Leading a gifted and talented programme in an international school: An examination from a moral leadership perspective.

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

The work in this thesis has not been previously submitted for a degree or diploma at any other higher educational institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material that has been previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made.

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Abstract

This thesis presents an examination of leadership practice as it responds to the implementation of a gifted and talented program. The examination is conducted through the lens of moral leadership theories. This thesis heeds the call from researchers who have suggested the need for moral case studies to assist school leaders in 'making confident ethical judgments that transcend mere intuition' (Campbell, 1995: p. 605). Theories from moral philosophy and concepts from moral psychology are brought into the discussion in an attempt to address concerns with respects to the theoretical underpinnings of the concept moral leadership. The combined framework advances a model of a moral process that provides specific sign posts that allow for an inquiry into the moral decision making a school leader undergoes in addressing a moral issue.

This study uses a multi-method research design involving both narrative and statistical analyses focused upon data generated from semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, observations, and document analysis. My analysis of key informants provides additional insight into the process that school leaders undergo in order to address a moral issue. The significance of the analysis was the generation of five categories: personal integrity, professional ethics, structural collaboration, exogenous influences and constructive concerns. Each of the five categories highlighted were influential in the decision to implement the gifted and talented program. The organisational and geographic context for this examination is an International School located in Turkey (IST).

Keywords: moral leadership, moral process, moral issue, moral action, gifted and talented, international school

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Facts do not cease to exist because they are ignored. A. Huxley

Abbreviations

BERA - British Educational Research Association Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research

CAT- Cognitive Assessment Test

CIE - Cambridge International Examination

CIS - Council of International Schools

CLS - Critical Leadership Studies

CRT - Critical Race Theories

COBIS- Council of British International Schools

DDP- Deputy Director of Primary

DfES- Department for Education Services (UK)

DIT-Defining Issues Test

DMGT- differentiated model; gifted and talented

DOC- Director of curriculum

DOS- Dean Of Students

DP- Difference Principle

EMS- Education Management Studies

FCM- The Four Component Model

FEO- Fair Equality of Opportunity

GELQ- Gifted Education Leadership Questionnaire

GT- Gifted and Talented

GTP- Gifted and Talented Program

GTC- Gifted and Talented Coordinator

HOD- Head of Department

HOS- Head Of Secondary

IBDP- International Baccalaureate Diploma Program

IB - International Baccalaureate

IBO-International Baccalaureate Organisation

ID- Identification

IGCSE- International General Certificate of Secondary Education

IST- International School of Turkey

KS5-C Keystage 5 coordinator

LMX- Leader Member Exchange

MAM- Moral Approbation Model

MJI- Moral Judgement Interview

MLS- the Moral Life of Schools

Ofsted-Office for Standards in Education

SEN- Special Education Needs

SEN- JH- Special Education Needs-Head J

SEN-A- Special Education Needs-Teacher A

SEN-K- Special Education Needs-Teacher K

SER-School Effectiveness Research

SLT- Senior Leadership Team

SST- Secondary School Teacher

SWM-school wide enrichment model

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Appendices

Contents

Chapter One: Introduction

1.0 Introduction

This thesis presents an examination of leadership practice as it responds to the implementation of a gifted and talented program. The examination is conducted through the lens of moral leadership theories. This thesis heeds the call from researchers who have suggested the need for moral case studies to assist school leaders in 'making confident ethical judgments that transcend mere intuition' (Campbell, 1995: 605). This call is similar to the demand for 'contextually-sensitive descriptive' studies (Greenfield, 2004) that emphasize 'the meanings, perspectives, and espoused purposes of school leaders' actions, social relationships, and interpersonal orientations' (175). The thesis attempts to address the demand by Ribbins' (2005) for 'situated portrayals ...that reveal issues and contexts' (128). In addition, it tries to bridge the gap between theory and practice through the focus upon an ethical issue (Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2011).

The theoretical aim of this thesis is to provide support for the concept of moral leadership. To achieve this objective, I first consider moral leadership in a basic form seeking to understand both components of the phrase, moral leadership. In other words, understanding what is meant by the terms *moral* and *leadership*. A secondary aim is to find support in the literature for moral leadership as a foundational characteristic unifying leadership theories.

The methodological aim of this study is to advance a framework for studying moral leadership that is based upon the notion of an examination of a school leader and his or her response to a school-based moral issue. This framework incorporates a model of a moral process that provides specific sign posts that allow for an inquiry into the factors that impact moral decision making a school leader undergoes in addressing a moral issue. The combined objectives attempt to address the principle question guiding this thesis: How is moral leadership manifested through the provision of a gifted and talented program (GTP)?

In this chapter, I outline the development of this study the purpose of which is to provide context and the rationale. Theories from moral philosophy and concepts from moral psychology are introduced that foreshadow a deeper discussion presented in the literature review. Drawing on these concepts, I present a broad conception of moral leadership. I define what is a moral issue and how it can be used to examine moral leadership. I then provide an explanation of why a GTP is a good example of a school-based moral issue from which to observe moral leadership in action. Included in this chapter are definitions of moral, moral issue, obligation, moral responsibility, giftedness and gifted programs. My theoretical perspective is provided and I conclude by clarifying a few key concepts that underpin this study. The organisational and geographic context for this examination is an International School located in Turkey (IST).

1.1 Research Context and Rationale for Further Research

Within educational research, the past thirty years have seen a growing corpus of literature focused upon characteristics and behaviours aligned with and encapsulated within a general conception of moral leadership (Schrag, 1979, Hodgkins, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1992; Fullan, 2002; Day, 2004; Greenfield, 2004; Pijanowski, 2007; Rowold, 2008).

Much of what is said to be a characteristic of moral leadership involves emotive descriptions that are open to interpretation and challenge (Campbell, 1995; Willower, 1999). Despite direct connections to moral philosophy, little attempt has been made by researchers to 'map' moral leadership to its philosophical roots (Greenfield, 2004: 22). This is an omission the consequence of which is the subjugation of the conception of moral leadership to a researcher's interpretation of what is moral. While this may be of little concern to moral relativists or subjectivists, it ignores a substantial body of moral philosophy which views morality through the prism

of universality. This outcome may be as Greenfield noted that 'few among us have the background or intellectual disposition for philosophical analysis' (22). In addition, there is little attempt in leadership studies in education to situate the concept of morality within its psychological roots. The result is a lack of reference to models of 'distinctive traditions' investigating the cognitive and behavioural processes involved in moral reasoning and action (Wright, 1971, p.22).

Compounding these fundamental concerns are technical criticisms common to leadership research. These include theoretical issues such as ontological and epistemological rigidity which have anchored some researchers' views to 'grounded theory' (Leithwood and Day, 2007, p.190). The reliance on grounded theory is based on a narrow interpretation of uniqueness of setting excusing the need to 'build upon previous evidence' (Leithwood and Day, 2007, p. 190), the results of which inhibit reliability of the study and the external validity of the findings (Leithwood and Day, 2007, p.189). In addition to theoretical issues, practical and ethical limitations, such as modest financial resources, limit the number of participants and compel many researchers to focus on convenience samples and/or sites considered exemplary. The effect has an impact on the sample size and scheme, resulting in findings that limit externally validity.

Further concerns exist with regards to internal and external validity of the instruments used in leadership research. For example, the statistical results produced from these instruments are often dependent on self-reporting (by the principal) and reporting by others (staff). The findings are, therefore, limited by an individual's interpretations of events and a respondents desire to appear socially responsible i.e. social desirability bias (Kalton and Schuman, 1981). In addition, while some instruments may provide insight into moral decision making, the focus is often on what one thinks or feels one *might* do and not what one has *actually* done (Jewel, 2001). As Jewell writes, 'the focus is on the internal state of the individual, rather than the person's actions in

the community' (3). Though some cognitive moral psychologists have attempted to bridge this divide between moral decision making and action,[1] we cannot know for certain what an individual will do without directly observing the individual engaged in the moral act (Ryan and Jones, 1997). A similar concern was expressed by Leithwood (2007) who wrote,

> While leaders' internal states are interesting and obviously important - what leaders do depend on what they think and feel - no one experiences or knows the internal states of others except as they manifest themselves in some kind of external act (42).

Once the internal state has been externalized, the observer must have some familiarity with moral discourse in order to identify that what one is observing is in fact a moral act. The combined impact of the lack of certainty of what is being investigated (fundamental criticisms) and how it should be examined (technical criticisms) diminishes the value of the concept of moral leadership and the integrity of the findings. This is a concerning outcome for those who accept the historic, rational, and intuitive claims that moral action is a desirable outcome of leadership

Reflecting upon what Fullan (2002) and others (Jewel, 2001; Leithwood, 2007) have noted, that one's moral disposition is manifested through external acts that impact others, I began to consider what school-based moral issues might reveal one's moral disposition.

Given the surfeit of moral issues facing school leaders, there are many occasions from which to observe how a school leader acts. It was important, however, to select a moral issue in which the leader is compelled to address out of his or her own volition. In other words, the actions of the leader are predicated by his or her internal views with limited moral approbation. Moral approbation is 'defined as moral approval from oneself or others' (Jones and Ryan, 1997, p. 663). An additional consideration is that the moral issue selected must actually be regarded as a moral issue. For example, while not

[1] See chapter two for a discussion on Moral Approbation Model presented by Ryan and Jones (1997).

holding the door open for someone may be rude behaviour, is it immoral or a moral issue? The rationale here is to compel researchers to move beyond platitude and exhortation so as to establish coherent arguments in support of the assertion of moral leadership. In this assertion, I am echoing Willower (1999) who wrote that by failing to offer a *valuation* of the values we 'divorces values from critical thinking and reflective analysis, the very processes needed to abet moral choice (132).

