to mitigate risk?*	**Deming Cycle:** Plan, Do, Check, Act (Isniah et al., 2020)
mobilise and empower others to support change?	**The five practices of exemplary leadership:** Enabling others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)	*engage various stakeholder's responses to change?*	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Awareness – Empathy (Goleman, 2000)
anticipate and identify risks and threats to the school?	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Awareness – Organisational Awareness (Goleman, 2000)		

Standard 2: Leading an ambitious and inspirational school			
Strategic Planning and Management Does the school leader:			
think and plan strategically in line with school priorities and KPIs?	**Instructional Leadership** Fostering the continuous improvement of the school through cyclical school development planning that involves a wide range of stakeholders. (Hallinger 2005)	*set targets for improving students' performance?*	**High-Impact Mind Frames:** Set challenging targets for themselves and for teachers to maximize student outcomes (Hattie, 2015)
identify school priorities and goals using staff and student data?	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)	*monitor and review strategies in response to data or changing environment?*	**High-Impact Mind Frames:** Believe their fundamental task is to evaluate the effect of everyone in their school on student learning (Hattie, 2015)
think and solve problems critically and innovatively?	-	*develop and sustain effective approaches to school self-evaluation and review?*	**Deming Cycle:** Plan, Do, Check, Act (Isniah et al., 2020)

Standard 2, is introduced in the Competency Framework, as follows:

Leaders can see the future of education, see a broader view of the

school, set a direction and lead the school towards the intended

change through effective strategies. They communicate the vision

clearly, inspire and mobilize staff members. (Ministry of Education

Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 4)

The standard therefore promotes a three-stage process of school

improvement - setting goals, engaging stakeholders, and implementing

actions to achieve those goals. This three-stage process is reflected in all

three competencies within standard 2, as summarised in Figure 4.5.

Considering the first stage, the three Standard 2 competencies are littered

with terms linked to identifying the ideal reality toward which the school is

aiming (see Table 4.2). The visionary Brunei school leader "leads and

manages the school with a clear shared vision" (Ministry of Education Brunei

Darussalam, 2019, p. 4), the strategic planner identifies "school priorities

and goals" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5), while the

change manager "ensures clear and measurable goals are established and

focused on critical needs" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019,

p. 6). The Brunei school leader's role in establishing where the school needs

to be, both in the short and long term, is therefore integral to Standard 2:

leading an ambitious and inspirational school.

Figure 4.5

The Standard 2 Process of School Improvement

	1. Set the Vision, Priorities, Goals	2. Motivating Stakeholders to support the Vision, Priorities, Goals	3. Enacting the Vision, Priorities, Goals
Exemplary Visionary	Engages stakeholders in collaboratively **developing** the **shared vision**.	**Inspires** others including external stakeholders to adopt and enact the vision	Inspires others including external stakeholders to **adopt** and **enact** the vision
Exemplary Strategic Planner and Manager	Engages all staff in **developing** and implementing a detailed strategic plan with clear school **priorities** and **KPIs**.	**Champions** and **pitches** the benefits of the strategic plan to all stakeholders.	Engages all staff in developing and **implementing** a detailed strategic plan with clear **school priorities** and **KPIs**.
Exemplary Change Manager	**Sets goals** for innovation that inspires and empowers others to be creative.	Able to mobilise the majority of people to support change with an **inspirational storyline**.	Sustain stakeholders' engagement in developing and **implementing** strategic change.

Table 4.2

Use of future orientated words in Standard 2

Competencies	Vision	Mission	Priorities	KPIs	Goals	Targets
Visionary	16	6				
Strategic Planning & Management			11	6	4	5
Change Management					5	

The importance of establishing a broader vision to which the

organisation aspires, as well as more focused short-term targets to support

in achieving that vision, was present in many leadership theories, both

general and those specific to education (Bass, 1985; Goleman, 2000;

Hallinger, 2011; Kouzes & Posner, 2013; Leithwood et al., 2008; Marks &

Printy, 2003; V. Robinson et al., 2009). Leithwood and Jantzi's (2005)

definition of transformational leadership within a school context, covers all

aspects of this. The first of their four transformational leadership behaviours,

setting directions, was divided into three sub-behaviours - vision, group

goals, and high-performance expectations. The Competency Framework

reflects the tenets of transformational leadership, although this time a

version of it specific to schools.

However, regarding target setting within Standard 2, it is also

necessary to reference instructional leadership, particularly the form which

focuses heavily on the improvement of student learning, to the exclusion of

other aspects of leadership (Hattie, 2015; MacBeath, 2006). Within his

interpretation of instructional leadership Hattie (2015) identified high-impact

mind frames that he suggested school leaders should adopt, including "Set challenging targets for themselves and for teachers to maximize student outcomes" (p. 38). Some of the expectations within the competencies of Standard 2, mirror this. Thus, the Brunei school leader as a visionary is expected to use "the shared vision to strategically drive actions towards high student achievement" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 4), and as a strategic planner to "set targets for improving student performance" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5).

Regarding the second part of the process reflected in standard 2, gaining stakeholder commitment to achieving the vision or goal, the exemplary Brunei school leader as a visionary, "engages stakeholders in collaboratively developing the shared vision" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 4), as a strategic planner, "champions and pitches the benefits of the strategic plan to all stakeholders" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5), and as a change manager is able to "sustain stakeholders' engagement in developing and implementing strategic change" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 6). This focus on stakeholder motivation and engagement also has clear links to transformational leadership and more precisely the practice of inspirational motivation (Antonakis, 2001; Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006), the facet of transformational leadership which promotes leadership charisma and the ability to inspire. It also reflects the social skills of emotional intelligence

(Goleman, 2000), specifically being a visionary, demonstrating influence, exhibiting excellent communication, fostering collaboration, and inspiring change. Of these, those skills of visionary leadership defined as "the ability to take charge and inspire with a compelling vision. . . [and as a change catalyst] . . .proficiency in initiating new ideas and leading people in a new direction" (Goleman, 2000, p. 80), are most clearly reflected in the standard 2 commitment to motivating and engaging stakeholders.

The final stage in the process is summed up in the final guiding question of the visionary competency, which asks whether the Brunei school leader can "translate the vision into actions?" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 4). As a visionary they are expected to inspire "others, including external stakeholders, to adopt and enact the vision" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 4), as a strategic planner to engage "all staff in developing and implementing a detailed strategic plan with clear school priorities and KPIs" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5), and as a change manager both to "mobilise the majority of people to support change" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 7) and to set "goals for innovation that inspires and empowers others to be creative" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 6). The Brunei school leader actively involves staff in the process of setting priorities and creating plans to achieve them. They empower their staff to be creative in achieving goals. This links to Kouzes and Posners' (2013) practice of

exemplary leadership: enabling others to act, "helping others to see themselves as capable and powerful—to nurture positive self-esteem is key to mastering the art of mobilizing others in joining the journey toward a common destination" (Kouzes & Posner, 2013, p. 5). Thus, when the final guiding question in the visionary competency asks whether the Brunei school leader can turn vision into action, it can be suggested that the involvement of staff members in the process, engagement with their ideas, and empowering them to proceed, mirrors enabling others to act.

One final observation on standard 2, concerns a cyclical process of planning, acting, and reviewing. As a strategic planner the proficient Brunei school leader, "monitors data and strategies regularly and adjusts and implements revised strategies in response to data review or changing environment . . . [and is] . . .effective at developing and sustaining approaches to school self-evaluation and review with significant success" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 6). As a change manager they develop and implement, "effective and innovative strategies to address critical problems, with regular monitoring and reviewing of strategies" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 7), and develop" proper response plans to mitigate risks with confidence, that have proper structure and the support of data" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 8). When considered in combination these various elements of the strategic planning and management and change management competencies, mirror

the four stages of the Deming cycle (Isniah et al., 2020; Prashar, 2017; Stikes & Barbier, 2013; Tsutsui, 1996). Within them, there is a process of identification of areas to develop or improve, through the effective use of data, the creation and enactment of actions to bring about the required improvement, the reviewing of the effectiveness of those actions and the refinement of the actions based on the outcomes of the review.

4.3.1 Strategic Planning and Management

The first guiding question of the strategic planning and management competency, asks whether Brunei school leaders "think and plan strategically in line with school priorities and KPIs" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5). The criteria detailed in the associated rubric, do not explain what the focus of those school priorities or KPIs are. As already discussed however, the visionary competency in this standard promotes high student achievement, while this current competency, in a later guiding question, promotes improving students' performance. As such, it can be assumed that at least some of the school priorities and KPIs in the strategic planning and management competency are focused on instructional leadership and ensuring positive student outcomes (Hattie, 2015; MacBeath, 2006). Hallinger (2005) in his review of instructional leadership, offered seven leadership behaviours that he suggested provided a broad summary of this leadership paradigm. These included both "fostering the continuous improvement of the school through cyclical school development planning

that involves a wide range of stakeholders . . . [and] . . . developing a climate of high expectations and a school culture aimed at innovation and improvement of teaching and learning" (Hallinger, 2005, p. 13). Such an emphasis on planning for school improvement in the context of improving teaching and learning, reflects to some extent the expectation for the Brunei school leader to "think and plan strategically in line with school priorities and KPIs" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5).

A further expectation promoted in Standard 2, is to base decisions on data. In fact, this expectation is prominent not only in the strategic planning and management competency, but also appears in the change management competency. Thus, in the former, the Competency Framework asks whether the Brunei school leader identifies "school priorities and goals using staff and student data" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5) and whether they "monitor and review strategies in response to data" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 6), while in the change management competency, Brunei school leaders are advised to go through a process in which they, "collect, analyse and use data to inform change" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 7). Dimmock and Tan (2016), in their review of instructional leadership, asserted that an updated version of this leadership form should include "promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school" (p. 12). These authors explained that the evidence referred to in the first half of their statement,

could be sourced from a variety of forms ranging from academic papers to school data. The origin of the data promoted within Standard 2, however is not completely clear. However, the reference to "staff and student data" in the first guiding question, certainly positions it as school data and there is no specific instruction, within this standard, to access academic data to inform decisions, although one does appear in Standard 3. Therefore, Dimmock and Tan's (2016) call to promote evidence-based practice, has relevance to Standard 2 but not complete alignment.

The expectation within the strategic planning and management competency that the Brunei school leader should "monitor and review strategies in response to data or the changing environment" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 6), can also be considered in the context of a further high impact mind frame (Hattie, 2015). Hattie called on instructional leaders to "Believe their fundamental task is to evaluate the effect of everyone in their school on student learning" (Hattie, 2015, p. 38). Hattie emphasised the importance of school leaders reviewing the impact of the different learning strategies. However, unlike Hattie, the strategies referenced in this competency, are not exclusively restricted to student learning. Therefore, while there is clear cross over between this high-impact mind frame and this competency, again there is not complete alignment.

As a strategic planner the proficient Brunei School Leader "effortlessly thinks and solves problems critically and innovatively" (Ministry of Education

Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5). Problem solving holds such prominence in Robinson et al.'s (2009) meta-analysis of school leadership, that it was referenced both as a dimension of effective leadership under the heading of engaging in constructive problem talk, and as part of the knowledge, skills, and dispositions (KSD) that support those dimensions under the heading of analyse and solve complex problems. According to Robinson et al. (2009) the school leader is expected to engage in meaningful collaboration with stakeholders to work towards a shared solution to the problem. However, the problem solving described under the competency, strategic planning and management, makes no reference to such engagement. Instead, it seems the solution to any problem will be sourced solely from the school leader and as such it was not possible to identify a related leadership theory for this guiding question.

4.3.2 Change Management

The vision of problem solving promoted by Robinson et al. (2009) is however, reflected in the competency, change management, as the proficient Brunei school leader, "has sound knowledge and skills in identifying, prioritizing and analysing problems and accurately diagnosing root causes" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 7). Robinson et al. (2009) described theories of action, which are the belief and value systems that filter the way stakeholders interact with the world in general but also more specifically the problem and any proposed solution.

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Unless the school leader engaged with the theories of action, it was unlikely they would successfully achieve a sustainable solution, as while change may have occurred, it would have been of limited effectiveness and duration. The change management competency similarly recognises the need to work beyond the level of the superficial, and to understand the narratives that support problem situations by identifying root causes.

The proficient Brunei school leader as a change manager also "develops and implements effective and innovative strategies to address critical problems with regular monitoring and reviewing of strategies" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 7). The Brunei school leader is expected to engage with creative initiatives to resolve problem situations within the change process. In doing so, they must monitor the change process and adapt their strategies as appropriate. Kouzes and Posner (2013) promoted as a further practice of exemplary leadership, challenge the process. They suggested that exemplary school leaders do not accept the status quo and instead engage in a constant review process of creative thinking to discover ways of improving the systems within their organisation: "The work of leaders is change, and making a commitment to Challenge the Process requires a willingness to take action, every day: to look outward for innovative ways to improve" (Kouzes & Posner, 2013, p. 4). There is a connection between the change management competency and the expectation of Kouzes and Posner (2013) for leaders not only to be

innovative and imaginative in improving their organisation, but also for the leaders to constantly review the status quo and respond accordingly.

Finally, the Brunei school leader as a change manager must be emotionally intelligent, demonstrating both empathy and organisational awareness (Goleman 2000). The first is an understanding of the position of others, while the latter is an awareness of both the personalities and factions that make up the organisation, and the interactions between these. The proficient Brunei school leader as a change manager must demonstrate empathy, when they provide "the right support as staff adapt to change, by creating opportunities to raise questions, doubts and emotions" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 7) and engage with "various stakeholders' responses to change" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 8). The Brunei school leader must also demonstrate organisational awareness as they anticipate and prepare "for potential risks and threats to school through a structured plan of action" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 8), as well as proactively manage "reactions to change and focus on forward momentum" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 7). The change management competency, therefore, expects the Brunei school leader to be emotionally intelligent, using their awareness of the organisation and the individuals within it to successfully manage the change process.

4.4 Standard 3: Growing Great Teachers, Successful and Happy Students

Standard 3, is the only standard to contain just one competency. Despite this, that competency, instructional leadership, is the largest in the Competency Framework, with nine guiding questions. It is also the only competency with a name which explicitly references a school leadership theory. Unsurprisingly, the tenets of instructional leadership and its associated theories dominate this standard (see Figure 4.6). Aspects of both indirect and direct instructional leadership are evident within the competency, but with the direct approach the more prominent.

The introductory statement for Standard 3 states, "The priority is improving teaching and learning and strengthening teacher capacity" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 9). Unlike Standard 2 where the focus of the school's priorities was to some extent left open, the Brunei instructional leader, is clearly focussed on improved pedagogy leading to improved student outcomes.

Figure 4.6

Standard 3 and Related Leadership Theories

Standard 3: Growing great teachers, successful and happy students			
Instructional Leadership Does the school leader:			
has knowledge and skills to implement and manage curriculum and instruction in alignment with standard requirements?	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Planning, coordinating and evaluating the curriculum (Robinson et al., 2009)	*facilitate and review effectiveness of continuous professional development (CPD) in improving teachers' competencies?*	**Instructional Leadership:** Organizing and monitoring a wide range of activities aimed at the continuous development of staff (Hallinger 2005)
adapt and model evidence-based instructional strategies and practices for diverse student learning needs?	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)*	*implement balanced and structured co-curricular activities to nurture student's holistic growth beyond the academic curriculum?*	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Rebalancing Curriculum (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
work with teachers to implement and evaluate formative and summative assessments that shape instructional decisions?	**High-Impact Mind Frames:** See assessment as feedback on their impact (Hattie, 2015)	*have routines in place to maximise instructional time and conduct an effective reviewing process?*	**PIMRS:** Protects instructional time (Hallinger, 2011)
use research data to inform learning support initiatives?	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)*	*distribute educational and technological resources aligned with school's learning priorities and goals?*	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Resourcing strategically (Robinson et al., 2009)
conduct lesson observations to help teachers' developmental growth?	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Promoting and participating in teacher learning and development (Robinson et al., 2009)		

4.4.1 Instructional Leadership

On a continuum, with the instructional leader indirectly bringing about improved student learning at one end, and being directly involved at the other, it can be suggested that the Brunei Darussalam MoE's instructional leadership competency promotes, at least to some extent, the latter. Thus, the evidence of instructional leadership behaviour in this competency, suggests the school leader "consistently and strategically conducts lesson observations and feedback sessions with teachers" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 9), and conducts "review meetings with teachers to monitor and update learning support strategies" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 10). In addition, the proficient Brunei school leader "provides full support to teachers in implementing and evaluating formative and summative assessment that shapes instructional decisions" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 10). Perhaps most tellingly however, the proficient Brunei School Leader, "frequently adapts and models evidence-based instructional strategies and practices that cater to the diverse students' learning needs" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 9). The proficient Brunei school leader is positioned within this competency, as the expert instructional leader, even to the point of demonstrating the pedagogy to bring about improved learning outcomes. The interpretation of instructional leadership adopted within Standard 3, leans towards the expert instructional leader, directly involved in improving

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teacher performance and student outcomes (Hattie, 2009; Robinson et al., 2009). It aligns therefore with Robinson et al.'s (2009) dimension of effective leadership, planning coordinating and evaluating teaching, and the curriculum. This dimension was defined as:

> Direct involvement in the support and evaluation of teaching through regular classroom visits and the provision of formative and summative feedback to teachers. Direct oversight of curriculum through school-wide coordination across classes and year levels and alignment to school goals. (Robinson et al., 2009, p. 95)

However, there is in fact also evidence within the instructional leadership competency, that recognises the importance of indirect impact from the Brunei instructional leader on learning outcomes. Aspects of the competency promote the creation of a culture that encourages and sustains improvement in teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2005; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Seashore Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010). Thus, one guiding question asks whether the Brunei school leader, "has routines in place to maximise instructional time?" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 11). Replicating one of the instructional leadership functions of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) (Hallinger, 2011), the Brunei school leader is expected to establish an environment where lessons can flourish, without being impacted by issues external to learning.

While at a proficient level the Brunei instructional leader "has sound knowledge and skills to implement and manage curriculum and instruction in line with standard requirements" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 9), at the exemplary level, the Bruneian school leader,

> builds the capacity of teachers to collaboratively implement and manage the curriculum, instruction and assessment to address the diverse learning needs of students . . . [and] . . .continuously builds the capacity of teachers to use various data to guide differentiated instruction. (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 9)

The Competency Framework expects the exemplary Brunei instructional leader to empower the teachers to take on these various skills, rather than necessarily maintaining direct control themselves. This echoes, to some extent, the tenets of the professional learning community (PLC) (Hord, 1997) or even teachers as leaders (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001).

In addition, the proficient instructional leader in Brunei "facilitates and reviews effectiveness of CPDs focussed on teaching and learning" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 10). In this context, they are not positioned as the expert, as they are facilitating rather than leading the professional development, an expectation which matches one of the practices listed in Hallinger's (2005) summary of instructional leadership. For Hallinger (2005), the instructional leader was the organiser of the professional development, "organizing and monitoring a wide range of

activities aimed at the continuous development of staff" (p. 13). Therefore, once again it must be recognised, that while the direct influence of the instructional leader is present in the instructional leadership competency, there is also evidence of indirect involvement by the Bruneian school leader in securing improved learning outcomes.

While Standard 2 in discussing decision making, made specific reference to school data only, Standard 3 expands upon this and references research findings as well. So, while the proficient Brunei instructional leader, "provides full support to teachers in implementing and evaluating formative and summative assessments that shape instructional decisions . . . [they also use] . . . research data consistently and effectively to inform learning support initiatives" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 10). While the use of assessment in the decision making process, mirrors a further high impact mind frame (Hattie, 2015), which called upon instructional leaders to "see assessment as feedback on their impact" (p. 38), the combination of both school and research data better matches Dimmock and Tan's (2016) assertion that contemporary instructional leadership should promote evidence based practice and that such evidence should be derived both internally, as well as externally to the school. Within Standard 3 both school data and academic research are listed as essential sources of evidence to support decision making.

The proficient Brunei instructional leader also implements "balanced and structured co-curricular activities for students and nurtures them for holistic growth consistently" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 11). In this criterion, there is an expectation that the Brunei school leader will ensure the development of their students extends beyond the academic. Dimmock and Tan (2016), as part of their review of instructional leadership, discussed the need for instructional leaders to create a curriculum which balanced traditional academic knowledge and skills required for success in examinations and assessments, with the soft skills required by employees to ensure success in the work place. This reference within Standard 3 to activities beyond the academic curriculum and to holistic growth, while not a complete match with Dimmock and Tan's change force, does recognise the responsibility Brunei instructional leaders have to develop their students in a more rounded manner than just academic achievement.

The final guiding question in the instructional leadership competency asks whether the Brunei school leader distributes "educational and technological resources aligned with school's learning priorities and goals?" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 11). Whereas in Standard 2 it was not defined what the focus of the school's priorities were, in Standard 3 this lack of clarity has been removed. The focus under instructional leadership is on learning. Thus, this aspect of the instructional leadership competency, like the financial management competency in

Standard 1, aligns with the dimension of effective leadership, resourcing strategically (Robinson et al., 2009). In this dimension, "The use of 'strategically' . . . signals that this leadership dimension is about securing and allocating resources that are aligned to pedagogical purposes, not securing resources per se" (Robinson et al., 2009, p. 98).

4.5 Standard 4: Creating a Learning Community for All

Standard 4, creating a learning community for all, consists of four competencies - emotional and social intelligence, building an effective team, mentoring and coaching, and cultural and ethical competence. As shown in Figure 4.7, the first three competencies are dominated by the theory of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000, 2004, 2014), while in the final competency, Dimmock and Tan's (2016) leadership for greater equity and social justice, is reflected. Overall however, Standard 4 expects Brunei school leaders to foster a professional learning community (Hord, 1997) within their schools, with the introduction to this standard stating:

> Leaders gear their schools towards a learning community . . . They
> guide, mentor and coach others to work collaboratively and be able to
> proactively solve problems and seek solutions. They build trust and
> encourage open communication in order to create a safe and
> supportive environment. (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam,
> 2019, p. 12)

Figure 4.7

Standard 4 and Related Leadership Theories

Standard 4: Creating a learning community for all			
Building an Effective Team Does the school leader:		**Emotional and Social Intelligence** Does the school leader:	
promote a safe and supportive environment among the school community?	**Emotional Intelligence:** Self-Awareness/Social Awareness (Goleman, 2000)	*demonstrate self and social awareness in emotional intelligence (EQ)?*	**Emotional Intelligence:** Self-Awareness/Social Awareness (Goleman, 2000)
clarify goals, roles and processes clearly?	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skill – Communication (Goleman, 2000)	*work collaboratively with others to achieve a harmonious work climate?*	**Professional Learning Community:** Supportive conditions (Hord 1997)
delegate tasks effectively?	**Transformational Leadership:** Individualised consideration (Bass & Riggio 2006)	*reflect and seek feedback for personal growth?*	**Emotional Intelligence:** Self-Awareness – accurate self-assessment (Goleman, 2000)
encourage others to solve problems and take initiatives?	**Distributed Leadership** (Harris & Spillane 2008)	**Cultural and Ethical Competence** Does the school leader:	
provide platforms for collaboration?	**Professional Learning Community:** Collective creativity (Hord 1997)	*promote and implement educational equity and ethical and cultural practices?*	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Leadership for greater equity and social justice (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
provide leadership opportunities to staff and students for growth?	**Emotional Intelligence:** Developing others (Goleman, 2000)	*hold self and others accountable for the ethical use of technology and social media?*	**Equity and Citizenship Advocate** International Society for Technology in Education (2019)
ensure the team's morale is high?	**The five practices of exemplary leadership:** Encourage the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)	*provide student access to learning experiences that promote equity and cultural responsiveness?*	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Leadership for greater equity and social justice (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
		allocate resources aligned to the strategic plan and to ensure equity?	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Resourcing strategically (Robinson et al., 2009)

Standard 4: Creating a learning community for all			
Mentoring and Coaching Does the school leader:			
mentor and coach staff members to improve leadership management and instructional practice?	**Emotional Intelligence:** Coaching and Mentoring (Goleman, 2004)	*listen to staff members concerns, goals, values and beliefs?*	**Emotional Intelligence:** Empathy (Goleman, 2004)
		mentor and coach other school leaders?	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** System leadership (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)

The Brunei school leader in displaying emotional intelligence is "highly effective in working collaboratively in sustaining a positive and harmonious climate" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 12), as a builder of effective teams "effectively provides platforms for collaborations among team members" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 13), as a coach or mentor is "highly effective in creating a mentoring and coaching culture" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 15), and as one competent in cultural and ethical matters "collaborates with stakeholders to promote educational equity and cultural competence" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 16). Throughout these four competencies, there is a commitment to a community built upon collaboration, respect, support, reflection, and development.

While the competencies of Standard 4 are intended to create a professional learning community (PLC), there is one aspect of a PLC that Brunei school leaders struggle to replicate. Hord (1997) suggested that teachers should be involved in any recruitment process, in order to ensure

new colleagues were selected who were both willing and able, to fit with the expectations inclusion in a PLC placed upon them. Further, Hord (1997) also suggested that existing staff members unwilling or unable to work under such expectations, should possibly be encouraged to seek employment elsewhere. However, as discussed in Chapter 1, Brunei school leaders do not have the power of recruitment and retention within their own school, as this is handled by a Ministry of Education department external to the school. As such this important aspect of the PLC is not represented within this standard.

4.5.1 Emotional and Social Intelligence

The principles of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000, 2004, 2014), unsurprisingly, form the foundation for the emotional and social intelligence competency. The knowledge of oneself, of others, and of utilising social skills to manage the relationship between them, is clearly exemplified by the proficient emotionally intelligent Brunei school leader, who "demonstrates high levels of self- and social-awareness and management in emotional intelligence" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 12). Further, within the examples of evidence for this competency, the Brunei school leader "remains composed and calm when faced with difficult situations and is able to use EQ strategically to achieve positive outcomes" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 12). Such composure reflects Goleman's (2000) self-management, where the emotionally

intelligent leader must both exhibit self-control, the ability to manage their own emotions that might negatively affect a situation, and adaptability, the ability to respond flexibly to situations, in order to achieve a successful result. The proficient emotionally intelligent Brunei school leader is also expected to consistently reflect and seek "feedback with accurate assessment for personal growth" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 12). This clearly aligns with Goleman's (2000) emotional intelligence competency of accurate self-assessment, which he included within the fundamental capability of self-awareness. In considering all these expectations of the emotionally intelligent Brunei school leader, there is a clear link between the emotional and social intelligence competency and Goleman's theories of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998, 2000, 2014).

4.5.2 Building an Effective Team

Under the building an effective team competency, there is further evidence of evidence of Goleman's (1998, 2000, 2014) emotional intelligence. The proficient Brunei school leader, as a team builder, uses the emotional intelligence social skills of communication (Goleman, 2000) to clarify, "goals, roles, accountabilities and decision-making processes clearly and confidently among team members" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 13), teamwork and collaboration to effectively provide "platforms for collaboration among team members, . . . [and developing others to provide] . . . leadership opportunities to staff . . . who have

potential by mentoring and coaching them to lead and support others"

(Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 14). In addition, the

proficient Brunei school leader, when building an effective team, "promotes a

safe and supportive environment that establishes mutual respect and trust

amongst the school community" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam,

2019, p. 13). In order to foster the creation of such an environment, it can

be suggested that the emotionally intelligent leader, must exhibit the self-

management competency of being trustworthy, acting with integrity, the

social awareness competency of empathy, showing an active interest in the

viewpoints of others, and the social skill competencies of both building

bonds, strengthening working relationships, and fostering teamwork and

collaboration (Goleman, 2000). All of these aspects of emotional intelligence

would support the creation of a Brunei school environment, where

stakeholders can feel safe, supported, respected, and trusted.

One of the guiding questions, relating to the building of an effective

team competency, asks whether the Brunei school leader ensures their

"team's morale is high?" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p.

14). It can be suggested that if the staff operate in the safe and supportive

environment previously described, then morale will indeed be positive.

However, this expectation possibly mirrors more closely Kouzes and Posner's

(2013) practice of exemplary leadership, *Encourage the Heart.* In order to

maintain a positive morale, staff must feel both valued, and that their

contribution is meaningful. These two authors highlighted the importance of leaders acknowledging staff contributions in a variety of positive ways and celebrating successes, mirroring the exemplary Brunei school leader, who "knows when to celebrate success to boost the team's morale" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 13)

The evidence of the Brunei school leader as a team builder, includes fostering a culture where "staff members proactively assume leadership roles" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 13) and ultimately, the exemplary Brunei school leader in building an effective team, "provides enough autonomy for the school to run in his/her absence" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 13). There is a clear indication in these statements that within Brunei, school leadership is expected to be distributed (Harris & Spillane, 2008) and not retained by a central, dominant individual. What is less clear however, is whether such leadership positions are only those formally recognised within the school structure or whether, as promoted by distributed leadership (Harris, 2012; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Spillane, 2005) they extend to informal roles as well. As the example of evidence for this competency references staff members being proactive, this suggests that not all these leadership roles are formerly assigned. Further, the Brunei school leader as a proficient team builder "empowers others to proactively solve problems and take initiative" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 13). As an aside, such

empowerment in this problem-solving process, is in sharp contrast with that presented in Standard 2, where the school leader effortlessly arrived at solutions, by themselves, seemingly in isolation from others.

A discrepancy, however, between the building an effective team competency and the principles of distributed leadership, is the expectation that the proficient Brunei school leader will "delegate tasks to appropriate individuals or groups with consideration of members' personalities, strengths and weaknesses" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 13). A formal act of delegation is not synonymous with the distributed leadership culture of empowerment (Harris, 2004; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Petersen, 2014). Delegation is better aligned with transformational leadership's individualised consideration where, "the leader delegates tasks as a means of developing followers" (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 8). Individualised consideration considers the various elements that combine to form a staff member's strengths and areas for development and uses this information to delegate tasks accordingly.

4.5.3 Mentoring and Coaching

The proficient Brunei school leader is expected to possess "sound knowledge and skills in mentoring and coaching others to improve leadership, management and instructional practice" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 14). While this appears to position the proficient Brunei school leader as a potentially isolated expert, administering

mentoring and coaching, the exemplary Brunei school leader, is also "highly effective in creating a mentoring and coaching culture" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 15). Thus, the responsibility for these actions is distributed.

This competency recognises the importance of empathy within mentoring and coaching, as the proficient Brunei school leader "actively listens to staff's concerns, goals, values and beliefs via words and body language with empathy" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 15). Goleman (1998) in discussing his theory of emotional intelligence, promoted the importance of coaching and mentoring, as "empathy in action" (p. 101). In being able to understand the position of their protegee, the empathetic coach or mentor knew when to challenge and when to support. For Goleman, coaching and mentoring were essential processes within the emotional intelligence toolbox, as they not only developed staff, but also ensured their retention. While the latter has little relevance to the Brunei school leader for reasons of centralised recruitment, the former matches with the expectations of the mentoring and coaching competency.

The targeted audience in the first guiding question for mentoring and coaching, is staff members, while in the second guiding question it is other school leaders. The proficient Brunei school leader is expected to become "actively involved in mentoring and coaching other school leaders to develop their leadership capabilities" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam,

2019, p. 14). While these school leaders could be staff members in leadership roles internal to the school, it is more likely, since staff members have already been referenced in the first guiding question, that they are external to the school. With this latter in mind, Dimmock and Tan (2016) recognised as a further development to their conceptualisation of instructional leadership, "the emergence of system leadership in leading education systems" (p. 13). These authors suggested that the reality of current education practices in some countries, included system leadership, as some principals take on roles beyond the parameters of their own organisations and have oversight into other schools. Dimmock and Tan (2016) referred to a range of possible roles within system leadership, but described as the simplest level, mentoring another school leader. While this competency promoting coaching and mentoring school leaders, does not match the intricacies of system leadership, it does have a link with Dimmock and Tan's (2016) recognition that some school leaders are expected to support school improvement not only in their own school, but also in the schools of others.

4.5.4 Cultural and Ethical Competence

The competency, cultural and ethical competence, places a clear expectation on school leaders, to ensure equity for their students, with the proficient Brunei school leader providing and sustaining "student access to learning experiences that promote equity and cultural responsiveness"

(Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 16). Dimmock and Tan (2016) presented as one of their revisions to instructional leadership, leadership for equity and social justice, which identified a similar expectation for instructional leaders to ensure an equitable education experience for all students, regardless of their background. Leadership for equity and social justice therefore referenced a number of strategies for addressing inequalities in schools, including compensatory resourcing. This aligns with the proficient Brunei school leader, who in displaying cultural and ethical competence, "allocates resources to ensure equity for diverse students and staff needs" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 16). Robinson et al. (2009) in their dimension of effective leadership, resourcing strategically, did not specifically reference issues of equity. Instead, the Ministry suggested that effective leaders, in selecting and procuring resources for their schools, "use clear criteria that are aligned to pedagogical and philosophical purposes" (Robinson et al., 2009, p. 41). Therefore, the securing of equity in education for all students could constitute one of those philosophical purposes. Thus, in terms of resourcing for equity, there is also cross over between this dimension of effective leadership and the cultural and ethical competence competency.

It must be noted however, that there are some discrepancies between this competency and both leadership for equity and social justice (Dimmock & Tan, 2016) and resourcing strategically (Robinson et al., 2009). Firstly,

Dimmock and Tan (2016) in discussing educational equity, listed a series of characteristics that could affect a student's progress in learning, "their age, ability, previous learning history, home circumstances, gender, culture and ethnicity" (Dimmock & Tan, 2016, p. 14), and suggested these all needed to be accounted for to ensure equity. The competency, however, only specifically references the characteristic of culture. Instead of addressing the other demographic factors individually, it has a general commitment to equity, with the examples of evidence including the statements: "provide equitable opportunities and resources to meet the diverse needs of staff and students . . . [and] . . . consistent emphasis on teachers' importance to help every child reach their potential" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 16). The second discrepancy can be seen in the expectation placed on the Brunei school leader to meet the diverse needs of both staff and students. As expected in a construct of instructional leadership, Dimmock and Tan (2016) focused purely on the students, while Robinson et al. (2009), in resourcing strategically, were also focussed on student outcomes. So, while there is undoubtedly cross over between these school leadership theories and the cultural and ethical competence competency, areas of difference exist as well.

Finally for the competency, cultural and ethical competence, the proficient Brunei School Leader is also expected to respond to ethical considerations within the context of technology. Specifically, they must

consistently address "the importance of the ethical use of technology and social media, and hold self and others accountable" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 16).

The first of the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) (2019) standards for education leaders was *Equity and Citizenship Advocate*, which addressed issues of ethics regarding the use of technology in schools, with the leader ensuring equitable access to technology for all students, modelling the appropriate engagement with and evaluation of online resources and digital tools and cultivating "responsible online behaviour, including the safe, ethical and legal use of technology" (International Society for Technology in Education, 2019, p. 7). The Brunei Ministry of Education recognises similar ethical considerations within the cultural and ethical competence competency, to those included in the ISTE standards.