Moreover, this process would allow subsequent researchers to examine the arguments presented to determine if they do or do not agree with the proposed moral issue. Assuming researchers agree with the contention, then witnessing how that moral issue is addressed provides a reference point; a criterion from which moral leadership can be assessed. Over time and with subsequent review, a number of moral issues should emerge that will attract some consensus. These issues could then serve as a set of moral case studies to which school leaders could refer (Campbell, 1995; Greenfield, 2004; Ribbins, 2005; Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2011). In addition, they could serve as criteria from which researchers investigating moral leadership could use to select their sample. For example, if provision of services for the visually impaired is agreed upon as a moral issue, then researchers investigating moral leadership have a criterion from which to select their schools for further investigation. In other words, 'an emphasis on valuation' would give 'life to values' (Willower, 1999, p.132). This *life* may be one approach to bridging the gap between theory and practice (Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2011).

Based on my previous work with students who have special education needs (SEN), my background in gifted education and familiarity with both policy development and implementation of gifted education programs and services, I chose the development of a gifted and talented program as the focus of the case study. In a search of the literature, no studies were discovered that made an explicit attempt to link moral considerations of the school's leadership to the provision of an education for the gifted.

Further, while some schools provide services ad hoc with limited consideration, gifted students are best served by a full program (Gentry, 2009). A gifted program is characterized by a continuum of services formalized in a policy statement (see appendix 1.1[2]). The distinction is emphasized by Gentry (2009) who notes that an exemplar program would have,

> a comprehensive set of responsive services spanning grade levels and subject areas, providing a variety of well-conceived opportunities to different students who have potential talent in many different domains (p.262).

For this thesis, therefore, only schools with full programs or in the process of developing a full program were sought. The primary reason is the view that a full program requires a deeper commitment, encouragement and involvement from school leaders. Further, a full program requires whole school participation from external stakeholders, the senior leadership team, teachers and parents.

The initial task of this study was to identify schools with programs or in the process of developing a full program for the gifted. A multi-country telephone survey of international schools was conducted. An unexpected outcome of this process were comments and e-mails (see below) that provided evidence of the contention that programs for the gifted are underprovided. This is an important point as it supports the suggestion made in this thesis that there is negligible external pressure for school leaders to pursue a program for the gifted.

When asked if their school provided a program for the gifted, 12 out of 32 respondents indicated that their schools did. In the follow-up question asking for details, each of these schools stated that they either offer AP or IB

2. Appendix 1.1 provides complete details of Gentry's description of exemplar programs. It is US based and therefore divided into elementary, middle and high school.

programs and consider this sufficient provision[3]. This is a common view that I have encountered in person at my current school and at workshops and conferences. This view is expressed in the following emailed comment received from an established principal. It should be noted that this principal is a well regarded experienced head. He is a former editorial board member of an education journal and one of the founding members of the Council of International Schools, one of the main accreditation bodies for international schools. He wrote,

> *We don't provide assistance to gifted students in the delineated, programmatic sense in which you ask the question. Our students go on to sit the IB Diploma, which caters for the highest ability levels, but we don't make formal provision for individuals or groups beyond high quality teaching, small classes, etc.* (Head of a European International School, May 2010, italics in the original).

It should be noted that this view is not supported in the one study that was found to have investigated this issue. Hertberg-Davis and Callahan (2008) after interviewing 200 students across 23 US high schools write,

> It is important to recognize that AP and IB courses alone do not constitute a comprehensive program that will sufficiently address the needs of a broad range of gifted learners (p.212).

Further, some of the responses received were abrupt. A well established International School in the UK stated that they offered a program for the gifted. During the follow-up, when asked for a copy of the school's policy statement for the gifted, the reply received simply read, 'Google advance placement' (SEN director, UK International School, June 2010).

Additional details of the survey can be found in appendix 1.2, however, of the 32 international schools contacted, only two could be confirmed to provide a gifted program. Each denied access or further follow-up despite repeated

3. These 12 schools were therefore rejected as a potential site for this project. See chapter three for complete details on site selection and appendix 1.2.

requests. The school that was eventually selected was found by chance through contact with a visiting Council of International Schools (CIS) inspector. The inspector noted that their school had a gifted program but that it had gone through a setback and only recently was being restarted[4]. He graciously offered his campus as a site for further exploration. The school is a private for-profit International School located in Turkey[5]. I flew to Turkey and carried out all data collection on-site over a three day period in October of 2012[6].

1.2 Moral leadership: a brief introduction to moral philosophy and moral psychology

According to Cuilla, (2003), 'the study of ethics is fundamental' to an 'understanding of leadership'; it is about 'human relationships' (p.302). Since the study of ethics is informed by both moral philosophy and moral psychology, I introduce a few concepts from moral philosophy and moral psychology that contextualize and clarify the concept of moral leadership as used in this thesis.

1.21 Moral Philosophy

Russell described philosophy as an intermediary between 'theology and science' (Russell, 1945, iii). In this he was referring to philosophy as being able to address the issues that science could not answer empirically and to which theology's response is faith based dogma (Scruton, 2002). According to Lavine (1989) the study of philosophy focuses on six main areas: metaphysics, 'questions about reality' (2); epistemology, 'what can we know,' (2); political philosophy, 'what is the best kind of government' (3); philosophy of history,

4. Additional details are provided in Chapter 3.
5. Additional details are provided in Chapter 4.
6. Due to documented medical reasons, this thesis was interrupted and could not be completed sooner.

'does history have any meaning' (4); logic, 'what are the principles of valid reasoning' (5); and ethics, 'what is the meaning of right and wrong and what are our obligations' (3). It is the sorting out of 'the meaning of right and wrong' (3) and the corresponding responsibilities that concern this inquiry and from which a conception of moral leadership should begin to find its foundation.

Moral philosophy has a vast history. A number of famous thinkers have taken the challenge of dealing with this topic: Aristotle, Augustine, Aquinas, Descartes, Hume, Smith, Kant, Nietzche, Rawls and McIntyre. A review of some of the key thinkers in the study of moral philosophy would provide leadership researchers with access to the arguments and language of moral philosophy. A deeper understanding of the theoretical foundations of moral philosophy may assist the development of its use within education (Hodgkinson, 1991).This understanding would, at a minimum, help to contextualize and, possibly, clarify the concept of moral leadership (Cuilla, 2003). Further clarity on the role of moral philosophy in this thesis is provided in chapter two.

1.22 Moral Psychology

Philosophers' interest in consciousness, memory and perception led to the creation of a scientific field of study based on empirical investigations of human phenomena called psychology. Moral psychology arose as a sub-discipline (Law, 2007). Specifically, moral psychology investigates human functioning in moral contexts, and asks how these results may impact debate in ethical theory. This discipline is necessarily interdisciplinary, drawing on both the empirical resources of the human sciences and the conceptual resources of philosophical ethics (Doris and Stich, 2012, para. 1).

Its importance to this discussion is supported by a view that suggests that an ethical conception that does not address its moral psychology is considered incomplete. This notion is highlighted in the following:

> an ethical conception that commends relationships, commitments, or life projects that are at odds with the sorts of attachments that can be reasonably be expected to take root in and vivify actual human lives is an ethical conception with—at best—a very tenuous claim to our assent (Doris and Stich, 2012, para. 2).

In examining the research from moral psychology, one finds four traditions: the social- group approach, psychoanalytic approach, learning theory approach and cognitive development approach (Wright, 1971). For this thesis, the focus is on the cognitive development approach with its sub-discipline cognitive moral development and its links to moral education. This includes Kohlberg's theory of moral development (Kohlberg and Hersh, 1977) and Gilligan's (1982) feminist perspective on care and responsibility. Knowledge of both of these theories would enhance the tenor of arguments in support or critical of moral leadership.

As the focus of this thesis is on the manifestation of leadership in response to a moral issue, it is Rest's (1982) The Four Component Model (FCM) of the and Jones and Ryan (1997) Moral Approbation Model (MAM) that is of particular interest. These two theories describe the moral process one takes in addressing a moral issue. This moral process is incorporated into the final analysis of the data collected. Both theories are reviewed in chapter two.

1.3 Moral Leadership: a conception

The following is my personal conception of moral leadership that guided this thesis. It is informed by the literature on moral leadership as found in education, moral philosophy and moral psychology.

Moral leadership is a foundational principle that guides all leadership; it is the root principle from which styles of leadership emanate. Moral leadership assumes that morality exists, that a shared morality exists, at least within a

shared culture, and that it can be identified. In this sense, it lies within the area of descriptive ethics identifying characteristics and behaviours that support one's interpretation of morality (Russell, 1945). Moral leadership has a universal quality, however, a lodestar for behaviour (Kant, 1781/2002). This apparent dichotomy between relative and universal can be adjudicated by a pragmatic appeal to the various dimensions of morality (Kane, 1994). At a practical level, moral leadership is ethical action (Cuilla, 2003). It involves communication skills, the `know your people` reference in Barnard's work (Barnard, 1945, p.179). It is leadership that can be transformational (Burns, 1978). It focuses on a set of higher order needs (Maslow, 1943). It is 'more art than science' (Hodgkinson, 1991, p.124). Moral leadership is relationship centered and focused on an obligation to others. It acknowledges an individual's 'internal dialectical tensions between principles and preferences' (p.127) but accepts a morality that is not about self (Gilligan, 2006). In the context of education, moral leadership is a social contract that obligates a relationship between school leaders and their staff, students and community (Rousseau, 1762/2004). The relationship is hierarchal: an individual in possession of authority influencing others in order to cause directional change in a group or organization (Leithwood, 2007). It is leadership that embraces a shared focus upon the means in which an objective is realized, but it does not dismiss the importance of ends. Moral leadership functions at a post conventional, autonomous level with a focus on protecting individual rights, advocating for a democratic process and accepting that universal justice may exist (Kohlberg and Hersch, 1977). The amalgamation of these expressions of morality is an attempt to reconcile the conflict of a pluralistic society in which vulgar relativism fails logically and deontological views are too unyielding. As Blum (1988) writes,

> there is an appropriate place for impartiality, universal principle, and the like within morality and that a final mature morality involves a complex interaction and dialogue between the concerns of impartiality and those of personal relationship and care (p.474).

With a conception of moral leadership presented, how does one know if an individual is moral? From ancient Greece to the present, a common method is by observing how one reacts to a moral issue.

1.4 Moral issue, moral obligation and moral responsibility defined

For this thesis, a moral issue is defined as an ethical situation where an agent has a moral obligation. In this interpretation, one might expect the word responsibility, but the phrase moral responsibility has specific and historic implications within moral philosophy. Moral responsibility implies that one is deserving of a reaction of praise or blame to one's actions (Eshelman, 2014). This implies that one is autonomous and can be held accountable, 'a morally responsible' agent (para. 3). In other words, to be morally responsible is to act in such a way as to be worthy of praise or blame 'for having performed' 'something, ... an action' (para. 1). In this thesis, moral responsibility is used in a more common manner to imply causation and/or duty similar to obligation or the idea of being compelled to act. The ethical situation suggested as a moral obligation is the provision of a GTP. In chapter two, a formal defence of GTP as a moral issue is argued. This use of a moral issue as a focus for this study is consistent with its use in moral psychology. Kohlberg, for example, presented moral issues to respondents and then evaluated their responses using the instrument he developed, the Moral Judgement Interview (MJI) (Jorgensen, 2006; Puka, 2012). Rest created an alternative to MJI, the Defining Issues Test (Rest, 1982). Like Kohlberg's MJI, the Defining Issues Test (DIT) focuses upon responses to a series of stories that exemplify moral issues (Rest, 1982).

1.41 Moral Issues and practical Implications for the study of moral leadership

Observing an agent and his or her actions with regards to a moral issue is not new. Moral issues were used in Plato's dialogues: Socrates engages different sophists to a debate over whether virtue can be taught. One of the conclusions reached was that it could be taught by witnessing examples of virtuous acts. The logic for including a moral issue can also be exemplified through a prima facie[7] examination of a parable familiar, in various incarnations, to other cultures[8]: the Good Samaritan (The Holy Bible, Luke 10:25). It is presented here in brief in its Judeo/Christian interpretation: on the road to Jericho, an injured man goes unaided as two men, one of whom is a priest passes by 'on the other side' (Luke 10:31). In light of his profession, the priest would have been considered a moral leader of his community; yet, his inaction suggests, ceteris paribus[9], a lack of moral behaviour. The Samaritans are thought to be immoral by the local Levites, yet it is a Samaritan that stops to aid the injured man. He could have passed by 'on the other side' as the others did and none would be aware of his inaction. Instead, '...moved with compassion, came to him, and bound his wounds..." (Luke 10:34). In this parable, the Samaritan's moral disposition is manifested through his actions. Moreover, the support for the Samaritan's moral stance is enhanced given that there were no external peers to observe nor pressures placed upon him to act in the manner he chose. Borrowing a description from moral psychology, the Samaritan depended upon his own well developed reservoir for moral approbation (Jones and Ryan, 1997). The parable of the Good Samaritan emphasizes the contention that from within one's action, bounded by context, one can discern one's moral disposition.

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7 An important assumption given multiple possible interpretations.
8The Muslim Hadith and the parable of the prostitute and the dog is another example.
9 An important condition, given that context could otherwise be debated. Though possibly redundant given the prima facie condition already established.

1.42 Research Question

Accepting that the presence of a moral issue to elucidate the moral disposition of an individual leads to the fundamental question that guided this thesis: How is moral leadership manifested through the provision of a GTP? From this broad question, I developed sub-questions influenced by the process described in the Four Component Model (Rest, 1982).

1. How does a school leader recognize provision of a GTP as a moral issue?
2. How does the leader of a school decide upon a course of action to address the GTP?
3. How does a school leader decide to implement a course of action to address the GTP?
4. How does the leader of a school implement the course of action to address the GTP?

1.43 A Moral Issue: a gifted and talented program (GTP)

Having established some context for the proposed issue, the question still remains as to why is a program for gifted students a useful issue from which to examine moral leadership?

What makes education for the gifted an interesting issue from which to view moral leadership is its politically divisive and controversial nature. This view may be best summarized by a comment written in one of the piloted questionnaires:

> By all means encouraging engaged students to go beyond what is expected of them is good teaching practice but I feel the targeting of the supposed 'gifted' for special programmes is tantamount to educational fascism and unacceptable elitism (GELQ, Pilot).

This concern with elitism is perhaps the most frequent objection I encounter through the workshops, seminars and other studies that I have conducted. It

is explored in greater detail in chapter two. For the moment, consider another school issue such as provision of services for dyslexics, visually impaired and/or learning disabled. It is more complicated to determine if the provision of these services is being carried out because the school leaders believe it is a moral obligation or because of the criticism they would receive if there is no provision or the praise if there is provision. This is not the case with gifted education provision since there is little or no moral approbation.

One potential reason for the lack of moral approbation is due to the significant underprovision of programs and services for gifted students that is evident throughout state systems across countries around the world. A review of literature on the state of gifted education globally revealed that there is no country that adequately addresses this constituency (see appendix 1.3). In addition to a review of literature on the level of provision in state schools, I conducted a detailed telephone survey of 32 International Schools in Europe (see appendix 1.2). If there is some social economic benefit associated with being gifted, it was expected that International Schools may have some provision for these students. The survey revealed, however, that only two schools provided gifted programs. Response from the Council of Independent Schools, the main accreditation body for International schools, could not identify any school among the 535 that they have accredited. Similar to many state mandates, International Schools have obligations to provide services for gifted students as part of their accreditation process though failure to provide this requirement will not prevent accreditation.

The implication of global underprovision is that external moral approbation is limited. In other words, a leader would feel little external pressure to meet this accreditation standard if few others are following the rules. Similar to the good Samaritan, the choice is there to walk past the issue and no one would think less of him or her. A basic question that arises is why do some school leaders undertake this additional responsibility?

It should be emphasized that this argument is not be interpreted as stating that those who do not provide education for the gifted are immoral. There are many reasons a gifted program may not be in operation. Based on the responses to the survey of International Schools, some schools believe their programs already provide adequate challenge and therefore gifted students do not require additional programs or services. The majority of these schools contacted were using a combination of IGCSE and the Diploma Level of the International Baccalaureate. It is also possible that the given the hectic nature of being a school leader, an education for the gifted is not a priority. Certainly, the research literature is full of descriptions identifying the multiple demands of principals (Duke, 1998; York-Barr, 2004; Connolly, 2007) some of the more common are: meetings with parents, teachers, trustees, students, community leaders and community groups, paper work, classroom visits, the 'new reform' programs, increase in board priorities, trustee requests, 'other' administration activities, staff involvement, student and social services. To this cacophony is the demand to increase standards, to ensure that the physiological and safety needs for a group of unique and developing individuals are addressed whilst simultaneously creating an atmosphere conducive to the development of self-actualisation (Maslow, 1971). To this lengthy list is added the expectation that all these tasks are to be completed facing the full variety of a society's illnesses and cultural diversity both of which tax one's morality and awareness of legal obligations. Underlying all that is asked lies a moral imperative that schools are responsible for the erudition of a community's constituents (Dewey, 1916). If to the aforementioned we now add the growing list of students with cognitive disabilities, the alphabet children (Baum, 2002) who require awareness, accommodation and resources which draw upon already limited funds, it should not be a surprise that even the most dedicated and well-informed leader may be reluctant to do even more. If new obligations prescribe reallocating scarce resources to individuals who are already perceived as

advantaged, it seems almost improbable that the services would be implemented or even sustained.

In the face of these demands and the lack of external pressure, however, there is a relatively small group of school leaders who conscientiously agree to provide or at least support a complete range of services for gifted students. A natural question that arises is why do they bother? In other words, why would leaders take on an extra task that is knowingly controversial; an extra task that they could ignore without repercussions?

It, therefore, suggested that the provision of an education for the gifted is a good example of a school-based moral issue. In chapter two, I provide a defense of what makes the provision of a gifted program a moral issue. At this point it is sufficient to recognize that providing an appropriate education for the gifted is proposed as a moral act worthy of closer examination and beneficial to the focus of this research.

1.5 Theoretical perspective

The theoretical perspective presented throughout this thesis is set within a pragmatic doctrine. I discuss the full details of my ontological and epistemological position in chapter three, however, it should be stated at the outset that this thesis is presented with the understanding that there exists an external reality and accepts Russell's (1912/1997) forceful pronouncement that mind dependence[10], at least in pragmatic terms[11], 'is fallacious' (p.14). The dichotomy between what is considered interpretive and positivist is considered complimentary and not contradictory. Fit-for-purpose is the guiding consideration. As such, semi-structured interviews, observations and document analysis are analyzed primarily through an interpretive paradigm,

10 Idealism.
11 Not to be confused with the philosophical position espoused by James or Peirce, but in the sense of the strict definition 'dealing with matters with regards to their practical requirements or consequences' (Blackburn, 1994).

however, questionnaire data are subject primarily to positivistic inspired analysis. The moral perspective that guided this thesis is based on a rejection of 'vulgar relativism' (Williams, 1972, p.25) due to its inherent contradiction. There is a recognition that universal moral laws may exist, though it is acknowledged that between these two positions are a chasm of interpretations. There is an acceptance in this thesis that there is both theoretical and practical utility in concepts from moral philosophy and moral psychology; however, due to the breadth and depth of each of the subjects, their inclusion is expository and historical in nature and not intentionally critical.