4.6 Standard 5: Building Partnerships for Improvement

Standard 5, building partnerships for improvement, is one of the smaller standards, with only two competencies, stakeholder engagement and negotiation and conflict management. As shown in Figure 4.8, while the first of these competences reflects yet another dimension of effective leadership (Robinson et al., 2009), the latter is once again dominated by the theory of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000, 2004, 2014). The standard as a whole focuses on creating effective relationships with stakeholders to

improve the educational development of the students. The introduction to the standard starts by asserting that:

> Leaders engage the community for school improvement. They build rapport, trust, respect and ensure clear understanding with the community of what is to be achieved . . . They are aware that having a partnership with stakeholders, communities, ministries and other relevant organisations can be vital in achieving the school goals that focus on student development and school performance. (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 17)

Both competencies in this standard, like the cultural and ethical competence competency of Standard 4, once again promote equitable and ethical behaviour. In the stakeholder collaboration competency, the guiding question asks, "does the school leader engage stakeholders in allocating resources to sustain equity for diverse student and staff needs?" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 18). The latter part of this expectation once again links to Dimmock and Tan's (2016) leadership for greater equity and social justice. In the negotiation and conflict management competency, the proficient Brunei school leader is expected to be effective in maintaining a good rapport with the parties involved "by employing ethical negotiation and conflict resolution approaches" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 19). This links with servant leadership (Greenleaf 2002) which focused on the needs of the followers and obliged the leader to

act in a morally responsible way. Similarly, the Brunei school leader in negotiating a resolution to conflict, is expected to refrain from putting their own needs ahead of their stakeholders.

4.6.1 Stakeholder Collaboration

Within the stakeholder engagement competency, the word stakeholders is referenced eighteen times, but of the specific groups that constitute the stakeholders, "parents/guardians" are referenced eight times and "communities, ministries and relevant organisations", once. There is no direct reference to teachers and students as stakeholders in this standard. Indeed, the introduction to the standard mirrors this, referencing "parents, community members, other schools or the ministries" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 17). The examples of evidence for this competency, also refer to working with respectively, parents and guardians, other schools in the form of peer reviews, ministries, and communities. The understanding of stakeholder in this standard, seems therefore, to be individuals and groups external to the school, rather than those, such as teachers and students, who are internal to the institution.

Figure 4.8

Standard 5 and Related Leadership Theories

Standard 5: Building partnerships for improvement			
Stakeholder Collaboration Does the school leader:		**Negotiation and Conflict Management** Does the school leader:	
engage and communicate with relevant stakeholders on the school mission, vision, values and strategies that support students' learning needs?	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skills – Communication (Goleman, 2000)	*have the knowledge and negotiation skills to create 'win-win' solutions?*	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skills – Conflict management (Goleman, 2000)
model and build staff on instilling good rapport by displaying welcoming and inclusive behaviour with stakeholders?	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Creating educationally powerful connections (Robinson et al., 2009)	*communicate effectively to influence others in resolving difficult conversations and conflict resolutions openly and productively?*	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skills – Communication (Goleman, 2000)
listen to stakeholders' opinions and feedback and act upon it?	**Servant-Leadership:** Listening and Understanding (Greenleaf, 2002)	*maintain good rapport during negotiation and conflict resolutions?*	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skills – Building Bonds (Goleman, 2000)
engage stakeholders in attaining and allocating resources to sustain equity for diverse student and staff needs?	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Creating educationally powerful connections (Robinson et al., 2009)	*build support systems and equip parents/guardians with strategies and tools to support student learning at home?*	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Creating educationally powerful connections (Robinson et al., 2009)

This competency expects the proficient Brunei school leader, to be

someone who consistently and strategically engages and communicates

"with relevant stakeholders on the school's mission, vision, values, and

strategies that support students' learning needs" (Ministry of Education

Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 17). Communication is clearly an important

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leadership skill in this standard and Goleman's (2000) social skill of

communication, incorporates both listening and effectively sharing ideas.

Similarly, Hattie (2015) and MacBeath (2005) each promote dialogue as key

elements of instructional leadership and leadership for learning respectively.

However, the competency continues with the expectation that the proficient

Brunei school leader "listens to the opinions and gathers feedback from

stakeholders, and takes strategic action" (Ministry of Education Brunei

Darussalam, 2019, p. 18). Listening also plays a key role in the second

competency of Standard 2, negotiation and conflict management, as the

examples of evidence for this competency include, "listening to the needs of

others" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 19). Greenleaf

(2002), with reference to servant leadership, targets listening, rather than

dialogue, when he promotes the servant leader as a listener. The servant

leader in serving their followers, actively listens to their views and concerns.

Greenleaf suggested by simply listening to stakeholders the solution to the

problem will often emerge or enough of an understanding will be garnered

that a solution can be proposed. The listening component of the stakeholder

collaboration competency fits with Greenleaf's focus on listening and

understanding.

The exemplary Brunei school leader in the stakeholder collaboration

competency, "Creates a schoolwide culture in which staff make themselves

accessible and approachable to stakeholders" (Ministry of Education Brunei

Darussalam, 2019, p. 17), while the proficient Brunei school leader

"maintains and promotes culturally responsive relationships with a wide

range of stakeholders to obtain and allocate resources to sustain equity for

the diverse needs of students and staff" (Ministry of Education Brunei

Darussalam, 2019, p. 18). In both these criteria there is a focus on the

school leader positively adjusting their approach to stakeholder interaction,

in order to ensure effective outcomes. This reflects elements of the

dimension of effective leadership, creating educationally powerful

connections (Robinson et al., 2009), in which school leaders fostered

positive relationships with stakeholders to benefit student outcomes.

Further, the stakeholders in the dimension, creating educationally powerful

connections, like those of the stakeholder collaboration competency, were

also external to the school. They included, other schools or early years

education centres, education officials, community members and parents.

Robinson et al. also suggested that to establish educationally powerful

connections, an onus existed for the school leader to establish an

environment where the cultural and social experiences of their students and

parents were recognised and to some extent reflected in the school. This is

present in the expectation of the stakeholder collaboration competency, that

the proficient Brunei school leader will "maintain and promote culturally

responsive relationships with a wide range of stakeholders" (Ministry of

Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 18).

The exemplary Brunei school leader, in collaborating with stakeholders, is also "continuously expanding effective support systems and equipping parents/guardians with strategies and tools to support student learning at home" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 18). Thus, there is an expectation in this competency that the Brunei school leader will successfully engage parents in their children's learning. A similar expectation also existed, as part of creating educationally powerful connections (Robinson et al., 2009). Although the context of this dimension was broader than just parents, it included the skill of providing "the parents of primary school students with sufficient knowledge about the teaching programme for them to be able to support their children's school learning" (p. 268). While this dimension of effective leadership specifically references primary school parents, and the stakeholder collaboration competency does not delineate in this way, the connection between the two is clear. Although not a direct match, there is cross over between the stakeholder collaboration competency and Robinson et al.'s (2009) creating educationally powerful connections.

4.6.2 Negotiation and Conflict Management

The Brunei school leader who is proficient in negotiation and conflict management, must have "sound knowledge of negotiation skills to gain 'win-win' solutions most of the time" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 19), must be "skilful and calm in handling difficult conversations

and resolving conflict effectively" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 19) and "effective in maintaining good rapport by employing ethical negotiation and conflict resolution approaches" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 19). In short, the Brunei school leader must once again be proficient in various aspects of emotional intelligence (Goleman 2000).

Perhaps most pertinent to this competency is Goleman's (2000) social skill of conflict management or "the ability to de-escalate disagreements and orchestrate resolutions" (p. 80). This matches directly with the expectations of the negotiation and conflict management competency "to gain win-win solutions" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 19). To be both skilful and calm in handling difficult conversations, the Brunei school leader must display empathy, in understanding the views of those with whom they negotiate, and communication skills, both in listening and sharing their own messages effectively (Goleman 2000). To maintain a good rapport through the negotiation process, the emotional intelligence social skill of building bonds (Goleman 2000) is required. Building bonds involves not only proficiency at cultivating, but also preserving a system of relationships, both of which align with this expectation of Brunei school leaders. The principles of emotional intelligence (Goleman 2000) permeate through this competency.

4.7 Cross-cutting Competencies

This final section covers three competencies: communication, decision making, and data literacy, that are identified as having relevance to all five standards of the Competency Framework. Perhaps unsurprisingly for competencies that have application to all the preceding five standards, there is a lot of cross over with the expectations of earlier competencies. Also unsurprisingly, many of the related leadership theories, reflected in these cross-cutting competencies, have already been referenced earlier in this chapter (see Figure 4.9).

4.7.1 Communication

The emotionally intelligent leader, regarding communication, is able to demonstrate "skill at listening and at sending clear, convincing, and well-tuned messages" (Goleman, 2000, p. 80). Similarly, the proficient Brunei school leader "communicates with clarity and is effective both in speaking and writing to staff and other stakeholders" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 20). Further, Goleman (2000) under the fundamental capability of self-management, included trustworthiness, which he described as "a consistent display of honesty and integrity" (p. 80). The Brunei school leader is expected to "communicate transparently" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 20). Such transparency aligns to displaying the emotionally intelligent quality of trustworthiness.

Figure 4.9

Cross-cutting Competencies and Related Leadership Theories

Cross-cutting Competencies			
Communication Does the school leader:		**Decision Making** Does the school leader:	
communicate clearly and effectively?	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skills – Communication (Goleman, 2000)	*make decisions aligning to the school's mission, vision, and values?*	**Core Practices of School Leadership:** Building Vision and setting directions (Leithwood et al., 2008)
communicate transparently and interactively?	**Dialogue** MacBeath (2006)	*use multiple data sources to guide decision making regarding students' and teachers' learning needs and progress?*	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
use technology and media to establish and maintain system of communication between the school and stakeholders?	**Visionary Planner** International Society for Technology in Education (2019)	*make inclusive decision making involving relevant stakeholders with proper structures and processes?*	**Professional Learning Community:** Supportive and shared leadership (Hord 1997)
Data Literacy Does the school leader:		*demonstrate confidence in own ability to make decisions?*	**Emotional Intelligence:** Self- Awareness – Self-confidence (Goleman, 2000)
use data to drive effective teaching and learning strategies?	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)	*use digital data systems to systematically collect, update analyse and monitor data?*	**Systems Designer** International Society for Technology in Education (2019)
analyse and use school data to inform student achievement or resource allocation?	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)		

The Brunei school leader is also called upon to communicate

"interactively" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 20), which

positions the communication as a reciprocal process of both listening and sharing, in which neither party is left as a passive participant. The examples of evidence in the communication competency, position the Brunei school leader as someone who "listens to the needs and concerns of others" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 20). Both the interactivity and the active listening, align with the principle, dialogue is central to leadership for learning (MacBeath, 2006), in which dialogue "implies a deep listening to content, feeling and intention. It implies a symmetry in the relationship. It assumes reciprocity and respect for views of the world that are not necessarily coincident with one's own" (p. 41). While the symmetry targeted by MacBeath (2006) is perhaps not fully realised within the communication competency, there is a definite commitment to establish communication as a reciprocal act with the Brunei school leader listening to the views of others.

Further, the Brunei school leader who is exemplary in communication "responds appropriately in consideration of social and cultural context" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 20). This has clear similarity with elements of the dimensions of effective leadership (Robinson et al. 2009), discussed in earlier standards, specifically the call to consider cultural context in creating educationally powerful connections and the need to consider theories of action to engage in constructive problem talk. Both the competency and these aspects of the dimensions of effective leadership,

require the school leader to listen to and be aware of the socio-cultural narratives that underlie the positions adopted by stakeholders and to take these into account in the communication process.

The exemplary Brunei school leader, within the communication competency, also "uses a variety of platforms and technologies to communicate the school vision and strategies" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 20). The International Society for Technology in Education entitled their second standard for educational leaders, *Visionary Planner,* as school leaders established a vision for utilising technology to improve learning outcomes, as well as a strategic plan for achieving it and a review cycle for monitoring progress towards it (International Society for Technology in Education, 2019). Regarding the vision and plan, the ISTE standard expected the educational leader to communicate with stakeholders by utilising technology to both keep them updated and to access their ideas. While the ISTE vision is specific to the effective use of technology in education, in a similar way to the communication competency, school leaders are expected to use technology as a means for communicating with stakeholders, key messages about their vision and the strategies being used to achieve it.

4.7.2 Decision Making

The proficient Brunei school leader as a decision maker, "frequently makes decisions, aligning to the school's mission, vision and values"

(Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 21). This echoes the expectation in the strategic planning and management competency, to "think and plan strategically in line with school priorities and KPIs" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 5). Leithwood et al. (2008) claimed that the first of four leadership practices all successful school leaders utilised, was building vision and setting directions. These authors suggested that the vision, as well as motivating staff and clarifying roles, supported both planning and organisation. Like the decision making competency, decisions in both the processes of planning for improvement and the organising of the school, were made in alignment with the school vision.

In addition, the exemplary Brunei school leader in the decision making competency makes "extensive use of data-driven decision making where multiple sources of data regarding student and teachers' learning needs and progress are thoroughly analysed" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 21). In this decision making competency, and indeed the data literacy competency which follows, the promotion of using school data to support decision making within a school is apparent. This is something that was also apparent in earlier standards and which links with Dimmock and Tan's (2016) change force, promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school. In the decision making competency, a variety of

evidence is analysed in order to decide upon teachers' professional development and initiatives designed to enhance learning outcomes.

The proficient Brunei school leader is expected to have "high confidence in their own ability to make decisions" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 21). The decision making competency recognises the importance of self-confidence in leadership, something also recognised in academic literature: "Every major review of the leadership literature lists self-confidence as an essential characteristic for effective leadership" (Mccormick, 2001, p. 23). Yet again this can be linked to Goleman's (2000) emotional intelligence, and more specifically the self-awareness competency of self-confidence. The Brunei school leader must display such self-confidence, as part of the decision making process.

Finally in the decision making competency, the proficient Brunei school leader ensures, "shared decisions are made with input from relevant stakeholders with proper structures and processes in place to support shared decision making" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 21). Shared decision making is recognised in a number of theories of school leadership including teachers as leaders (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001) and distributed leadership (Harris, 2012). Leithwood and Riehl (2003) identified three broad categories of successful leadership, the final one of which included, building collaborative processes, where shared decision making was again promoted. The supportive and shared leadership component of

professional learning communities (Hord, 1997) also recognised the essential insight teachers brought to a shared decision making process. As such this competency has clear links to these respective theories. It should however also be acknowledged that the shared decision making, in this competency, is occurring by considering input from appropriate stakeholders. This therefore also reflects Dimmock and Tan's (2016) focus on evidence-based practice, as there is once again a commitment to using appropriate evidence, to support the decision making process.

4.7.3 Data Literacy

Decisions based on appropriate evidence, also form a prominent focus in the final competency, data literacy. The proficient Brunei school leader in this competency, ensures both that the school "supports and develops teachers in analysing data to drive effective teaching and learning strategies . . . [and that] . . . school data is collected, monitored and effectively analysed to inform student achievement or resource allocation" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 22). While the latter part of this second criterion again references resourcing strategically (Robinson et al., 2009), the overall emphasis for this competency is a commitment to evidence based practice (Dimmock & Tan, 2016). This is reinforced in light of the exemplary Brunei school leader, who "develops a digital system that uses various students' and teachers' data sources to drive decision making" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 22). Key decisions on

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student learning, are made through considering a variety of data sources and analysing them. Regardless of whether this occurs digitally or manually, the focus remains on utilising evidence to inform practice.

It can also be argued that analysing data to drive effective learning strategies, and promote student outcomes, as the Brunei school leader is expected to do under both the decision making and the data literacy competency, reflects the tenets of assessment for learning. Although not a leadership theory, assessment for learning is renowned as a powerful pedagogical initiative, in which assessment data is used to inform future planning and instruction and consequently results in improved learning (Wiliam, 2011). This connection is further strengthened when the examples of evidence in the data literacy competency, describe the Brunei school leader as working "collaboratively with staff to use and analyse data to determine effective differentiated learning support . . . [and ensuring] . . . teachers use student data and current performance levels when planning instruction" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 22). In all these instances, the assessment data is not for summative purposes but rather formative ones, leading to improved pedagogy and student outcomes.

As a leader proficient in data literacy, the Brunei school leader also effectively uses "digital data systems to systematically collect, update, analyse and monitor data" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 22). The process of collecting and analysing data has been present in

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many of the preceding standards, but this competency emphasises using digital systems to do so. One of the ISTE education leader standards, positions the leader as a systems designer whose role it is to "lead teams to collaboratively establish robust infrastructure and systems needed to implement the strategic plan" (p. 8). While potentially broader than just the data systems referenced in this competency, it can be assumed that included within the robust systems identified by ISTE, are those pertaining to data. As such, the expectation of the data literacy competency that the Brunei school leader will establish digital systems for data processing, reflects the broader expectations of the ISTE systems designer.

4.8 Overview of Theories

Figure 4.10 sets out an overview of the Western academic theories of school leadership reflected within the Competency Framework. These can be organised under the broad headings of instructional leadership and associated theories, transformational leadership and associated theories, school based leadership theories, and general leadership theories. The final category is not specific to education, but details theories of leadership, reflected within the Competency Framework, which are applied to schools, as well as broader contexts. This overview suggests that the MoE, in creating the Competency Framework, referenced an extensive range of theories, from cultures external to Brunei Darussalam.

Figure 4.10

Leadership Theories Reflected in the Competency Framework

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP & ASSOCIATED THEORIES		
Reconceptualising the Instructional Leadership Model *Hallinger (2005)*	**Principles of Leadership for Learning** *MacBeath (2006)*	
Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) *Hallinger(2011)*	**Instructional Leadership High Impact Mind Frames** *Hattie (2015)*	**Reconceptualising Learning-Centred (Instructional) Leadership** *Dimmock & Tan (2016)*
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP & ASSOCIATED THEORIES		
Emotional Intelligence *Goleman (2000)*	**Transactional Leadership** *Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson (2003)*	**Transformational Leadership Behaviours** *Leithwood & Jantzi (2005)*
Transformational Leadership Behaviours *Bass & Riggio (2006)*	**Seven Strong Claims About Successful School Leadership** *Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins (2008)*	**The five practices of Exemplary Leadership** *Kouzes & Posner (2013)*
OTHER SCHOOL BASED LEADERSHIP THEORIES		
Professional Learning Community *Hord (1997)*	**Teachers as Leaders** *Katzenmeyer & Moller (2001)*	**Integrated Leadership** *Marks & Printy (2003)*
Distributed Leadership *Harris & Spillane 2008*	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership** *Robinson, Hohepa & Lloyd (2009)*	**ISTE Standards – Education Leaders** *ISTE (2021)*
OTHER GENERAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES		
Servant Leadership *Greenleaf 2002*	**The Deming Cycle Plan, Do, Check, Act** *Isniah et al., 2020*	

4.9 Summary

This document analysis identified the key school leadership theories reflected in the Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency

Framework in response to the research question: which leadership theories

created in other cultures are promoted in Brunei Darussalam MoE

documentation on school leadership? The document was seen to reflect a

wide range of leadership theories which originated external to the country.

Some of these theories, although represented in the document analysis,

were not fully present due to restrictions of the local context.

While this document analysis was seemingly successful in identifying

those key external leadership theories reflected in the Brunei Darussalam

School Leadership Competency Framework, it does have its limitations.

Ultimately the suggestions put forward are those of myself as a single

researcher, who, operating under my own biases and dominant discourses,

may have identified links between the source document and academic

leadership theories, with which others might disagree. The connections that

have been made are open to interpretation. However, while the exact

leadership theories of Western academia, reflected in the Competency

Framework, can be debated, perhaps more importantly, what cannot be, is

that this Brunei Darussalam MoE document is influenced by theories created

in cultures other than its own and that there is representation under the four

broad headings utilised in Figure 4.10. The Brunei Darussalam MoE's

willingness, to utilise international practice and apply it to the Brunei

context, is apparent within this Competency Framework. The Brunei Ministry

of Education had collated a diverse, ambitious, and challenging collection of

leadership practices to drive forward their programme of school

improvement. The next step was to discover, to what extent these

leadership practices had been adopted within Brunei secondary schools.

CHAPTER 5: QUESTIONNAIRE

This research sought to discover how well school leadership theories created in other cultures transferred to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam. More specifically, the questionnaires from the middle phase of the research design provided a response to the second sub-research question. Thus, they helped to gain a better understanding of what the relationship was between those school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the Ministry of Education, and the leadership practices implemented in Brunei secondary schools. The leadership practices questionnaire sought to discover therefore, the connection between what was officially promoted and what was actually occurring in Brunei secondary schools. This chapter provides an analysis of the questionnaire data.

5.1 Document Analysis to Questionnaire

In Chapter 4 a variety of leadership theories developed in cultural contexts external to Brunei Darussalam and reflected within the Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019) were identified. The links between the various leadership theories and the practices from within the framework did not necessarily display complete equivalence. Rather, they could be placed on a continuum with respective extremes of select associations or direct matches. The document analysis however, confirmed that theories

developed in contexts external to Brunei Darusslam were promoted by the

MoE to its school leaders and that these fell within four broad headings.

These were: instructional leadership and associated theories;

transformational leadership and associated theories; other school based

leadership theories; and other general leadership theories (see Figure 4.10)

From the Competency Framework, 45 leadership practices were

identified to be used in the leadership practices questionnaire. The 45

leadership practices represented a broad range of the leadership practices

promoted in the Competency Framework, with all 16 competencies having

representation (see Figure 5.1). Many of the 45 leadership practices

reflected the tenets of more than one competency and were worded

differently from the content of the Competency Framework, so that school

leaders were less likely to identify them as coming directly from that

document. This was to combat participants giving responses which they

thought the Ministry of Education wanted, rather than those that reflected

the reality of their experiences. The statements in the middle column of

Figure 5.1, labelled competencies, were from either the guiding questions,

criteria, or examples of evidence of each competency. They evidenced how

the leadership practices presented in the questionnaire, aligned with the

various competencies.

As seen from Figure 5.1, the 45 leadership practices were grouped into

nine themes, based on commonality of focus. A tenth theme consisting of a

further five outlying leadership practices was also added. These were

leadership practices that appeared in academic literature from Chapter 2 but

were not reflected in the Competency Framework. The outliers were referred

to as non-explicitly referenced leadership practices.

Figure 5.1

Leadership Practices Used in the Questionnaire

Leadership Practice	Competencies	Leadership Theory
SHARED VISION		
1. *Creating a clear vision for the school*	**Visionary:** Leads and manages the school with a clear shared vision	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skill – Visionary leadership (Goleman, 2000)
2. *Communicating the school vision with stakeholders*	**Visionary:** Consistently and systematically communicates the school's mission, vision and values which inspires school community support **Communication:** Uses a variety of platforms and technologies to communicate school vision	**Transformational Leadership:** Inspirational motivation (Bass & Riggio, 2006)
3. *Gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision*	**Visionary:** Inspires others including external stakeholders to adopt and enact the vision **Change management:** Able to mobilise the majority of the people to support change with an inspirational story line **Communication:** Getting stakeholders' understanding and buy in	**Transformational Leadership:** Inspirational motivation (Bass & Riggio, 2006)
4. *Creating a sense of shared ownership and purpose amongst the school's stakeholders*	**Visionary:** Engages stakeholder in collaboratively developing the shared vision **Emotional and social intelligence:** Highly effective in working collaboratively in sustaining a positive and harmonious climate **Building an effective team:** Motivates and inspires others to feel a sense of ownership and embrace responsibilities	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skill – Teamwork and collaboration (Goleman, 2000)

Leadership Practice	Competencies	Leadership Theory
SETTING TARGETS		
5. *Setting challenging targets to bring about school improvement*	**Human resource management:** Provides and communicates clear expectations for staff performance **Strategic planning and management:** Engages all staff in developing and implementing a detailed strategic plan with clear school priorities and KPIs	**Instructional Leadership** Fostering the continuous improvement of the school through cyclical school development planning that involves a wide range of stakeholders. (Hallinger, 2005)
6. *Setting challenging targets to bring about improved student outcomes*	**Strategic planning and management:** set targets for improving students' performance	**High-Impact Mind Frames:** Set challenging targets for themselves and for teachers to maximize student outcomes (Hattie, 2015)
7. *Establishing clear and measurable goals to provide focus for any change process*	**Change management:** Ensures clear, measurable goals with are established and focused on critical needs when implementing changes **Strategic planning and management:** Develops a strategic plan with short and long term milestones towards school priorities and KPIs	**Transformational Leadership:** Group goals (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005)
DECISION MAKING		
8. *Basing decisions on the school's vision*	**Financial management:** Plan, manage, and maximise school budget and resources efficiently to learning initiatives that are aligned to the school's vision or goals **Visionary:** Clear and visible alignment of school's actions to mission, vision and values **Decision making:** Frequently makes decisions aligning to the school's mission, vision and values	**Transformational Leadership:** Vision (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005)
9. *Basing decisions on school priorities and goals*	**Strategic planning and management:** Think and plan strategically in line with school priorities	**Instructional Leadership** Fostering the continuous improvement of the school through cyclical school development planning that involves a wide range of stakeholders. (Hallinger 2005)
10. *Monitoring teachers' performance*	**Human resource management:** Monitors progress of staff consistently **Instructional Leadership:** Prioritises lesson observations **Digital Leadership:** School data is collected monitored and effectively analysed	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Promoting and participating in teacher learning and development (V. Robinson et al., 2009)
11. *Acting upon feedback from monitoring teachers' performance*	**Human resource management:** Collects and uses multiple data sources (such as lesson observations, peer and student feedback) to assess staff performance and develop talent **Decision making:** Extensive use of data-driven decision-making where multiple sources of data regarding . . .teachers learning needs and progress are thoroughly analysed	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
12. *Rewarding teachers who perform well*	**Human resource management:** Recognises and rewards high performing staff and students	**Transactional Leadership:** (Bass et al., 2003)

Leadership Practice	Competencies	Leadership Theory
DECISION MAKING		
13. *Utilising school data to inform decision making*	**Strategic planning and management:** identify school priorities and goals using staff and student data **Change management:** Collects, analyses and interprets data to inform short- and long-term changes **Decision making:** Extensive use of data-driven decision-making where multiple sources of data regarding students and teachers learning needs and progress are thoroughly analysed **Data Literacy:** School data is collected monitored and effectively analysed to inform student achievement or resource allocation	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
14. *Utilising student data to adapt and improve pedagogy*	**Strategic planning and management:** Monitors data and strategies regularly and adjusts and implements revised strategies in response to the data review **Decision making:** Consistent and effective use of multiple data sources in decision-making regarding students and teachers learning needs and progress. **Data Literacy:** Use data to drive effective teaching and learning strategies	**High-Impact Mind Frames:** Believe their fundamental task is to evaluate the effect of everyone in their school on student learning (Hattie, 2015)
15. *Utilising academic research to inform decision making*	**Instructional leadership:** Uses research data consistently and effectively to inform learning support initiatives.	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE		
16. *Solving problems by considering the viewpoints of those involved*	**Change management:** Consistently engages various stakeholders' responses to change. **Negotiation and conflict management:** Being sensitive to the values and beliefs of others	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Awareness – Empathy (Goleman, 2000)
17. *Successfully influencing others to move forward in a new direction*	**Change management:** Able to mobilise the majority of people to support change with an inspirational storyline **Communication:** Getting stakeholders' understanding & buy in	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skill – Change catalyst & Influence (Goleman, 2000)
18. *Identifying the underlying causes of a problematic situation in order to foster change*	**Change management:** Critically analyses and validates assumed causes to identify root causes to a problem	**Associated KSD of Effective Leadership:** Analyse and solve complex problems (Robinson et al., 2009)
19. *Communicating key messages effectively*	**Human resource management:** Provide and communicate clear expectations for staff performance. **Emotional and social intelligence:** Adapts communications and actions to improve impacts and relations with others **Communication:** Communicates with clarity both in speaking and writing to staff and other stakeholders	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skill – Communication (Goleman, 2000)

Leadership Practice	Competencies	Leadership Theory
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE		
20. *Empathising with the position of different stakeholders*	**Change management:** Consistently engages various stakeholders' responses to change **Emotional and social intelligence:** Proactively seek opinions and feedback from others **Mentoring and coaching:** Actively listens to staff's concerns, goals, values and beliefs via words and body language with empathy **Negotiation and conflict management:** Being sensitive to the values and beliefs of others	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Awareness – Empathy (Goleman, 2000)
21. *Building teams which collaborate together towards a shared purpose*	**Emotional and social intelligence:** Consistent effort in working collaboratively with others in achieving a positive and harmonious work climate **Building an effective team:** Effectively provides platforms for collaboration among team members.	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skill – Teamwork and collaboration (Goleman, 2000)
22. *Resolving conflict so that all parties feel listened to and ready to move forward*	**Negotiation and conflict management:** The leader is well prepared and able to approach the negotiation session with a 'win-win' mentality. There is no loser during the negotiation session	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skills – Conflict management (Goleman, 2000)
23. *Displaying self-awareness of your own strengths and limitations*	**Emotional and social intelligence:** Consistently reflects and seeks feedback with accurate assessment for personal growth.	**Emotional Intelligence:** Self-Awareness – Accurate self-assessment (Goleman, 2000)
DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP		
24. *Empowering others to take on leadership roles*	**Financial Management:** Empowers staff to plan and monitor budgets within their appropriate areas **Building an effective team:** Provides enough autonomy for the school to run in his/her absence **Mentoring and coaching:** Consistently invests time to develop others leadership by mentoring and coaching	**Distributed Leadership** (Harris & Spillane, 2008)
25. *Fostering leadership potential in staff members*	**Building an effective team:** Provides leadership opportunities to staff . . . who have potential by mentoring and coaching them to lead and support others **Mentoring and coaching:** Possesses sound knowledge and skills in mentoring and coaching others to improve leadership	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skills – Developing others (Goleman, 2000)
26. *Utilising leadership potential in staff members*	**Building an effective team:** Provides leadership opportunities to staff. . . for growth **Building an effective team:** Provides enough autonomy for the school to run in his/her absence	**The five practices of exemplary leadership:** Enable others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)
27. *Delegating roles to staff that match with their abilities*	**Human resource management:** Majority of staff are matched to their strengths and expertise **Building an effective team:** Delegates roles to appropriate individuals or groups with consideration of members' personalities, strengths and weaknesses	**The five practices of exemplary leadership:** Enables Others to Act (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)
28. *Empowering others to take initiative*	**Facility management:** Builds staff capacity to identify, address and resolve safety issues in a timely manner. **Change management:** Sets goals for innovation that inspires and empowers others to be creative **Building an effective team:** Empowers others to proactively solve problems and take initiative	**The five practices of exemplary leadership:** Enables Others to Act (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)

Leadership Practice	Competencies	Leadership Theory
STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT		
29. Creating a safe environment for stakeholders to share ideas and support each other in moving the school forward	**Emotional and social intelligence:** Highly effective in working collaboratively in sustaining a positive and harmonious climate **Building an effective team:** Promotes a safe and supportive environment that establishes mutual respect and trust among the school community	**Professional Learning Community:** Supportive conditions (Hord, 1997)
30. Responding appropriately to different stakeholders so they feel listened to and involved	**Change management:** Provides the right support as staff adapt to change by creating opportunities to raise questions, doubts and emotions. **Negotiation and conflict management:** Listening to the needs of others. Being sensitive to the values and beliefs of others	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Awareness – Empathy (Goleman, 2000)
31. Providing opportunities for stakeholders to have access to you as a school leader	**Stakeholder collaboration:** Consistently make time to meet parents/guardians and community members **Negotiation and conflict management:** Listening to the needs of others.	**Servant-Leadership:** Listening and Understanding (Greenleaf, 2002)
32. Listening actively to stakeholders	**Mentoring and coaching:** Actively listens to staff's concerns, goals, values and beliefs via words and body language with empathy **Stakeholder collaboration:** Listens to the opinions and gathers feedback from stakeholders and takes strategic actions **Communication:** Listens to the needs and concerns of others	**Servant-Leadership:** Listening and Understanding (Greenleaf, 2002)
33. Incorporating stakeholder views into the organisation of the school	**Change management:** Facilitates sessions for stakeholders to explore risks, develop mitigation strategies and set priorities **Cultural and ethical competence:** Collaborates with stakeholders to promote educational equity and cultural competence **Stakeholder collaboration:** Consistently and strategically engage and communicate with relevant stakeholders on the school mission, vision, values and strategies that support student's learning needs **Decision making:** Shared decisions are made with inputs from relevant stakeholders, with proper structures and processes in place to support shared decision making	**Emotional Intelligence:** Social Skills – Communication (Goleman, 2000)
34. Working with parents to support learning at home	**Stakeholder collaboration:** Continuously expanding effective support systems and equipping parents/guardians with strategies and tools to support student learning at home	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Creating educationally powerful connections (Robinson et al., 2009)
35. Maintaining positive staff moral	**Building an effective team:** Leads team to task completion and ensures team's morale and productivity are high and celebrate team accomplishments	**The five practices of exemplary leadership:** Encourage the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2013)

Leadership Practice	Competencies	Leadership Theory
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP		
36. *Observing lessons and providing feedback*	**Instructional leadership:** Prioritises lesson observations and provides immediate clear and constructive feedback to teachers for their developmental growth	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Promoting and participating in teacher learning and development (Robinson et al., 2009)
37. *Creating and delivering professional development*	**Human Resource Management:** Have a clear action plan to support low performing staff **Instructional leadership:** Leads and works with teachers collaboratively in designing CPDs for teachers.	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Promoting and participating in teacher learning and development (Robinson et al., 2009)
38. *Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe*	**Instructional leadership:** Frequently adapts and models evidence-based instructional strategies and practices	**Visible Learning:** direct involvement in the support and evaluation of teaching through regular classroom visits (Hattie, 2009)
39. *Meeting with teachers to guide and improve their pedagogy*	**Human Resource Management:** Holds regular dialogues with staff on their performance developments **Instructional leadership:** Conduct review meetings with teachers to monitor and update learning support strategies	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Promoting and participating in teacher learning and development (Robinson et al., 2009)
EQUITY		
40. *Meeting the needs of all learners*	**Instructional leadership:** Differentiation and targeting for learning support based on periodic assessments **Cultural and ethical competence:** Provide and sustain student access to learning experiences that promote equity and cultural responsiveness **Stakeholder collaboration:** Actively engages local, regional or national stakeholders to attain and allocate resources to sustain equity for the diverse needs of students **Data Literacy:** Works collaboratively with staff to use and analyse data to determine effective differentiated learning support.	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Leadership for greater equity and social justice (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
41. *Prioritising resourcing for those students whose learning needs require it most*	**Instructional leadership:** Distributes educational and technological resources in line with the school's learning priorities and goals **Cultural and ethical competence:** Allocates resources to ensure equity for diverse student . . . needs **Data Literacy:** School data is collected monitored and effectively analysed to inform . . . resource allocation	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Resourcing strategically (Robinson et al., 2009)
42. *Prioritising resourcing to ensure equity for students from disadvantaged backgrounds*	**Cultural and ethical competence:** Provide equitable opportunities and resources to meet the diverse needs of students **Data Literacy:** School data is collected monitored and effectively analysed to inform . . . resource allocation	**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Leadership for greater equity and social justice (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)

Leadership Practice	Competencies	Leadership Theory
MANAGEMENT		
43. *Resourcing according to identified priorities*	**Financial management:** Plan, manage, and maximise school budget and resources efficiently to learning initiatives that are aligned to the school's vision or goals **Instructional leadership:** Distributes educational and technological resources aligned with school's learning priorities and goals **Cultural and ethical competence:** Allocate resources aligned to the strategic plan	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Resourcing strategically (Robinson et al., 2009)
44. *Creating an environment conducive to good pedagogy and successful learning outcomes*	**Facility management:** Efficiently ensures the school environment is safe, clean and conducive by following proper SOP.	**Dimensions of Effective Leadership:** Ensuring an orderly and supportive environment (Robinson et al., 2009)
45. *Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible*	**Instructional leadership:** Routines for instructional times are maximised	**PIMRS:** Protects instructional time (Hallinger, 2011)
NON EXPLICITLY REFERENCED		
46. *Maintaining a highly visible presence around the school*		**Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale:** Maintains High Visibility (Hallinger, 2011)
47. *Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need*		**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Promoting evidence-based and research-engaged practice across the school (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
48. *Balancing the curriculum between achieving success in examinations and developing the soft skills required for employment*		**Change Forces of Instructional Leadership:** Rebalancing Curriculum (Dimmock & Tan, 2016)
49. *Facilitating a teaching community where teachers collaboratively and critically examine their practice, in search of improvement*		**Professional Learning Community** (Hord, 1997)
50. *Displaying a readiness to seize opportunities without delay*		**Emotional intelligence:** Self-Management – Initiative (Goleman, 2000)

In order to ensure that the 45 leadership practices provided an appropriate representation of the various leadership strategies contained within the Competency Framework, a comparison was made between the number of guiding questions each competency had and the number of times the competency was referenced within the 45 leadership practices (see Table 5.1). It was not intended that there would be a direct match between these two totals but rather that there would be a general trend in which more guiding questions resulted in more references.