Two key instruments used in this thesis, the interview protocols (see appendix 3.1) and GELQ questionnaire (see appendix 3.2), were designed to address concerns with respects to social desirability bias. In addition, question techniques were employed that allowed these views to arise in a natural uncontrived process. The moral aspect of the responses, therefore, was determined *post hoc* through a coding process that linked the data to existing theories in moral leadership, philosophy and psychology. Additional details are provided in the section 3.31 and 3.312 where I discuss the design and analysis of the instruments.

1.6 Key concepts clarified and/or defined

A few terms and concepts need to be clarified in order to ensure that readers are aware of how concepts and terms are being interpreted. To begin with, the term moral will be used in the conventional sense as a synonym for ethics (Cuilla, 2003). The term moral was introduced into the philosophical discussion by Cicero as, moralis, this was his translation of the Greek term ethics (Reese, 1999). In the research literature, the two are often used interchangeably though some argue for a distinction in their usage (Reese,

1999). In addition, the term moral is broadly defined as contextually dependent principles which regulate human behaviour.

In regards to the proposed moral issue, a gifted and talented program, a few issues need to be clarified and/or defined. First there are three primary divisions advocated by research, though the actual differences are not as neatly delineated as this would suggest. In general, there are those that view giftedness as a multidimensional construct, manifesting itself in a variety of ways not limited exclusively to academic performance, i.e. non traditional measures such as student observation and nonverbal tests (Borland, 1997, Freeman, 2010). An opposing group are focused upon a unidimensional view of giftedness with a belief in the existence of a measurable general intelligence. This group relies upon the result of psychometric testing (Gross, 1993; Silverman, 1997; Hernstein and Murray, 1994). A third group exists that views giftedness in a more pragmatic manner relying on a combination of identification procedures including psychometric and other performance-based assessment. They combine academic results with motivation, creativity and other observable characteristics consider as evidence of giftedness (Sternberg, 1985; Passow, 1960; Reis and Renzulli, 2004; VanTassel-Baska, Feng and Evans, 2007). It is this third conception that is consistent with my theoretical perspective and is implied when discussing giftedness in this thesis.

Further, the term 'gifted' is referred to here as a general conception based on the cognitive, though vague description: an individual who demonstrates ability, often, though not exclusively, academic or artistic, not typically associated with his or her peer group/someone of a similar age. There is consensus for this conception (see Winner, 2000; Winstanley, 2004; Merry, 2008).

Finally, one frequently encounters the disparate and controversial terminology used to identify these individuals. These students are referred to in a number of ways: gifted, gifted and talented, highly able, high ability, high

potential, high achieving, and precocious. For convenience, this thesis uses the term gifted to refer to all of the above. It should be clarified that this term is used simply as a label without intention to imply any other characteristics other than what has been already stated previously.

1.7 Methods

After examining research designs examining school leadership from a variety of perspectives (Datnow, 2002; Fullan, 2003; Harris, B., 2004; Sammons, 1999 and 2003; Southworth, 2002; Hallinger and Heck, 1998; Harris et al, 2000; Leithwood et al, 2006) combined with the notion of an examination of a moral issue a case study design seemed most appropriate. Further, from these existing frameworks came the idea of using multiple methods incorporating data collection techniques such as semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, on-site observation and artefact and document analysis.

To enhance reliability, detailed notes of the steps undertaken were prepared to provide a guideline from which future research could be based (Yin, 2009; Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2006). The research was therefore a prescriptive process that allows subsequent researchers an opportunity to examine and critique the research. This logic is consistent with what was proposed by Yin (2009) with respects to maintaining a chain of evidence.

1.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, I provided a brief outline on the development of this study. Drawing on concepts from moral philosophy and moral psychology, I presented a broad conception of moral leadership. I defined what a moral issue is and how it can be used to examine moral leadership. A gifted and talented program was presented as a moral issue. This was followed by an explanation of why a gifted talented program is a good example of a school-

based moral issue from which to observe moral leadership in action. My theoretical perspective was provided and key concepts were defined and/or additional clarity provided. With the main focus of this study in mind, the next chapter reviews literature from within and outside of the field of education that assisted in the development of the focus of this thesis.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

In chapter one, I outlined an argument that an examination of leadership practice as it responds to the implementation of a GTP would provide evidence of moral leadership. This argument was based on the acknowledgment that one's actions reveal one's moral disposition. It was developed in part as a response to the concerns expressed in the literature with regards to a lack of conceptual clarity, the subjugation of what is moral and finally the call for moral case studies.

In this chapter, I present the literature that assisted in the development of the focus of this thesis and the main research question: How is moral leadership manifested through the provision of a GTP? Deconstructing[12] this question into its individual components, five key objectives arose:

1. Justify the concept of moral leadership within the context of a school.
2. Develop a robust conception of moral leadership through a historical and expository examination of multiple sources including moral philosophy and moral psychology.
3. Conduct an expository examination of the moral process as discussed in the literature from moral psychology.
4. Prepare a coherent defense for the provision of a gifted and talented program as a moral issue.
5. Develop awareness of traditions, frameworks, and methods used in previous research.

The first two objectives relate to the conception of moral leadership. The first of these objectives was addressed through an examination of a variety of educational leadership literature. The brevity was intentional as the purpose was simply to highlight the broad range of support for the conception of

12 This is not a reference to the philosophy of deconstruction as developed by Derrida.

moral leadership from a variety of different studies focused upon leadership of a school.

The second objective involved a review of literature that included a historic examination to contextualize the study of moral leadership. Combined with the process from the first objective, a more complete interpretation of moral leadership evolved. Furthermore, leadership literature from sources external to education were consulted and, though expository, review of literature from moral philosophy was undertaken.

The third objective is related to the term manifested. To examine this term in the context of an ethical discussion led to the review of the moral process. The moral process is about ethical human relationships, therefore, an expository review of two well known theories from within moral psychology was required. It is important to keep in mind that the review of literature from moral philosophy and moral psychology is intentionally uncritical and reflects my own interpretation of the material.

The fourth objective is the focus of the moral process. It is argued that provision of a GTP is representative of a moral issue, therefore, a coherent argument needs to be provided and defended.

The final objective serves to ensure that this study is mindful of the traditions, frameworks and methodologies of previous research investigating moral leadership. These combined objectives solidify both the context and the rationale of this thesis.

This chapter is presented using a style that is more narrative than systematic. The distinctions between these styles of literature reviews are not neatly delineated (Stake, 2010), though narrative tends to be more prominent in broad and descriptive research (Bryman, 2012). This review of literature was at times an ‘uncertain process of discovery’ (p.110) with elements that may at first appear ‘haphazard’ (p.111). This should not be interpreted as

unfocused, however, as the various channels converged to present literature that supports the five objectives of this chapter.

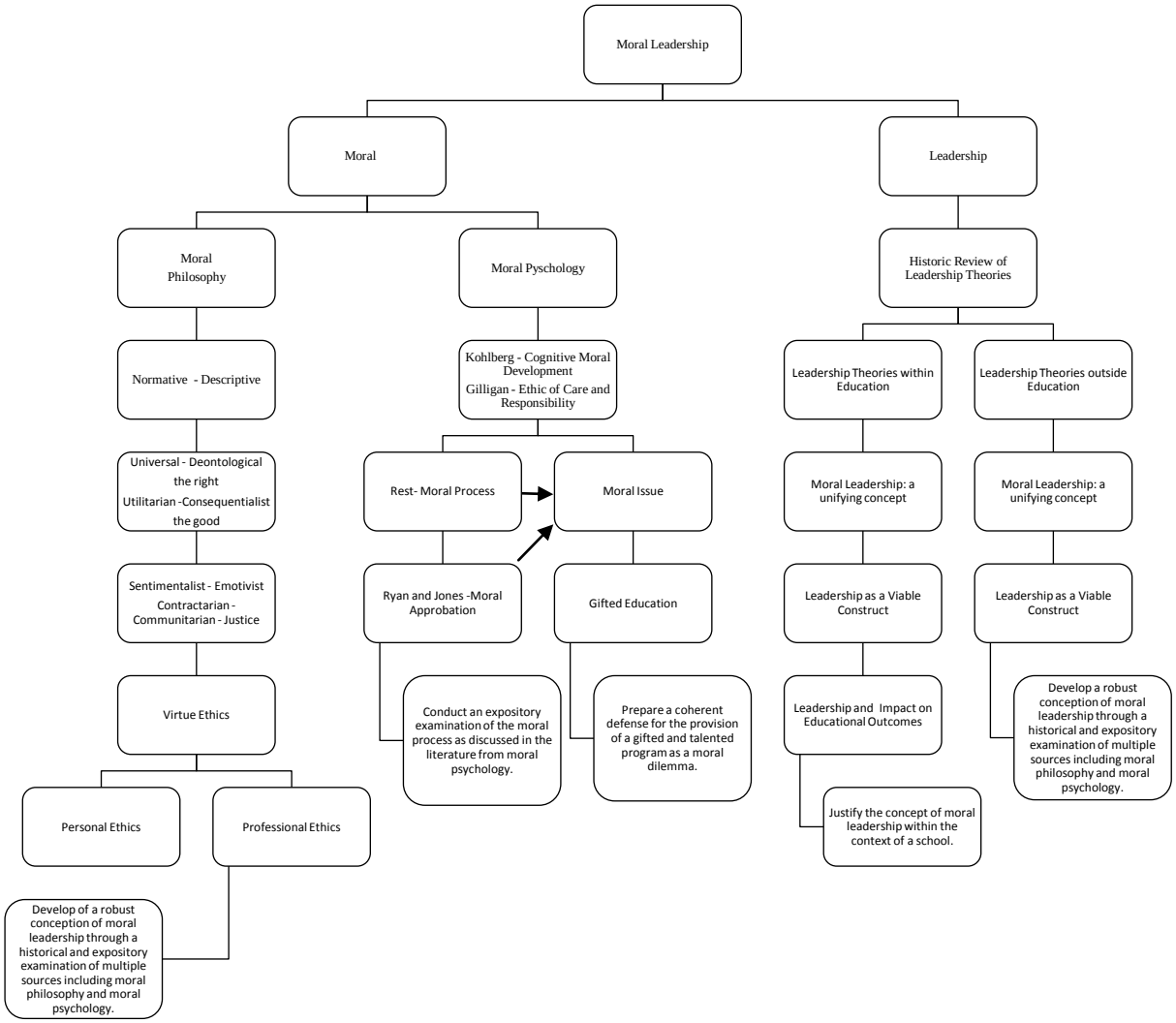

Figure 2.1. Flow chart depicting the literature that was reviewed and the related objective.

In order to assist the reader in keeping track of the multiple yet converging themes, I have included the preceding flow chart, Figure 2.1. This is a diagrammatic depiction of the steps that guided this literature search. In addition, I also present a summary of key points in section 2.25 and again at the conclusion. It is important to keep in mind that each step in this review is designed to support and/or clarify both the rationale for this thesis and the development of the methodology that is presented in chapter three.

2.1 Locating the theory of Moral Leadership

I begin by locating this study of moral leadership within the broader discipline of leadership studies in education. To accomplish this I am using work by Gunter and Ribbins (2002) and their mapping of leadership studies.

In this thesis, it is the character of the leader as opposed to the characteristics of leaders that is of interest (Greenfield and Ribbins, 1993). In the sense, I am drawing upon ideas expressed by Gunter and Ribbins (2002) as a focus on *leading* and described as,

> detailed and contextualized accounts of what individual leaders do and why they do it in a variety of circumstances, how and why others respond as they do, and with what outcomes (362).

In creating a typology of knowledge domains, Gunter and Ribbins identified five knowledge domains: conceptual, critical, humanistic, evaluative, and instrumental. These are explained further by reference to 'seven groupings of work' (377) which are the foci of each knowledge domain. They are briefly listed here as a reference: purpose, focus, context, method, audience, communication, and impact. Each of the five domains and seven factors are discussed in greater detail in their work (see 2002 and 2003). It should be noted that these are not neat distinct concepts but rather there is some overlap.

With this in mind, this thesis, therefore, would be considered more in the domain of humanistic; in the sense that the purpose is to describe, analyze and theorize from empirical results (2002). The focus is upon leaders and leading, agency and how individuals engage in their work and professional experiences. The context is school focused. The methods are consistent with empirical, ethnographic, personal histories and biographies. The audience is researchers and researching professionals. Communication is geared towards the research community and practitioners. The impact is intervention and description of professional practices (2002).

Busch and Glover (2014) in a discussion on various models list a typology of leadership: Instructional, Managerial, Transformational, Moral and Authentic, Distributed, Teacher, System, and Contingent. They suggest moral leadership is based on 'personal and professional values' (559). Leaders are expected to behave with integrity to develop and support goals. Leaders act with integrity based on values, beliefs and ethics of the leaders. They note that disagreement arises when staff do not share the same values of the leader.

In a more recent publication, Bush (2015) suggests how organizational theory may inform school leadership. He identified four aspects that are said to be the focus of those analyzing organizations: goals, structure, culture and context. From here Bush looks at the various styles of leadership and discusses each in respects of these foci. In terms of goals, the discussion on moral leadership notes that the central issues are 'worthy and ethical' goals and whether the staff share the same values as the leader (p.11). With regards to structure he notes that moral leadership literature 'offers little guidance on structure' (p.14). As the leaders goals are paramount, the structure 'suggests a strong emphasis on hierarchy' (p.14). In terms of culture, Bush suggests that it is the 'dominant group' whose values prevail (p.16). In terms of context, Bush does not provide any commentary.

In reviewing Bush (2014) and Bush and Glover (2015), some concerns arise. For this thesis, moral leadership is not considered a typology of leadership. In the introduction, I noted that moral leadership is a principle that is at the foundation of all leadership styles. Further, in this chapter I review additional researchers and their works and will augment this argument. At this point, I would note that moral leadership in my conception cannot be set aside as one pursues a style or technique of leadership such as distributed, teaching, instructional or transformational. Nor is it diminished due to a system or context of the situation. To accept that as a conclusion would be to presuppose a relativistic position and/or to share a conception dissimilar to the one I am proposing for this thesis. In regards to goals and the potential

for alienating staff who do not share the same values, here to I have some concerns. This view may overstate the plurality of ethical views among staff. As schools are an known moral institution in many societies, it seems reasonable to presuppose that this aspect of a school may attract those who share this view and/or are attracted to the occupation for this reason. Some support for this contention is found in a study by Kane and Mallon, (2006). They report results from a survey conducted in New Zealand that in part comprised questionnaire results from,

> '790 teachers and principals/head teachers, 182 board/committee members, 410 student teachers. Interviews were held with 16 principals, 48 teachers, 15 board/committee members, 11 focus groups of senior students and 5 focus groups of student teachers (v).

The findings suggested that there are shared values in terms of obligations to society, to children and to the profession. As they note,

> What can be said with absolute confidence is that all key groups believe that teachers have responsibility for an important service within society (x).

Further, results from new and existing teachers suggested that,

> One of the strongest and enduring group of factors affecting recruitment and retention decisions is teachers' individual intrinsic motivation to working with children, to make a useful contribution to society and to gain personal fulfilment from a job well done (xi).
>
> Working with children and young people and making a difference in their achievement, attitudes and behaviours is also the area of teaching that teachers say provides them with the highest levels of satisfaction (xi).

I agree with Bush and Glower (2014) with the importance of theory of leadership to inform practice. Important support for this thesis is their comment that suggests that theory, 'provides a way of understanding and interpreting the actions of leaders' (565). Further, that theoretical models

'provide lenses to view and comprehend the ways in which leadership is enacted in schools' (565). Moreover, that

> 'theory provides a guide to leadership practice for principals and other leaders. It widens horizons and avoids drawing only on the inevitably limited individual or collective experience of any school's leaders.

One of the aims of this thesis is to provided a bridge between theory and practice. In the next section, I focus on 'lessons' learned from the history of leadership studies.

2.11 Justification of moral leadership: support through a look at historical influences

A review of the history of leadership studies was undertaken in order to establish a firmer grasp of the current conception of moral leadership and to see what insights, as Gronn (2010) wrote, 'can be learnt from history' (p.406). What follows is a summary of this review. The review focussed initially on the mid 1800s during a time when there was a merging of the scientific movement with the industrial revolution. This movement accelerated the western world from a system of myths and beliefs towards a greater demand for explanation based on science and systems. The belief in the power of science was so strong that by the late 1800s, concepts of supermen and eugenics were widely accepted among elites and the scientific world[13]. The desire for mechanistic and efficient systems would dominate and influence thinking in the burgeoning businesses and industries. Taylor's (1911), *Principles of Scientific Management*, and Weber's, (1915, English translation 1947), *Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, advanced notions of efficiency, labour productivity and measurement. The result was an acceptance of scientific reasoning, logical empiricism and a positivistic view

13 Hereditary Genius by Galton, 1892

of science symbolized by the creation of the Vienna Circle in the late 1920s. Scientific systems were dominant within the thinking of influential business leaders who believed that their empires were models of successful organizations (Berry and Beach, 2006). In education, the business elite pushed outcomes that embraced cheap education and practical knowledge administered using similar systems of scientific management (2006). In school administration's early beginnings, the principal (main) teacher took on accepted responsibility for educating the less experienced teachers as well as students; he or she ensured the basic functioning and organization of the school (Kafka, 2009). The principal teacher role evolved into a formal position of authority to become the Principal, the leader of the school (2009). Early training of school administrators, therefore, focused primarily upon supervision and administration. The application of this training was an administration that was predominantly authoritative and rigid[14] (Berry and Beach, 2006). This dominate leadership practice with its focus on systems, power, authority and control continued through to the 1950s[15] (Berry and Beach, 2006). In 1945, the publication of *Administrator Behaviour* by Herbert Simon solidifies the "scientific approach to organisational decision-making by exercising the recalcitrant human values that seemed impervious to empirical analysis and evaluation" (in Barlosky, 1992, p. 418).

By the 1960s, a theoretical and academic shift in focus arose. In organizational theory, Sayles and Strauss (1960) wrote of the importance to address moral concerns of the employees. Their work echoed theories that gained a wider audience after the publication of Maslow's (1954), *Motivation and Personality*. This text enlarged upon themes Maslow (1943) had written about 11 years earlier in, *A Theory of Human Motivation*. In this text, he identifies a range of 'basic-needs' attributable, predominant, to each

14 This popular view may be exaggerated, Kafka (2009) writes that though there is limited literature from that time, what does exists makes references to primarily to administrators as district superintendents. Though sparse, the literature that does exist suggests that principle have from the beginning been advocating for their schools, staff and students (Kafka, 2009).

15 It should be stated that both Follet (1918) and Barnard (1938) had published works regarding the importance of relationships and moral behaviour.

individual (p.394). At base are physiological and safety needs moving up a non-rigid, though chiefly 'hierarchy of prepotency' to reach self-actualisation (p.370). Next is found 'the love needs' (p.381). Maslow describes these as love, affection and 'belongingness needs' (p.380). Self-esteem and the need for self-actualization complete the taxonomy. Self-esteem is the need for recognition and worth. Self actualization is a reference to 'become everything that one is capable of becoming' (p.382). Sayles and Strauss (1960) among others, recognized these needs as being influenced by the role of the leader within an organization. They adopted and adapted these ideas towards a greater focus on followers (1960). In the 1970s, following upon the work of these early researchers, Burns (1978) publishes his seminal book, *Leadership*. The focus on moral leadership was at the heart of his view of leadership as being transformational. Burns provided the following description of moral leadership:

> this last concept, moral leadership, concerns me the most. By this term I mean, first, that leaders and led have a relationship not only of power by the mutual needs, aspirations, and values...Moral leadership is not mere preaching, or the uttering of pieties, or the insistence on social conformity. Moral leadership emerges from, and always returns to, the fundamental wants and needs, aspirations, and values of the followers. I mean the kind of leadership that will produce social change that will satisfy followers' authentic needs (p.4).