The competency that in relation to its number of guiding questions, is perhaps referenced more than would be expected, is emotional and social intelligence. Although only having three guiding questions, this competency is referenced in six of the leadership practices used in the questionnaire. However, it must be noted that under the first guiding question for this competency, the proficient Brunei school leader "demonstrates high levels of self- and social-awareness and management in emotional intelligence" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2019, p. 12). As already seen in chapter 4, emotional intelligence has four fundamental capabilities, of which this expectation references three: self-awareness, self-management, and social awareness. Each of these fundamental capabilities then in turn has a number of competencies. Thus, by expecting the Brunei school leader to be a skilled practitioner of emotional intelligence, the competency framework is in fact expecting a wide range of leadership practices to be utilised within

this one guiding question. It is for this reason emotional and social

intelligence is referenced more often than its number of guiding questions

would suggest.

Table 5.1

Number of References to each Competency

Standards	Competency	No of Guiding Questions	No of references
Standard 1 Managing a well-run school	Human resource management	5	8
	Financial management	2	3
	Facility management	2	2
Standard 2 Leading an ambitious and inspirational school	Visionary	3	5
	Strategic planning and management	6	6
	Change management	8	10
Standard 3 Growing great teachers and successful and happy students	Instructional leadership	9	10
Standard 4 Creating a learning community for all	Emotional and social intelligence	3	6
	Building an effective team	7	10
	Mentoring and coaching	3	4
	Cultural and ethical competence	4	5
Standard 5 Building partnerships for improvement	Stakeholder collaboration	3	5
	Negotiation and conflict management	3	5
Cross-cutting competencies	Communication	3	5
	Decision making	4	5
	Data Literacy	3	5

5.2 Leadership Practices Questionnaire Outcomes

While variation existed in the average responses of the participant

groups to the two Likert scales, when the responses from all three

participant groups were combined, even the leadership practice with the lowest average response, scored respectively 3.0686 on scale A and 3.48 on scale B. This specific leadership practice, promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need, despite its low ranking, still emerged as occurring sometimes on scale A, and between of some significance and significant on scale B. As the weakest result, this suggests a strong overall relationship between the leadership practices and their implementation in Brunei secondary schools. However, such a broad statement belies the intricacies of the data explored in detail in this section.

5.2.1 Ranked Responses

The items and their associated leadership practices were ranked according to their average response score for the three participant groups: principals, deputy principals, and teachers. The five top and five bottom leadership practices were then identified for each of the groups (see Tables 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4). The top five ranked items for each participant group were then compared and crossover between the groups was identified (see Table 5.5). The leadership practices that featured in the top five averages of all three groups were: protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible; maintaining positive staff morale; and utilising school data to inform decision making. The first of these, protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible, appeared twice in the top five averages for principals – both scales A and B.

In addition, two further leadership practices were ranked in the top five averages of two participant groups. Rewarding teachers who perform, featured in the top five averages of both deputy principals and teachers. However, while both principals and teachers responded positively to maintaining a highly visible presence around the school, it was ranked in the top five averages for principals on scale B and for teachers on scale A.

Table 5.2

Principals' Ranked Responses

Rank	Item No	Scale	Item	Theme	Average
1	33	B	*Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible*	Management	4.5556
2	19	B	*Maintaining positive staff morale*	Stakeholder Engagement	4.5385
3	41	B	*Maintaining a highly visible presence around the school*	Non-Explicitly Referenced	4.5385
4	33	A	*Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible*	Management	4.5185
5	50	B	*Utilising school data to inform decision making*	Decision Making	4.5
96	25	A	*Utilising academic research to inform decision making*	Decision Making	3.3462
97	29	A	*Gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision*	Shared Vision	3.3333
98	12	A	*Working with parents to support learning at home*	Stakeholder Engagement	3.2692
99	17	A	*Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe*	Instructional Leadership	3.25
100	4	A	*Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need*	Non-Explicitly Referenced	3.0385

Table 5.3

Deputy Principals' Ranked Responses

Rank	Item No	Scale	Leadership Practice	Theme	Average
1	19	B	*Maintaining positive staff morale*	Stakeholder Engagement	4.4727
2	18	B	*Communicating key messages effectively*	Emotional Intelligence	4.4727
3	33	B	*Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible*	Management	4.4386
4	31	B	*Rewarding teachers who perform well*	Decision Making	4.42
5	50	B	*Utilising school data to inform decision making*	Decision Making	4.38
96	12	A	*Working with parents to support learning at home*	Stakeholder Engagement	3.1455
97	32	A	*Creating and delivering professional development*	Instructional Leadership	3.1296
98	29	A	*Gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision*	Shared Vision	2.9643
99	17	A	*Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe*	Instructional Leadership	2.9444
100	4	A	*Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need*	Non-Explicitly Referenced	2.8545

Table 5.4

Teachers' Ranked Responses

Rank	Item No	Scale	Leadership Practice	Theme	Average
1	33	B	*Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible*	Management	4.3043
2	19	B	*Maintaining positive staff morale*	Stakeholder Engagemer	4.3034
3	31	B	*Rewarding teachers who perform well*	Decision Making	4.2391
4	50	B	*Utilising school data to inform decision making*	Decision Making	4.2391
5	41	A	*Maintaining a highly visible presence around the school*	Non-Explicitly Reference	4.1957
96	38	A	*Incorporating stakeholder views into the organisation of the school*	Stakeholder Engagemer	3.0449
97	4	A	*Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need*	Non-Explicitly Reference	3.0109
98	25	A	*Utilising academic research to inform decision making*	Decision Making	2.9783
99	17	A	*Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe*	Instructional Leadership	2.978
100	29	A	*Gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision*	Shared Vision	2.8889

Table 5.5

Comparison of the Top Ranked Leadership Practices

Item No	Scale	Principal Rankings	Deputy Principal Rankings	Teacher Rankings	Theme	Leadership Practice
19	B	2	1	2	Stakeholder Engagement	*Maintaining positive staff morale*
50	B	5	5	4	Decision Making	*Utilising school data to inform decision making*
33	B	1	3	1	Management	*Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible*
33	A	4	-	-		
31	B	-	4	3	Decision Making	*Rewarding teachers who perform well*
41	B	3	-	-	Non-Explicitly Referenced	*Maintaining a highly visible presence around the school*
41	A	-	-	5		
18	B	-	2	-	Emotional Intelligence	*Communicating key messages effectively*

Similarly, the following leadership practices featured in the bottom five averages of all three participant groups: gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision; modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe; and promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need (see Table 5.6). Further, the following leadership practice featured in the bottom five averages of both principals and deputy principals: working with parents to support learning at home; while utilising academic research to inform decision making featured in the bottom five averages of both principals and teachers.

Table 5.6

Comparison of the Bottom Ranked Leadership Practices

Item No	Scale	Principal Rankings	Deputy Principal Rankings	Teacher Rankings	Theme	Leadership Practice
4	A	100	100	97	Non-Explicitly Referenced	*Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need*
17	A	99	99	99	Instructional Leadership	*Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe*
29	A	97	98	100	Shared Vision	*Gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision*
25	A	96	-	98	Decision Making	*Utilising academic research to inform decision making*
12	A	98	96	-	Stakeholder Engagement	*Working with parents to support learning at home*
32	A	-	97	-	Instructional Leadership	*Creating and delivering professional development*
38	A	-	-	96	Stakeholder Engagement	*Incorporating stakeholder views into the organisation of the school*

The bottom five ranked leadership practices for all three participant groups - principals, deputy principals, and teachers, all came from scale A, which asked for the frequency that a leadership practice occurred. All but two of the top five items, across all three participant groups, came from scale B, which asked how significant the leadership practices were. In addition to this, when the 50 leadership practices that made up the items in the questionnaire, were considered across each of the three participant

groups, from the resulting 150 pairings, there were only six instances where the average response to Scale A was higher than Scale B (see Table 5.7). There were a further two instances where the average response to the item on each of the scales was the same. Thus, almost all the leadership practices were responded to by each participant group, with an average response score on scale B, that was higher than the corresponding score on Scale A. Significance ranked higher than frequency of use.

Table 5.7

Scale A response higher or equal to Scale B

Participant Group	Item	Scale A	Scale B
Principals	3	3.6293	3.6154
	13	4.1923	4.0769
	28	4.1154	4.0769
	36	3.8077	3.7692
	40	4.181	4.181
Deputy Principals	36	3.7273	3.7273
Teachers	35	3.8077	3.6087
	41	4.1957	4.0216

A final result, regarding ranking the average responses of each of the participant groups, concerns the non-explicitly referenced theme and its corresponding leadership practices. Unlike the other 45 items, these five leadership practices were not explicitly referenced within the Competency Framework. The average responses to these individual items, for each

participant group varied greatly, both in terms of numerical size and rank

order (see Table 5.8).

Table 5.8

Non-explicitly Referenced Theme

Item	Principals				Deputy Principals				Teachers			
	Scale A	Rank Order	Scale B	Rank Order	Scale A	Rank Order	Scale B	Rank Order	Scale A	Rank Order	Scale B	Rank Order
4	3.0109	97	3.3804	82	2.8545	100	3.4545	86	3.0109	97	3.3804	82
14	3.4022	79	3.9022	33	3.4545	85	4.1273	26	3.4022	79	3.9022	33
21	3.0978	94	3.9457	32	3.1818	94	3.9091	50	3.0978	94	3.9457	32
35	3.6538	88	3.8077	78	3.4022	88	3.7273	71	3.8077	43	3.6087	59
41	4.0216	23	4.1957	5	4.0364	37	4.1635	20	4.1957	6	4.0216	23

5.2.2 Chi Square

A chi square test was performed, comparing the responses of the three

participant groups: principals, deputy principals, and teachers, for all the

leadership practices, across both scales. Of the 100 items in the leadership

practice questionnaire (50 leadership practices, each with two scales), it was

found that the never and rarely categories of scale A, and the not significant

and slightly significant categories of scale B had such small responses that

for the purposes of chi square, it was necessary to combine values. This was

because, apart from two items, for neither of which $p<.05$, the remaining

items failed to meet the requirement of no more than 20% of all cells,

having an expected count of less than five. As such the chi square test was

run again combining never and rarely into one value in scale A, with the

same occurring for not significant and slightly significant in scale B. In this

second application of the chi squared test, in which the lower two values of

each scale were combined, 18 items were identified which had a significant

relationship between the group the participants belonged to and their

response (see Table 5.9).

Table 5.9

Pearson Chi Square: Two bottom values combined

Item No	Scale	Item	Theme	No of Values Combined	Pearson Chi Square
5	A	*Creating a clear vision for the school*	Shared Vision	2	.041
6	A	*Empowering others to take on leadership roles*	Distributed Leadership	2	.001
12	B	*Working with parents to support learning at home*	Stakeholder Engagement	2	.033
16	A	*Creating a sense of shared ownership and purpose amongst the school's stakeholders*	Shared Vision	2	.047
21	A	*Balancing the curriculum between achieving success in examinations and developing the soft skills required for employment*	Non-explicitly Referenced	2	.011
22	A	*Prioritising resourcing for those students whose learning needs require it most*	Equity	2	.040
23	A	*Resolving conflict so that all parties feel listened to and ready to move forward*	Emotional Intelligence	2	.000
26	A	*Creating an environment conducive to good pedagogy and successful learning outcomes*	Management	2	.004
27	A	*Fostering leadership potential in staff members*	Distributed Leadership	2	.033
28	A	*Providing opportunities for stakeholders to have access to you as a school leader*	Stakeholder Engagement	2	.000
	B			2	.014
31	A	*Rewarding teachers who perform well*	Decision Making	2	.000
32	A	*Creating and delivering professional development*	Instructional Leadership	2	.018
34	A	*Listening actively to stakeholders*	Stakeholder Engagement	2	.043
40	A	*Empowering others to take initiative*	Distributed Leadership	2	.001
45	A	*Meeting with teachers to guide and improve their pedagogy*	Instructional Leadership	2	.027
46	A	*Responding appropriately to different stakeholders so they feel listened to and involved*	Stakeholder Engagement	2	.023
48	A	*Building teams which collaborate together towards a shared purpose*	Emotional Intelligence	2	.041

The combining of the bottom two values yielded better results, however 57 items still failed to meet the requirement of no more than 20% of all cells with an expected count of less than five. The chi square test was therefore run a third time for these 57 items, this time combining never, rarely, and sometimes into one category for scale A and not significant, slightly significant and of some significance into one category for Scale B. In the third application of the chi squared test, combining the three lowest values of each scale, a further 13 items were identified where $p<.05$ (see Table 5.10). After this third run of the chi squared test, only four items remained which failed to meet the criteria of the expected count. At this stage these items were removed from the chi square analysis (see Table 5.11).

Of the 31 items, where $p<.05$, 25 came from scale A, measuring frequency, with only six from scale B, measuring significance. When those items with $p<.05$ were considered in the context of the ten themes referred to earlier, there was no theme that stood out as having a large number of its leadership practices, exhibiting a significant difference in the responses of the three participant groups. However, four themes had 50% of their items identified in this way. These were the themes of stakeholder engagement, distributed leadership, management and instructional leadership. Conversely, the theme of, setting targets, had no items where $p<.05$.

Table 5.10

Pearson Chi Square: Three Bottom Values Combined

Item No	Scale	Item	Theme	No of Values Combined	Pearson Chi Square
1	A	*Monitoring teachers' performance*	Decision Making	3	.027
2	A	*Creating a safe environment for stakeholders to share ideas and support each other in moving the school forward*	Stakeholder Engagement	3	.006
6	B	*Empowering others to take on leadership roles*	Distributed Leadership	3	.000
9	A	*Resourcing according to identified priorities*	Management	3	.027
10	A B	*Observing lessons and providing feedback*	Instructional Leadership	3 3	.009 .016
13	A	*Solving problems by considering the viewpoints of those involved*	Emotional Intelligence	3	.020
14	B	*Facilitating a teaching community where teachers collaboratively and critically examine their practice, in search of improvement*	Non-explicitly Referenced	3	.001
15	A	*Delegating roles to staff that match with their abilities*	Distributed Leadership	3	.001
18	A	*Communicating key messages effectively*	Emotional Intelligence	3	.011
19	A	*Maintaining positive staff morale*	Stakeholder Engagement	3	.000
33	A	*Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible*	Management	3	.013
41	B	*Maintaining a highly visible presence around the school*	Non-explicitly Referenced	3	.028

Table 5.11

Pearson Chi Square: Removed Items

Item No	Scale	Item	Theme	% of cells having an expected count of less than five
3	A	*Displaying self-awareness of your own strengths and limitations*	Emotional Intelligence	22.2%
8	A	*Establishing clear and measurable goals to provide focus for any change process*	Setting Targets	22.2%
29	A	*Gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision*	Shared Vision	33.3%
33	B	*Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible*	Management	22.2%

In the majority of these 31 items, the reason for the significant difference in answers between the three groups, was because the school leaders, particularly the principals, responded on the higher end of the Likert scale, while the teachers, responded on the lower end. While there were occasionally disruptions to this trend, for 28 of the 31 items where *p<.05*, the teachers had a higher percentage of responses in the lowest response values, when compared to the principals. The teachers also had the lowest responses for 27 of those 31 items, when compared to the responses of the deputy principals. Conversely, in 26 out of the 31 items where *p<.05*, the principals had a higher response rate than the teachers to the highest value on the Likert scale. When the teachers were compared in the same way against the deputy principals, there were 27 items where the deputy principals had the higher response rate.

In the 18 items, where the lowest two values were combined, i.e., scale A: never or rarely, and scale B: not significant or slightly significant, and $p<.05,$ on 15 occasions the principals had the fewest responses to these combined categories, the deputy principals the next fewest and the teachers the most. Similarly, for 10 of the 13 items, where the lowest three values were combined i.e., scale A: never, rarely, or sometimes, and scale B: not significant, slightly significant, or of some significance, the principals again had the fewest responses to these combined values, the deputy principals the next fewest and the teachers the most. Conversely, there were also 18 items across all 31 leadership practices, where $p<.05$, for which in scale A, very frequently, and scale B, very significantly, this order was reversed. That is, principals had the highest response rate, deputy principals the next highest, and teachers the lowest.

For the 18 items in which the lowest two values were combined and $p<.05$, item 31a (see Table 5.12) offers a clear example of this trend. For the teachers, 23.9% responded that they never or rarely experienced their school leadership rewarding teachers, while 7% of deputy principals and 0% of principals, responded the same way. In contrast 29.6% of principals responded that they used this leadership practice very frequently, with 24.6% of deputy principals responding the same way, and only 10.9% of teachers responding that they saw it occurring very frequently within the context of their school.

Table 5.12

31A Rewarding Teachers Who Perform Well

Position		Never or Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Frequently
Principal	Count	0	3	16	8
	%	0.0%	11.1%	59.3%	29.6%
Deputy Principal	Count	4	7	32	14
	%	7.0%	12.3%	56.1%	24.6%
Teacher	Count	22	25	35	10
	%	23.9%	27.2%	38.0%	10.9%
Total	Count	26	35	83	32
	%	14.8%	19.9%	47.2%	18.2%

For those items in which the lowest three values were combined and $p<.05$, item 6B, empowering others to take on leadership roles, (see Table 5.13), also exemplifies this trend. This time 37% of teachers responded that they considered this leadership practice in the culture of their schools to either be not significant, slightly significant, or of some significance. Then 14% of deputy principals and 11.1% of principals responded that for them this leadership practice was not significant, slightly significant, or of some significance. In contrast, 55.6% of principals responded this practice was very significant to them, 42.1% of deputy principals did the same, and 17.4% of teachers responded that the leadership practice was very significant to their school culture.

Table 5.13

6B Empowering others to take on leadership roles

Position		Not/Slightly Significant or Of Some Significance	Significant	Very Significant
Principal	Count	3	9	15
	%	11.1%	33.3%	55.6%
Deputy Principal	Count	8	25	24
	%	14.0%	43.9%	42.1%
Teacher	Count	34	42	16
	%	37.0%	45.7%	17.4%
Total	Count	45	76	55
	%	25.6%	43.2%	31.3%

Deputy principals disrupted this trend on eight occasions, by either having the highest response rates to scale A's very frequently or scale B's very significantly. On a further four occasions they had the highest response rate to the lowest values on the Likert scale. There were also rare occasions where either the principals' response rate to the lowest values was greater than that of the teachers or the teachers' response rate to the highest values, was greater than the principals. For both instances it occurred just three times. Item 32 A, creating and delivering professional development (see Table 5.14), offers a good example of these exceptions. Deputy principals had the highest response rate in the never or rarely category and principals had a higher response rate than teachers in the same category. In the very frequently category, teachers had the highest response rate.

Table 5.14

32A Creating and delivering professional development

		Never or Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Frequently
Principal	Count	4	14	6	3
	%	14.8%	51.9%	22.2%	11.1%
Deputy Principal	Count	17	17	15	8
	%	29.8%	29.8%	26.3%	14.0%
Teacher	Count	13	22	40	16
	%	14.3%	24.2%	44.0%	17.6%
Total	Count	34	53	61	27
	%	19.4%	30.3%	34.9%	15.4%

5.2.3 Leadership Themes

The ten themes which the leadership practices were grouped under were also analysed. The participants' responses to both scale A, the frequency that a leadership practice occurred within their context, and scale B, the significance of that leadership practice within their context, were used to create an average response for each theme, which was then ranked according to participant group (see Table 5.15). When the themes were ranked according to this average score, for the three different groups - principals, deputy principals, and teachers, the following observations were made. All three groups ranked those leadership practices associated with the theme of creating a shared vision, as the lowest of the ten themes. Conversely, all three groups ranked those leadership practices associated with the theme of management, highly. For both the principals and the deputy principals, distributed leadership and its associated leadership

practices ranked highly, but for the teachers' group, this theme ranked much lower. Similarly, for both the principals and the deputy principals, emotional intelligence and its associated leadership practices ranked highly but again for the teachers' group, this theme ranked lower.

Table 5.15

Ranked Themes by Participant Group

Rank	Principal		Deputy Principal		Teacher	
	Theme	Mean	Theme	Mean	Theme	Mean
1	Management	4.22	Management	4.11	Setting Targets	3.86
2	Distributed Leadership	4.17	Distributed Leadership	3.98	Management	3.85
3	Decision Making	4.07	Decision Making	3.91	Instructional Leadership	3.78
4	Emotional Intelligence	4.04	Emotional Intelligence	3.91	Decision Making	3.78
5	Setting Targets	4.04	Stakeholder Engagement	3.87	Equity	3.71
6	Stakeholder Engagement	3.94	Equity	3.80	Emotional Intelligence	3.68
7	Non-Explicitly Referenced	3.90	Setting Targets	3.80	Stakeholder Engagement	3.66
8	Equity	3.86	Instructional Leadership	3.70	Distributed Leadership	3.66
9	Instructional Leadership	3.82	Non-Explicitly Referenced	3.66	Non-Explicitly Referenced	3.61
10	Shared Vision	3.81	Shared Vision	3.57	Shared Vision	3.47

As presented in Table 5.16, when the averages for the themes in each participant group were considered in comparison to each other, the following patterns emerged. For all 10 themes, the average for principals was higher than the other two groups. Further, for eight of the ten themes the principals had the highest average, the deputy principals the next highest and teachers

the lowest. Figure 5.2, representing the various responses by the three respective groups to the emotional intelligence theme, exemplifies this dominant pattern. Both the interquartile range and the median values show how the average responses by participants from each of the three groups, to leadership practices under the theme of emotional intelligence, reduce from principals to deputy principals to teachers.

Table 5.16

Themes Compared by Participant Group

Rank	Principal Theme	Mean	Deputy Principal Theme	Mean	Teacher Theme	Mean
1	Management	4.22	Management	4.11	Management	3.85
2	Distributed Leadership	4.17	Distributed Leadership	3.98	Distributed Leadership	3.66
3	Decision Making	4.07	Decision Making	3.91	Decision Making	3.78
4	Emotional Intelligence	4.04	Emotional Intelligence	3.91	Emotional Intelligence	3.68
5	Setting Targets	4.04	Setting Targets	3.80	Setting Targets	3.86
6	Stakeholder Engagement	3.94	Stakeholder Engagement	3.87	Stakeholder Engagement	3.66
7	Non-Explicitly Referenced	3.90	Non-Explicitly Referenced	3.66	Non-Explicitly Referenced	3.61
8	Equity	3.86	Equity	3.80	Equity	3.71
9	Instructional Leadership	3.82	Instructional Leadership	3.70	Instructional Leadership	3.78
10	Shared Vision	3.81	Shared Vision	3.57	Shared Vision	3.47

Figure 5.2

Boxplot of Emotional Intelligence by Participant Position
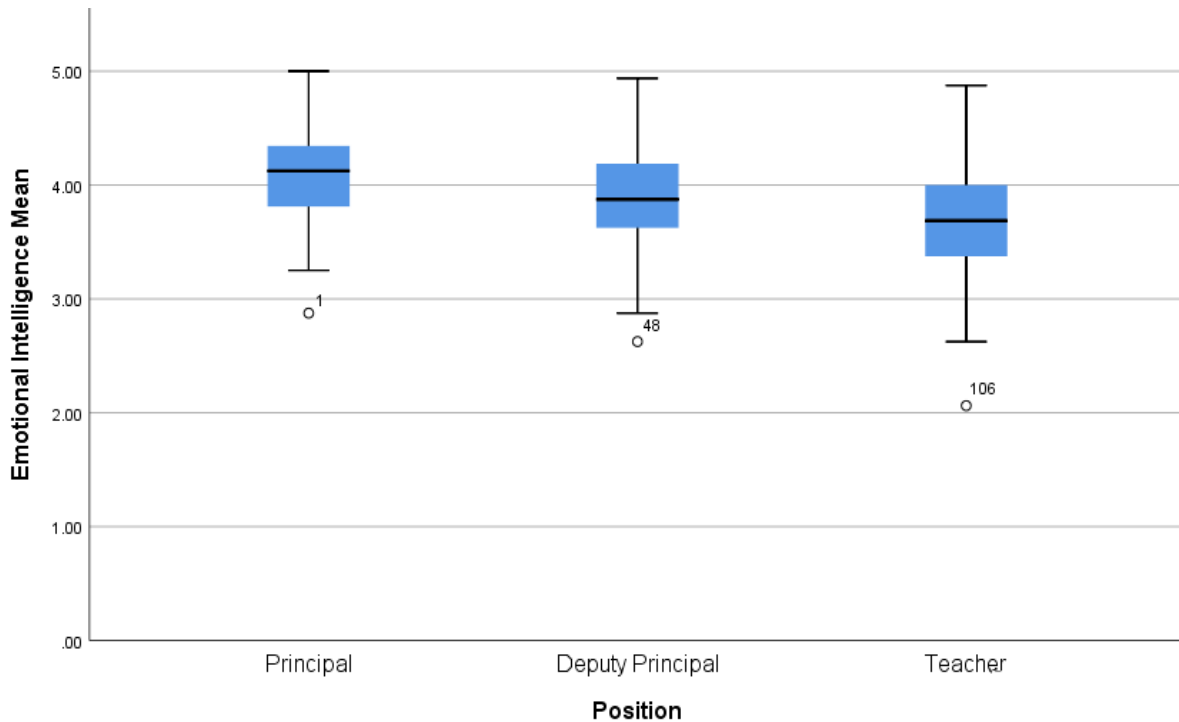
5.2.4 Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha test of internal consistency between items on a scale, was run for the leadership practices questionnaire. More specifically, this test was run for each of the 10 themes, under which the leadership practices described in the questionnaire, were grouped. The Cronbach's Alpha test combined responses to both scale A and scale B, as well as the responses from the three participant groups. Each of the themes had a Cronbach's Alpha value in excess of 0.7 (see Table 5.17) which is generally agreed as the acceptable threshold for internal reliability (Pallant, 2010). This level of internal consistency was achieved, despite half the themes

consisting of less than 10 items, which can sometimes make it difficult to achieve an acceptable result (Pallant, 2010). In addition, 60% percent of the Cronbach's Alpha values exceeded 0.8.

Table 5.17

Cronbach's Alpha Test of internal reliability

Themes	Valid Cases	Excluded Cases	No of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Decision Making	168	8	16	.852
Stakeholder Engagement	170	6	14	.870
Emotional Intelligence	172	4	16	.870
Shared Vision	173	3	8	.842
Distributed Leadership	174	2	10	.875
Equity	174	2	6	.789
Setting Targets	172	4	6	.758
Management	176	0	6	.754
Instructional Leadership	169	7	8	.803
Non-Explicitly Referenced	173	3	10	.798

5.2.5 ANOVA

A one-way ANOVA test was also performed using the means of each theme, to make a comparison between the responses of the three groups: principals, deputy principals, and teachers. The difference in average scores for each theme between the groups, was significant in six out of the 10 themes (see Table 5.18). When a post hoc Tukey's honest significance test

was also applied for each theme, to identify which of the three groups the significant difference lay between, the principals and deputy principals were not found to have any instances where $p<.05$. The principals and teachers however had significant differences in seven themes, four of which the deputy principals and teachers also had significant differences in. It is worth noting that for the theme of shared vision, the ANOVA did not support the hypothesis that the differences in responses were due to the different roles of the three participant groups. Despite this, the differences in responses to those leadership practices found within the theme of shared vision, between principals and teachers, were shown to be significant by the Tukey's honest significance test. The p values for the themes of equity, setting targets, and instructional leadership supported the null hypothesis that, for these themes, there was no significant difference between the responses of the three groups of participants. It is clear from considering the evidence of the ANOVA and Tukey's honest significance test, that while there is significant variance between the three groups in their responses to the items of some of the themes, this difference lies between the school leaders and the teachers, as opposed to between the principals and the deputies.

Table 5.18

ANOVA and Tukey's Honest Significance Test

Themes	ANOVA Principals, Deputy Principals & Teachers	Tukey's HSD Principals & Deputy Principals	Tukey's HSD Principals & Teachers	Tukey's HSD Deputy Principals & Teachers
Decision Making	.015	.307	.015	.238
Stakeholders Engagement	.010	.843	.036	.039
Emotional Intelligence	.001	.430	.002	.014
Shared Vision	.054	.242	.043	.632
Distributed Leadership	.000	.302	.000	.002
Equity	.433	.901	.480	.640
Setting Targets	.137	.116	.260	.749
Management	.001	.580	.003	.009
Instructional Leadership	.616	.664	.952	.698
Non-Explicitly Referenced	.033	.101	.026	.846

5.3 Summary

The leadership practices questionnaire presented various leadership practices to the participants and asked them to share their experiences of these. Most of these practices were promoted in the MoE Competency Framework, and all of these practices, and their supporting theories, originated from outside of Brunei. The responses on the Likert scales to the items in the leadership practices questionnaire, gave an indication of the relationship between the leadership theories reflected in the Competency

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Framework and the leadership practices utilised in Brunei secondary schools. Specifically, the participants shared how significant the leadership practices were and how frequently they were used, within the context of the school leaders' professional practice or the teachers' experience of their school's leadership.

The participant responses on the Likert scale to these two areas indicated that the relationship between these leadership practices and the leadership styles implemented in Brunei secondary schools, was stronger or weaker depending on both the leadership practice itself, and whether the Likert scale was asking how frequently it was used or its level of significance. While the average responses to each leadership practice varied between the three participant groups, the commonality in the content of the top five and bottom five leadership practices, when ranked by average response, was comprehensive. The relationship between the leadership practices, promoted within the Competency Framework, and the leadership practices implemented within Brunei secondary schools, was shown to be stronger with some leadership practices and weaker with others.

The various items in the questionnaire were grouped according to 10 leadership themes. A trend both across individual items and the 10 themes, where there was a statistically significant difference between participant group responses, was that higher responses tended to come from the

principals, followed by the deputy principals, with the teachers having the lower responses.

The participant responses to the Likert scales within the leadership practices questionnaire, did not occur within a cultural void. They must therefore be considered in the socio-cultural context of Brunei Darussalam, including elements such as collectivism, high power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. This is addressed in the subsequent chapter on the semi-structured interviews. These interviews in the final phase of this mixed methods design, explored with a sample group of school leaders, their understanding of the reasons behind these questionnaire findings.

CHAPTER 6: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

The semi-structured interview phase of this mixed methods research design sought to answer the sub-research question: what is the experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam but promoted by the Ministry of Education? In terms of the mixed methods sequence, the interviews were seeking to understand the reasons why some key results of the questionnaire presented in Chapter 5 had emerged as they did. The material was presented in such a way as to be accessible to the participants yet maintain its statistical integrity.

Based on the work of Willig (2014), the interview responses were analysed discursively focussed on two key areas. These were both the assumptions that underpinned what was being said and the positions in which those assumptions placed the relevant stakeholders. With regard to the latter, this also included the dynamics of those positions in terms of who had the authority to act. Thus, a figure is presented at the end of each section for each interview item, which provides an overview of both the assumptions made by the respondents and the positions that resulted from these. Figure 6.1 presents the questions that were asked in the interviews with their associated stimulus materials, although the final two questions did not have the latter, as they were an opportunity for participants to respond openly.

Figure 6.1

Semi-structured Interview Questions and Stimulus Material

Q 1. There were two scales that secondary school leaders & secondary school teachers responded to. For each they were presented with a five point Likert scale.

This table shows the number and percentage across all participants and across both scales of each type of possible response.

What reasons can you suggest as to why, participants responded so often on the middle and upper end of the Likert scale, and less so on the lower end?

Leadership Practices Questionnaire Responses

SCALE A / SKALA A
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?
Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?

1 never	2 rarely	3 sometimes	4 frequently	5 very frequently
tidak pernah	jarang	kadangkala	kerap	sangat kerap

SCALE B / SKALA B
How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?
Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?

1 not significant	2 slightly significant	3 of some significance	4 significant	5 very significant
tidak signifikan	kurang signifikan	agak signifikan	signifikan	sangat signifikan

RESPONSE	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Total	305	1181	4182	8076	3789	17,533
Percentage	1.74%	6.74%	23.85%	46.06%	21.61%	100%

Q 2-6. This table shows the five leadership practices that were ranked the highest by each participant group: secondary principals, deputy principals and teachers. Within this set of leadership practices there is cross over between each group, which we will now explore.

What reasons can you suggest as to why, maintaining positive staff morale was ranked so highly by all three groups?

This question was asked for all five leadership practices that had cross over between at least two participant groups.

Comparison of the top five ranked leadership practices for each participant group

	PRINCIPALS			DEPUTY PRINCIPALS			TEACHERS	
Item No	Leadership Practice & Rank		Item No	Leadership Practice & Rank		Item No	Leadership Practice & Rank	
33B	1. Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible		19B	1. Maintaining positive staff morale		33B	1. Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible	
19B	2. Maintaining positive staff morale		18B	2. Communicating key messages effectively		19B	2.Maintaining positive staff morale	
41B	3. Maintaining a highly visible presence around the school		33B	3. Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible		31B	3.Rewarding teachers who perform well	
33A	4. Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible		31B	4. Rewarding teachers who perform well		50B	4.Utilising school data to inform decision making	
50B	5. Utilising school data to inform decision making		50B	5. Utilising school data to inform decision making		41A	5.Maintaining a highly visible presence around the school	

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Q 7-11. This table shows the five leadership practices that were ranked the lowest by each participant group. Within this set of leadership practices there is cross over between each group.

What reasons can you suggest as to why, gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision was ranked so lowly by all three groups?

This question was asked for all five leadership practices that had cross over between at least two participant groups.

Comparison of the bottom five ranked leadership practices for each participant group

PRINCIPALS		DEPUTY PRINCIPALS		TEACHERS	
Item No	Leadership Practice & Rank	Item No	Leadership Practice & Rank	Item No	Leadership Practice & Rank
25A	96. Utilising academic research to inform decision making	12A	96. Working with parents to support learning at home	38A	96. Incorporating stakeholder views into the organisation of the school
29A	97. Gaining stakeholder buy into the school's shared vision	32A	97. Creating and delivering professional development	4A	97. Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need
12A	98. Working with parents to support learning at home	29A	98. Gaining stakeholder buy into the school's shared vision	25A	98. Utilising academic research to inform decision making
17A	99. Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe	17A	99. Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe	17A	99. Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe
4A	100. Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need	4A	100. Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need	29A	100. Gaining stakeholder buy into the school's shared vision

Q 12. Scale B asked how significant a leadership practice is to the leader of the school. All but two of the leadership practices across the top five for each participant group, came from Scale B.

Scale A asked how often a leadership practice is used. All the leadership practices across the bottom five for each participant group, came from Scale A.

What reasons can you suggest as to why this may be the case?

TOP FIVE LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

PRINCIPALS	DEPUTY PRINCIPALS	TEACHERS
Item No	Item No	Item No
33B	19B	33B
19B	18B	19B
41B	33B	31B
33A	31B	50B
50B	50B	41A

SCALE B / SKALA B
How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?
Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?

BOTTOM FIVE LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

PRINCIPALS	DEPUTY PRINCIPALS	TEACHERS
Item No	Item No	Item No
25A	12A	38A
29A	32A	4A
12A	29A	25A
17A	17A	17A
4A	4A	29A

SCALE A / SKALA A
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?
Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?

Q 13. What reasons can you suggest as to why, leadership practices associated to the theme of shared vision were ranked the lowest by all three participant groups: secondary principals, deputy principals and teachers?

SHARED VISION
1. Creating a clear vision for the school
2. Communicating the school vision with stakeholders
3. Gaining stakeholder buy into the school's shared vision
4. Creating a sense of shared ownership and purpose amongst the school's stakeholders

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Q 14-17. What reasons can you suggest as to why, secondary principals and secondary deputy principals gave significantly higher responses than secondary teachers, for those leadership practices which came under the theme of stakeholder engagement?

This question was asked for all four leadership themes where the difference between the responses of the school leader participant groups were significantly different from the responses of the school teacher group i.e. Stakeholder engagement, emotional intelligence, distributed leadership and management.

STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT
1. Creating a safe environment for stakeholders to share ideas and support each other in moving the school forward
2. Responding appropriately to different stakeholders so they feel listened to and involved
3. Providing opportunities for stakeholders to have access to you as a school leader
4. Listening actively to stakeholders
5. Incorporating stakeholder views into the organisation of the school
6. Working with parents to support learning at home
7. Maintaining positive staff moral

Q 18. There are lots of results we have looked at today, can you tell me what, if anything, has surprised you?

Q 19. I would be interested to know if there is anything you would like to share with me that we have not covered today?

6.1 Question 1: Likert Responses

The first interview question asked the secondary school leaders to suggest reasons why the predominance of responses on the five-point Likert scale, from all three participant groups, and across both scales, were either a three, four, or five. This was attributed by some to a positive state of school leadership in Brunei Secondary schools, with the participants assuming the responses were on the higher end of the Likert scale, because it reflected the strength of Brunei secondary school leadership. These participants positioned the Brunei secondary school leaders as both experienced and skilful, the latter being fostered through various forms of training. A typical response was:

> So, this is a positive thing for me, it means that most of the secondary school - this is a collection of all the secondary schools that you have invited, and this is a positive response that they are on the right track, and running the school, and the teachers acknowledge that as well. (Participant E)

In also positioning secondary school leaders in Brunei as capable, with a good understanding of their responsibilities and role, Participant B referenced the Competency Framework document analysed in chapter 4:

> Yeah, I think - I believe that they know they're . . . they are more capable now. They have competencies as well that they must look

after their teachers at school … I think the leader, they know their role right now. (Participant B).

Further, associated with this sense of leadership prowess within Brunei secondary schools, was a theme of leadership training, that meant school leaders were familiar with and able to apply the leadership practices listed within the questionnaire. Such training ranged from Participant A referencing informal support, "Yeah, that's right, training, can I just maybe reiterate trainings here refers to informal trainings" (Participant A), Participant C referencing national school leadership programmes, "I think it might be they have the BPSSL course [Brunei Programme for Senior School Leaders], could be or the BDLTA [Brunei Darussalam Leadership and Teacher Academy] courses, that could be one, that could be reason one" (Participant C), and participant D referencing leaders attending international school leadership programmes "lots of training and some of the principals that I know they went for the Leadership Education Program in Singapore – the LEP – and some of them do join some online course on leadership" (Participant D). For all three of these participants, training contributed to the Brunei secondary school leaders and teachers responding predominantly with the higher responses on the Likert scale.

Participant C also mentioned that some school leaders had experience of more than five years which could have contributed to the higher responses from the Likert scale, "Also, it might be some of the leaders are

like five years above [sic], could be leading, leading their schools. It could be so they are more attached or they are more consistent with their leadership practices" (Participant C). Meanwhile on the same theme of experience, but at the opposite end, Participant D suggested the possibility that the scores of one and two, came from school leader colleagues with less experience, "I don't know why there is only one or two that is [sic] having never or rarely. Maybe this represents the younger leaders? . . . Yeah. The more inexperienced ones" (Participant D).

Participant A positioned the Brunei secondary school leaders as government servants, with clear expectations of their role and an awareness of the consequences for failing to meet those expectations:

I think on top of everything, we are all government servants. So, there is certain conducts [sic] that we have to abide to, whether you are a superior or a subordinate. When it comes to appraising your staff and monitoring your performance, it is a mandate from the general orders that we do it in the proper manner. Because otherwise, even if you are a superior, actions can be taken against you if it is not done properly. So, I think that is the first point I would like to put across, which may explain why most of the respondents happen to be in the upper scale of three, four and five. (Participant A)

One participant however stood out from their five colleagues with regard to their response to this question. Participants A to E all accepted the

Likert scale scores at their face value and offered reasons for them that assumed their accuracy. Participant F however, rather than accepting the discourses concerning leadership prowess, leadership training, leadership experience or role expectations, instead referenced the mind frame of the participants themselves, when they made these responses. Participant F assumed that fours and threes were the two most selected responses on the Likert scale, because participants, rather than answering in the context of their experience, answered instead in the context of a perceived safety zone, where they did not stand out:

> You look at three and four, I think especially four, even I myself would answer mostly four, frequently. It's about three and four is the safety side I think …They might be afraid, I don't know, but yeah, if I myself, I will put not really very frequently, so I will write frequently. Because otherwise, if it is very frequently, it is almost all the time. So I think that's why, but they don't want to go to the too [sic] end one because they are very safe to be in the middle I think. (Participant F)

When asked who participants might need to feel safe from, by responding with a three or a four, participant F suggested possibly they might be concerned about results being shared with the Ministry of Education. Participant F positioned the school leader participants as responding in ways to avoid scrutiny from the Ministry, rather than reflecting their actual experiences. They concluded by also suggesting the middle

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scores on the Likert scale might have provided the simplest responses without requiring too much thought:

> Maybe later on when you share the answers, when you share the findings, maybe they are afraid that you're going to share with the leaders and then the MOE and everybody. It might be like that, I don't know. Because there are some people that are not really sincere writing a number four, scale number four, but it might be there are some, okay, just write in the middle. They don't want to think. It might be there are some. (Participant F)

Figure 6.2 sets out an overview of the discourses presented by the participants in response to this initial question. In the first discourse, the school leaders are positioned as being capable and credible leaders and as such the power to act rests with them. Contrastingly, in the next discourse, the MoE is positioned with the authority, and the school leaders respond accordingly to the expectations the MoE sets. The assumption of this second discourse is also supported in the final discourse, which assumes that some school leaders responded more in line with MoE expectations, than with their experienced reality.

Figure 6.2

Question 1: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, participants responded so often on the middle and upper end of the Likert scale, and less so on the lower end?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders in Brunei are experienced, trained and skilful.	School leaders are positioned as being experienced, trained and skilful.
School leaders have clear expectations set them by the MoE which they must uphold.	The MoE is positioned as imposing roles and responsibilities on school leaders which the latter accept and respond to.
School leaders responded to the questionnaire according to what they thought were the safest responses.	School leaders are positioned as having concerns over scrutiny from the MoE.

6.2 Question 2-11: Ranked Items

When asked what reasons they could suggest as to why certain leadership practices, in terms of their average response scores, were ranked by more than one participant group in either their top or bottom five, the interview participants provided a range of comments. However, there was consistency across some of the responses, with participants often making similar assumptions.

6.2.1 Question 2: Protecting Instructional Time

When discussing protecting instructional time to maximise learning, participants A, B, C, and D suggested this leadership fell under the wider umbrella of instructional leadership. More specifically, Participant B positioned the leaders and teachers as being familiar with the expectations of instructional leadership. In doing so, Participant B referenced some key

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MoE documents, ubiquitous within Brunei school settings, suggesting that these played a role in establishing instructional leadership within Brunei education:

> Yeah, I think probably this is about the instructional leadership, right? So the leaders, as well as the teachers should know about the instructional leadership, right? So that means they make sure that every teacher, they have prepared with their lesson plan everything in the classroom. Then they should follow our … right now, we have a good system of observation, lesson observation, by using the TPA [Teacher Performance Appraisal] and then we have been practising with the TFM [Teaching for Mastery] and then the dialogic teaching as well. So probably this is one of the main criteria that the - all this, the principal, deputy principal and teachers have been rate [sic] this so high. (Participant B)

Participants A and D assumed that protecting instructional time to maximise learning, was ranked so highly by the participant groups, because MoE expectations focus on instructional leadership as a method to improve both teaching within the classroom and student outcomes. Both these participants referenced these expectations in the context of their KPIs (key performance indicators). They positioned the school leaders in a relationship with the MoE, in which the former were beholden to the latter to produce academic results:

Because a lot of our KPIs on our own appraisals have been judged, based on the academic outcomes of the students. If you look at our KPIs which I'm sure you are aware of, we are also looking at supporting teachers instructionally in classrooms. So I think even given all this, it is inevitable that all leaders will put protecting instruction times as one of the priorities. (Participant A)

I think it's because of the KPI itself. KPI for the school leaders are pretty much related with the protecting the instructional time so that we can ensure learning takes place so that they get their number one which is the result - the students' results and then the second one is the teachers – what's the second KPI? It's the teachers' quality, right? (Participant D)

Related to this world view that the MoE prized and expected academic success, Participant E suggested the completion of the curriculum content was a priority for their school, so the students were ready for their exams or internal assessments and so their school could keep pace with other secondary schools. This discourse seemed to position the school leaders as overseers and the teachers as workers, carefully monitored by school leaders as to their progress towards achieving the end product:

Yeah, because I think to make sure that people are on the right track and on the right time, so, no slacking or everything [sic]. They must be in time for everything, they have to finish within the time that's

given to them, so that the school and everything we do – their exams or the activities that we have set up inside – in our calendars and all that, will be run smoothly and on time. So, we will be on track every time if we have something, we'll be the same – at the same pace as everyone else. (Participant E)

Similarly, Participant F also positioned the school leaders as overseers ensuring the teachers fulfilled their roles and responsibilities:

Yes, it's very important, otherwise even as a leader we are ensuring that every teacher is in the class, they are coming punctually to class. There are some teachers maybe coming late, so we really concerned with that, we are going to call them, ask them why because we don't want to lose the curriculum time, the instructional time; it's very important. (Participant F)

In reviewing the discourses evident in the responses to this question, Figure 6.3 presents conflicting assumptions. In two of the discourses, the school leader is positioned with the authority to act within the context of instructional leadership. However, in one of those discourses this appears more supportive and developmental for the teachers, while in the other it is more supervisory. The third discourse meanwhile, positioned the MoE with the authority, with school leaders acting instructionally, at their behest.

Figure 6.3

Question 2: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, protecting instructional time was ranked so highly by all three groups?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders enact instructional Leadership.	School Leaders are positioned as both collaborators in, and monitors of instructional practice. Teachers are positioned as recipients of support and feedback from the process of instructional leadership.
The MoE expects school leaders to enact instructional leadership in order to improve academic outcomes.	The MOE is positioned as the employer issuing expectations, which the school leader is expected to meet through instructional leadership.
School leaders must check up on teachers to ensure that they are fulfilling responsibilities.	School leaders are positioned as overseers and teachers their workers.

6.2.2 Question 3: Maintaining a Positive Staff Morale

While subtleties existed between the various responses to this item, the dominant assumption was that a positive staff morale would support teacher effectiveness in ensuring student outcomes. Participants A, B, and E emphasised collaboration and teamwork in terms of maintaining a positive staff morale. Staff were positioned as members of a team in which everyone contributed towards the success of the school:

So at the end of the day, I think we have come to a point that the majority of the people would agree, that in order to achieve our educational goals, we can no longer work in a silo. Hence, that teamwork has to be there and to have that teamwork, everyone must have or experience positive staff morale. Because if they don't feel

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good about the workplace, the schools, maybe a colleague or two,

then it will greatly jeopardise the outcome of the students. (Participant

A)

We have to install and instil the positive mind, mindset, for every

teachers [sic] of every staff, so that we can work together and we can

uplift the morale, as well as the excellence of the teaching and

learning and also including the supporting staff as well in our schools.

(Participant B)

We need to give them support and we give and take, we do this for

you, and you would do this for us, and we work together as a team

. . . We need to help each other for everything to be working fine.

(Participant E)

Participant E also positioned school leaders in a pastoral role

supporting their staff members, and addressing their concerns:

Of course, if someone is down, we need to lift them up, so we continue

to give support to them whenever they need it and any time they need

it. So, we need to know, what are the struggles of our teachers and

students, so that we can handle that. (Participant E)

Finally, Participant E also identified the importance of acknowledging

the efforts of staff members in order to maintain a positive staff morale, "we

as school leaders have to acknowledge their hard work and their

commitments in everything they have done for our school, for our students"
(Participant E).

Participant D assumed that a positive staff morale was important
because the mindset of the employees impacted on the mindset of the
students which in turn impacted on the school's academic achievement,
"[Laughs] I always remember that – every leader has always told me this.
Happy teachers equals the happy students and a happy school and then the
rise in the students' result" (Participant D). Participant D also presented a
world view, where it was only within an environment that enjoyed a positive
staff morale, that change could be introduced effectively:

I think the Ministry itself agreed that this is a very important thing
because when the staff are very positive and they are very open and
then in regards to whatever changes that we introduce in school.
Mmm. So that's why I think it's really important to maintain positive
staff morale. (Participant D)

Participant F specifically discussed the negative behaviour of the
students in their school and suggested that a positive staff morale was
especially necessary, as without it, the effectiveness of the teachers'
performance might be affected. School teachers were positioned as team
members facing a challenge with school leaders providing motivation and
support:

Because I believe that if our teachers are happy, the surrounding, even though the students are not really - the students have got a lot of discipline problems and so on, but still, the teachers' morale is very important … Then if the teachers are happy it's very important for them too, you know? So when they're teaching, even though the students are not really very good, still because it will affect the teachers' performance, something like that. (Participant F)

Participant F also discussed under the context of maintaining a positive staff morale, the necessity of maintaining good relationships with staff even in difficult situations. The school leaders were positioned almost in a parental role, with some teachers as wayward offspring:

Because in a school we have got black sheep, there are some teachers who really make us a headache [sic] but still, we are having good relationships with them. We call them up and then after that we forget about it. Then when they see because we are the role models, okay, if we are trying to keep our relationship, good relationship with them, they are going to be happy. (Participant F)

Finally Participant C expressed surprise that the teachers had also ranked this leadership practice highly. In framing this surprise, they referenced some MoE initiatives that could be considered as placing pressure on teachers but suggested that the high ranking of the leadership practice maintaining a positive staff morale was supported by clearer communication

between school leaders and teachers. This allowed teachers to understand the reasons why things were occurring:

It's quite interesting that the teachers put it as a top five for positive staff morale where because of a lot of things happening - the TPA Plus [Teacher Performance Appraisal] is happening during that time, WSE [Whole School Evaluation] is happening during that time so it's quite interesting knowing that it's putting positive staff morale into that part . . . Yeah, it could be now they know the importance of - knowing the importance of the admin [School Leadership] and the staff to be in the same - what do you call that? I'm not sure what you call that, but the thing is we share everything to them, you see, that's the thing. So now they know what's happening, in the school, in the system and everything, that could be the reason why. (Participant C)

Figure 6.4 shows that in all the assumptions around maintaining a positive staff morale, the school leader is positioned with the authority to act. They are the key component to keeping all staff together and committed towards achieving a successful school.

Figure 6.4

Question 3: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, maintaining positive staff morale was ranked so highly by all three groups?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
A positive staff morale impacts the teachers' effectiveness, which in turn impacts student outcomes.	The school leader is positioned in a pastoral role fostering a positive staff morale by supporting teachers.
Change is most effectively managed when there is a positive staff morale.	The school leader is positioned as an emotionally intelligent leader, ensuring the optimum conditions for change management.
A relationship needs to be maintained with all staff, even those who fail to meet expectations.	The school leader is positioned as a parent maintaining the lines of communication with a wayward child.
Teachers have a positive morale when they are kept informed.	The school leader is positioned as having good communication skills. Teachers are positioned as content with additional tasks as long as they understand their purpose.

6.2.3 Question 4: Utilising School Data

Utilising school data to inform decision making was almost universally seen as being essential for the process of informed decision making within schools, with almost all participants describing it in this way.

Of course, this is important, because using the school data, we know that what we're doing is working or not. What we have – from there we can see, which areas that we need to improve, and which areas that we need to maintain or even be better at it. So, yeah, we have to use all the school data that we can - before we decide anything, what do we want to do to make it better, or to improve it, and not to do it again, if it doesn't work. (Participant E)

Participant C talked about the ubiquity of sharing decisions within their school, suggesting this was the reason it received such a high ranking:

> As I've said, all are shared so all decision making, all decisions taken are all shared to the teachers, all shared to the students and successes are all shared and so it might be that could be the reason why. (Participant C)

In addition, Participants A and D suggested that utilising school data to inform decision making was a relatively recent focus within Brunei schools:

> Just if I have to compare how I started about 17 years ago . . . we were oblivious about data, also because we were all working in silos. So, there was very little communications [sic] among staff with regards to student's performance . . . So, I guess that has changed at this point, because we essentially try to work as a team, and therefore school leaders, heads of departments, they're all trying to make this data transparent and available to everyone. So, I think that is very crucial thing to do at this point in time. Because unless you have all this data, then you cannot make informed decisions. (Participant A)

> The last – I think the last four or five years ago, this is not much of a thing for a principal or a deputy principal – even the teachers – so we have so many data [sic] but we don't actually know how to use the data properly. Now, I guess times have changed and then the last three years, they are quite a positive . . . we sort of like realise now

how important the data is. I guess you can just say that the last three

years is like data literacy, skill training program for every one of us. So

basically, now we know how important the data it is for us especially if

you want to do any academic program or any program that involve

[sic] the students and also their parents. (Participant D)

As set out in Figure 6.5 the school leaders seem empowered within

this context to make decisions based upon the data in order to bring about

improvements within the school.

Figure 6.5

Question 4: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, utilising school data to inform decision making was ranked so highly by all three groups?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
Data is essential to inform effective decision making within schools	The school leader is positioned as having the autonomy to act upon data to make effective decisions within schools

6.2.4 Question 5: Maintaining a Highly Visible Presence

The school leaders offered a number of reasons why maintaining a

highly visible presence around school was ranked so highly by principals and

teachers. Firstly, this leadership practice was described by Participants A, B,

D, and F as a way of motivating and encouraging stakeholders:

If you put yourself in a country – say your school is your country. So,

the principal is seen as a king. So, if the principal goes around the

school and they're meeting people – meeting the students – they feel

that they are being appreciated – one thing. They feel that the

principal are [sic] really are taking care of the school by personally

going around and then going to see people. (Participant D)

However, contrastingly, it was also described by Participants C, E, and

F as a way of monitoring practice within classrooms:

There are two effects actually. There are some teachers you like to be,

you know, maybe the good teachers, they like to be seen doing the

work, and there are some teachers who don't like us to be around. For

example, our morning round, usually we are doing the morning round

and then checking the classes and so on. (Participant F)

Participant C further linked this monitoring aspect of the leadership

practice of maintaining a highly visible presence, to the responsibilities of

instructional leadership: "Because of the instructional leadership, we have to

go down to the classrooms, we have to see whether the teacher is there and

students are learning, and sometimes students are motivated if we go in"

(Participant C). Participants A and B suggested that the leadership practice

maintaining a highly visible presence around school, had been ranked highly

because it made school leaders more accessible to teachers and students:

Yeah. I think this is very important for the principal, for all the school

leaders actually, to be visible around the school. Because from here

the teachers will - or the students, they know that the school leaders

have done their role and also their responsibilities, to look after the

school. Then whatever that they can need something [sic]- that they want to see the principal, right? - so it's easy for them to communicate. If they have any problems, you can see them and then discuss whatever the solution that can be helped to [sic] - whatever the problem that they have. (Participant B)

While Participants A and E suggested that it provided a clear picture of all aspects of school life, including the mundane, for example the toilets, canteen . . .

Because when I walk around schools, I actually get the better view of the [unclear] of the school's operations. Not just about teaching and learning, that's important, but also generally with regards to the health and safety, with regards to certain issues, say for example the toilet and the canteen, whether the foods are good, whether they are priced reasonably, what are the challenges? Some of these people who help us run the schools, the challenges that they are facing. I make small talk to the cleaners, I make small talk to the security guards, and then I even visit the canteen vendors, if it happens to have parents who come to school, so I do approach them and make small talk with them. But by doing so, I feel that I learn a little bit more every day about the operations of the school. (Participant A)

The school leader in two of these descriptions of visibility is positioned as the servant leader, listening to the viewpoints or concerns of their

stakeholders (see Figure 6.6). In another they are positioned as a supreme

ruler bestowing their indulgence on their subjects through ways of

encouragement. In the final discourse, the school leader is an overseer,

scrutinising the performance of their workers.

Figure 6.6

Question 5: Discourse Analysis Overview

What reasons can you suggest as to why, maintaining a highly visible presence around school was ranked so highly by all three groups?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
Being visible around the school as a leader encourages staff members.	The school leader is positioned as a monarch motivating their subjects through their presence
It's necessary to be visible around school as a leader to monitor the performance of some teachers.	The school leader is positioned as an overseer checking the performance of their employees.
Being visible around school as a leader gives stakeholders access to you to share concerns.	The school leader is positioned as a servant leader accessible and available to their stakeholders.
Being visible around school as a leader provides insights into the state of various aspects of the institution, not just teaching and learning.	The school leader is positioned as a servant leader concerned with all aspects of the school, including operational and logistical ones.

6.2.5 Question 6: Rewarding Teachers Who Perform Well

The final leadership practice ranked highly across participant groups

was rewarding teachers who perform well, which was ranked highly by the

deputy principals and the teachers. Participants A, B, C, and D, suggested

this was ranked highly because the teachers want their hard work and

efforts to be recognised, so they feel appreciated and are motivated to

continue:

As for teachers, I guess if you are looking at how we are trying to get them to help the students better, I think it's a give and take things [sic]. It's like you train very hard, you want to see results, so you have seen the results, you want to hear from superiors that well done mate, you have done a good job. Perhaps a little bit more than that, you want the whole school to know you have put in so much and your effort needs to be acknowledged. (Participant A)

Yeah, I think it's very important for the teachers to reward or to provide them appreciation. In other words, to help this teacher to be motivate and then to be appreciate by the school leaders as well, so that they can continue to be motivate [sic] and then they can improve for the future as well. So, if by giving or providing rewards to them, I think the teachers will feel . . . they are - appreciated by the school and especially by the leaders. (Participant B)

So, the teachers when they work hard for things that they thought that – I know that teaching is a job for them but for them to go to the next level or for them to stretch their limits, they would hope to have sort of like a reward at the end. Even if it's just an ordinary teacher who do ordinary, normal job. At the end of the day, they would feel – what do you call that? They would feel appreciated if they are being rewarded. (Participant C)

The particular rewards all the school leaders referenced were specific to the cultural context of Brunei Darussalam, and as such were not financial. Rather, they ranged from simple praise to certificates in assemblies, plaques, shared food, and celebrations. Participants A and C also referenced the importance of social media with regard teacher rewards, suggesting part of the reward process for teachers is having their achievements acknowledged within these online platforms. Participant C spoke about teachers in general, "They have the awards during ceremony, we share during WhatsApp, in Facebook and in noticeboards and so on, yeah", while Participant A suggested social media was more of a factor for younger teachers:

So, I think it's a very psychological behaviour behind why teachers would like being rewarded if they have performed well. One thing I find very interesting, now that we're looking into this, is that if we do have more young teachers nowadays, and these young teachers they behave very differently from the previous draw of teachers that we used to receive. Being rewarded for the job well done is something very important for younger teachers. From my observation, from my observation, and it's this very likely due to the social media culture, they want things to be Instagramable for example. Something that they want to share with their close friends or the rest of the world. So

to them maybe being acknowledged officially for a job well done is important for them. (Participant A)

In the context of this leadership practice the participants were positioned as the benevolent leaders awarding recognition and praise. In contrast, the teachers were positioned as needing that recognition in order to remain motivated and engaged within their teaching roles.

Figure 6.7

Question 6: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, rewarding teachers who perform well was ranked so highly by deputy principals and teachers?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
Rewarding teachers ensures they feel appreciated and are motivated to put extra effort in.	The school leader is positioned as someone whose recognition is valued.
Recognition on digital media is a valid form of reward.	The teacher is positioned as enjoying recognition on a digital platform.

6.2.6 Question 7: Gaining Stakeholder Buy In

In discussing the reasons why gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision was ranked so low by all three participant groups, Participant E defined stakeholders as the staff within the school, "Oh like, everyone in the school. Of course, the principal, everyone [laughs] the teaching and non-teaching staff" (Participant E). In contrast, Participant A defined stakeholders as, "Parents definitely, and also other agencies and the communities in general" and went on to specifically identify the oil and gas industry and service sectors such as restaurants, as being important

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stakeholders with vocational transitions from school to work. However, Participant A also suggested that in fact a lot of their colleagues and teachers were not committed to working with such stakeholders, and that the latter did not understand the value these stakeholders could bring or in some cases were simply unaware of who these stakeholders were:

Because I think a lot of school leaders, deputy principals included and also what more I think teachers, they don't necessarily believe in getting the stakeholders buy in. For the teachers, likely they are unclear of who these stakeholders are and what they can do to change the game. (Participant A)

For the remaining participants, and to a certain extent Participant A as well, parents dominated the discussion for this question. Three of the participants referred exclusively to parents in discussing stakeholder buy in to the shared vision. A further two participants made an extended reference to parents. In doing so, most of the school leaders described a discourse where parents do not see it as their role to get involved with their child's schooling:

In my opinion, a lot of them think that school is a place where we babysit their kids. They don't understand that at this point we can no longer see schools as a school that we were looking at say 30, 40 years ago, and with the challenges that we have, say for example mobile phones, digital gadgets and so on. The parent support becomes

very, very crucial in the success of the children. So that is my take on

that. (Participant A)

I think - I believe that the culture in Brunei is not like the - something

like in other countries especially like the - our parents-teachers

associations, especially the parents, they're not really involved in or

participate. They are reluctant to have the same vision with the

schools and then usually when we call them - for example, we have an

activity or something, the attendance is very poor. Okay? Right. I

think that's why this - most of the principal, deputy principal and

teachers rate - that it's so low, because of the inactivity - involvement

of participation of the parents. (Participant B)

Yeah, if the stakeholders here means the parents, it's quite difficult to

buy in parents, especially the cohort year near my school. If the

students come into the school, okay, it's up to the teachers, and then

they go off, okay that's it. So, it's quite difficult to buy in parents.

(Participant C)

If I look – I talk about my school, it is – I would focus on the parents

as being the stakeholder and also the community itself. It's really hard

for our school – you know that the background of our school with the

socio-economic background and the family facts and everything. So,

it's really difficult for us to involve them without involving any

monetary or lucky draw [laughs]. Either for them to go – I mean, to

work with the school especially to share our school's vision.

(Participant D)

Even to ask them [the parents] to come to the school is very, very

difficult, that's why even - to buy them into our school's shared vision.

I don't think - that's why I think the participants are rating this as the

last one because in our situation - it depends on the school, okay?

(Participant F)

In terms of parents as stakeholders and gaining their buy in to the

school vision, the dominant discourse seemed to be an assumption that

parents saw themselves as separate from their child's formal education.

Therefore, this discourse positioned parents as unwilling to get involved in

that education, and school leaders as powerless to alter this.

Figure 6.8

Question 7: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision, was ranked so lowly by all three groups?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
Parents see their role in their child's education as ending once they have got their children through the school gate.	Parents are positioned as isolating themselves from their child's education. Teachers are positioned as being solely responsible for their students' education. School leaders are positioned as unable to engage parents with a shared vision.
School leaders and teachers do not see the value of stakeholder groups and what they can contribute to improving education.	School leaders and teachers are positioned as not utilising the stakeholder resource.

6.2.7 Question 8: Working with Parents

The discourse that was identified in the previous section from the leadership practice, gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision, was further supported when discussing the leadership practice working with parents to support learning at home, which both principals and deputy principals ranked lowly. While some participants recognised there were parents who did choose to get involved with their child's learning, the picture presented was that overwhelmingly this was not the case. The school leaders explained the low ranking of this leadership practice by referencing one or more of the following: the parent's reluctance to get involved in school life, the narrative that schooling is not the parent's responsibility, or the social circumstances in the family:

> Then I think this one is for those who are very - those are parents would have a problem, family problems. For example, a broken family and so on, but I think that this is why the parents are not really support learning at home. (Participant B)

> As I've said earlier, it's quite difficult for - to buy in parents, especially learning at home more or less, because we've done all that, we have WhatsApps with parents, but still it's the same. (Participant C)

> Oh. Like I mentioned before, in the context of my school, it is really hard for us to have parents to support the learning at home because the parents - the background of the parents in my school are they are

mostly people who work agencies, work shifts and then some of them work as soldiers. Sometimes up to two weeks, they are not home because they need to go on duty. So basically, we do have problems with the mother – if the mother is looking for the other kids and then some of the children now in schools come from broken family [sic] whereby they live with their aunties and the grandfather, the grandmother – very old – and then they are not really – they don't have the energy [laughs]. Or the skill itself to sit with the kids. (Participant D)

This one, I'm not so surprised, because coming from – yeah, because we have this problem in our school as well, where parents – we cannot really see parents who wants to help us in supporting their children's learning at home. You can see from their attendance during PTM or whether we have parents' students' activities with the schools, the outcome or the attendees for those activities are just a bit disappointing. (Participant E)

In our area, the parents mostly are ignorant because of the socioeconomic environment, because that's why we are telling them about the importance of education, because all this time they are under privileged and then they are receiving some things, some help from the government. I think for them just letting them go to the school and then that's it. The students are not doing revision at home,

that's the thing. That's why it's very important for us to really use the full, the maximum time with the students. When they go home they forget about school, that's the thing. (Participant F)

Across both the leadership practices: gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision and working with parents to support learning at home, three of the school leaders used as an example of the parents' reluctance to get involved with their children's schooling, the period in 2020 when schools were closed due to a COVID 19 outbreak. They suggested that the majority of parents were not prepared to support the school in home-based learning, whether that was online, or through physical home learning packs:

Yeah, I believe that during the pandemic, you see, the COVID when we do the online learning, it seems that some of the parents are reluctant to support this, because probably maybe there are some others like the difficulties that they face in terms of connection probably [sic]. Then some of the parents, also they are not - what do you call this? Something like they are not really, really - I mean, they don't want the teachers - something like - what do you call it? Something like [Participant B speaks in Malay]. Something like a burden to them as well. Right? . . . I think what their mindset is that the teachers should do this one . . . not at home. (Participant B)

During the COVID itself, we really need the parents' support. At least to provide the platform for their kids to learn – for online learning –

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which they can't. Okay, we understand it's because of finance because of – they do not have this thing, this thing, this thing and then they have so many children to look after, okay? So, we go to the other alternative which is for the parents to take the HLP – home learning pack – from school which is once a week and then to return it back once every two weeks . . . Because this is for their children's education, right? So, when it comes to that, we still have a very low percentage of parents that really want to support their school. They still – I don't know whether it's because of the culture itself in Brunei whereby they like to receive, receive, receive. (Participant D)

Yeah, okay. It's very difficult. It shows during BCP [Business Continuity Planning] last year, we were doing the home learning, the online learning . . . So we can see from there, okay, especially in our areas, the parents are not really supportive. They don't know what their children are doing, something like that. Then we even text the parents. (Participant F)

While the overall message is that the majority of parents do not want to be involved in their child's academic education, there are some variations within this. Issues of familial context, social context, and cultural context all dominate the narratives around this leadership practice. However, a commonality across all of them, is that these issues are beyond what the school leaders can deal with.

Figure 6.9

Question 8: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, working with parents to support learning at home was ranked so lowly by principals and deputy principals?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
The social situation of families prevents parents from supporting learning at home.	Parents are positioned as being restricted in supporting learning at home by the employment commitments they have or the structure of the family. Principals are positioned as powerless to intervene against wider social issues.
The social economic situation of families prevents parents from supporting learning at home.	Parents are positioned as being restricted in supporting learning at home by their lack of resources. Principals are positioned as powerless to intervene against wider social issues.
Parents believe their responsibility is to get their children to school and it is the school's responsibility to educate them.	Parents are positioned as making a choice not to be involved with supporting learning at home. Principals are positioned as powerless to intervene if the parents will not meet them half way.