By the 1980s, concepts of a moral or ethical component of leadership is being discussed more frequently in the educational leadership literature (Greenfield, T., 1980; Schrag, 1979). In the 1990s, educational literature is discussing notions of transformational leadership (Balster, 1992; Leithwood, 1992; Sergiovanni, 1990). More recent literature has moved on to a post-transformational view, towards a more focused combination of transformational and transactional in the context of shared or distributed leadership (Gronn, 2010; Spillane et al, 2003). Descriptions such as community, collaboration, collegiality, trust, relationships, and shared vision common in the moral leadership literature, however, still remain within this 'new' conception of leadership.

Most notable from this brief historic review of leadership is the reference to relationships and ethical behaviour found in many of the major works. In the early part of the 20th century, in spite of demands for systems, Follet (1918) and Barnard (1938) are emphasizing the importance of sharing, communication, and moral complexity. In the mid part of the century, McGregor (1966), influenced by Maslow, discusses the 'human side of enterprise' and the objective of getting closer to the 'good society' (Miller, 1967; p.14). McGregor introduced the concepts of theory Y as 'a counterpoint to authoritarian, control-oriented theory X assumptions about people' (McGregor and Cutcher-Gershenfeld, 2006, p. viii). By the later part of the 20th century and early 21st, the acceptance of concepts directly or indirectly related to moral leadership seem well entrenched in the leadership literature (see Auerbach, 2009; Bennis, 1985; Cranston and Kusanovich, 2014; Rowold, 2008). Once again the combined literature examined reinforces or advances notions of moral leadership. The next section examines current theories of leadership external to education to see what insights they may provide and what additional support for the concept of moral leadership exists.

2.12 Justification for the concept of moral leadership within the context of a school.

Despite the concerns with regards conceptual clarity as introduced in chapter one, within the context of a school, a broad justification for a basic conception of moral leadership is quite unambiguous. To begin with, support is grounded within the context of an institution that is at its base a moral enterprise (Dewey, 1916/2009; Kohlberg, 1977). The natural outcome is leadership that has an ethical nature (Day, 1997, Greenfield, 2004). This has been noted by researchers such as Schrag (1979) who described the principal as ‘a moral agent’ (p.207) and Hodgkinson (1991) who wrote, 'values, morals and ethics are the very stuff of leadership and administrative life' (p.11). Barlosky (1992) complements these thoughts noting that, 'leadership can

best be understood as the philosophically grounded and values-driven *praxis* of administration (p.409, italics in the original). A values-driven praxis of administration is understood here as a reference to the moral skill of a principal in exercising ethical conduct. Further, support is found in writings from Starratt (2005) who expresses his views on themes that are vital to educational leadership,

> The first and most basic domain of ethical responsibility is as a human being. In this domain, an educational leader considers the humanly ethical thing to do, taking into account the dignity and the inviolability of the other person (p.125).

Sergiovanni (1993) in writing about his concerns with schools perceived as organizations opines that schools need to be considered as communities centered upon defining characteristics of 'bonding' with others and 'binding' to shared values (p.18). In this vision of school as a community, the school leader is not a bureaucratic authority but rather is replaced with the ideas of 'moral and professional authority' (p.18). These aforementioned papers are largely intuitive conceptions of school leadership that lead naturally to the supposition that moral leadership, at least in the context of a school[16], is at base a justifiable conception.

Though moral leadership of a school has this self-evident and intuitive characteristic, there is research from a variety of contexts that provides direct or indirect support. For example, in research examining schools undergoing reform a number of researchers identify the importance of relationships and moral purpose (Datnow, 2002; Earley, 2005; Fullan, 2001a; Harris, 2004; Strike, 2003). Datnow (2002) reports results from a four year longitudinal study of 13 urban elementary schools. The data collection involved on site visits, focus groups, interviews plus achievement data for students. She states that reforms do not come about 'from individuals or institutions acting in isolation' (p.233). Reforms require collegiality and

16 There are many other examples, such as nursing, social work, community colleges, and even at a university, where moral leadership could be observed.

collaboration; they require leadership that can 'co-construct' reforms and develop 'joint understandings' (p.233). This leadership is spread among policy makers, principals and teachers. Reforms require sensitivity and adaptability 'mindful of local context' and diversity of the population (p.233).

Relationships and a collaborative environment have also been noted as an important ingredient in literature focused upon successful school improvement. Southworth (2002) identified common issues and themes as reported by head teachers involved in school improvement. He concluded that though `rational systems and formalized structures and processes are needed, school leaders need to take account of the human relationships` (p.81). The idea of the importance of human relationships is supported through the notion that a culture of collaboration is a necessary condition for whole school development. Similar thoughts are expressed by Harris, A. (2003) who writes of the need for a professional community to have 'a shared sense of purpose, engage in collaborative work and accept joint responsibility for the outcomes of their work' (p.379). In a case study of a high school, Harris, B. (2004) discusses the importance of considering the emotional impact of change. She identifies three "key phases" involved in implementing a new programs (p.395). For each phase she identified, 'there are ... three "heart" conditions which are central to the process of change' (p.402, quotes in original). In phase one, mistrust and trust requires the development of 'emotional fitness'. In phase two, the transition from dependency to autonomy requires 'emotional literacy and depth'. In the final stage, implementation to innovation is dependent upon 'emotional alchemy' (p.402). The details of each are not the current focus of this review, but rather the general theme that each phase and corresponding condition identified experiences 'a high degree of emotional exposure and trust, which is at the heart of successful and sustainable school improvement' (p.402). To this statement should be added that at the heart of 'emotional exposure and trust' are a collection of moral beings facing moral decisions. It could be

argued therefore that at the core of successful school improvement is a sense of moral purpose that is ultimately at the heart of change.

In literature examining effective schools there can be found additional support for the concept of moral leadership. Day et al, (1999) in their report on results from 'more than 200 interviews with heads, staff, governors, parents and students in 12 primary, secondary and special schools.' (p.19). Schools were selected because they were 'publicly acknowledged "effective" leaders' and head teachers identified by 'external inspection reports and peers' representing extreme cases (p.3, quotes in the original). The researchers suggest that head teachers encounter numerous issues and ethical tensions. The study focuses upon three issues, two are related to managing staff and the last is related to the conflict between internal and external demands. Since the study was focused on broad themes, it outlined these issues through a general discussion, but it did not, in the formal sense of moral reasoning, explain the process the heads went through to address each of the issues. Nonetheless, the researchers provide a few comments which are pertinent to this thesis:

1. The head teacher's belief in the potential of all and the possibility of developing everyone within the community of their school lay at the heart of their philosophies of leadership (p.15).

2. Good leaders are informed by and communicate clear sets of personal and educational values which represent their moral purposes for the school (p.21).

3. The heads, 'managed ongoing tensions and issues through principled, values-based contingency leadership' (p.25).

4. They make the claim that there research supports 'the powerful role played by values' as a 'key determinant of effective school leadership' (p.27).

Sammons, (2003) reporting on findings from a research study on effectiveness of secondary schools, a development project and a school improvement initiative echoes some of the themes already discussed. She

provides a list of characteristics among them she includes: establish a clear and consistent vision, identify the prime purpose of the school's teaching and learning, develop the school's vision collaboratively, encourage collaborative and effective SLT that promote staff morale and exemplifies teamwork (p.7). She goes onto highlight the importance of retaining 'social, spiritual and moral values high on the agenda' (p.21).

Bush and Glover (2014) note the difference between moral leadership and transformational leadership as a focus on integrity and aims that are 'worthy' conceptions of the right and the good. They suggest that the 'critical focus of leadership ought to be on the values, beliefs and ethics of leaders themselves' (559).

There are other studies that focus upon a decline in moral behaviour as a consequence of the accountability culture and the technocratic demands that cause a ‘corrosion of caring’ (Giles and Hargreaves, 2006). As bureaucratic demands increase school culture is pressured, relationships strain, and collegiality is challenged as teachers are forced against one another instead of working towards a common purpose (2006). In other words, moral considerations begin to falter. In a study on barriers to leadership development, Fullan (2003) describes school leaders who get caught up in bureaucracy and forget the reasons that inspired the individual to become an educational leader. He refers to this imposed limitation as a ‘loss of moral compass’ (p.20).

In the aforementioned studies, each provided evidence and/or opinion based on a meta-review of evidence that supported the conception of moral leadership within the context of a school. Together these studies present a unified view that moral leadership is a fundamental characteristic of school leadership. It should also be noted that it is from this literature that the theoretical perspective, research design and methods used in this study were developed. In chapter three, additional detail of incorporating a case study within a multi-method research design is provided.

2.13 Justification of moral leadership: conceptions from critical theory, feminist theory, critical race theory (CRT) and critical leadership studies (CLS)

As its name implies, critical theory in its basic form is a critique, a critical review of a theory and/or an ideology. It is practical in orientation with an 'aim to explain and transform *all* the circumstances that enslave human beings' (Bohman, 2015, para. 1).

It is aligned with many social movements that focus upon the autonomy of the individual and freedom from 'domination and oppression' (2016, para.2). Advocates of Critical Theory[17] argue it as a practical inquiry that combines 'rather than separate the poles of philosophy and the social sciences.' (2016, para.2). There is a 'distinctly moral (rather than instrumental) sense' (para.2, brackets in the original). It is this moral aspect that is of interest to this thesis.