6.2.8 Question 9: Promoting Teachers as Researchers

Although many of the school leaders recognised the value of action research, under the leadership practice, promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need, the school leaders also framed this within the context of the large number of challenges teachers face in order to fulfil the responsibilities of their profession. Four of the school leaders, Participants B, C, D, and F suggested the teachers themselves saw their roles as confined to the parameters of traditional teaching and not inclusive of additional challenges, such as the role of researcher:

Are reluctant probably . . . Reluctant to do other responsibilities. For example, this will make us - like it's a burden for them, but actually it's good. Actually, it's good, but for the teachers, because of the burden of there being a high lot of periods [sic] for teaching I think it will hinder them from - to be active in doing the research. All right? We have done this actually, but from the comment of the teachers, it's just - they said it's too much for them. All right? So that's why it's very difficult for us, for the leaders, to promote these teachers as researchers. (Participant B)

Yeah, it takes time, could be, and it takes a lot of your time doing it, and they feel that it's not their job to put on action research and this because their job in the classroom is just teach the students. Some of the teachers are complaining on doing this, because I tried to do this, and we are trying to do this this year and it's a struggle. Yeah, I know it's a struggle. (Participant C)

This one is – this is related to the mindset, right? Because our teachers – the mindset of our teachers are teaching. Only teaching, teaching, teaching. Preparing, creating and then delivering. They do not see themselves as researchers and if they come across problems – say for example, there are some students that have difficulties in learning, they don't actually focus on them. Usually, they'll just send these kids or just contact the academic unit in the school just telling

them this student cannot read and I don't know what to do, okay? So basically, that's how the teachers in my school – their mindset. (Participant D)

So that's why I think the negative attitude comes from teachers who are already very tired, we have a lot of books to mark, something like that. We don't have time, we have got families, so that's why I think it's very difficult to promote this. (Participant F)

Participants B, D, and F did however recognise a difference in attitudes between more experienced and younger teachers towards a role as researcher in the classroom, with the former being less receptive and the latter more so:

I think we have done this before in - we use CAR, classroom action research, all right? Some of the teachers will think that they can improve, so they really, really like to do this. Yeah, they participate. Yeah, but for - I think maybe some of the other teachers who are - something like the veteran teachers and then those were reluctant to make a new change. That's why they're reluctant to do it. Yes. I think not all the teachers. I think some of them, yeah, are very good. They are very active. Then they like to do this, yeah, for the future, for the improvement of - yeah, in terms of teachings in the classroom. Yeah. (Participant B)

I see there's a difference now – especially with the young teacher –

those who have a background in Master of Teaching. These teachers

are basically being – I don't know. When they undergo the Master of

Teaching program, they have to do their thesis, right? Then in order

for them to do their thesis, they have to do actual research. So, these

teachers are better in terms of handling students with different needs.

So that's a difference now. Yep. (Participant D)

Because I think the teachers, especially the senior teachers . . . my

job is teaching, I don't want to do any of this. But there are some

teachers, young teachers are very, very ambitious. Even from our

school we have got three teachers who are really ambitious to do the

PhD also, so going to do the research on this. (Participant F)

Contrastingly, Participants A and E suggested it was the schools, not

the teachers, that felt there were already too many expectations for

teachers, and that as such teachers as researchers was not a priority.

Participant A took this further, seeing it as the school leader's role to protect

their staff from such additional burdens:

I think with so many challenges that teachers are facing and issues

that we have to tackle and things like that. I think actually research is

the last thing on our mind. I'm not going to say that teachers as a

researcher is not a good thing, I'm not going to say that doing

research will not help the teachers improve on the student's

achievements. But at the end of the day, I think when you look at the jobs that teachers have to do to perform, it's our responsibility as leaders to protect their welfare as well. (Participant A)

Yeah, I'm just suggesting probably, because you know right now we're all – with all the things that happening [sic], like - from since how many years ago - like the SIP [school improvement plan], the TPA [teacher performance appraisal], and all the things that we have done, WSE [whole school self-evaluation] and everything – we have so much things to do [sic], and we don't have time to do things like this. That's probably one of the reasons, [laughs] yeah. (Participant E)

Thus, in this leadership practice we see two narratives which position the school leaders as contrastingly passive and proactive (see Figure 6.10). In the former they are unable to act against the dominant discourse which defines a teacher's role as restricted to teaching. However, in the latter narrative they are proactively blocking action research as a way of supporting their teachers from being overburdened.

Figure 6.10

Question 9: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need was ranked so lowly by all three groups?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
Teachers see their role as teaching only and will not engage with additional burdens.	Teachers are positioned as resistant to accepting responsibilities beyond the remit of teaching. Principals are positioned as unable to impose such responsibilities.
School leaders have a responsibility to protect teachers from additional burdens	School leaders are positioned as proactively blocking action research in order to support teacher well-being.

6.2.9 Question 10: Modelling Good Teaching Practice

In discussing the leadership practice, modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe, Participants B, D, and F discussed a lack of confidence from school leaders, in their ability to teach the classes,

> Probably I don't think they have confidence, all right, but they can - what do you call? They make comments about this, but they know what is the weakness of the teachers, what is the strength of the teachers, but when it come to us, like we do this modelling, I think we have no confidence. (Participant B)

Participant F suggested the lack of confidence they personally felt in modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe, was in fact due to a long absence from the classroom and new approaches that had been introduced in the meantime:

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I lost my momentum of teaching, and then when I see, you know, during my time we don't have this dialogic teaching, even though we have already done [sic]. We don't know the names, so they have got the TFM [Teaching for Mastery], all those, the teaching approaches, all the snowball, all those things. We don't have that long time, we just teach traditional teaching, for me. Maybe the new principals, maybe they know. But for me, because we are from another generation so sometimes we feel maybe shy, because when I am observing my teacher's teaching, I say I wish I was like this when I was teaching. So I feel like inferiority to teach [sic]. (Participant F)

Participant D suggested they had the necessary pedagogical skills but would lack confidence in the curriculum content knowledge:

Now, if you were to ask me to model a lesson based on the syllabus now, I would say I could only – I won't be confident in delivering the content but if I'm delivering in how I would do the learning instruction. I can do that. (Participant D)

Participants A, C, and E suggested that in fact it was more effective to identify teachers to share good pedagogy than it was to model it themselves:

Normally teachers who model are the ones who have the highest TPA [Teacher Performance Appraisal]". (Participant C)

On the other hand, on the other hand, if you look at say for example if they are modelled by their head of departments, or a teacher who - good performing teachers who have proven track records, current proven track records. I think that the impact of that modelling would be greater than getting the principal. (Participant A)

So, I think, of course they themselves cannot be [laughs] the model for good teaching practice, but they identify other teachers that have done that, and they convey that message to other teachers. This is the exemplar lesson that we should – we all should follow. Because that is the only way that they can show what is the right thing to do, if you want to score high marks in your TPA [Teacher Performance Appraisal] – high grades in your TPA, and all that. Because everything is there. So, instead of them being the exemplar teacher, they will identify other teachers during their observation, and they will invite any teachers who want to learn, to join - observe that teacher. I think something like that, yeah. (Participant E)

Participants A, D, and F also suggested that school leaders do not have the time to model good teaching practice for teachers to observe:

I think modelling is good but on the other hand because we have a lot of other things that we have to attend to. If we are going to model for all teachers under our care, it's going to take a lot of time, that's number one. (Participant A)

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But you're trying to find the time, right? I can understand how hard it is for a principal with all the learning walk [sic] and then you have to do the observation and everything. So, I guess that's why it's there. (Participant D)

But the thing is we've got a lot of things to do and then we don't have time to teach. Even though we have got that in our timetables, still we don't have the time. That's the reality actually. (Participant F)

School leaders are positioned in the context of this leadership practice as unable or unwilling to engage with modelling good teaching practice for their teachers. They are either lacking the skills, knowledge, or the time to do so. However, they are also positioned, as a broker managing negotiations for highly skilled teachers to share their expertise with others. In this latter narrative, the school leader is more proactive as they identify the most appropriate teachers for this role and those most in need of their support, and facilitate collaboration between the two.

Figure 6.11

Question 10: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe, was ranked so lowly by all three groups?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders do not have the confidence to model good teaching practice to their teachers.	School leaders are positioned as not having the skills, knowledge or understanding necessary to model good teaching practice
School leaders do not have time to model good teaching practice to their teachers.	School leaders are positioned as heavily burdened with the activities of leadership and unable to take on additional tasks.
It is more effective to have good teaching practice modelled by skilled teachers than by school leaders	School leaders are positioned as a broker, identifying teachers with strong pedagogy who can be observed by their colleagues.

6.2.10 Question 11: Utilising Academic Research

The final leadership practice, in the bottom five, which had cross over between participant groups, was utilising academic research to inform decision making. This was ranked lowly by both principals and teachers in the questionnaire and in discussing the reasons for this, a wide range of responses were offered by the interview participants. Participant A explained that the teachers might not recognise the transferability of the practices identified in academic research, to a Bruneian context:

As for the teachers, I have talked to a few teachers in the course of times, they don't believe in academic research. Because according to them, because it is not our school, it is not our group of students. They don't see how they can try to homogenise some part of the research to our current situations. They fail to see that, they think that

a person did a research in another country or in another schools [sic], that research is only pertaining to their group of students, but they don't see how all these bricks on the walls eventually can build a bigger picture. (Participant A)

Participant E continued this theme but also expanded it by contrasting the utilisation of academic research to inform decision making, with the utilisation of school data to inform decision making. As discussed earlier, the latter leadership practice was conversely ranked in the top five. Participant E suggested such local data was prioritised over academic research:

Yeah, I'm not so surprised this – if this is the ranked one of the lowest. Because usually when we do this decision making in improving our academic result, we do it – we do what we have – we use what we have – sorry, I'm thinking of the word. We do it – we plan based on what we got from our results last year. So, we work from that, what needs to be improved, or what subjects we need to offer or find other strategies that can make our results better. So, most schools will do that, they will – other than finding other academic research from other countries, that we don't know whether it will work for us or not. So, we just work from what we have, and try to improve from that.

(Participant E)

Participant D suggested that the school leaders lacked the skills necessary to effectively utilise academic research in the decision making

process, "Maybe because we lack the skill of doing this. Yep. Because I remember that when I did my MA last time, I have to have a proper course on how to do a literature review [laughs]". Linked to this, Participant A suggested that because the majority of the school leaders had not completed a research-based degree, they possibly did not value academic research:

> I wonder if it has anything to do with say for example if they are not trained to do research. I don't have this data with me, I don't know, you might have access to this data. How many of the school principals actually have higher qualifications? . . . So, I guess that one-third of the principal's pool have done their Masters, and two-thirds haven't. So, I think the Master programs actually prepare you to do research in the field, and that could be why that two-thirds of the principals have ranked it so lowly. (Participant A)

> Participant C linked academic research to the professional

development sessions that school leaders conduct for teachers, suggesting in effect that academic research might be used in Brunei secondary schools, through these:

> I don't know any teachers that use any academic research in their classrooms. What I know is, when they have PDs and so on, they [the school leaders] would be doing it, they would be sharing it with the teachers, with their groups. (Participant C)

As was the case for the leadership practice modelling good teaching practice, time was also raised as a possible reason why utilising academic research to inform decision making, was ranked so low. Participant F suggested there simply was not enough time, with both school and family commitments, to read and digest academic literature:

> The time. I think the time, because of the time constraints. Unless you have got a lot of time, because in Brunei situation our Fridays, our Sundays are for the families, a lot of functions and so on. Then in school you are working from 7:30 until 4:30. I don't think we have got the time to do that, unless you are ambitious, or you are good at something. But most of the principals and deputy principals, they are mostly 40 years and above. I think that's the thing, the attitude . . . that's enough, I don't want to do other things, something like that. (Participant F)

Therefore, in considering the discourses in action within these responses there is a contrast between those where the school leader is proactively choosing not to engage with academic research and those where they are unable to do so (see Figure 6.12). In the former group the school leader either prioritises their own school-based data over academic research or they are too busy to engage with it. In the latter group the school leader actually lacks the skills to do so.

Figure 6.12

Question 11: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, utilising academic research to inform decision making, was ranked so lowly by all three groups?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders and teachers do not see a relevance between academic research and their own local context and therefore prioritise school-based data.	Academic research is positioned as irrelevant to the Brunei educational setting. School leaders are positioned as making a proactive choice to prioritise school level data in the decision-making process.
School leaders do not have the skills and understanding necessary to apply academic research to their own setting.	School leaders are positioned as being unable to understand and apply academic research to their own school setting.
School leaders do not have time to access academic research to inform decision making.	School leaders are positioned as heavily burdened with the activities of leadership and unable to take on additional tasks.

6.3 Question 12: Significance vs Frequency

The next question asked the interview participants to comment on why the vast majority of leadership practices in each participant groups' top five, came from scale B, while all of the leadership practices in the bottom five came from scale A. That is to say, the highest ranked leadership practices were positioned in each participant group's top five, mainly due to their perceived significance (scale B), while the lowest ranking leadership practices were conversely placed in the bottom five, due to their frequency of use (scale A). Participant C was unable to offer a reason for this, while Participant B suggested the leadership practices in the bottom five were not mastered by the school leaders, hence their positioning. The remaining

participants all suggested that while something may be recognised as significant, this does not necessarily mean it can be practised frequently. They suggested a variety of reasons why a leadership practice, although significant, might not be applied regularly within a school. Participant A suggested a lack of support for the school leaders may cause this situation, but did not give details on what type of support that was:

> I mean like there are a lot of things we know that are good practices, the right thing to do, but sometimes when we are in the field, we might have lack of support to make those things happen. As a result, you see more of the scale B at the top five and more of the scale A at the bottom five. (Participant A)

> Participant E, referenced as reasons for the top leadership practices being ranked according to significance and the bottom ones according to frequency of use: time constraints, a lack of leadership prowess, stakeholder commitment and the specific context of the school and its students:

> Probably one of the reasons is they know it's significant, they know it's important, but to still be like used in the school probably, they don't have time or – for it – or they don't have the expertise for it. Something along that road. It's all about availability or support from the relevant stakeholders, but for them to do the practice. Then time, commitment from everyone, whether they're – time is the real enemy there, I think. Then, yeah – they know it's significant, but they cannot

really do it, because probably they have their own reason for it. There are some limitations that we don't know. It depends on each school, so that's one of the reasons, yeah. (Participant E)

Participant D discussed the discrepancy between the significance of a leadership practice and its frequency of use in terms of availability of resources and the readiness of the school:

Yep. You wish for it to – you wish for it to be happening, but you have sort of like – there are certain things that hinder it from it to take place. As much as you want it to be, I guess. That might be it. Yep. Mmm. Then ideally, sometimes we do have an ideal vision of our school but in terms of resources or in terms of the readiness in the school itself, it's not supporting to what we want. Maybe that is one of the reasons why there is sort of like disparity [unclear] I guess [laughs]. (Participant D)

When asked to expand on what was meant by "readiness in the school" Participant D referenced the context of their own school. They suggested that while the mind frame of teachers and their willingness to accept change had moved forward, such change was being restricted by a lack of resources, finances, the physical premises, and expertise:

Yep. It's actually encompass all [sic] – because - I keep on referring to my school because that is the one that I am well versed of. But it is my school in terms of building – yes, that is one of the things that

hinder us . . . then you know how the layout and then we don't even

have a proper room and then our teachers? Now I can say that the

majority of them have a very good positive mindset. They just need a

bit of support and a bit of a push compared to the last five years

where everyone would not be willing to – willing for change but . . .

because of the hinderance in terms of the resources, money wise,

building wise [laughs], and then expertise. (Participant D)

Finally, Participant E also referenced the context of the school as

impacting on how regularly a leadership practice was used. They went on to

suggest that in some schools it would be easier to use these practices and

strategies:

It depends on the school itself, yeah? The environment of the school.

For example, if you are working, if you are the principal of a high

performing school, it's very easy maybe to implement that. But on the

other hand, if the school is like this and then you think that you want

to do this, you want to make use of this in your school. But the thing is

the thing hinders that thing, because you can't do it in your school, it's

very - it's like impossible. For example, it's very important to have this

program, but the thing is when we want to do it in our school, it's not

possible because of the nature of our school, the nature of our

students, the nature of our surroundings. I think it's like that.

(Participant F)

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In all of these responses to this particular finding from the questionnaire data, the principal is positioned as powerless to adopt certain leadership practices. They either lack internally, in the form of expertise, or externally in the form of support or resources. Regarding the latter, the contexts of their schools are not seen as conducive to supporting such leadership practices. It appears that the participants recognise the significance of some leadership practices but identify contextual factors beyond their control which prevent them from utilising them.

Figure 6.13

Question 12: Discourse Analysis Summary

Scale B asked how significant a leadership practice is to the leader of the school. All but two of the leadership practices across the top five for each participant group, came from Scale B. Scale A asked how often a leadership practice is used. All the leadership practices across the bottom five for each participant group, came from Scale A. **What reasons can you suggest as to why this may be the case?**	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders lack the resources or support to utilise some leadership practices regularly.	The school leader is positioned as powerless to enact certain leadership practices.
School leaders lack the expertise to utilise some leadership practices regularly.	The school leader is positioned as powerless to enact certain leadership practices.
School leaders lack the time to fully engage with all the leadership practices.	The school leader is positioned as powerless to enact certain leadership practices.
Some leadership practices can only occur in schools that have the appropriate supportive conditions.	The school leader is positioned as powerless to enact certain leadership practices.

6.4 Question 13-17: Leadership Themes

The next set of questions centred on five of the ten leadership themes. Shared vision was focussed on, as it was ranked the lowest theme by all three participant groups. A further four leadership themes, were discussed as they were found to have statistically significant differences between the responses of the school leader participant groups and the teacher participant group. These were stakeholder engagement, emotional intelligence, distributed leadership, and management. In all four cases the average responses of the principals and the deputy principals were higher than those of the teachers.

6.4.1 Question 13: Shared Vision

The interview participants were next asked what reasons they could suggest as to why, leadership practices associated to the theme shared vision were ranked the lowest by all three participant groups. The practices contained within this broader theme were creating, communicating, and gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision, as well as creating a sense of shared ownership and purpose amongst the school's stakeholders. Participant C was unable to provide a reason why this theme was ranked uniformly low. Participant E simply suggested creating a shared vision was less of a priority for school leaders, although when asked, they offered a clear explanation of what a shared vision is:

When you create the school vision or mission, you need to have

everyone agree on what is their purpose – I mean, not purpose, what

they want the school and the students to be doing. Want to produce

what type of students, what type of – want to be what type of school

in the future? So probably, shared vision means that. Meaning all of us

should be on the same boat on it – we have to – we were doing the

same purpose and the same aim. So, from there, probably, if we do

this – we do share the same vision, meaning we can work together.

Something like that. Yeah, we're willing to work together in achieving

that one goal. (Participant E)

Participants A and D however, suggested that the theme of shared

vision, and its constituent leadership practices, was ranked the lowest by all

three participant groups, because school shared visions were overshadowed

by the vision of the MoE. Participant A, defined the MoE's vision as producing

academic results and suggested this became the focus for school leaders and

their teachers, stifling opportunities to foster visions more specific to their

school context:

I guess the visions for the schools is very much the visions of MOE

[sic], I think that's very cultural. What has been said from our

superiors, that's what we're trying to achieve. I think this is something

that trickles down as we go down the organisation chart, and deputy

principals and the teachers also do not see how that shared vision

comes into play. At the end of the day, we know that we are here to produce academic results. I think for the deputies and teachers, most of the principals, I think that's in their mind, that's high priority. I, on the other hand, feel that shared vision is something very, very important and it has to be done. Something that I've been trying for the past three years, but I'm still struggling to see how I can get everyone to get that same vision. Because at the end of the day when I have small talks with some of the members of the staff, I realise that they don't necessarily understand about the visions of the schools. So for them, it is a clear-cut thing that they just need to produce results, that's it. (Participant A)

Participant D, while not referencing academic results specifically, also suggested that the MoE vision, and indeed the vision of the nation itself, dominated schools, with a need for all three to link. They expressed a sense of anxiety at the magnitude of the expectations contained in those visions. Participant D further suggested that they did not have the authority to make changes to their specific school's vision, while it still reflected the expectations of the MoE in particular:

Mmm. Okay. Vision? Mmm. Scared? [Laughs]. Terrified. Well, I guess the word vision itself is a very big thing and then when you talk about vision for the school, it has to link with the Ministry of Education and it, everything then has to link with the nation's vision itself. So to start

small in a school, I don't know, maybe, maybe, maybe for every

school, you need to have a very simplified vision which is

understandable to all . . . Our school vision has not really changed –

has not changed for the last 20 years [laughs]. Or is it 15 years,

because every time we try to discuss about it, they [the MoE] said oh,

it's still reflected in the Ministry of Education one. It's still – it got this

element [it's got –] but somehow it's too – for me, it's too – it's still

too big too mouthful … That's why I said when I – when you asked

about the vision itself, I feel terrified because it's too big. The vision

for the school is too big. (Participant D)

In contrast to their situation in Brunei, Participant D described visiting

another country, where the school visions were both "straightforward", "easy

to understand" and "easy for you to sell the ideas to everyone".

Participant B also recognised the age of the visions in each school,

referencing their own school's as being 15 years old. In discussing why

school visions had not been updated for such a long period of time however,

they did not reference the MoE's overarching vision, but instead suggested

that in fact the school leaders did not know how to create an effective vision:

Probably they don't know [laughs] how to make a new vision or

mission for the school itself. Then probably I think maybe they have a

lower knowledge about how to make this mission to be - to craft the

vision properly and then effectively used by the school. (Participant B)

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Finally, Participant F linked the low rank of the shared vision theme to parents and more specifically the PIBG (The Malay acronym for Parent Teacher Association (PTA)). Their reasoning was that if the PIBG was functioning effectively within schools, it would be possible to share the school's vision with the parent representatives, who in turn could share it with the parents in general:

> So, most of the schools, the purpose, the function of the PIBG [Parent Teacher Association] is not really working. Only by name yes, but when it comes to the meeting and so on, because through PIBG the parents, teachers' association, we can - through them we can be sharing our vision and then we have got - they will be telling the others. Something like that. I think because of the parent teacher association is not working in most schools. That's why. (Participant F)

In the responses referencing the influence of the MoE, or the lack of a functioning PTA, the principals are again positioned as unable to act due to circumstances beyond their control. Context prevents them from engaging with and promoting a new shared vision. Even within the discourse of school leaders missing the necessary knowledge or skills to enact a shared vision, they are positioned as passively unable to act, due to these limitations.

Figure 6.14

Question 13: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, leadership practices associated to the theme of shared vision were ranked the lowest by all three participant groups: secondary principals, deputy principals and teachers?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School shared visions are overshadowed by the MoE's vision, as well as the nation's vision.	School leaders are positioned as beholden to larger visions and thus unable to enact a vision specific to their school.
School leaders do not have the necessary skills to craft and embed a school vision.	School leaders are positioned as not qualified enough to enact a vision specific to their school.
Parents do not engage with the PTA.	School leaders are positioned as unable to embed a vision specific to their school because the PTA does not function well enough to share it.

6.4.2 Question 14: Stakeholder Engagement

The first theme, for which there was a statistical significance between the responses of the school leader participant groups and the teacher participant group, was that of stakeholder engagement. The lower responses of the teachers, were explained by participants, as the teachers' perceptions of stakeholder engagement, being blinkered by their sole focus on pedagogy:

Because school leaders and deputies, we look at things in the bigger picture. So hence we do believe that the stakeholder's engagement it is something very important if the school has to be successful. In defining successful here, refers to not just the academic results but also job opportunities, attachment opportunities, and also how these

stakeholders can support the running of the schools. Not necessarily just in teaching and learning, but in the general operations of the schools. (Participant A)

I think the leaders look at this - it's important, right, in order to - right, to have a collaborative, as well as they want to venture new things that probably will help to increase the performance of the school in terms of economics, as well as the teaching and learning that will take place in the school. I think by helping the stakeholders to help also the school to improve in some of the areas that might be - that they can help them . . . For the teachers, I think they haven't looked this [sic] - as very important to them, because they - actually this one does not involve them actually. This is - I think they believe that this is the responsibilities of the school leaders, right? So that's why the things that the teachers rate this low. (Participant B)

I'll compare with my personal experience. When I was still a secondary teacher, just a subject teacher, all we think of is, we have to teach the students. In my mind it is important for us to – our main job is to teach the students, and then produce good results and something like that. Just follow what our HODs or principals, or the deputy principals, ask us to do. But when I got given the opportunity to become one of the admin team [leadership team], then we can see all the behind-the-scenes things, that happening in [laugh] – governing the – not

governing, making sure the school runs smoothly, and the teachers

are on track. Every week we have to keep track of the teachers and

their progress and even the students . . . for us the stakeholder

engagement all these things are important, but when they were –

when I was just a normal teacher, I don't see all of this. All my focus is

on the students only . . . So, I think that is one - the reason of the

different significance between the – they rank this differently, and

when the teachers rank this differently, of course the principals and

deputy principals, rank this differently. Because we need to experience

it first before we can understand it. (Participant E)

Participant D explained the discrepancy between participant group

responses in the stakeholder engagement theme, by discussing when

teachers did not feel supported by school leaders. Particularly they referred

to instances when they as a school leader, lacked the authority to bring

about the actions requested by teachers, particularly when finances became

involved, or when a higher authority made requests for data at short notice

that involved the teachers:

Because you know that how [sic] in Brunei, we have so many – we can

do as much but when it comes to – when that – it comes to a stage

that needs us to involve the higher authority, that's where the process

stops. Yep. So, I guess that's why sometimes the teachers feel that

they're not being supported enough . . . Then [laughs] there are

certain things that are being asked from the above high authority to us that need immediate attention, that need immediate result or immediate action which we have to relay it to the teachers because this one always concerned with them [sic]. Sometimes we don't want to involve them but because the [unclear] involve the teacher, we have to ask them in a very short period of time and then sometimes they feel that they are being pressurised and then they feel that they are so tired with all the class and everything that they feel that they are not being supported in that, I guess. Mmm. Yep. Then sometimes, some of the teachers and some of the HODs do come to see us with brilliant ideas and brilliant suggestions and then things that are really, really good and then we also thought that it is good. However, it involves finance and then it's not like $1,000 or $2,000. It's involved more than that. So that's when we put it up – the proposal – going up the level and then there's no action from the people above. So, at the end of the day, we just have to settle with whatever that we have and every teacher feels that it's not satisfactory enough for them.

(Participant D)

Participant D also referenced a communication breakdown, suggesting that some teachers did not communicate with the school leaders when they needed support and due to the busy nature of their job, school leaders were unable to check on individuals:

Then there are also teachers who are not vocal at all who always keep

to themselves and then – but they actually need us to reach for them,

but we just don't have enough time to go around and ask everyone

and then we delegate this duty to the HODs and then sometimes, we

get a personality clash or there are also internal issues within the

Department that we are not aware of. So that's where the

communication breaks down. That's where sometimes teachers feel

that they are not being supported. (Participant D)

Participant F also suggested stakeholders did not feel listened to by

the school leaders causing the difference in average responses by the

participant groups, "So maybe the thing [sic] that they're not being listened

to by the principals".

Figure 6.15 sets out the main assumptions made in the discourses

surrounding this question. The first of these positions the school leaders as

possessing the authority to act based on their comprehensive understanding

of their school. In contrast, the next assumption positions the school leaders

as powerless to act, due to a hierarchical work context, in which authority to

take action must be sought from higher levels. The final assumption

positions school leaders as unable to engage with all teachers, due to the

burden of their roles and responsibilities. Teachers are positioned as having

a narrow field of experience, restricted to pedagogy, and therefore as being

unable to understand important aspects of leadership such as stakeholder engagement.

Figure 6.15

Question 14: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, secondary principals and secondary deputy principals gave significantly higher responses than secondary teachers, for those leadership practices which came under the theme of stakeholder engagement?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders look at things in the bigger picture. Teachers' focus however is on their teaching.	School leaders are positioned as making decisions based on a broad and informed understanding of the school environment. Teachers are positioned as having a narrower focus on teaching.
Sometimes school leaders do not have the power to take things on suggested by teachers or to support them without permission from a higher authority.	School leaders are positioned as powerless to support their teachers in certain matters, due to the hierarchical structure of the MoE.
School leaders cannot always access the concerns of all staff, due to the business of their role.	School leaders are positioned as isolated from some teachers who may need their support.

6.4.3 Question 15: Emotional Intelligence

In discussing the difference in average responses between the school leader participant groups and the teacher participant group, for the theme of emotional intelligence, Participants A, D, and F all suggested that school leaders valued emotional intelligence more than their teacher colleagues appeared to, as they needed to utilise it in order to deal with the varied challenges of their role:

I guess we as leaders, as school leaders, we do have to deal with more problems and issues than teachers. Very often these problems and challenges they involve not just one teacher, but a group of teachers and the whole school approach. If I were a teacher, I may have issues with my teaching, but that's just me. I may have some personal issues with my colleagues, but again that is a smaller scale. As compared to how the school leaders look at the whole situations and the fact that we have to deal with this more as leaders, hence we place more values on emotional intelligence. (Participant A)

Yeah, okay. So, I guess now – the leadership nowadays – maybe we understand that we are dealing with humans and that it is important for us to understand them in order for us to be able to manage not only their emotion but also our own emotion. So . . . every day, I always anticipate things that is not ordinary [sic] [laughs]. It's not the things that you have solved before. They do – there will always be new things, new issues, new conflict that need us to be on our – top of the game all the time. But for our teachers, I guess because they are not sitting in our shoes, and then they are only dealing with students which is very – which is easy for us to – easy for them to manage. That's why they don't rank emotional intelligence as high as we do. Yep. It's – yep. It's a matter of who they are dealing with because only

dealing with students, where students if you say yes, they will do it. (Participant D)

For the principals, why they put this very important, high, because they have got that experience calling up the teachers who have got the problems and then try to solve them and then we are communicating with them. But maybe the teachers who are not in the category of having the problems, they won't know (Participant F)

Participant D explained further that some teachers did not display emotional intelligence in either their interactions with the school leaders or the students and that due to an ego centric focus could be difficult to deal with:

They are easily triggered. They are easily triggered, Matt. In my school, you can't just watch and accept - 'Cikgu [teacher] no, no, no'. They will just blast off to you and then 'what right do you have – da, da, da'. That's what they will say. So, what we usually do with this teacher, we talk slowly and then we try to reason with them and then they will erupt but after that, after two or three days, they will come to us and go 'okay, cikgu [teacher] which one do I need to do?'. So that's why I guess they don't – they lack the emotional intelligence. It's not their fault but it's just like I said before it's - who are their clients? Yep. It's because their client – the students – are not challenging enough for them and they also have this sort of mindset that they are

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the authority in the classroom and then whatever that you are having, whatever feeling, that really it doesn't matter because – so sorry to say but this is I guess commonly shared among our teachers sometimes. They just – I don't know. I heard sometimes they said when they are dealing with difficult students, they will just – they don't actually ask 'what's wrong with you? Have you had your breakfast? Have they – no, they don't ask these little things. They just say 'what's wrong with you? Na, na, na, na, na. I have given you' – it will be always 'I, I, I, I, I'. That is the one thing that I notice. (Participant D)

Participant B suggested that some teachers were less familiar with emotional intelligence and therefore reluctant to engage with it, particularly those who had been in teaching for longer, "Teachers, I think some of them probably they're not sure, right? Probably some of them are still just - especially the veterans. They're usually reluctant to make a change" (Participant B). Participant E discussed the theme of emotional intelligence and the difference in responses between school leaders and teachers, in terms of the specific leadership practice, successfully influencing others to move forward in a new direction. They framed their answer in the context of managing change. They intimated that school leaders needed to employ emotional intelligence to foster change and as such appreciated its importance more than was apparent amongst their teachers:

Every time we introduce something new, of course there will be some teachers, probably disagree and cannot see the importance of it. But that's the thing, probably they don't realise the importance of having to change something for the better. Because they got used to the normal things that they have done, but the thing is the world is changing, right? . . . So, change will and must happen from time to time, according to the needs and wants of the world that we are in right now. So, yeah – so again, they need to – for being ranked different – the teachers ranked differently from the school leaders, because probably they haven't seen it – what the school leaders have seen. (Participant E)

Finally, Participant C described surprise at the difference between the average responses of the school leader groups, and those of the teachers', and intimated a desire to understand why the teachers felt that way "But the thing is, it's an eye-opener for us as leaders, you see. What we perceive is not what they perceive . . . Yeah. I would love to know what's the reason for that part" (Participant C). The assumptions made in the context of the emotional intelligence theme, support the respective positions, that teachers due to their role, do not engage with emotional intelligence but that school leaders due to theirs, do.

Figure 6.16

Question 15: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, secondary principals and secondary deputy principals gave significantly higher responses than secondary teachers, for those leadership practices which came under the theme of emotional intelligence?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders need to solve challenges on a wider scale than teachers, including change management, hence placing more value on emotional intelligence.	School Leaders are positioned as competent leaders able to use emotional intelligence to deal with various challenges.
Teachers are unclear about what emotional intelligence is, and indeed in their role with students do not need it.	Teachers are positioned as ignorant of emotional intelligence.

6.4.4 Question 16: Distributed Leadership

The theme of distributed leadership was portrayed positively by the interview participants. Almost all the participants recognised the importance of distributed leadership, some suggesting it was necessary in order for the school to run effectively and some that it was necessary for sustainability to occur, should principals or deputy principals leave the school:

That's something that took me a while, but I see these as something very, very important. Because at the end, especially when you are a principal, you are up there, there is no way you can take everything into your own hands and you need to distribute that leadership. You need to be a team player and you need to groom people, to support people to work as a team. I keep on reiterating this with my deputies,

with my senior masters and even with my heads of departments and heads of units. (Participant A)

Mmm. Yep. I guess now, the mindset of a principal and the deputy principal in terms of distributing leadership is very important because we have the – in our head, we are not permanent in the school and we need to have a successor. (Participant D)

Participant F admitted initially having concerns about the autonomy granted under distributed leadership but described the way it functioned effectively in their school, and again its importance for sustainability. Interestingly in Participant F's version of distributed leadership there was a suggestion of a chain of command and hierarchy, but also of coaching and mentoring:

So, for example my SM Academic [Senior Mistress Academic], she has got the initiative and then she can do it but she will be telling me and then I will be telling the principal. Because for us - yeah, you know, just for example the principal is dividing the work among us. She is in charge of the students, I am in charge of the teachers and then DP admin is in charge of all the administration. She gives us the autonomy to do it, but we are doing it but still we are telling her to consent from her [sic]. Sometimes it's - because when I read this, read about the distributed leadership, sometimes it's very - a bit dangerous because you are giving autonomy to others. But in our

situation we know our work, we don't have to wait for the principal to ask us to do this. No, we do it. So, the principal she did it like this and then I do my task. Then how I ask the SMs below me to do this so it means that we are making the burden lesser and to make it lighter. I think it's just a very good way because this one is also connected to succession planning. Because everybody is replaceable. If somebody for example, I am going to be transferred to another school, I've already a senior mistress of academic, she knows what to do. Because all this time we are giving them the - coaching them, like mentoring them, teaching them what to do and so on. (Participant F)

However, participants A, B, D, and E all suggested that while school leaders might recognise the value of distributed leadership, teachers often did not want to take up the challenges and responsibilities involved, once again seeing their role as being restricted to that of teaching. These participants further suggested that this may have influenced the responses of the teacher participants:

So I want them to see that - how distributed leadership played out within our team so that it's a team decision. We win together, we fail together. So, unless you get people to see that, then the whole school is not going to run in the way that it's efficient, on the right path to achieve all the goals that we set up. On the other hand, if I'm just a teacher, then my goal is very straight forward, I just need to produce

the results, I don't need to run the whole school, I don't have to worry about say other things. (Principal A)

So, I think probably the school leaders thinks [sic] that this is very important in order to -for them to make a [speaks in Malay] - somebody who is going to replace them in the future, they have to train them . . . But for the teachers I think it's the opposite. Because, I don't know, maybe if the teachers, right, they want to be a somebody, something that is going to in the higher rank in the future, so probably they will look at this. It's very important for them, but for those teachers who are just thinking, I just do my job. That's it. I don't have to think about this (Participant B)

We can see their potential in them sometimes. They can think and act even better than us. That's why we really want these people to become the next leader of the school. However, sometimes, teachers . . . they just – they feel settled in whatever job or task that they are doing. They are in their comfort zone and they don't want to take the challenge of being a leader. (Participant D)

Of course, school leaders can see the potential in each teachers [sic], in each teacher that they work with. Again, this is from my experience. Usually, we did – sometimes, we did ask this certain teacher, we want to give him or her, something that – like a leadership role or an admin role, that we see that they can do it, they have the potential in doing

it. But, when we approach them, they somehow don't want to do it because all their focus is only for teaching . . . So, probably, we are trying to give them chance to be a school leader, but if they have their own focus and their own goal of just maintaining their priority of teaching and focus on the students, of course we cannot force them. (Participant E)

Participants C and D also suggested that the differences in responses between school leaders and school teachers may have been because those teachers responding to the questionnaire were not those selected for leadership roles under distributed leadership:

the teachers will rank it low maybe because they are not the chosen one [laughs]. Possibly they're not the chosen one (Participant D)

We give position of post for [SMTs] and so on for those we can perceive - we see their potential and so on, so we give them the leadership roles. Might be the teachers who've done this survey are not the ones who are doing the roles and SMT, so yeah, that could be it. (Participant C)

Finally, Participant A commented that the ability of the school to engage in distributed leadership is affected by the human resources school leaders have available to them:

I think it's the whole of Brunei, all the schools are doing it, I'm very, very sure because there's no one leader who can take everything on

his or her own plate. Of course, now the question is how well can you distribute these leaderships [sic]? Because again my school has a different setup than your schools. I don't necessarily have the same human capital as your schools, so how do I play around with this to make sure that I actually capitalise on what I do have, to achieve this distributed leadership? (Participant A)

Once again, this time within the theme of distributed leadership, two of the narratives present within the participant responses, contrast with each other. In one the school leaders are empowered to delegate leadership, and indeed recognise the necessity of doing so in order to successfully lead the school and ensure sustainability. However, in the next, the school leader is positioned as powerless to embed delegated leadership, because teachers restrict their role as solely pertaining to teaching. A further discourse similarly positions the school leader passively, as their ability to implement distributed leadership is constrained by the human capital they have available. The final discourse assumes that the teacher participants in the questionnaire were not those involved with distributed leadership and therefore positioned them as not valuing its tenets.

Figure 6.17

Question 16: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, secondary principals and secondary deputy principals gave significantly higher responses than secondary teachers, for those leadership practices which came under the theme of distributed leadership?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders need distributed leadership in order to collaborate for success or create sustainability.	School leaders are positioned as having the authority to delegate leadership roles within their school context.
When school leaders identify a teacher with the potential to step up, some do not want the responsibility - they wish to restrict their role to teaching.	School leaders are positioned as not having the authority to delegate leadership roles within their school context. Teachers are positioned as being focused upon pedagogy to the exclusion of all else.
Schools have different levels of human capital to deliver distributed leadership	School leaders are being positioned as being restricted in their ability to enact delegated leadership, by the pool of human resources available in their schools.
The teachers completing the survey were not selected for leadership roles	Teachers are positioned as not valuing distributed leadership, as they are not involved with it.

6.4.5 Question 17: Management

Concerning the leadership practice from the management theme, resourcing according to identified priorities, participants A, D, and E all suggested that school leaders made informed decisions concerning resourcing, based on a comprehensive understanding of the whole school context, while teachers were restricted in their views to those issues that solely concerned them, and thus might not understand the rationale behind such prioritisation:

On the other hand, teachers again maybe because they don't see, they don't necessarily see how we - they don't necessarily see the things

that we saw [sic]. Their role in the organisation is much more focused and I don't like to use the word narrow, but maybe less - they have less to worry [sic] compared to the leaders. So on their part, when it comes to management, they don't necessarily think that it's a priority for them. For them they just make sure that they teach, they produce results and that's it. (Participant A)

We are managing the school, right? So, the principal and the deputies these are the things that are important for us in order for us to ensure the smoothness of teaching and learning in school and then whatever happened in class, the quality of the teaching in class has to be on par. I guess the teacher doesn't see this as important as us because what they do is just teach. They only prepare their lesson plan and then they only prepare themselves for the class that they are teaching. They are teaching three class [sic], then that's the only class that they manage. (Participant D)

We have to rank, according to priorities, whether is it urgent for this one, is it – we really need this one and this one we can do without. So, they have to make a decision. It's not that we don't want to hear everybody's request, or something – everybody's wants, but the thing is we as a school, we have our limitations, as well, right? So, for example, budget wise or something like that. So, we – for school leaders we need to consider a lot of things before we can say yes or no

to them. Of course, we wish we can say yes to everyone, but again the limitations are there, and probably, we can work something out that can give a win and win situation, for both parties. Yeah. (Participant E)

Participant B while expressing recognition of the value of the different leadership practices that made up this theme, also recognised that teachers have a lack of resources in school, suggesting that at times teachers have to buy their own resources for school:

Yeah, I don't think they feel that they have enough. I don't think - yeah, they don't have enough resources actually, because nowadays what comes to my mind, when I look at the teachers, they have to - they have to buy themselves all these things, all the resources. Usually it's not enough. Yeah. (Participant B)

Both Participants B and F in discussing the management theme, specifically referenced the need for ICT resources, describing various programmes that required technology: "Then the resources is very important as well [sic], because nowadays it's something like we need to have, let's say, blended learning, right? So from that - for example, like the computers also play a very important role" (Participant B); and "We need computers, because you have got the BTEC, we have got the ICT, we have got the - we need that for Read Theory, all those things" (Participant F).

It is assumed in the first of the narratives from the responses to the management theme, that the school provides resources for its teachers, but

that those resources are limited and therefore school leaders are positioned

as having to make informed decisions regarding resource allocation.

Teachers, under this assumption, are once again positioned as have a focus

limited to teaching. In the second narrative the emphasis moves to the

school leader as unable to provide enough resources and teachers are

therefore positioned as having to provide such materials themselves.

Figure 6.18

Question 17: Discourse Analysis Summary

What reasons can you suggest as to why, secondary principals and secondary deputy principals gave significantly higher responses than secondary teachers, for those leadership practices which came under the theme of management?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders have to prioritise in the context of the whole school, but teachers focus is on teaching so they may not understand the rationale for decisions	School leaders are positioned as making decisions based on a broad and informed understanding of the school environment. Teachers are positioned as having a narrower focus on teaching.
Teachers do not have enough resources and often have to buy things themselves	School leaders are positioned as unable to provide teachers with the resources necessary for learning. Teachers are positioned as having to use their own finances to resource their classrooms.

6.5 Question 18-19: Open Questions

The final two questions were open in nature. The first asked the

participants if any of the results had surprised them, while the latter

provided the participants with an open opportunity to share any information,

they felt was significant, but had not emerged in the earlier questions.

6.5.1 Question 18: Surprising Results

The major narrative to emerge from this question was that school leaders were surprised that the teachers perceived issues of leadership, differently from them, "Yeah, especially that part where, what we perceive as leaders is higher and then different with the teachers" (Participant C). Regarding these differences of perception, Participant F explained:

> As I said just now, we as school leaders, we ranked this one high and then the teachers ranked that low. Maybe – so, that's the thing, maybe our way of thinking is very different, because for us maybe we have done this a lot but maybe they can't see it, maybe they think that they are being disadvantaged at their schools, something like that. (Participant F)

Participant B took this further, suggesting this gap needed to be closed to enable a school to function successfully:

> Yeah. When I look at the data that you have been shared [sic] just now, I think, yeah, the school leaders and the teachers have different view [sic]. All right? They have different views . . . So, it seems that there is still a lot of gap between the school leaders and the teachers themselves. So, I think we need to close the gap, all right, in order to make the school environment and then all these things [sic] to become an excellent school. (Participant B)

Prior to the questionnaire data being shared in the interview, school leaders were possibly blinkered to the teachers' perceptions of different aspects of their leadership. It is interesting to note that of the four leadership themes where a significant statistical difference existed, three of them involved close interactions between the school leaders and the teachers. Thus, while the school leaders felt they were effectively engaging with the teachers as stakeholders, displaying emotional intelligence towards the teachers and distributing leadership to the teachers, the teachers, seemingly, did not necessarily experience this in the same way.

Figure 6.19

Question 18: Discourse Analysis Summary

There are lots of results we have looked at today, can you tell me what, if anything, has surprised you?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
Teachers have different perceptions of stakeholder engagement, emotional intelligence, distributed leadership and management within their schools, from those of the school leaders.	School leaders are positioned as "out of sync" with the views of their teachers.

6.5.2 Question 19: Additional Comments

The final question, asking for any additional comments, was responded to by only three participants. Participant A emphasised the importance of empathy and communication in establishing team work and success:

Maybe it has already been covered, in a very indirect manner. But if you look at things like empathy, communications, I think these are also things that are very important. Not just personally, I think professionally if we are going to lead a team of teachers to achieve our goals, and we are going to ask them to believe that we work as a team and we are one big family. I think communications and empathies [sic] are two very important things . . . Because I do have friends, they sometimes complain to me that oh, the leaders may not be as empathetic. (Participant A)

Participant A also recognised that schools operate with different contexts and different school leaders:

Like previously I mentioned, we do not necessarily have the same set up in the schools and I think that teachers need to respect that. They are under different leaders, leaders are also humans. At the end of the day, I think that they must understand that all leaders want the best for the students. (Participant A)

Participant A's statement, focusing on the differences between schools, had some alignment with that of Participant F, who emphasised once again, that schools were beholden to their context in terms of the leadership practices that could be applied:

Yeah, our leadership is actually controlled by the schools where you are in, that's why just now when you think it's very important and

then actually you can't implement it, so we are being controlled by which schools you are in. I think that's the thing, because I've been in another school and then to another school, I've good performing school and then low performing school [sic], so I'm aware of leadership will change [sic] according to the school. (Participant F)

When asked to expand on what aspects of the school context might influence leadership, Participant F provided the following examples:

Because in my old school, reading is a good habit, we have got a very good reading room and then our students while waiting for their parents they are reading the books. Then when I came to the new school, entirely - it doesn't exist. So actually I want that and then I said, can I collect five dollars, because in my old school we collect five dollars for the reading fund. No, cannot, because of the socioeconomic background. So you can't, you think that reading habits is very important in all schools and then when come to this - very slow. So first of all and then there is no reading room, I mean there is no reading period so when I came first so I have to change everything, like as I'm transformational leadership for example, like that. Then the discipline, the discipline problem is really, really terrible there, so first of all we are trying, because our teaching and learning cannot be done if the students are like this, escaping and then they're not bringing the books so we are trying to change the students. So that's why, because

the one - even though you are a very good, I think, a very good leader in another school, when you transfer to another school you have to change from what you are to another one, so that's why I said, your school is - the school environment, all those things, will change your leadership approach. (Participant F)

Finally, Participant C concluded their interview by requesting a mentoring system for new leaders, "so it would be good if - the potential leaders would be have mentors [sic], like two years of mentoring before being a leader and so on, that I think would be better" (Participant C).

From the limited responses to this question, Participant A's initial statement assumes that the emotional intelligence skills of empathy and communication, are fundamental to building an effective team and achieving school improvement. This discourse positions the school leaders as controlling their own destiny and that of their institution, in that if they apply the correct leadership skills, success can ensue. Contrastingly, Participant F's discourse assumes that different schools have different contexts and that this will affect the leadership practices that can be applied within. This discourse positions the school leader in a passive position, their professional practice controlled, to at least some extent, by the context in which they find themselves.

Figure 6.20

Question 19: Discourse Analysis Summary

I would be interested to know if there is anything you would like to share with me that we have not covered today?	
Assumptions that appear to underpin what is being said	*Positions that such assumptions assign to relevant stakeholders and the influence these have on their authority to act*
School leaders must show empathy and communicate well to build an effective team that is successful in meeting its goals.	School leaders are positioned being able to foster success by implementing these two key skills.
The context of the school defines which leadership practices can be successfully applied.	School leaders are positioned as being constrained in what they can do, by the context of their schools.

6.6 Missing Components and Socio-cultural Context

As a final observation, both the individual leadership practices which the school leaders rated lower in terms of frequency of use, and the leadership themes where there were statistically significant differences between the responses of the school leaders and the teachers, were framed within discursive assumptions where the Brunei secondary school leaders were positioned as either missing necessary components or as being restricted by the socio-cultural context (see Table 6.1). Knowledge, understanding, skills, human resources, authority, or time were all assumed to be lacking in various discursive assumptions presented by the interview participants. In these assumptions the school leaders did not have the authority to act, nor the time to engage with, nor the competence to utilise, various leadership practices. Due to missing human capital, school leaders were positioned as unable to embed leadership practices, despite their

significance, because they simply did not have the staff with the necessary experience or training to support such endeavours. These missing components meant that the school leaders' ability to enact various practices was curtailed.

Table 6.1

Missing Components in Discursive Assumptions

Question Stimulus	Missing knowledge, understanding or skills	Missing authority	Missing Human Resources	Missing time	Impact of Socio-cultural Context
Leadership Practices					
Gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision					✓
Working with parents to support learning at home					✓
Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need		✓			
Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe	✓			✓	
Utilising academic research to inform decision making	✓			✓	
Themes					
Shared Vision	✓	✓			
Stakeholder Engagement		✓			
Distributed Leadership		✓	✓		✓
Management		✓			✓
Significance vs Frequency					
	✓		✓	✓	✓

While missing key components prevented Brunei secondary school leaders from enacting leadership practices, socio-cultural context was also assumed to do the same. Aspects beyond their control, were assumed to restrict the school leaders. The reoccurring discursive assumption that teachers restricted their role to teaching, to the exclusion of other responsibilities, restricted the school leader's ability to implement both distributed leadership and action research. Similarly, the discursive assumptions which positioned parents as uninterested in collaborating on their child's education, believing this to be the responsibility of the teacher, or simply unable to collaborate, due to social factors, again limited the school leader's ability, in this case, to engage with this particular stakeholder group. Referring to the interviewee responses discussing the discrepancy between the significance of leadership practices and their frequency of use, another discursive assumption positioned school leaders as being restricted in which leadership practices they could utilise, due to the context of their schools. The schools were described as not ready to embrace some leadership practices. The culture and atmosphere of the school was assumed to be resistant to certain initiatives. While the discursive assumptions presented in Table 6.1, were not the only ones pertaining to the individual leadership practices and collective themes listed there, the overview the table provides evidence of consistent positioning of school leaders as

powerless to enact certain leadership practices, due to missing components or an unsupportive socio-cultural context.

6.7 Summary

In seeking to answer what is the experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam but promoted by the Ministry of Education, the responses of the semi-structured interview participants provided a range of insights. Their responses identified discursive assumptions that positioned principals and other stakeholders such as teachers, parents, and the MoE in certain ways. The Brunei secondary school leaders were positioned in some instances as empowered and active, while in others as passive and reactive. Regarding the latter, this was particularly the case whenever the school leaders referenced interactions with the MoE. The MoE held the authority and set the expectations to which the school leaders responded. The school leaders were also restricted in their dealings with parents and teachers, as these stakeholder groups were positioned within the socio-cultural context, in ways that made it difficult for certain leadership practices to be employed. Finally, as revealed in the interviews, participants' discursive assumptions often positioned school leaders as missing key components required to enact certain leadership practices. Consequently, while the identified discourses supported the utilisation within Brunei secondary schools of some leadership

practices, for others, the discursive assumptions and resultant positioning

hindered their enactment.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

The following chapter discusses the findings of the three phases of the mixed methods research design: document analysis, questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews. It completes this task by considering each set of results in the context of the sub-research question associated to that phase of the mixed methods research (see Table 7.1). For each of these three questions a response is generated, supported by the relevant data. Through this process key aspects and issues are identified that in turn contribute to understanding and answering the overarching research question: how well do school leadership theories created in other cultures transfer to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam? A response to this overarching question is addressed in the final chapter of this thesis, the conclusion. This current chapter however, finishes with a section which identifies four possible outcomes of transferring school leadership theories from external sources, and discusses the actualities of these within the findings of this research.

Table 7.1

The Mixed Methods Phase and the Associated Sub-research Question

Mixed Methods Phase	Sub-research Question
Document Analysis	Which leadership theories, created in other cultures, were promoted in Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education documentation on school leadership?
Questionnaire	What is the relationship between those school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the MoE, and the leadership practices implemented in Brunei secondary schools?
Semi-structured Interviews	What is the experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam but promoted by the MoE?

7.1 Sub-research Question 1: Document Analysis

The document analysis identified a range of leadership theories, originating external to Brunei Darussalam, that formed a foundation for the leadership practices promoted within the Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework. While the individual theories best aligned with each competency could perhaps be debated, there is no doubt that within the Competency Framework a broad range of expectations were presented to the Brunei secondary school leaders and that these expectations originated external to the country. Indeed, it could be argued that the document analysis identified such a broad range of leadership practices reflected within the Competency Framework, that most school leadership theories, prominent in Western academic literature, were in some way represented. This included various iterations of instructional leadership, school based transformational leadership, and distributed leadership. Even with reference to more general leadership theories, again many were

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represented within this document: emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and servant leadership. The Competency Framework reflected a wide range of leadership theories, and their associated practices, which Brunei school leaders were expected to reflect in their professional practice.

7.1.1 The Integration of Leadership Theories

Integrated Leadership (Marks & Printy, 2003) combined both instructional and transformational leadership in an attempt to negate the respective limitations of each. The strengths of each of these leadership approaches were seen as complementary. The MoE similarly combined various leadership theories and their associated practices within the Competency Framework but their approach was much broader than the combination of only two leadership theories. Therefore, this could be interpreted as more in keeping with Gurr's (2015) assertion, that there is no one approach that successful school leaders adopt, but that instead they utilise various practices as appropriate to the situation. However, with such an amalgamation of leadership styles within a single framework, a possible concern arises that school leaders might begin to feel overwhelmed. Considered as a single document, the expectations within the Competency Framework are certainly challenging. If school leaders were to achieve all the exemplary, or even proficient, criterion for each competency, this would represent an immense undertaking.

Many of the leadership theories identified in the document analysis as being reflected within the Competency Framework, have clear connections, and complement each other. These include the charisma and motivational expertise of transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006) and the various social skills and social awareness of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000), or the empowerment of both distributed leadership (Harris, 2012; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Spillane, 2005) and enabling others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). The commitment to actively listen to stakeholders in servant leadership (Greenleaf, 2002) is echoed within leadership for learning (MacBeath, 2006). It is undeniable that in many instances the various leadership theories fit with each other, within the overall Competency Framework. However, for some leadership theories reflected within the framework, there is incongruence between them. Thus, the intrinsic motivation within a professional learning community (Hord, 1997) to collaborate and improve pedagogy, seems at odds with the authoritarian dynamic of transactional leadership (Bass et al., 2003) where compliance is established through rewards and consequences. There are also academic theories of school leadership within the Competency Framework, which promote the direct involvement of the school leader in developing pedagogy and improving learning (Hattie, 2009; Robinson et al., 2009), and others in which the school leader indirectly fosters a culture where improved learning can occur (Hallinger, 2005; Hord, 1997; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). The

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coverage of the Competency Framework is so broad that unsurprisingly, while many combinations of the leadership practices presented within it integrate smoothly, others are less complementary.

7.1.2 Socio-cultural Context

Some identified school leadership theories, that originated external to Brunei, but were reflected within the Competency Framework, only partially aligned with this document. These leadership theories could be evidenced within the Competency Framework, but often seemed at odds with a Brunei Darussalam socio-cultural context founded on conflict avoidance, hierarchy, and high-power distance (Blunt, 1988; Minnis, 1999). The most obvious example of this was the recruitment, retention and releasing of staff. Authority over these areas, was an important part of various leadership theories reflected in the Competency Framework, (Hord, 1997; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Robinson et al., 2008), but was not a possibility within the context of many South East Asian countries (Hallinger, 2018), including Brunei Darussalam, due to a centralised system of teacher appointment, transfer, and retirement. Similarly, a reliance on a centralised system of facilities management, with a limited budget to outsource maintenance work, also impacted on the Brunei secondary school leader's ability to ensure an orderly and supportive school environment (Robinson et al., 2009). Thus, while elements of some leadership theories could be identified

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within the Competency Framework, at times Brunei Darussalam socio-cultural parameters prevented them from being fully realised.

7.1.3 Competency Framework Creation Process

In keeping with their commitment to accessing ideas and initiatives from international best practice (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2012; Council for Long-Term Development Plan, 2008), the Brunei Darussalam MoE based the Competency Framework on a variety of sources external to Brunei. With this amalgamation of varied leadership theories, with instances of discordance between some of them and with only partial representation of others due to the Brunei Darussalam socio-cultural context, the process in which the Competency Framework was created, must also be considered. In the context of these three observations, it is possible that their relevance to, or application within, the socio-cultural discourses of Brunei Darussalam, were not a focus in the selection of the leadership theories and their associated practices. There are so many expectations within the Competency Framework, it seems more likely that the document was created by indiscriminately transferring into it, leadership theories that had been identified as best practice elsewhere. I can only assume that this was possibly done without considering whether all elements of those practices aligned with the cultural context in which they were to be applied, or indeed with each other. This would explain the broad range of leadership theories reflected within the Competency Framework, and their variability in

terms of coordination with each other and application within the context of Brunei Darussalam.

7.1.4 Competency Framework 2021 Revision

As a final discussion point on the document analysis, the competency framework was later combined with the MoE's school leadership standards to form the *Guidebook for Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Standards and Competency Framework* (Department of Educators Management, 2021). This new document was launched in February 2021 (Kon, 2021). The competency framework presented within the guidebook was fundamentally a replication of the 2019 document, however there were a few changes. Human resource management and stakeholder collaboration each had guiding questions and their associated criteria either added or removed. The only competency however, to be renamed, was data literacy, which became digital leadership. Under the digital leadership competency, the proficient Brunei school leader effectively utilised "digital learning platforms and applications to improve teaching and learning" (Ministry of Education Brunei Darussalam, 2021, p. 45). While technology had been referenced in the original form of the Competency Framework, by including it as a specific cross-cutting competency in the later document, the MoE ensured its prominence was increased. The *Ministry of Education Strategic Plan 2018-2022*, (SEPaDU, 2019) listed as part of its second objective, "provide equal and equitable access to quality education" (p. 14), a commitment to providing "ICT

services for education" (p. 29). The 2021 competency framework placed this corporate focus on technology, into the context of school leadership. As a cross cutting competency, the introduction of digital leadership to the Competency Framework, may also have represented a response to the impact of COVID 19, as due to the pandemic Brunei regularly had to close schools and utilise online learning. Whatever the case, the digitalisation of education became a more prominent focus for Brunei school leaders in the second iteration of the Competency Framework, but throughout this document, the scope and variation of expectation remained.

7.2 Sub-research Question 2: Questionnaire

The second sub-research question asked: what is the relationship between those school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the Ministry of Education, and the leadership practices implemented in Brunei secondary schools? In considering the relationship between the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the MoE through the Competency Framework, and what was practised in Brunei secondary schools, the questionnaire data suggested there was variation depending on the leadership practice being referenced. At the simplest level, some leadership practices were used more frequently than others, and some leadership practices were considered more significant than others.

7.2.1 Crossover

When, the average responses, of each participant group, to each leadership practice, on each scale, were considered in rank order, there was a large amount of crossover in terms of the leadership practices ranked in the top and bottom five for each participant group. Regardless of the numerical discrepancy in how each group rated the significance of the leadership practices or their frequency of use, there was consistency between the participant groups in terms of which practices were most significant and which were least frequently used. Between all three participant groups, the relationship between those school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the MoE, and the reality of school leadership within the country's secondary schools, was stronger with certain leadership practices, and weaker with others. Why this consistency existed, was addressed through the semi-structured interviews.

7.2.2 Implementation Gap

When considering the two scales used in the questionnaire, almost all the leadership practices were responded to by each participant group, with an average response score on Scale B, which measured significance, higher than the corresponding score on Scale A, which measured frequency of use. This comparison of the average Scale B responses with the average Scale A responses confirmed a discordance between recognising a leadership

practice as significant and the frequency with which it was used. A discrepancy seemed to exist between the abstract theorising of what is considered significant and the practicalities of applying it within professional practice. It can be suggested that this discordance between the majority of scale A and B responses, may have been indicative of an implementation gap within Brunei secondary school leadership.

The leadership practices contained within the Competency Framework, originating as they do from academic research, can be considered evidence-based practices (EBPs). While the questionnaire data indicated that these EBPs were accepted as being at least of some significance, contextual factors may have prevented their consistent implementation to a level that matched this. The questionnaire results suggested therefore, that the relationship between some of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the Ministry of Education, and the leadership practices implemented in Brunei secondary schools, could be represented as an implementation gap.

7.2.3 Significant Differences

Statistically significant differences were identified for the 10 themes under which the leadership practices were grouped. There were four themes, where $p < .05$: stakeholder engagement; emotional intelligence; distributed leadership; and management. Across these four themes, the dominant pattern was the principals giving the highest responses, the deputy

principals the next highest, and the teachers the lowest. While it was

perhaps possible that the deputy principals responded at a lower rate to that

of the principals due to less experience in a leadership role, this line of

reasoning does not necessarily extend to the teacher group of participants.

Teachers were asked to respond specifically about the leadership practices

they observed within their school, measuring the frequency of use and the

significance to the school culture. In doing do so, they were referencing the

leadership of the principals and deputy principals. As both the school leaders

and the teachers were referencing the same leadership behaviours, a better

alignment between the average response scores of all three participant

groups might have been expected. This inconsistency confused the

relationship between these leadership practices promoted by the MoE and

their implementation in Brunei secondary schools, as different stakeholders

appeared to have experienced them in different ways.

In further consideration of these four themes, there was some clear

crossover between the leadership practices that combined to make up each

one. Within the theme of stakeholder engagement there was an emphasis on

the school leader actively listening to and including within their decision

making, the views of the stakeholders, a group, which of course, included

the teachers. This was echoed within the theme of emotional intelligence

where the leadership practices involved the school leader empathising with

the views of others and the importance of communication was promoted.

The theme of distributed leadership focused on empowering the teachers to take on positions of leadership, where again their voice could be heard. Therefore, there was a discrepancy in the way the teacher participant group and the two school leader participant groups understood, interpreted, or experienced leadership practices linked to stakeholder voice. This potentially extended to the final theme of management, which included the leadership practice of resourcing according to priorities. While this leadership theme did not reference stakeholders directly, it was possible that in their questionnaires teachers responded as they did because they were not confident that their voices were heard within this process. Whatever the case, while school leaders responded positively to both the significance of and the frequency in which they used the leadership practices of the themes: stakeholder engagement; emotional intelligence; distributed leadership; and management, the responses of the teachers, while not necessarily negative, were both lower and statistically significantly different. This inconsistency of experience was an area explored in the semi-structured interviews.

7.2.4 Non-explicitly Referenced Theme

The non-explicitly referenced theme, consisted of five leadership practices which were not explicitly referenced in the Curriculum Framework: maintaining a highly visible presence around the school; promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need; balancing the

curriculum between achieving success in examinations and developing the soft skills required for employment; facilitating a teaching community where teachers collaboratively and critically examine their practice in search of improvement; and displaying a readiness to seize opportunities without delay. While it may have been expected that these practices would be ranked lower in both frequency of use and significance, as they were not promoted within this key leadership text, this was not the case. The five leadership practices were spread throughout the rank order of responses, with one in the top five responses of all three participant groups, and one in the bottom five of two participant groups. Further, the non-explicitly referenced theme did not have an outcome of $p<.05$, when the responses of the three participant groups to the items that fell within its coverage, were compared. Therefore, overall, there were no distinct findings for the non-explicitly referenced theme and its five leadership practices. Although interesting, this theme was not addressed in the interview phase as it fell outside the scope of the study.

7.3 Sub-research Question 3: Semi-Structured Interviews

The third sub-research question asked: what is the experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam but promoted by the Ministry of Education? In interpreting the responses given by participants in the semi-structured interviews, discourse analysis

was applied, in which the assumptions made within the participants' answers were identified. Within these assumptions the relative positions and authority of various parties were also identified. It was clear, when considering the responses in this way, that how the leadership practices were utilised depended greatly on who possessed the power to act. In some discourses control rested with the school leaders, while in others, it lay external to them. The experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of the school leadership theories created in cultures external to the country, but promoted by the MoE, was that some practices were supported by discursive frameworks that empowered, while others were hindered by discursive frameworks that left the school leaders powerless.

7.3.1 Empowerment

When asked why the leadership practices in each participant group's top five had been ranked so highly, the participants' responses contained discursive assumptions which positioned the school leaders as skilled and empowered with the authority to act. Thus, in maintaining a positive staff morale the principals and deputy principals were positioned as emotionally intelligent, supportive, and effective communicators. In utilising data to inform decision making, they were positioned as having the authority to make choices and implement actions accordingly. As instructional leaders, they were positioned both as competent in this process and as overseers

checking on their workers. When rewarding teachers, they were positioned as individuals whose positive attention was valued. In maintaining a highly visible presence around school, the school leaders were positioned as monarchs and overseers. These leadership practices were discussed by the semi-structured interview participants, in ways which positioned them as empowered with both competence and authority.

7.3.2 Disempowerment

In contrast to the positions that assigned the school leaders in discourses that empowered, many discursive assumptions from the interviews left the school leaders as disempowered. Missing components such as knowledge, understanding, skills, authority, human resources, and/or time, meant that school leaders were unable to enact various leadership practices. Thus, in utilising academic research to inform decision making, the discursive assumptions positioned the principals and deputy principals as missing both the necessary skills and time to access, synthesise and apply such information. Within the leadership practices contained within the management theme, the school leaders lacked the necessary authority to resource their schools adequately for learning. Regarding the distributed leadership theme, Brunei secondary school leaders were missing the human capital within their schools to enact this approach. Repeatedly the school leaders were positioned as disempowered and unable to engage with leadership practices, because a vital component was missing.

Brunei secondary school leaders were also disempowered in their ability to utilise some leadership practices due to assumptions about the socio-cultural context. Discourses which assumed that teachers had a restricted view of their role within schools, meant that regardless of how significant distributed leadership might be, it was unlikely to be embedded within school practice. Likewise, discourses which assumed that parents understood their role in their child's education to be limited, meant engagement with this stakeholder group, regarding their child's education, was likely to prove difficult. Both missing components and socio-cultural assumptions led to school leaders being positioned as disempowered in their ability to apply certain leadership practices.

7.3.3 Scope and Challenge

In discussing the results of the document analysis earlier in this chapter, I suggested that potentially the broad range of expectations within the Competency Framework, would be difficult for school leaders to enact. With so many competencies, and their associated leadership practices, to meet all the criterion would be challenging. This suggestion is supported by the discursive assumptions which positioned Brunei secondary school leaders as missing the necessary time to engage with leadership practices, regardless of how significant those practices were. This lack of time would suggest that the leadership practices within the Competency Framework were too numerous for all of them to be utilised fully.

The observation regarding the extensive scope and challenge of the Competency Framework and its associated expectations, was also supported by discursive assumptions about missing skills and expertise among the school leaders. It can be suggested that the expectations and associated leadership practices within the Competency Framework were so broad that school leaders were positioned as not possessing the necessary skills to enact them all. The variety within the Competency Framework was potentially too complex for the school leaders to develop skills across all the leadership practices.

7.3.4 Implementation Gap

The questionnaire results suggested the possibility of an implementation gap. This possibility was also supported by the missing components and the aspects of the socio-cultural context which disempowered the school leaders. Missing key components such as skills, knowledge, authority, time, or human resources, might all be considered as factors causing an implementation gap between evidence-based practices, that is the academic theories and their associated practices, and the actual leadership practices of secondary school life in Brunei Darussalam. Socio-cultural contexts restricting the application of leadership practices could also be considered factors supporting an implementation gap. The discursive assumptions surrounding both missing components and socio-cultural contexts, potentially explained the gap between the recognised significance

of the leadership practices and their frequency of use. Although school leaders recognised the significance of the leadership practices promoted by the MoE, discursive assumptions which hindered their ability to enact them, led to an implementation gap.

7.3.5 Relationship with the MoE

The first question of the interview asked the interviewees to comment on why the questionnaire participants responded so often on the middle and the upper end of the Likert scale and less so on the lower end. Many of the participants assumed this was an endorsement of the current state of secondary school leadership in Brunei Darussalam, but an additional discursive assumption was that school leaders, as government servants, had to respond to the expectations set by the MoE. The high responses on the Likert scale were assumed to simply reflect the principals and deputy principals doing so. The secondary school leaders had the power to act, but only in the directions chosen by the MoE. The hierarchical relationship school leaders had with the MoE, and the way it promoted or disrupted the utilisation of leadership practices in the participants' schools, was a theme that reoccurred throughout the interview participants' responses.

Another discursive assumption, in response to this initial question, also highlighted the authority of the MoE. It was assumed that the questionnaire participants responded in a manner which made them feel safe. Under this discursive assumption, school leaders responded in the middle and upper

end of the Likert scale, particularly with responses of three and four, because this would protect them if the MoE scrutinised the results. This assumption positioned the school leaders under the pervasive authority of the MoE. Within this discursive assumption the school leaders were worried enough about the expectations of the MoE, that rather than respond in the context of their actual experiences within their schools, they chose instead to answer in the context of what they thought would be safe. It was assumed therefore, that the school leaders needed to protect themselves in case individual results were shared with the MoE, despite questionnaire participants being assured that this would not happen.