Arising out of Critical Theory are social critical theories focused upon feminism, race relations, and leadership theories. Though each of these have unique characteristics, the central ideas of human autonomy, emancipation, challenging patriarchal structure and culture are key precepts (Bohman, 2016). This view is highlighted in Grace (2000) who wrote,

> Critical theory involves an awareness of the pervasiveness of oppressive and dominating structures in society and is informed by the importance of historical analysis, the recognition of structural contradictions, the self understandings of participants and the raising of consciousness (p.245).

Feminist literature takes these ideas and adds issues of gender and sexual orientation. Blackmore is a feminist scholar who has written on educational leadership. She has suggested that mainstream leadership research is,

> 'framed within Western cultural and masculinist traditions, rather than seeing how recognising and valuing alternative leadership representations practices in culturally-diverse societies as a pre-condition of a socially just education (Blackmore, 2010, p. 47).'

[17] Critical Theory capitalised refers to the Frankfurt School. When not capitalized it refers to the broader use of the term as used in social movements for example (Bohman, 2016).

She sees masculinism as an ideology that justifies the subjugation of women, a 'division of labour' based on gender from which men are the beneficiaries. Benefits from this oppression pass on to all men 'regardless of their individual behaviours and beliefs' (p. 49). This patriarchal structure is embedded in organizations both structurally and culturally. In educational research it is pervasive throughout the literature. For example, in the literature on transformational leadership the focus is upon transforming people and not on addressing issues of power, race, culture and gender and how these impact organizational structures (2010).

Addressing organizational structure and cultural racism is essential in developing greater understandings of others. Blackmore goes on to state that the benefit of a reflexive introspection of oneself as a white school leader who benefits from white privilege is,

> to be cognizant of both structural and cultural accounts of racism and multiculturalism in order to develop more inclusive schools and leadership practices (2010, p.55).

This critical self-examination with respects to race, gender, class assists school leaders in understanding others and promotes the development towards more 'inclusive schools and workplaces that will improve individual and collective life opportunities' (2010, p. 46).

Black feminists such as Dillard (2000a), build on these critical theories and introduced a concept known as endarkened feminist epistemology. This is an indirect reference at a conception of a 'double consciousness' (Wright, 2003, p.209).

> An endarkened feminist epistemology is an example of what can result when a black woman rejects bifurcation of consciousness and employs double sightedness and double consciousness to both articulate a perspective on knowledge and make an intervention in the status quo of knowledge production and evaluation (209).

From this epistemological position, Dillard argues that we all benefit from an improvement in understanding, a great empathy towards others and greater appreciation of our shared humanity.

> Becoming multicultural educators requires a radical rethinking of our roles, relationships, and "response[abilities]" to those whose race/ ethnicity, class, sexual orientation/affiliation, and other identities may differ from our own-and whose very humanity can deeply enrich us all (Dillard 1996, p.231)

Critical leadership studies are directly related to these other critical theories. Though the focus here is upon school leadership, like other critical theories there is a call for emancipation and a challenge to existing structures and culture. As Grace (1995) writes, CLS is about empowerment of school participants and a focus on school culture that requires 'insights from history, philosophy, religion, political economy and cultural analysis' (Grace, 1995, p.52).

Advocates of CLS like to contrast it with Education Management Studies (EMS) whose focus tends to be on 'effectiveness, quality, excellence and value for money' (Grace, 2000, p. 231 and 233). Education is consider a commodity that is 'packaged, delivered and marketed as efficiently as possible' (p.233). It is associated with the movement of new managerialism focused on quality control, budgets, performance indicators, and ''human resource management'' (p.233, italics in the original). This reconstruction of educational leadership from its more traditional community based symbolic, social and moral role has given way to a detached mechanistic, technist, and reductionist scope and content (Berstein, 1996; Grace, 2000). This view of CLS over EMS may be overly simplistic. Morrison (2001) criticizes Graces view as narrow in its interpretation of EMS. He suggest that EMS may be more developed and promote rather than detract empowerment, democratic and moral forms of leadership such as distributed and servant. Grace does offer what appears to be a compromise as he paraphrases Hodgkinson's writings

by noting that, 'leadership 'requires and awareness of philosophical principles and of moral complexity as well as technical competence' (p.242).

Critical theories whether focused upon leadership, feminism and/or critical race theory advocate for social justice and democratic styles of leadership. There is a 'move away from notions of power and control over others' (Grace, 2000, p.240). There is a move from white maleness to a more feminist inspired form of leadership. It is intended to make schooling 'fully human and humane' (2000, p.240). There is a common central theme that is focused upon freedom from oppression emanating from and situated within structural and cultural traditions.

Perhaps these concepts combined are best illustrated through a metaphor provided by feminist scholar Marilyn Frye. In the *Politics of Reality* (1983), Frye creates a metaphor of a bird cage to illustrate the concepts of oppression and subjugation. Each bar in the cage represents a barrier or other impediment that prevents a bird from finding his or her freedom. Combined each bar makes a cage in which the oppressed can function but is otherwise unable to escape. Those on the outside are likewise prevented from entering the cage, but they are *not* caged. Those on the outside cannot see the whole cage as they 'myopically' look at each bar (p.4). Those on the outside are perplexed as to why the bird simply does not fly away, but *they* are free. To see the entire cage requires a 'macroscopic' look (p.5). From this broader view point, one can see that each bar is in a relationship to the other, and each bar creates the whole cage (1983).

For critical theorists each bar in this metaphorical cage is an obstacle, a barrier, an encumbrance that prevents the individual from being a fully free human. More relevant to this discussion on critical leadership studies, each bar is an obstacle that prevents a school from being fully humane (Grace, 2000). The ideas contained in critical theory draw strength from a moral foundation. The ideas expressed are very similar in tone to ideas contained within the moral leadership literature with its focus upon ideas of self-

sacrifice, caring, sharing, trustworthiness and democratic forms of leadership. In this brief review, we can see the ethical tone in the preceding remarks, a tone that suggest support for the concept of moral leadership.

2.14 Justification of moral leadership: current conceptions from literature outside of education

Given that schools by their very nature are considered a moral enterprise (Day, 1997), it is not surprising to expect leadership with a moral base. But if moral leadership is to be a robust conception, justified as a foundational concept of leadership, it should also be seen in the evidence supporting theories examining institutions where there may be less of a moral motive. A review of more contemporary views of leadership theories from literature outside of education was therefore undertaken. The intention is to highlight how in each of these theories from sources external to the education literature, there is a unifying conception of leadership, the concept of moral leadership.

2.141 Four main theories of leadership

By the end of the 1980s, major theories of leadership could be 'divided naturally into distinct lines of research' and grouped based on the focus of the research (Yukl, 1989, p. 254). The main categories are: Traits, Behaviours, Situational and Power-Influence (Yukl, 1989). It should be noted that the divisions in leadership theories are not as neatly delineated as this may suggest (Yukl, 1989; Bass (2008). Yukl notes that the divisions that do exist are often a reflection of one's 'conception of leadership and methodological preference' (p. 254). For the purposes of this study, it is the commonalities, particularly the ethical component among the various theories that are of interest.

2.142 Trait Theories

Early research on traits is a reference to what Bass (2008) called, the 'biological-genetic theories' (p. 48) influenced by the belief in 'innate' abilities of leaders of society and therefore focused on eminent individuals[18]. These early theories give rise to what is referred to as, 'Great-Man Theories' (p. 49). This variation of trait theory is based upon notions of being male, occupying position of authority, frequently in politics, the military, business or society. The analysis of these 'great-man theories' led to investigation of their personality and intelligence. This early research was largely dismissed, as it neglected the impact of the situation and importantly, efforts to find traits that would assure success never materialized (Stodgill, 1974; Yukl, 1989). In the 1980s, trait theory refocused on leadership effectiveness. Specifically, what skills are needed, and how, if any, do traits have an impact (Bass, 2008). Of interest to this thesis is the notion that empowering others vs control of others was a positive trait found in research focused on the motivation of successful leaders. Interpersonal skills were among the skills identified as needed in effective leaders (Yukl, 1989).

2.143 Behaviour Theories

The research on the behaviours or activities of leaders is a focus on what leaders do and an examination of the relationship leaders have with followers (Bass, 2008; Yukl, 1989). Among activities and decision making is a focus on 'task oriented and relationship behaviours' (Yukl, 1989, p. 258). Behaviours considered effective for leadership are: 'participative leadership, consideration, recognition, praise, contingent rewards, clarifying roles, objectives and setting priorities' (1989, pp. 258-259). A common theme that emerges is a focus on positive behaviours such as leaders who are

18 In the context of this thesis, it is interesting to note that the early work in leadership studies was influenced and undertaken by some of the names well known in the intelligence movement, see Galton and Terman for example.

relationship oriented, share a vision and empathise with their followers (Bass, 2008; Yukl,1989).

2.144 Situational Theories

Situational factors focuses on the context in which a leader find's oneself. In other words, what are the conditions in the environment and how does this influence traits, behaviours and the impact on leader effectiveness? In addition, situational theories look at how much independence a leader has. According to these theories, effective leaders are able to 'reconcile role conflicts caused by incompatible role expectations' (Yukl, 1989, p.262). Effective leaders consider external attribution with regards to follower performance and will change the variables to improve outcomes. Effective leaders consider internal attribution with regards to followers and will provide coaching or reduce the complexity of task outcomes. In both cases, effective leaders demonstrate concern for followers (1989). Situational theories of leadership are subdivided into several theories, some of these include: path goal, leader member exchange (LMX) and multiple linkage model. Irrespective of the model, a common theme in each of the situational theories is a focus on the relationship between the leader and the followers.