The assumption that questionnaire responses represented safety, rather than accuracy, was supported at times by contradictions between the statistics of the questionnaire and the responses to the interview questions. As an example, there were four leadership practices within the theme, shared vision: creating and communicating a shared vision, as well as gaining buy in from, and fostering a sense of ownership for stakeholders. The responses in the questionnaire, across all three participant groups, indicated that most of these practices occurred within Brunei secondary schools somewhere between sometimes and frequently. The assumptions within some of the semi-structured interview responses however, suggested that these practices did not happen at all, as school leaders either lacked the authority or expertise to make changes to the school vision. Indeed, two of

the participants both referenced their own school visions remaining static for 15 years. Another participant described their attempts to introduce a vision specific to their school, as being overwhelmed by the MoE's vision of academic achievement. In this context, the responses to the questionnaire items, under the theme of shared vision, seemed to be inflated and could be considered as being safe rather than accurate.

If it were the case that responses in the questionnaire were given in the context of safety rather than accuracy, this would afford a far greater significance to the variation evidenced in the questionnaire data. In particular, the lower ranked leadership practices may in fact have occurred less frequently and been less significant, as the respondents protected themselves with responses of three and four. Those leadership practices in the bottom five of each participant group's average responses, may have occurred even less than indicated. If this was the case, it would also increase the importance of the interview process as a way of clarifying the actual experiences of the Brunei secondary school leaders. While the questionnaire provided broad outlines of key themes, the semi-structured interviews afforded far greater clarity as to the intricacies of those themes. However, if this discursive assumption was carried through to its natural conclusion, there would have been no school leader responses on the lower end of the scales, no responses of five, which was the highest point of the scale, and very limited variation between items. This was not the case, suggesting this

discursive assumption was reduced in its application. What can be suggested from this discursive assumption, was that the authority of the MoE, for at least some of the Brunei secondary school leaders, was both pervasive and palpable.

Instructional leadership and evidenced based decision making, were two leadership practices supported in Brunei secondary schools through the authority of the MoE. Regarding instructional leadership, the principals and deputy principals were empowered to enact this leadership approach, as one of the discursive assumptions positioned them in doing so, as responding to expectations set out by the MoE. With reference to utilising school data to inform decision making, the participant responses to this leadership practice were almost unique within the interview, as they spawned a single assumption, consistent across the participants. This was that school leaders were empowered to act upon school data to bring about school improvement. Unlike instructional leadership, no reference was made within this discursive assumption to the MoE. It should be noted however, that the *2018-2022 Ministry of Education Strategic Plan,* (Strategic Enterprise Performance and Delivery Unit, 2019) listed two cross-cutting enablers to achieve its strategic objectives, one of which was big data, "Data will be collected, organised, analysed and interpreted into a body of useful information for evidence-based decision making at every level" (p. 15). So even when not specifically mentioned by the interview participants, the

influence of the MoE was still present. The authority granted by the MoE supported the implementation of instructional leadership and evidence-based decision making within Brunei secondary schools.

7.3.6 Hierarchy

In some discursive assumptions the same hierarchy that positioned the MoE above the school leaders, extended to place the teachers below the school leaders. School leaders were often positioned in a supervisory role, checking on the conduct and standards of their teachers. This was the case in discourses associated with the leadership practices protecting instructional time, and maintaining a highly visible presence, as well as with various references to instructional leadership. School leaders were also in a position of authority, as the individuals who rewarded teachers who performed well. The hierarchy supported the utilisation of these leadership practices.

There were also leadership practices which were hindered in their implementation, because of the hierarchy within schools and the MoE. Thus, as discussed earlier, within the context of establishing, sharing, and embedding a school vision, the authority to act was relinquished by the school leaders to the MoE. The MoE vision and indeed that of the nation, Wawasan 2035, took precedence and school leaders did not feel they had the authority to act within the context of their individual schools. Discursive assumptions around the theme of stakeholder engagement, also positioned school leaders as unable to support their teachers due to the hierarchical

relationship with the MoE. This lack of support occurred in two ways. On one level, school leaders were unable to shield their teachers from requests from the MoE for data, and the completion of other tasks that were set with short deadlines. On another, school leaders were unable to pursue the ideas of their teachers, regardless of their value, as they lacked authorisation from the MoE. The hierarchical structure of the MoE and the school leader's position within it, impacted on the latter's ability to implement certain leadership practices. At times this was supportive, but at other times it was limiting.

7.3.7 Proactive Decisions

There were also limited occasions when discursive assumptions suggested that leadership practices were not utilised, due to proactive decisions made by the school leaders. In response to utilising academic research to inform decision making, the school leaders were positioned as proactively prioritising school data over information from external sources. The latter was positioned as having less relevance to their schools and thereby the school leaders made a conscious choice not to engage with this practice. Another discursive assumption, regarding promoting teachers as researchers, positioned the school leaders as making a decision to support teacher well-being, by not engaging with this practice. The school leaders felt such engagement would overwhelm their already busy teachers. There

were instances where leadership practices were not utilised, because of discursive assumptions in which the leaders were empowered.

7.3.8 Perspective

When discussing the statistically significant differences between the responses of the teachers and those of the school leaders, for the four leadership themes: stakeholder engagement; distributed leadership; emotional intelligence; and management, a further assumption offered by the secondary school leader interview participants across all these themes, was that the understanding of the teachers was limited to teaching. Therefore, the interview participants felt that the teachers did not understand situations from the broader context of whole school leadership. Related to this, some of the school leaders talked about the teachers not valuing or needing to use leadership practices such as emotional intelligence in their role as teachers, and thus this was a reason the teachers offered lower questionnaire responses. In addition, regarding distributed leadership, a discursive assumption positioned the teacher participants in the questionnaire as those not involved with such responsibilities, leading to them giving lower responses. In the stakeholder engagement theme, the lower teacher responses were explained through the assumption that school leaders could not support all their teachers and as such perhaps those involved with the questionnaire were those who had missed out and therefore did not see this leadership practice happening within their school.

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In the penultimate question of the semi-structured interviews, some interviewees expressed their surprise at the gap between what the school leaders experienced regarding these leadership practices and what their teachers did. However, on no occasion within the interviews, did the school leaders question their understanding of their delivery of stakeholder engagement, distributed leadership, emotional intelligence, and management skills. In terms of the experience of school leadership for Brunei secondary school leaders, in the context of these particular school leadership practices promoted by the MoE, there was a gap in perception between the school leaders and the teachers.

7.4 Outcomes of the Transfer Process

To conclude this chapter, potential outcomes of transferring external leadership theories into the Brunei Darussalam secondary school system, are considered. Based on the literature review (see Chapter 2), the possible outcomes included a failure to embed the theories at all within Brunei Darussalam secondary schools (Qian & Walker, 2014), or the adaptation of the theories to better fit within the Brunei Darussalam socio-cultural context (Hallinger 2018). There were also the possibilities of challenging existing discursive assumptions to ensure the theories and their associated practices could be applied without restriction (Chew & Andrews, 2010), or the complete integration of the theories into the leadership of Brunei Darussalam secondary schools supported by the existing socio-cultural

context (Pan, 2014). The findings of this research suggest alignment with some of these outcomes, but not with others.

7.4.1 Failing to Embed

New reforms were introduced to challenge the exam driven culture in Shanghai (Qian & Walker, 2014), but were found to be superficial, as they failed to disrupt the underlying assumptions surrounding centralised examinations. In the context of this research in Brunei Darussalam, the leadership practices from the Competency Framework were also promoted nationally, but without challenging discursive assumptions that undermined the potential of some of these practices for internalisation. Thus, while the Competency Framework was committed to creating and embedding an individual school vision, the semi-structured interviews suggested that in actual professional practice, there was at best, a surface level acknowledgement of this expectation that failed to reach a level of enactment. Restrictive underlying socio-cultural assumptions were not addressed and so this theory of school leadership failed to embed.

7.4.2 Application with Adaptation

Distributed leadership with Thai characteristics (Hallinger, 2018), recognised that the traditional Western understanding of the theory of distributed leadership would not fit within the hierarchical context of Thai society. It was an adaptation that allowed the school system in Thailand to apply some aspects of distributed leadership. However, in this research

there was no evidence of adaptation resembling that described by Hallinger. The leadership theories and their associated practices promoted within the Competency Framework, were described as being implemented in ways ranging from comprehensively to surface level acknowledgement. While assumptions were made as to why some leadership practices were used more frequently, or considered more significant, within Brunei secondary education, none of the participants described adaptations to the leadership practices to allow them to utilise them more effectively within the Brunei socio-cultural context.

7.4.3 Challenging Discursive Assumptions

In order for the theory of teacher leadership and its associated practices to be transferred to a Singaporean secondary school (Chew and Andrews, 2010), a change was required not only to the systems within the school, but in fact to the socio-cultural context under which the school operated. Similarly, it may be suggested that in order for some of those leadership theories, and their associated practices, promoted within the Competency Framework, to be fully utilised within Brunei Darussalam secondary schools, existing discursive assumptions would need to be challenged at all levels. As an example, promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need, will only be successfully internalised if the discursive assumptions surrounding the role of the teacher can be challenged and revised.

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The semi-structured interview participants consistently highlighted the impact of the MoE's authority, and the resultant hierarchy, on the way they did, or did not, utilise certain leadership practices. Brunei secondary school leaders were often disempowered, and certain school leadership practices, such as acting on teacher suggestions in stakeholder engagement, failed to be embedded. Discursive assumptions which are potentially restrictive to some leadership practices, would have to be both recognised and challenged, for them to transfer successfully into Brunei secondary schools.

7.4.4 Full Internalisation

Pan (2014) identified creating a school vision, as an aspect of fostering a PLC, that Taiwanese school leaders embedded successfully due to it being a long-standing government expectation. Similarly, within the Brunei Darussalam secondary school leadership there were instances where leadership theories were fully internalised because the surrounding socio-cultural context supported them. Instructional leadership was reported as occurring in Brunei secondary schools because it was assumed the MoE expected it to be used. The discursive assumptions that surrounded the various transferred leadership theories, and their associated practices, needed to be supportive in order for the latter to be internalised.

7.5 Summary

From the document analysis of the Brunei Darussalam School Leadership Competency Framework, it was clear that the MoE had chosen to

promote a broad range of school leadership theories, developed in cultures external to their own. While some of these theories integrated effectively others were more dissonant. In addition, some of these leadership theories were impacted by the Brunei Darussalam socio-cultural context, and as such only had partial representation.

The questionnaire data suggested variability in the relationship between those school leadership theories created in cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, but promoted by the MoE, and the leadership practices implemented in Brunei secondary schools. Some leadership practices were reported as being used more frequently and being more significant than others. Further, while the significance of the leadership practices presented in the questionnaire was acknowledged by participants, their frequency of use did not always match with this, suggesting the possibility of an implementation gap for some of these practices. In addition, the teachers' experiences of certain leadership practices did not match with that of the school leaders, as the former often rated the frequency of implementation of the practice, or significance of it, lower than that of their leader colleagues. This confused what the actual implementation of these specific practices was and obfuscated the relationship between these practices and what actually happened within Brunei secondary schools.

The semi-structured interview responses indicated that the hierarchy in which the Brunei Darussalam secondary school leaders operated,

empowered them to enact certain leadership practices but restricted them in their attempts to utilise others. The school leaders were further restricted by discursive assumptions that positioned them as missing essential components or working within contexts in which they had no control. The school leadership theories created in external cultures, but promoted by the MoE, were not simply transferred into Brunei Darussalam secondary schools, without incident. Instead, local discourses either supported or impeded those theories from being embedded. The experiences of the Brunei secondary school leaders show that in the context of these discourses, leadership practices were utilised in ways that ranged from full application to surface level recognition. However, adaptation of leadership theories to better suit the socio-cultural context or challenges to discursive assumptions which might restrict the transfer of leadership theories, did not occur. Having discussed the results that emerged from the three phases of this mixed methods research, in the context of their respective sub-research questions, the final chapter addresses the overarching research question.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

This chapter reaches a conclusion regarding the overarching research question: How well do school leadership theories created in other cultures transfer to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam? It also considers possible implications for the process of transferring academic theories of education, and their associated practices, from one socio-cultural context to another. Finally, both limitations to the current research and potential areas for future research, are discussed.

8.1 Overarching Research Question

The results of sub-research question one, concluded that the MoE promoted a broad range of leadership theories and their associated practices, within the Competency Framework, that originated in cultures external to their own. From sub-research question two, it was concluded that the relationship between those leadership theories, their associated leadership practices, and the professional practice within Brunei secondary schools varied according to the practice in question. For some leadership practices the relationship was stronger than it was for others, as some were utilised more frequently or considered more significant, than their counterparts. Finally, from sub-research question three, it was concluded that the experience of Brunei secondary school leaders, with these leadership practices promoted by the MoE, was dependent on how the discursive assumptions made by the school leaders positioned the

stakeholders involved. More specifically, the experiences were dependent on whether the school leaders themselves were positioned with the authority, skills, time, and resources to act, with the former often coming from the MoE. If the discursive assumptions positioned the school leader as lacking an essential component or subject to socio-cultural contextual forces beyond their control, then the leadership practice was unlikely to be utilised.

From these three sub-research questions, the following overall conclusion can be reached for this research, that is, some school leadership theories created in other cultures transferred to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam very well, while others did not. Decision making based on school data, or some practices of instructional leadership, transferred successfully, as school leaders were empowered to enact these through the authority of the MoE. Other leadership practices, such as creating a vision for the school or parent engagement in their child's education, were hindered by discursive assumptions that positioned the principal as powerless to act. This variation occurred therefore, because of the impact of the various discursive assumptions and the way they positioned key stakeholders. The key ideas that can be extrapolated from this conclusion and applied beyond the context of Brunei Darussalam, are considered next. In particular, there are implications from this research for the process of transfer of academic theories from one education system to another.

8.2 Transference of Academic Theories

The findings of this research support the assertion that local contextual factors of the receiving education system need to be explored in detail before academic theories are transferred and their practices applied in schools. More specifically, the findings suggested that those discursive assumptions which will impact on the transferred theories of education, need to be identified and considered carefully, before the associated practices are fully introduced. This can only occur if the stakeholders who will be asked to implement the new initiatives, or will be affected by them, are consulted before adoption. The findings of this research would suggest that failure to do so, will result in the same situation as existed with school leaders in Brunei Darussalam secondary schools. That is, some of the academic theories and their associated practices will be fully internalised, while others will be far less utilised. Regardless of the perceived significance or veracity of a school leadership theory and its associated practices, there will be occurrences where discursive assumptions simply will not support internalisation.

While this research was limited to the Brunei Darussalam secondary school system and thus any implications beyond that system must be considered with extreme care, it can be suggested that the wholesale transfer of academic theories of education, without careful consideration of local discursive assumptions, will mean that at least some of those practices

will fail to embed. Governments and organisations need to investigate the experiences of their own stakeholders, at the level of practice, before they attempt to embed theories transferred from other socio-cultural contexts. Only once they understand the discursive forces operating at ground level, will governments be able to make informed decisions about what to transfer and how best to internalise it. In the words of Sadler (1900, quoted in Higginson, 1979),

> We cannot wander at pleasure among the educational systems of the world, like a child strolling through a garden, and pick off a flower from one bush and some leaves from another, and then expect that if we stick what we have gathered into the soil at home, we shall have a living plant. (p. 49)

8.3 System of Transfer

The ultimate goal of any transfer process between education systems, must be for the theory, and its associated practices, to be fully internalised and operating effectively within the receiving system. To achieve such a goal, before external theories are selected and implemented, the socio-cultural context must be considered. There must be an understanding of local discursive assumptions and how they position stakeholders. Building upon the findings of this research, a process is proposed as a way of optimising outcomes in the transfer of academic theories, and their associated practices, between education systems (see Figure 8.1).

Figure 8.1

Transfer of Education Theories Through Discourse Analysis

EXTERNAL SYSTEM

RECEIVING SYSTEM

SOCIO-CULTURAL CONTEXT

THEORY

Selection

Implementation

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

- Identify stakeholders
- Interview stakeholders
- Identify assumptions & positions
- Identify who has the power to act

Evaluation

Reject, Adapt, Challenge or Implement
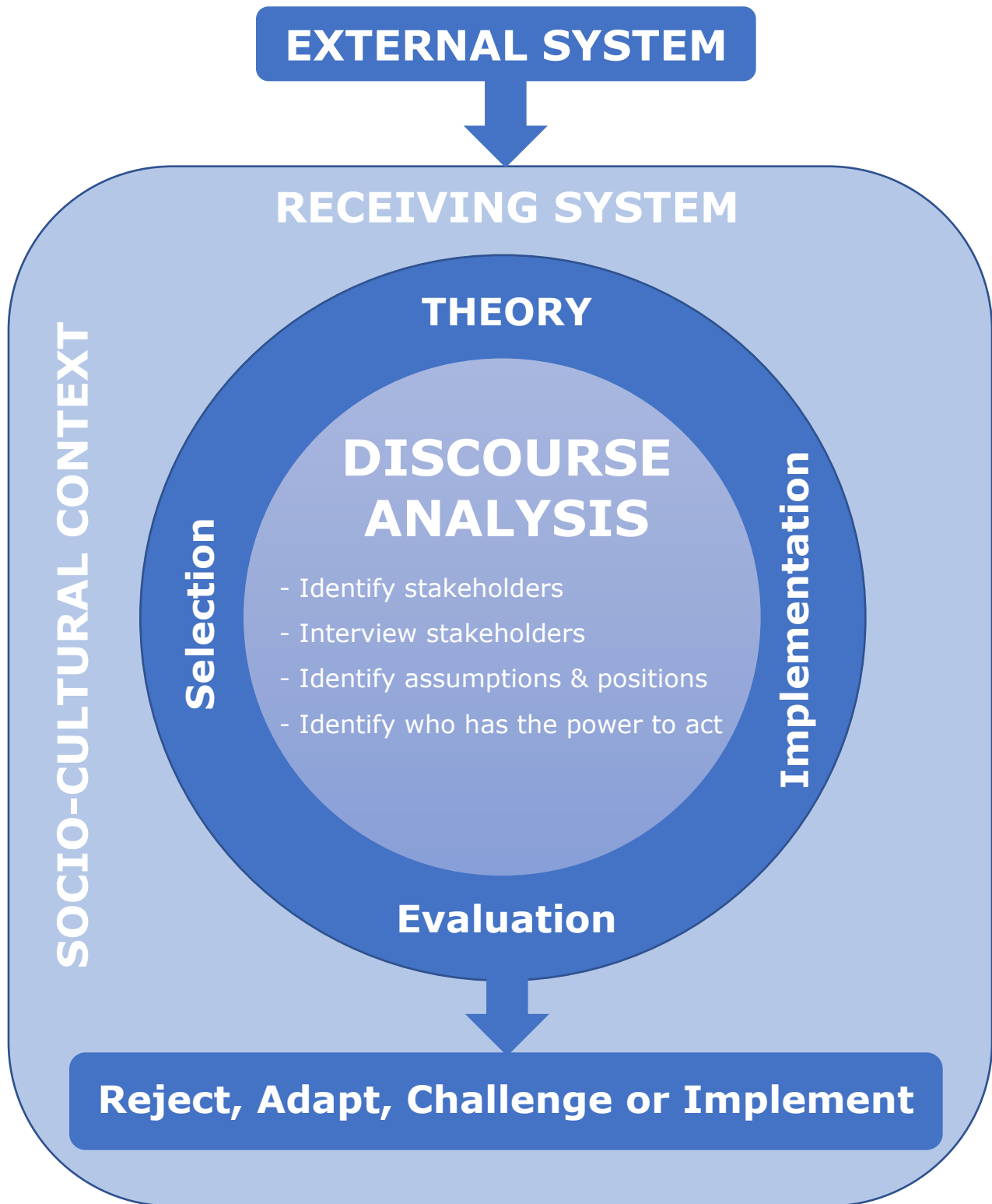
Central to the process, represented in Figure 8.1 is discourse analysis. Within the process it is assumed that system leaders have identified the area they need to develop within their education system. Rather than address this by immediately selecting and transferring perceived international good practice, the leaders of the receiving system instead implement an earlier step. The leaders identify the local discursive assumptions that surround the area for development. They are then able to acknowledge the positions in which the key stakeholders are placed and who is endowed with the power to act.

The form of discourse analysis utilised in this research was a powerful tool that uncovered some of the hierarchies and power assignations that were in operation within Brunei Darussalam secondary schools, and their impact on which leadership practices were and which were not internalised. Therefore, the discourse analysis in the proposed system occurs through a formal process of interviews and discourse analysis, similar to that utilised in this research. A representative sample of the practitioners, and other stakeholders involved at the level of implementation for the area for development, are interviewed, and their responses analysed discursively. Leaders are therefore placed in the role of a listener, and the importance of stakeholder voice is enhanced. Thus, the value of knowledge within the transfer process may need to be reassessed, with local discursive assumptions given increased significance. Equipped with an understanding of

the relevant discursive assumptions, the leaders are then in an informed position with which to select the external theory that might both address their area for development, and transfer effectively into their socio-cultural context.

This process of discourse analysis does not however, occur only once within the system, but is repetitive at all stages of selection, implementation, and evaluation. Indeed, this central process occurs as often as required. After selection of the theory to be transferred, but prior to any implementation, discourse analysis is again completed, this time focussing on the selected external theory, and its associated practices. Relevant background discourses, and the power relations within them, are again identified, as well as their potential impact on the practices to be introduced. Discourse analysis also takes place during the implementation stage, as a way of evaluating the effectiveness of the transfer process. Leaders repeatedly listen to the stakeholders at the micro level, to ensure they understand the relevant discursive forces impacting the effective transfer of theories, and their associated practices, into their education systems. Adoption of a transferred theory at a macro level will not necessarily foster success at the micro level of the practitioner, unless relevant discursive assumptions are considered first and acted upon. Once the discursive assumptions surrounding the selected theory have been analysed, leaders of

educational organisations can make informed decisions about how the transfer should continue.

Upon completing the discursive analysis, there are four options for moving forward. The first three operate in a context where the discursive assumptions will impede the internalisation of the theory, and its associated practices, within the receiving system. The first option is simply to reject the theory and abandon the transfer, as the discursive assumptions operating at the micro level are such, that they will not support the internalisation of the theory. The next option is to adapt the theory, and its associated practices, so that it will align with the discursive assumptions that operate within the receiving system. Adaptation of a theory needs to maintain a balance between reflecting the tenets of the original theory, while at the same time acknowledging the requirements of the socio-cultural context. Third, the leaders could decide that the value of the theory, and its associated practices, is so great that the transfer must continue with the theory remaining in its original form. In this instance, the leaders must be proactive in challenging the discursive assumptions that will impede a successful implementation at the micro level. To do so across an education system however, is a difficult undertaking, as it involves challenging accepted and shared understandings of how things are done. The final option, for those instances when the discourse analysis suggests the theory and its associated practices will work well within the discursive assumptions operating at the

micro level, is simply to implement the theory and its associated practices in its original form.

The application of the second and third options were not evident within the findings of this research. However, if leaders of education systems approached the process of transferring academic theories as proposed, they would be in an informed position. This would allow them to proactively implement either an adaptation of the theory, or a challenge to the impeding discursive assumptions, in a planned and structured manner. If leaders of education systems were to interview education practitioners and other key stakeholders about their experiences, and to analyse the responses for discursive assumptions and positioning, they would be in a far better position to either select and implement initiatives which would transfer into their systems effectively, or to conduct preparatory work to lay the foundations for a successful transfer. Without analysing the discursive assumptions that exist at the micro level, some theories may embed successfully but others will be addressed only at the level of the superficial. Without recognising the power these discursive assumptions have in positioning stakeholders, either with or without the authority to act, the leaders are engaging in the transfer process unable to make an informed decision. A system with discourse analysis at its centre reduces the unknown element and makes the transfer process much more effective.

8.4 Limitations of this Research

As with any academic study, there are limitations to this current research. Both of the qualitative stages in the three-phase mixed methods research design required interpretation by myself as the researcher. The document analysis required backward mapping, starting with the leadership practices detailed in the Competency Framework and from this identifying possible academic theories of school leadership, upon which the expectations of the document were founded. As already noted in Chapter 4, within this activity there was potential for debate concerning the identification of the most appropriate leadership theories. In the semi-structured interviews, I interpreted the participant data in terms of both discursive assumptions and the consequent positioning. Both these phases of the research design relied on the interpretations of myself as a lone researcher, with all my biases, and while I endeavoured to ensure the accuracy of my findings by checking them with key stakeholders, this process could have been enhanced if a team had interpreted the data together. Such collaboration would have introduced a variety of perspectives and therefore possibly have resulted in a more inclusive set of data.

In the questionnaire phase the analysis of the data was completed at a basic level. While this could be seen as a limitation of the research, it needs to be considered in the context of the mixed methods research design. The information to emerge from the questionnaire phase was explored within the

semi-structured interviews. Thus, it needed to be simple enough to allow the semi-structured interview participants to be able to access it. The questionnaire data, and its analysis, were tools for accessing the discursive assumptions surrounding those leadership theories originating external to Brunei Darussalam but promoted by the MoE. Within this role, basic statistical analysis was all that was required.

While the significantly high participant rates for the questionnaire phase may be considered a strength of this research, the size of the interview participant cohort could be considered a limitation. The group itself was a highly representative sample of the questionnaire participants but could have been extended to either broaden the range of discursive assumptions being presented or to confirm those already shared. However, in a small education system, the six interview participants provided representation from 18.75% of the total number of schools, and thus could be deemed adequate.

Finally, the context of this research was a small Islamic sultanate of less than half a million people. A further potential limitation to the research therefore, concerns whether aspects of the findings can be applied to other settings. While it has been suggested in Section 8.3 that it is possible to do so, it is also acknowledged that further study is required to confirm this. Recommendations as to the form that study could take, are discussed in the following section.

8.5 Recommendations for Further Research

The leadership theories identified in the Competency Framework, the questionnaire responses of the secondary school leaders and teachers, and the discursive assumptions of the semi-structured interview participants, all need to be considered within the context of secondary education within Brunei Darussalam. However, further research into wider contexts is also stimulated by this research, and two recommendations are proposed.

The first recommendation for further research would be for similar processes to those described within this thesis to be used to research the transference of school leadership theories into other socio-cultural settings. Once again, both the discursive assumptions and the positions in which they place stakeholders, would need to be examined. If the same research question was considered in new contexts, it could be discovered whether the findings of this research were unique to Brunei Darussalam, or whether discursive assumptions made by school leaders in other settings, also impacted on the transference of external academic theories, and their associated leadership practices.

A second recommendation for further research, would be to apply the proposed process of transferring theories from an external system to a receiving system, for areas of identified need beyond school leadership. Such research could discover whether discourse analysis identifies the impact on the implementation and internalisation of other education

practices, transferred from external sources. The application of this version of discourse analysis, focussed on the assumptions of the practitioners at the micro level, could potentially enhance understandings of why the practices of a transferred education theory become ignored, recognised but not embedded, or fully internalised.

8.6 Reflection

Reflecting on this research process, it has confirmed for me the importance of accessing understanding at the micro level before implementing initiatives at the macro level. It has also confirmed the power of discourse analysis to provide clarity. As someone working within the Brunei Darussalam secondary education system, I was aware that external theories, and their associated practices, have at times failed to embed within the professional practice of Brunei Darusslam secondary school leaders. The process of discourse analysis however, brought clarity concerning the reasons why this occurred. Listening to colleagues within the semi-structured interviews provided extensive insight into the discursive assumptions that were made and how these positioned stakeholders. The dynamics of the power relations, which previously operated in the background, were now revealed, and made clear.

My position of operating within the Brunei Darussalam secondary education system, but at the same time being external to it, granted me a contextual understanding that I feel enhanced the success of this research.

This was true of all the data collection phases and of my interactions with the Ministry of Education, but particularly with regard to the semi-structured interviews. I had credibility within the participants' system. They knew I had similar experiences to their own and could understand the various contextual aspects they described. This seemed to encourage their commitment towards sharing their experiences and views.

The mixed methods research design provided understanding, in the context of the overarching research question, at a level that could not have been achieved by any one of the three phases working in isolation. Through the combination of these three research approaches, it was possible to drill down beneath the surface level and better understand the position of the school leaders, with respect to enacting various leadership practices. From this experience, I now feel that questionnaire data, achieved through Likert scales, is of limited value without subsequent interviews to follow up on key quantitative findings. Without the semi-structured interviews, the questionnaire data, although powerful, would not have provided the same insights as to how well different leadership theories transferred into the Brunei Darussalam secondary schools. The mixed methods research design, although challenging to enact, provided access to a rich and broad collection of data that allowed me to respond to the overarching research question.

8.7 Summary

This research suggests that school leadership theories, and their associated practices, from cultures external to Brunei Darussalam, transferred into the government secondary schools in accordance with the discursive assumptions that surrounded them. In those instances where school leaders were positioned with the power to act, these practices were embedded. Conversely, when leaders were positioned as disempowered, leadership theories were not internalised. Further, the research contributed to an understanding of how discursive assumptions impact the process of transferring academic theories of education, and their associated practices, as it suggests that without understanding these assumptions and the position in which they place stakeholders, leaders of the receiving system are unlikely to be able to transfer the policy successfully. They are unlikely to achieve a state in which all aspects of the theory will be internalised and operate effectively.

Throughout the transfer process, leaders of education systems must utilise discourse analysis to access understanding at the micro level of practitioners and other key stakeholders. Further, if after gathering this information from the key stakeholders, they remain committed to implementing an academic theory from an external source, then they may have to either adapt the theory or challenge any existing discursive assumptions that might impede its internalisation. Academic theories, and

their associated practices, cannot simply be transferred with internalisation guaranteed. Socio-cultural context, and the discursive assumptions that position key stakeholders as either empowered or disempowered, will dictate what transfers effectively and what does not. If this key information is accessed before, during and after the transfer of any education theory, and its associated practices, the receiving system will be better placed to make informed decisions.

8.8 Conclusion

Education leaders must recognise that education systems are not neutral, they are not vacuums free from context. In transferring education theories from one setting to another, the leaders must act with an understanding of the discursive assumptions that will support or impede that transfer. Such understanding is accessed through the process of discourse analysis, which provides insight at the micro level, to the otherwise invisible barriers that impact upon the internalisation of theories transferred from external sources.

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APPENDIX A

DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING
DEVELOPMENT AND RESEARCH
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
BANDAR SERI BEGAWAN BB3510
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بندر سري بڬاون BB3510
نڬارا بروني دارالسلام

Rujukan Kami : KP/DP/M/67.1
Our Reference

04th March 2020

To
Mr Matthew Eric Letham
Principal
Sports School
Ministry of Education
Negara Brunei Darussalam.

To Whom It May Concern,

This is to acknowledge the request for permission to conduct research from Mr Matt Letham with respects to his PhD Study in the University of Southern Queensland, through a meeting and presentation session on 22nd February 2020 (Minutes of Meeting attached).

The Department of Research and Planning, under the Ministry of Education, Brunei Darussalam, hereby gives permission for Matthew Eric Letham, to conduct his research with secondary school leaders in Bruneian schools, with the research the question: How well do school leadership theories created in other cultures translate to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam?.

The department understands that while the content of the data must remain confidential, that a copy of the PhD, including its findings, will be made available to them upon the conclusion of the research. Mr Letham will also be available to discuss the findings and will provide a summary report in addition to, in place of, the full study.

Thank you.

Yours Sincerely,

(DR HAZRI BIN HAJI KIFLE)
Director

c.c.
Permanent Secretary (Core Education)
Department of Schools
Department of Educators Management

APPENDIX B

School Leaders Leadership Practices Questionnaire
Soal Selidik Amalan Kepimpinan Pemimpin Sekolah

Completing the questionnaire
Lengkapkan soal selidik

1. This questionnaire is for Brunei secondary school principals and deputy principals. It consists of 50 statements. Each statement describes a leadership practice.

    Soal selidik ini khusus untuk pengetua dan timbalan pengetua sekolah menengah di Brunei Darussalam. Ia mengandungi 50 kenyataan. Setiap kenyataan menerangkan mengenai amalan kepimpinan.

2. There are two scales for each of the 50 statements: scale A and scale B. You are asked to tick one box only under scale A and one box only under scale B for each statement.

    Terdapat dua skala bagi setiap 50 kenyataan iaitu skala A dan skala B. Awda diminta untuk menandakan satu kotak sahaja dalam skala A dan hanya satu kotak dalam skala B bagi setiap kenyataan.

3. Scale A, on the left hand side, asks you how often **you use** the leadership practice described in the statement. Please note there is no right, wrong or expected answer. **You are being asked to reflect on your current leadership practice within school and to respond accordingly**.

    *Skala A, pada sebelah kiri, bertanyakan kepada awda sekerap mana **awda menggunakan** amalan kepimpinan yang diterangkan dalam kenyataan. Sila ambil maklum bahawa tidak ada jawapan yang betul, salah atau yang dijangkakan. **Awda diminta untuk memikirkan kembali amalan kepimpinan yang dilaksanakan dalam sekolah ketika ini dan memberikan respons sewajarnya**.*

4. Scale B, on the right hand side, asks you how significant the leadership practice described in the statement is to **your own practice** in your school. This is asking you whether you feel the leadership practice is an important part of your professional conduct or less so. Again, there is no

right, wrong or expected answer. **You are being asked to reflect on your current leadership practice within school and to respond accordingly**.

*Skala B, di sebelah kanan, menanyakan kepada awda betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan yang diterangkan pada kenyataan terhadap **amalan awda** di sekolah awda sendiri. Ia menanyakan sama ada awda merasakan amalan kepimpinan tersebut adalah sebahagian penting dalam tingkahlaku profesional awda atau sebaliknya. Sekali lagi, tidak ada jawapan yang betul, salah atau yang dijangkakan. **Awda diminta untuk memikirkan kembali amalan kepimpinan yang dilaksanakan dalam sekolah ketika ini dan memberikan respons sewajarnya.***

5. Please only tick one box for each statement in scale A and one box for each statement in scale B.
   Sila tandakan pada satu kotak sahaja bagi setiap kenyataan dalam skala A dan satu kotak sahaja bagi setiap kenyataan dalam skala B.

6. When you have completed as many of the questionnaire items as you would like to, please check through the questionnaire to make sure you have not accidentally missed any items out. Then when you are satisfied, please indicate you have finished by folding the questionnaire in half, so no text can be seen.
   Apabila awda sudah melengkapkan sebanyak mungkin soalan soal selidik seperti yang awda inginkan, sila menyemak semula soalan selidik untuk memastikan awda tidak terlepas pandang sebarang soalan. Apabila awda sudah berpuas hati, sila lipat borang soal selidik ini menjadi separuh bagi menandakan bahawa awda sudah selesai, dan agar teks jawapan tidak dapat dilihat.

7. When everyone is finished, the questionnaires will be collected one row at a time. Please do not pass your questionnaire down the row, until one of the administrators indicates to do so.
   Apabila semua orang sudah selesai, kesemua borang soal selidik akan dikutip mengikut barisan pada satu masa. Sila jangan berikan borang soal selidik awda ke barisan depan, sehingga salah seorang pentadbir menyuruh demikian.

8. If you have any questions at any time before, during or after the completion of the questionnaire, please do not hesitate to speak to an administrator.

Jika awda mempunyai sebarang soalan sebelum, semasa atau selepas menyelesaikan soal selidik tersebut, sila mengemukakan soalan kepada salah seorang pentadbir.

Are you a principal or a deputy principal?
Adakah awda seorang pengetua atau timbalan pengetua?

Principal *Pengetua*		**Deputy Principal** *Timbalan Pengetua*	

SCALE A / *SKALA A* **How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?** *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*					LEADERSHIP PRACTICES *AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	SCALE B / *SKALA B* **How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*				
1 never *tidak pernah*	**2** rarely *jarang*	**3** sometimes *kadangkala*	**4** frequently *kerap*	**5** very frequently *sangat kerap*		**1** not significant *tidak signifikan*	**2** slightly significant *kurang signifikan*	**3** of some significance *agak signifikan*	**4** significant *signifikan*	**5** very significant *sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	1. **Monitoring teachers' performance** *Memantau prestasi para guru*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	2. **Creating a safe environment for stakeholders to share ideas and support each other in moving the school forward** *Mencipta persekitaran yang selamat bagi para stakeholder untuk berkongsi idea dan menyokong antara satu sama lain untuk kemajuan sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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					3. **Displaying self-awareness of your own strengths and limitations** *Memperlihatkan kesedaran diri mengenai kekuatan dan had sendiri*					
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*	LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE B / *SKALA B*
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	*AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	**How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

1 never *tidak pernah*	2 rarely *jarang*	3 sometimes *kadangkala*	4 frequently *kerap*	5 very frequently *sangat kerap*		1 not significant *tidak signifikan*	2 slightly significant *kurang signifikan*	3 of some significance *agak signifikan*	4 significant *signifikan*	5 very significant *sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	4. **Promoting teachers as researchers to explore solutions to identified areas of need** *Menyokong para guru sebagai penyelidik untuk menerokai pelbagai penyelesaian bagi mengenalpasti bidang-bidang yang perlu*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	5. **Creating a clear vision for the school** *Mencipta satu visi jelas untuk sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

					6. **Empowering others to take on leadership roles** *Memperkasa yang lain untuk mengambil alih peranan kepimpinan*						

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   **6. Empowering others to take on leadership roles** *Memperkasa yang lain untuk mengambil alih peranan kepimpinan*   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   **7. Meeting the needs of all learners** *Memenuhi keperluan kesemua pelajar*   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*	**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES**	**SCALE B / *SKALA B***
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	*AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	**How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

1 never *tidak pernah*	2 rarely *jarang*	3 sometimes *kadangkala*	4 frequently *kerap*	5 very frequently *sangat kerap*		1 not significant *tidak signifikan*	2 slightly significant *kurang signifikan*	3 of some significance *agak signifikan*	4 significant *signifikan*	5 very significant *sangat signifikan*

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   **8. Establishing clear and measurable goals to provide focus for any change process** *Menetapkan matlamat yang jelas dan boleh diukur agar tetap fokus meskipun terdapatnya sebarang perubahan pada proses*   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

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☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	9. **Resourcing according to the school's identified priorities** *Menyediakan sumber berdasarkan kepentingan sekolah yang telah dikenalpasti*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	10. *Observing lessons and providing feedback* *Mencerap pengajaran dan memberikan maklum balas*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*	LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE B / *SKALA B*
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	*AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	**How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

1 never *tidak pernah*	**2** rarely *jarang*	**3** sometimes *kadangkala*	**4** frequently *kerap*	**5** very frequently *sangat kerap*		**1** not significant *tidak signifikan*	**2** slightly significant *kurang signifikan*	**3** of some significance *agak signifikan*	**4** significant *signifikan*	**5** very significant *sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	11. **Basing decisions on the school's vision** *Membuat keputusan berdasarkan pada visi sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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| ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 12. **Working with parents to support learning at home** *Bekerjasama dengan ibu bapa bagi menyokong pembelajaran di rumah* | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

| ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 13. **Solving problems by considering the viewpoints of those involved** *Menyelesaikan masalah dengan mempertimbangkan sebarang pendapat daripada mereka yang terlibat* | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

SCALE A / *SKALA A*					LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE B / *SKALA B*				
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*					*AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	**How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*				
1 never *tidak pernah*	**2** rarely *jarang*	**3** sometimes *kadangkala*	**4** frequently *kerap*	**5** very frequently *sangat kerap*		**1** not significant *tidak signifikan*	**2** slightly significant *kurang signifikan*	**3** of some significance *agak signifikan*	**4** significant *signifikan*	**5** very significant *sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	14. **Facilitating a teaching community where teachers collaboratively and**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

critically examine their practice, in search of improvement
Menyokong komuniti pengajaran di mana para guru bekerjasama dan meneliti amalan mereka dengan kritikal, dalam usaha untuk mencari penambahbaikan

15. **Delegating roles to staff that match with their abilities**
Membahagikan sebarang peranan kepada kakitangan, sesuai dengan kebolehan masing-masing

16. **Creating a sense of shared ownership and purpose amongst the school's stakeholders**
Menimbulkan rasa kebersamaan pada pemilikan dan tujuan dalam kalangan stakeholder sekolah

SCALE A / *SKALA A*	LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE B / *SKALA B*
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	*AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	**How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

SCALE A:
1 never / *tidak pernah*
2 rarely / *jarang*
3 sometimes / *kadangkala*
4 frequently / *kerap*
5 very frequently / *sangat kerap*

SCALE B:
1 not significant / *tidak signifikan*
2 slightly significant / *kurang signifikan*
3 of some significance / *agak signifikan*
4 significant / *signifikan*
5 very significant / *sangat signifikan*

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☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	17. **Modelling good teaching practice for teachers to observe** *Menghasilkan model amalan pengajaran yang baik untuk diikut oleh para guru*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	18. **Communicating key messages effectively** *Penyampaian mesej-mesej penting dengan berkesan*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	19. **Maintaining positive staff morale** *Mengekalkan moral positif dalam kalangan kakitangan*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	20. **Basing decisions on school priorities and goals** *Membuat keputusan berdasarkan kepentingan dan matlamat sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A* How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES** *AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	SCALE B / *SKALA B* How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school? *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
never	rarely	sometimes	frequently	very frequently		not significant	slightly significant	of some significance	significant	very significant
tidak pernah	*jarang*	*kadangkala*	*kerap*	*sangat kerap*		*tidak signifikan*	*kurang signifikan*	*agak signifikan*	*signifikan*	*sangat signifikan*

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☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	21. **Balancing the curriculum between achieving success in examinations and developing the soft skills required for employment** *Mengimbangkan kurikulum antara mencapai kejayaan dalam peperiksaan dan mengembangkan kemahiran insani yang diperlukan untuk mendapatkan pekerjaan*	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	22. **Prioritising resourcing for those students whose learning needs require it most** *Mengutamakan pencarian sumber bagi para pelajar yang sangat memerlukannya dalam pembelajaran mereka*	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	23. **Resolving conflict so that all parties feel listened to and ready to move forward** *Menyelesaikan konflik agar semua pihak merasa dipeduli dan bersedia untuk bergerak ke depan*	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

| **SCALE A / *SKALA A*** **How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?** *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?* | **LEADERSHIP PRACTICES** *AMALAN KEPIMPINAN* | **SCALE B / *SKALA B*** **How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?* |

1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
never	**rarely**	**sometimes**	**frequently**	**very frequently**		**not significant**	**slightly significant**	**of some significance**	**significant**	**very significant**
tidak pernah	*jarang*	*kadangkala*	*kerap*	*sangat kerap*		*tidak signifikan*	*kurang signifikan*	*agak signifikan*	*signifikan*	*sangat signifikan*

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	24. **Setting challenging targets to bring about school improvement** *Menetapkan sasaran yang mencabar dengan tujuan untuk memberikan penambahbaikan pada sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	25. **Utilising academic research to inform decision making** *Menggunakan kajian akademik bagi sebarang pengumuman sesuatu keputusan*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	26. **Creating a physical environment conducive to good pedagogy and successful learning** *outcomes Mencipta satu persekitaran fizikal kondusif untuk pedagogi yang baik dan hasil pembelajaran yang berjaya*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*	LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE B / *SKALA B*
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES** *AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	**How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
never	**rarely**	**sometimes**	**frequently**	**very frequently**		**not significant**	**slightly significant**	**of some significance**	**significant**	**very significant**
tidak pernah	*jarang*	*kadangkala*	*kerap*	*sangat kerap*		*tidak signifikan*	*kurang signifikan*	*agak signifikan*	*signifikan*	*sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	27. **Fostering leadership potential in staff members** *Memupuk potensi kepimpinan dalam kalangan kakitangan*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	28. **Providing opportunities for stakeholders to have access to you as a school leader** *Menyediakan peluang kepada stakeholder agar mempunyai akses kepada awda sebagai pemimpin sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	29. **Gaining stakeholder buy in to the school's shared vision** *Meraih stakeholder untuk menerima visi sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A* **How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?** *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES** *AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	SCALE B / *SKALA B* **How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
never	rarely	sometimes	frequently	very frequently		not significant	slightly significant	of some significance	significant	very significant
tidak pernah	*jarang*	*kadangkala*	*kerap*	*sangat kerap*		*tidak signifikan*	*kurang signifikan*	*agak signifikan*	*signifikan*	*sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**30. Identifying the underlying causes of a problematic situation in order to foster change** *Mengenalpasti punca sebenar permasalahan demi menggalakkan perubahan*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**31. Rewarding teachers who perform well** *Memberi penghargaan kepada para guru yang melaksanakan tugas dengan cemerlang*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**32. Creating and delivering professional development** *Mencipta dan menyampaikan perkembangan profesional*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?
Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

AMALAN KEPIMPINAN

SCALE B / *SKALA B*
How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?
Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?

1 never *tidak pernah*	2 rarely *jarang*	3 sometimes *kadangkala*	4 frequently *kerap*	5 very frequently *sangat kerap*	LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	1 not significant *tidak signifikan*	2 slightly significant *kurang signifikan*	3 of some significance *agak signifikan*	4 significant *signifikan*	5 very significant *sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	33. **Protecting instructional time to ensure learning takes place as much as possible** *Melindungi masa pengajaran bagi memastikan pembelajaran dilaksanakan sebanyak mungkin*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	34. **Listening actively to stakeholders** *Mendengar pendapat para stakeholder secara aktif*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	35. **Displaying a readiness to seize opportunities without delay** *Memperlihatkan kesediaan untuk merebut peluang tanpa berlengah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	36. **Empathising with the position of different stakeholders** *Memahami kedudukan stakeholder yang berbeza*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?
Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

AMALAN KEPIMPINAN

SCALE B / *SKALA B*
How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?
Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?

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1 never *tidak pernah*	2 rarely *jarang*	3 sometimes *kadangkala*	4 frequently *kerap*	5 very frequently *sangat kerap*	LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	1 not significant *tidak signifikan*	2 slightly significant *kurang signifikan*	3 of some significance *agak signifikan*	4 significant *signifikan*	5 very significant *sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	37. **Prioritising resourcing to ensure equity for students from disadvantaged backgrounds** *Mengutamakan pencarian sumber untuk memastikan ekuiti bagi para pelajar yang mempunyai latar belakang yang sukar*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	38. **Incorporating stakeholder views into the organisation of the school** *Menggabungkan pandangan stakeholder dalam organisasi sekolah tersebut*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	39. **Utilising student data to adapt and improve pedagogy** *Menggunakan data pelajar untuk menyesuaikan dan meningkatkan pedagogi*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?
Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

AMALAN KEPIMPINAN

SCALE B / *SKALA B*
How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?
Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?

1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
never	rarely	sometimes	frequently	very frequently		not significant	slightly significant	of some significance	significant	very significant
tidak pernah	*jarang*	*kadangkala*	*kerap*	*sangat kerap*		*tidak signifikan*	*kurang signifikan*	*agak signifikan*	*signifikan*	*sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	40. **Empowering others to take initiative** *Memperkasa yang lain untuk mengambil inisiatif*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	41. **Maintaining a highly visible presence around the school** *Mengekalkan keberadaan yang jelas di sekitar sekolah*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	42. **Successfully influencing others to move forward in a new direction** *Berjaya mempengaruhi yang lain untuk bergerak pada satu haluan yang baru*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	43. **Communicating the school vision with stakeholders** *Berkomunikasi mengenai visi sekolah bersama para stakeholder*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*	LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE B / *SKALA B*
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES** *AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	**How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

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1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
never	rarely	sometimes	frequently	very frequently		not significant	slightly significant	of some significance	significant	very significant
tidak pernah	*jarang*	*kadangkala*	*kerap*	*sangat kerap*		*tidak signifikan*	*kurang signifikan*	*agak signifikan*	*signifikan*	*sangat signifikan*

44. **Acting upon feedback from monitoring teachers' performance**
Bertindak terhadap maklum balas berdasarkan pemantauan prestasi para guru

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

45. **Meeting with teachers to guide and improve their pedagogy**
Mesyuarat bersama guru bagi membimbing dan meningkatkan pedagogi mereka

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

46. **Responding appropriately to different stakeholders so they feel listened to and involved**
Memberikan respons sewajarnya kepada para stakeholder agar mereka rasa diambil peduli dan terlibat sama

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A*	**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES**	**SCALE B / *SKALA B***
How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices? *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	***AMALAN KEPIMPINAN***	**How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
never	**rarely**	**sometimes**	**frequently**	**very frequently**		**not significant**	**slightly significant**	**of some significance**	**significant**	**very significant**
tidak pernah	*jarang*	*kadangkala*	*kerap*	*sangat kerap*		*tidak signifikan*	*kurang signifikan*	*agak signifikan*	*signifikan*	*sangat signifikan*
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**47. Setting challenging targets to bring about improved student outcomes** *Menetapkan sasaran yang mencabar untuk meningkatkan pencapaian pelajar*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**48. Building teams which collaborate together towards a shared purpose** *Menubuhkan beberapa buah pasukan yang bekerjasama ke arah tujuan yang sama*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**49. Utilising leadership potential in staff members** *Memanfaatkan potensi kepimpinan dalam kalangan kakitangan*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SCALE A / *SKALA A* **How often do YOU USE the following leadership practices?** *Sekerap mana AWDA MENGGUNAKAN amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini?*	**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES** *AMALAN KEPIMPINAN*	SCALE B / *SKALA B* **How significant are the following leadership practices to YOUR OWN PRACTICE in your school?** *Betapa pentingnya amalan kepimpinan di bawah ini terhadap AMALAN AWDA di sekolah awda sendiri?*

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1	2	3	4	5
never	rarely	sometimes	frequently	very frequently
tidak pernah	*jarang*	*kadangkala*	*kerap*	*sangat kerap*

1	2	3	4	5
not significant	slightly significant	of some significance	significant	very significant
tidak signifikan	*kurang signifikan*	*agak signifikan*	*signifikan*	*sangat signifikan*

50. **Utilising school data to inform decision making**
Menggunakan data sekolah bagi sebarang pengumuman sesuatu keputusan

APPENDIX C

Participant Information for USQ Research Project
School Leaders' Questionnaire:
School Leadership Practices

Maklumat Peserta bagi Projek Penyelidikan USQ
Soal Selidik Para Pemimpin Sekolah:
Amalan Kepimpinan Sekolah

Project Details
Butiran Projek

Title of Project:	**Exploring the application of school leadership theories created in other cultures to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam**
Tajuk Projek:	**Meneroka penggunaan teori-teori kepimpinan sekolah yang dicipta dalam budaya lain dengan konteks pendidikan sekolah menengah di Brunei Darusalam**
Human Research Ethics Approval Number: Nombor Kebenaran Etika Penyelidikan Manusia:	H20REA194

Research Team Contact Details
Butiran Pasukan Penyelidik

Principal Investigator Details
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Research Assistants
Penolong Penyelidik

Dyg Nurul Afiqah binti Hj Nor Amin
Dyg Nur Nazihah binti Ibrahim

Supervisor Details
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Professor Dorothy Andrews
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Associate Professor Joan Conway
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Description
Penerangan

This project is being undertaken as part of a Doctor of Philosophy programme at the University of Southern Queensland.
Projek ini dijalankan sebagai sebahagian daripada program Doctor of Philosophy di Universiti Southern Queensland.

This is the first of two questionnaires for Brunei Darussalam secondary school leaders.
Ini adalah yang pertama daripada dua soal selidik bagi para pemimpin sekolah menengah di Brunei Darussalam.

The purpose of this project is to explore which leadership theories, created in other cultures, are applied by Brunei Darussalam secondary school leaders, in their daily practice. You will be presented with descriptions of 50 different leadership practices, all of which are linked to academic theories of school leadership. There is no right or wrong answer. You are simply asked how frequently you utilise each practice in your leadership of your secondary schools and how significant each practice is to you in that leadership.
Tujuan projek ini adalah untuk meneroka teori kepimpinan mana, yang dicipta dalam budaya lain, digunapakai oleh para pemimpin sekolah menengah Brunei Darussalam, dalam amalan harian mereka. Awda akan diberikan keterangan mengenai 50 amalan kepimpinan yang berbeza, kesemuanya dikaitkan dengan teori-teori akademik mengenai kepimpinan sekolah. Tidak ada jawapan yang betul atau salah. Awda pada dasarnya hanya ditanyakan sekerap mana awda menggunakan setiap amalan kepimpinan awda di sekolah-sekolah menengah awda dan kesignifikan setiap amalan tersebut dari segi kepimpinan awda.

The inclusion criteria for participation in this questionnaire is that each participant is currently a principal or deputy principal in a Brunei Darussalam Secondary School and a permanent citizen of Brunei Darussalam. As such, all Brunei Darussalam secondary school principals and deputy principals have been invited to participate in this questionnaire, except the two International School Leaders, who have been excluded as they are not permanent citizens of Brunei.
Kriteria penyertaan bagi soal selidik ini adalah setiap peserta ketika ini merupakan seorang pengetua atau timbalan pengetua di sekolah menengah di Brunei Darussalam dan seorang penduduk tetap di Brunei Darussalam. Sehubungan itu, kesemua pengetua dan timbalan pengetua sekolah menengah di Brunei Darussalam telah dipelawa untuk menyertai soal selidik ini, kecuali dua Pemimpin Sekolah Antarabangsa, yang dikecualikan kerana mereka bukan penduduk tetap Brunei Darussalam.

The research team requests your assistance because your professional experiences as school leaders, are essential to understanding what leadership theories are being practised in Brunei Darussalam Secondary Schools.
Pasukan penyelidik memohon bantuan awda disebabkan pengalaman profesional awda sebagai pemimpin sekolah, di mana ia sangat penting untuk memahami apa teori-teori kepimpinan yang sedang diamalkan di sekolah-sekolah menengah Brunei Darussalam.

Your participation will involve completion of a paper based questionnaire, that will take approximately 15 minutes of your time.
Penyertaan awda akan termasuk melengkapkan borang soal selidik, yang akan mengambil masa kira-kira 15 minit.

For each leadership practice there are two questions each with a five point Likert scale. As explained above, the questions will ask for each leadership practice how frequently you use it, if at all, and how significant it is to you. For each leadership practice you will therefore be asked to respond to both questions and tick one box on each Likert scale.
Bagi setiap amalan kepimpinan, terdapat dua soalan dengan setiap satunya mempunyai lima skala Likert. Seperti yang dijelaskan di atas, soalan-soalan tersebut akan menanyakan sekerap mana awda menggunakan setiap amalan kepimpinan, dan bagaimana signifikannya kepada awda. Bagi setiap amalan kepimpinan, awda diminta untuk memberikan respons kepada kedua-dua soalan dan menandakan satu kotak bagi setiap skala Likert.

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you do not wish to take part, you are not obliged to. If you decide to initially take part but change your mind before submitting your questionnaire, you are free to withdraw from the project and to request for your data to be confidentially destroyed. You will however be unable to withdraw your data after you have submitted the questionnaire. This is simply because each questionnaire is anonymous, so it will not be possible to identify your form.
Penyertaan awda dalam projek ini adalah secara sukarela. Jika awda berhasrat untuk tidak mengambil bahagian, awda tidak dimestikan terlibat. Jika pada awalnya awda memilih untuk mengambil bahagian tetapi mengubah fikiran sebelum menyerahkan soal selidik, awda boleh menarik diri daripada projek ini dan memohon data awda untuk dilupuskan secara rahsia. Bagaimanapun awda tidak boleh menarik balik data awda selepas menyerahkan borang soal selidik awda. Ini adalah kerana setiap borang soal selidik adalah tanpa nama, jadi ia adalah mustahil untuk mengenalpasti borang awda.

If you do wish to withdraw from this project before entering any responses on your questionnaire, simply return a blank form. If, however, you have started to fill in the questionnaire, simply indicate to the principal investigator that you would like your form to be both withdrawn from the sample and confidentially destroyed, by submitting it with a line through each page.
Jika awda berharap untuk menarik diri daripada projek ini sebelum membuat sebarang respons dalam borang soal selidik awda, sila kembalikan borang dalam keadaan kosong. Bagaimanapun, sekiranya awda sudah mula menjawab soal selidik tersebut, sila maklumkan kepada ketua penyelidik bahawa awda ingin borang awda dikeluarkan dari sampel dan dimusnahkan secara rahsia, dengan menyerahkan borang yang digaris pada setiap muka surat.

Any questions that are completed with a clear indication of your preferred response will be included in the data set. Any questions you leave blank will not be included in the data set. If you change your mind about your response to a particular question, please clearly cross out the original tick and put in the revised one. If you answer a question, but then decide that

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you would actually like to leave that question unanswered, please indicate by clearly crossing out the complete question.

Mana-mana soalan yang lengkap dengan respons yang awda inginkan, ia akan dimasukkan dalam set data. Manakala mana-mana soalan yang awda biarkan kosong tidak akan dimasukkan dalam set data. Jika awda mengubah fikiran mengenai respons awda pada soalan tertentu, sila pangkah dengan jelas dan tandakan jawapan baharu. Jika awda sudah menjawab satu soalan tetapi kemudian membuat keputusan bahawa awda sebenarnya mahu membiarkan soalan itu kosong, sila pangkah soalan tersebut.

Your decision whether you take part, do not take part, or take part and then withdraw, will in no way impact your current or future relationship with the University of Southern Queensland or the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education.

Keputusan awda sama ada ikut serta, tidak ikut serta, atau ikut serta dan kemudian menarik diri, tidak akan memberi impak pada hubungan awda dengan Universiti Southern Queensland atau Kementerian Pendidikan Brunei Darussalam pada masa ini atau masa depan.

Expected Benefits
Manfaat yang dijangkakan

It is expected that this project will not directly benefit you. However, it may benefit the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education, by helping them identify leadership practices they need to support their school leaders in developing.

Ia adalah dijangka bahawa projek ini tidak akan secara langsung memberikan manfaat kepada awda. Bagaimanapun, ia mungkin memberi manfaat kepada Kementerian Pendidikan Brunei Darussalam, dengan membantu mereka mengenalpasti amalan kepimpinan yang perlu mereka sokong dalam perkembangan para pemimpin sekolah.

Once the questionnaires are completed participants are invited to join us for shared food, as a way of thanking you for your time. This will be served in the open atrium outside the lecture theatre. We hope you will be able to join us.

Setelah soal selidik selesai, para peserta dipelawa untuk menyertai kami bagi menikmati jamuan, sebagai tanda terima kasih kami atas masa yang diluangkan. Jamuan akan dihidangkan di ruang atrium terbuka di luar teater kuliah. Kami berharap awda dapat menyertai kami.

Risks
Risiko

In participating in the questionnaire, there are no anticipated risks beyond normal day-to-day living. If however you should become stressed or anxious during or after the questionnaire, please contact your medical practitioner.

Dengan menyertai soal selidik ini, tidak ada risiko yang dijangkakan melangkaui kehidupan harian. Jika sekiranya awda menjadi tertekan atau cemas semasa atau selepas soal selidik tersebut, sila hubungi pengamal perubatan awda.

Privacy and Confidentiality
Privasi dan Kerahsiaan

All comments and responses will be treated confidentially unless required by law. The questionnaires will only be seen by the research team listed above. The names of individual persons are not required as any part of this questionnaire. Further, no identifying information will be collected as part of this questionnaire, beyond the participant's role in school i.e. principal or deputy principal.
Kesemua komen dan respons akan dirahsiakan melainkan diperlukan oleh undang-undang. Soal selidik hanya akan dilihat oleh pasukan penyelidik yang tersenarai di atas. Nama-nama individu adalah tidak diperlukan bagi soal selidik ini. Bahkan, tidak ada maklumat peribadi akan dikumpulkan sebagai sebahagian daripada soal selidik ini, selain daripada peranan peserta di sekolah iaitu sebagai pengetua atau timbalan pengetua.

Participant's data will not be made available to any other academic researchers.
Data peserta tidak akan didedahkan atau digunakan oleh para penyelidik akademik lain.

A summary of results will be shared with the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education Department of Planning, Development and Research. A summary of results will also be sent out to all Brunei Darussalam secondary school principals and deputy principals, by email.
Kesimpulan daripada hasil dapatan akan dikongsikan bersama Jabatan Perancangan, Perkembangan dan Penyelidikan, Kementerian Pendidikan Brunei Darussalam. Ia juga akan dihantar kepada semua pengetua dan timbalan pengetua sekolah menengah Brunei Darussalam melalui e-mel.

Any data collected as a part of this project will be stored securely as per University of Southern Queensland's Research Data Management policy.
Mana-mana data yang dikumpulkan sebagai sebahagian daripada projek ini akan disimpan dengan sebaiknya sepertimana dasar Pengurusan Data Penyelidikan Universiti Southern Queensland.

Consent to Participate
Kebenaran untuk Ikut Serta

The return of the questionnaire either partially or entirely completed, is accepted as an indication of your consent to participate in this project. The questionnaire, when completed, should be folded in two.
Penyerahan kembali borang soal selidik sama ada tidak lengkap atau lengkap adalah diterima sebagai tanda kebenaran awda untuk menyertai projek ini. Borang soal selidik tersebut perlu dilipat dua.

Questions or Further Information about the Project
Soalan atau Maklumat Lanjut mengenai Projek

Please refer to the Research Team Contact Details at the top of the form to have any questions answered or to request further information about this project.
Sila rujuk kepada Butiran Pasukan Penyelidik di atas jika ada sebarang pertanyaan atau jika memerlukan maklumat lebih lanjut mengenai projek ini.

Concerns or Complaints Regarding the Conduct of the Project
Kebimbangan atau Aduan berkenaan Pelaksanaan Projek

If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project, you may contact the University of Southern Queensland Manager of Research Integrity and Ethics on +61 7 4631 1839 or email researchintegrity@usq.edu.au. The Manager of Research Integrity and Ethics is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an unbiased manner.
Sekiranya awda mempunyai sebarang kebimbangan atau aduan mengenai etika pelaksanaan projek ini, awda boleh menghubungi Pengurus bagi Integreti dan Etika Penyelidikan, Universiti Southern Queensland melalui talian +61 7 4631 1839 atau e-mel ke researchintegrity@usq.edu.au. Pengurus bagi Integreti dan Etika Penyelidikan tidak mempunyai kaitan dengan projek penyelidikan ini dan boleh memberikan penyelesaian terhadap kebimbangan awda secara tidak berat sebelah.

Thank you for taking the time to help with this research project. Please keep this sheet for your information.
Terima kasih kerana meluangkan masa untuk membantu projek penyelidikan ini. Sila simpan kertas ini untuk maklumat awda.

APPENDIX D

Participant Information for USQ Research Project
School Leaders' Interview

Project Details

Title of Project:

Exploring the application of school leadership theories created in other cultures to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam

Human Research Ethics Approval Number:

H20REA194

Research Team Contact Details

Principal Investigator Details

Mr Matthew Letham
Email: u1122738@umail.usq.edu.au
Mobile: +673 7411970

Supervisor Details

Professor Dorothy Andrews
Email: dorothy.andrews@usq.edu.au

Associate Professor Joan Conway
Email: joan.conway@usq.edu.au

Description

This project is being undertaken as part of a Doctor of Philosophy programme at the University of Southern Queensland.

The purpose of this project is to explore which leadership theories, created in other cultures, are applied by Brunei Darussalam secondary school leaders, in their daily practice. The leadership practices questionnaire you recently took part in, asked how frequently specific leadership practices were used in Brunei secondary schools and how significant they were to those schools. This interview asks follow up questions to that questionnaire. Some of the main outcomes from the questionnaire will be shared with you and you will simply be asked whether you can think of any reasons why the responses to the leadership practices

questionnaire may have come out this way. The research team would simply appreciate your insights on the questionnaire data. There are no right or wrong answers.

The research team requests your assistance because your professional experiences as a school leader, is essential to understanding what leadership theories are being practised in Brunei Darussalam Secondary Schools.

Participation

Your participation will involve taking part in an interview, that will take approximately 45-60 minutes of your time. The interview will be conducted in English. This is a semi-structured interview, so while the principal researcher will have a set schedule to follow, based around the themes to emerge from the leadership practice questionnaire, you will also have the freedom to expand your answers or make comments beyond the parameters of those themes.

The interview will be undertaken by zoom video conference at a time convenient to you. Both audio and video recordings of the interview will be taken. These will be used to create a transcript of the interview, for analysis.

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you do not wish to take part, you are not obliged to. If you decide to take part and later change your mind, you are free to withdraw from the project at any stage. However, you will be unable to withdraw data collected from yourself, after the data has been analysed. If you do wish to withdraw from this project, after originally giving your consent, please contact the Research Team (contact details at the top of this form).

Your decision whether you take part, do not take part, or take part and then withdraw, will in no way impact your current or future relationship with the University of Southern Queensland or the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education.

Expected Benefits

It is expected that this project will not directly benefit you. However, it may benefit the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education, by helping them identify leadership practices they need to support their school leaders in developing.

Risks

In participating in the interview, there are no anticipated risks beyond normal day-to-day living. If however you should become stressed or anxious during or after the interview, please contact your medical practitioner.

Privacy and Confidentiality

All comments and responses will be treated confidentially unless required by law. Only members of the research team will be able to identify the participants. Although you received a personally addressed letter requesting your support from the Ministry of Education, 30 such letters were created and only six participants will be interviewed. As

such for all stakeholders, apart from the Research Team, participants will remain anonymous with data used from the interviews attributed to a pseudonym.

The interviews will be recorded, both audio and video. This is to allow a transcript of the interview to be made for analysis. The interview audio and video recordings will not be made available to any other academic researchers. They will be shared with an Australian company, Pacific Transcription, so they can create a professional written transcript of the interview dialogue. However, the company will have no access to your identity.

A written summary of the interview will be shared with you for review and comment. You will be given two weeks in which to review the summary, highlight any inaccuracies and request any changes before the data is included in the project for analysis.

A summary of the overall results from the interview will be shared with the Brunei Darussalam Ministry of Education Department of Planning, Development and Research. A summary of results will also be sent out to yourself, by email.

Any data collected as a part of this project will be stored securely as per University of Southern Queensland's Research Data Management policy.

Consent to Participate

We would like to ask you to sign a written consent form (enclosed) to confirm your agreement to participate in this project. Please return your signed consent form to the principal investigator prior to participating in your interview, following the instructions written at the bottom of the form.

Questions or Further Information about the Project

Please refer to the Research Team Contact Details at the top of the form to have any questions answered or to request further information about this project.

Concerns or Complaints Regarding the Conduct of the Project

If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project, you may contact the University of Southern Queensland Manager of Research Integrity and Ethics on +61 7 4631 1839 or email researchintegrity@usq.edu.au. The Manager of Research Integrity and Ethics is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an unbiased manner.

Thank you for taking the time to help with this research project. Please keep this sheet for your information.

APPENDIX E

Consent Form for USQ Research Project
School Leaders' Interview

Project Details

Title of Project:

Exploring the application of school leadership theories created in other cultures to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam

Human Research Ethics Approval Number:

H20REA194

Research Team Contact Details

Principal Investigator Details

Mr Matthew Letham
Email: ██████████████████████
Mobile: ██████████

Supervisor Details

Professor Dorothy Andrews
Email: ██████████████████████

Associate Professor Joan Conway
Email: ██████████████████████

Statement of Consent

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- Have read and understood the information document regarding this project.   ☐Yes / ☐No

- Have had any initial questions answered to your satisfaction.   ☐Yes / ☐No

- Understand that if you have any additional questions you can contact the research team.   ☐Yes / ☐No

- Understand that the interview will be conducted in English.   ☐Yes / ☐No

- Understand that the interview will be audio and video recorded.   ☐Yes / ☐No

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- Are over 18 years of age.

  ☐Yes / ☐No

- Agree to participate in the project.

  ☐Yes / ☐No

Participant Name	
Participant Signature	
Date	

The consent form will be collected in three days' time from delivery, so please place it in a sealed envelope, addressed 'For Attention of Matt Letham' and leave it available for collection in your school's reception area. Please complete the consent form and leave the envelope ready for collection, even if you choose not to participate. Those who do agree to take part in the interviews will be contacted by the principal researcher to organize a mutually convenient time for the interview to take place.

APPENDIX F

[RIMS] USQ HRE Application - H20REA194 - Expedited

review outcome -Approved

Inbox

Ethics

Sep 1, 2020,
1:26 PM

human.Ethics@usq.edu.au

to ▮▮▮▮▮▮, Dorothy.Andrews

Dear Matt

I am pleased to confirm your Human Research Ethics (HRE) application has now been reviewed by the University's Expedited Review process. As your research proposal has been deemed to meet the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007), ethical approval is granted as follows

USQ HREC ID: H20REA194
Project title: Exploring the application of school leadership theories, created in other cultures, to the context of secondary education in Brunei Darussalam.
Approval date: 01/09/2020
Expiry date: 01/09/2023
USQ HREC status: Approved

The standard conditions of this approval are:

a)   responsibly conduct the project strictly in accordance with the proposal submitted and granted ethics approval, including any amendments made to the proposal;.

(b)   advise the University (email:ResearchIntegrity@usq.edu.au) immediately of any complaint pertaining to the conduct of the research or any other issues in relation to the project which may warrant review of the ethical approval of the project;

(c)   promptly report any adverse events or unexpected outcomes to the University (email: ResearchIntegrity@usq.edu.au) and take prompt action to deal with any unexpected risks;

(d)   make submission for any amendments to the project and obtain approval prior to implementing such changes;

(e)   provide a progress 'milestone report' when requested and at least for every year of approval.
(f)   provide a final 'milestone report' when the project is complete;

(g)   promptly advise the University if the project has been discontinued, using a final 'milestone report'.

The additional conditionals of approval for this project are:

(a) Nil.
Please note that failure to comply with the conditions of this approval or requirements of the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research, 2018, and the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research, 2007 may result in withdrawal of approval for the project. Congratulations on your ethical approval! Wishing you all the best for success! If you have any questions or concerns, please don't hesitate to make contact with an Ethics Officer.

Kind regards

Human Research Ethics

University of Southern Queensland
Toowoomba – Queensland – 4350 – Australia
Phone: (07) 4631 2690
Email: human.ethics@usq.edu.au
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