2.145 Power and Authority Theory

This theory tends to focus on 'types and sources of power' (Yukl, 1989, p.255). It examines how is power acquired or lost. It focuses upon reciprocal influences between leader and follower and is related to concepts of emergent leadership and how leaders gain power. For example, power emanating due to the position that the individual occupies or power emanating from traits of the individual. Yukl (1989) suggest that effective leaders rely more on personal power as opposed to position power. A

combination of personal attributes and position power, however, is used by effective leaders to ‘minimize status differentials and avoids threats to the self-esteem of subordinates’ (p.256). Here again, a concern for the well being of followers is noted; in particular, the concept of self-esteem highlighted earlier in Maslow (1954).

In chapter one, I proposed the notion of studying a school's leaders as they respond to a moral issue. This idea is associated with the views expressed in both trait and situational theories. In other words, the internal state, the traits, as it is manifested in response to the moral issue, a situation.

2.15 Moral leadership: a unifying conception of leadership theories

An oft-quoted reference from Bennis (1959) states, ‘Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination’ (p.259-260), but this frequently cited criticism overlooks that there are areas of agreement. One area in particular is the centrality of a moral base in leadership. Yukl (1989) confirms this when he writes that there is at least one unifying feature among the views of leadership and that is the ‘proposition that effective leaders have high concern for both task *and* people’ (Yukl, 1989: p.279, emphasis added). This statement should not be surprising as it is echoes a similar refrain from earlier works. Take for example Stodgill's (1949) basic definition of leadership. He defines leadership 'as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its task of goal setting and goal achievement' (p.276). An organized group involves more than one human being, and when two or more humans interact, a ‘social relationship develops’ (Barnard, 1938/1968, p.11). Stodgill attempts additional clarity by identifying what is and is not implied by his definition:

> Such a definition suggests that leadership is a relationship that exists between persons who are engaged in a common enterprise. It does

> not imply, (1) that there can be only one leader in the group, (2) that the leader need be either dominative or cooperative in his methods, (3) that the leader must be effective in achieving group objectives, or (4) that he need necessarily exert a constructive influence on the group or contribute positively toward its welfare or survival. The definition merely serves to specify the person or persons who exert leadership influence in the group. It does not specify the qualitative aspects of that influence (p.276).

Stodgill states that leadership is at its base a relationship between people. I disagree, however, with his clarification which appears to imply a neutral relationship between persons engaged in common enterprise. On the contrary, when two or more humans gather, a moral obligation immediately arises. There is no neutral arrangement; in response to Stodgill's biblical reference, am I my brother's keeper (Genesis, 4:9, World English Bible, 1998). The answer is an unequivocal yes. To use modern vernacular, it is a default expectation. The logic for this statement can be defended by reducing the concept of a moral obligation to a biological condition. Barnard (1938/1968) in a detailed explanation of organizations rightly notes that 'Human organisms do not function except in conjunction with other human organisms' (p.11). In other words, a human requires at least one other human to survive. Using a perspective from Maslow, once safety needs are satisfied[19], no other needs could be attained without another human. There would be no satisfaction of physiological needs, no love nor belonging, no self-esteem nor self-actualization. Moreover, if one accepts that another human being is not a means to one's selfish ends, but that they are rather an end unto themselves, a moral obligation, must by definition, immediately arise. In other words, if we accept that others exist, then we have a moral responsibility to those other persons.

A common theme throughout many of the post-1950 incarnations of leadership theories and this would include more mechanistic interpretations focused on 'scientific administration', is the focus on the importance of

19 Setting aside the adage, safety in numbers.

relationships with others. Each of these theories, therefore, has at a base level a connection to the moral well being of others within its group. The implication is that moral behaviour is, at the foundations of all leadership theories, a unifying theory. The preceding highlights not only the common concern for others that is a natural part of leadership, but also that moral leadership is a fundamental concept that unites the various conceptions of leadership.

2.16 Justification for the concept of moral leadership: leadership a viable construct

While leadership theories both within and external to education may have a moral foundation, does it matter if leadership is not even a viable construct? In other words, moral leadership would not be necessary if leadership was not a viable construct. An implicit assumption in much of the research on leadership is that it is a distinct phenomenon; leadership has influence, it can effect change and enhance outcomes within a particular group (Leithwood, 2007). This fundamental assumption is challenged by some researchers who question the notion of leadership as a specific set of activities that are more than just a social influence or subordination to situational or authoritarian power (Cadler and Burnkrant, 1977; Pffefer, 1977). This group argues in-part that leadership is a social construction and that follower perception is skewed via the fundamental attribution error [20] based in-part on acculturation and expectations of his or her organization (Calder and Burnkrant, 1977). In other words, individuals 'tend to see the dispositions (traits, preferences, etc.) of an actor as causing the actor's behaviour' (p. 29) and not the situational factors that may be evident. From this groups perspective, leadership is mere chimera, a myth, an outcome of a romantic

[20] '"Attribution" is a psychological construct referring to the cognitive processes through which an individual infers the cause of an actor's behavior' (Calder and Burnkrant, 1977: p.29, quotes in the original).

infatuation with heroes (Meindl, Enrlich and Dukerich, 1985). This is similar to an earlier view expressed by Pffefer (1977) who wrote,

> Leadership is associated with a set of myths reinforcing a social construction of meaning which legitimates leadership role occupants, provides belief in potential mobility for those not in leadership roles, and attributes social causality to leadership roles, thereby providing a belief in the effectiveness of individual control (p.111).

The view that leadership is mere chimera is a minority view and may be a reflection of the political and/or philosophical views of the researchers more than the empirical and phenomenological evidence. Those opposed to the concept of leadership frequently cite work by Calder and Burnkrant (1977). Yet Calder and Burnkrant's work was challenged by Beyer (1978) who wrote that their conclusions lacked evidence of 'behavioural outcomes' and suggested that Calder and Burnkrant appeared 'unaware' of work related to 'reputational and enacted power' which change the meaning of the acts as opposed to changing the acts themselves in order 'to become successful leaders' (p.491). For this thesis, therefore, leadership is considered as a viable construct conveying both influence and the ability for organizational change. This view is accepted by a majority of researchers from a variety of backgrounds and pursuing various interests: industrial/organizational theory, strategic leadership and innovation, social psychology, and educational leadership research (Jago, 1982; Bennis 1989; Yukl, 1989; Fullan 2001; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Antonakis, 2005; Bass, 2008).

2.17 Justification for the concept of moral leadership: School leadership and the impact on student academic outcomes.

The next challenge in this thesis was to address whether leadership of a school has an impact on student outcomes. If this assumption would have been incorrect, then there would be serious concerns regarding its practical utility, and the idea of moral leadership might be mute.

Literature from school effectiveness research (SER) supports the importance of leadership on student outcomes (Portin, Shen and Williams, 1998). SER attempts to identify influences brought to school from those gained at school in an attempt to identify 'how the two strands influence the students attainment, progress and development' (Sammons, 1999, p.138). One of the main outcomes of research into school effectiveness has been to 'identify processes and characteristics of schools deemed effective' (p.141). Among the list of characteristics is the identification of the principal's role as central and having major responsibility for decision-making. Hausman, Crow, and Sperry, (2000) observe, 'principals are crucial to the development and maintenance of effective schools' (p.5). Sammons, (2003) concludes that principals have a 'particularly important role in exercising leadership' (p.6).

The findings from SER do not go unchallenged. Elliot (1996) in a strongly worded critique describes it as "a mechanistic methodology, an instrumentalist view of the educational process and the belief that educational outcomes can and should be described independently of such processes," (Elliot, 1996, p. 200). He describes SER as a coercive approach to education (p. 207). Further, he notes that the effect size is small and findings obvious leading to his contention that nothing 'interesting or original has even been discovered' (p.204). Elliot refers to the assumptions of school effectiveness research as opposing the philosophical values of education challenging the 'very nature and purpose of schooling' (p.200).

There is a substantial body of educational research literature which suggests that school leaders[21] do in fact have a positive impact on student achievement (Elliot, 1996; Usdan, McCloud, and Podmostko, 2000; Earley, 2005; Harris, 2006). Hallinger and Heck (1998) stated that "principals exercise a measurable, though indirect effect on school effectiveness and student achievement" (p.186). Leithwood et al (2006), made the assertion that

21 School leaders are defined here as principals, assistant principals, heads of departments, school coordinators and other teaching staff which hold positions of responsibility in addition to classroom duties.

evidence supports leadership as “second only to in-class teaching in terms of effectiveness on student outcomes” (p.7). Harris (2005) states that '... school leadership matters, however, the degree to which it remains a contentious issue' (p.74). Leithwood and Day, (2007) write that '...the research community, at long last, produced a sufficient body of empirical evidence to persuade even the most skeptical that school leadership matters' (p. 1).

Though many researchers accept that leadership matters, there is disagreement with regards to the degree of the impact from school leadership. A detailed study by Searle and Tymms (2007) concluded that ‘headteachers generally have little impact on the academic learning and attitudes of pupils during at least the first five years of their employment’ (p.18). Further, they noted that ‘the most important thing a head teacher can do for their pupils is make sure that there are good teachers in their classrooms’ (p.42). Moynihan (2007) among other concerns noted that the measured impact of school leaders is in the 5% to 7 % range. In context of the overall impact that a school has on student achievement[22], which is around 20%, (Leithwood et al, 2006), the 5% figure implies that principals' impact is about 25% on student outcomes (Moynihan, 2007). In this context, the calculus in which the impact is seen as small changes, and the contribution of school leaders is magnified.

Despite controversy over the impact of school leadership on student outcomes, the majority view consistent among the educational literature over the past 25 years is that leadership has an impact (Cotton, 1995; Harris, 2013; Hallinger and Heck, 1998; Leithwood and Reihl, 2003; Mulford, 2001; Teddlie and Reynolds, 2000; Sammons, Khamis and Coleman, 2005; Sammons, Hillman and Mortimer, 1995).

22 Other factors such as 'socio economic grouping, the concentrations of the groups in a school, parental interest and income, student gender, special needs, first languages spoken, ethnicity and mobility, and the quality of the teaching staff' (Moynihan, 2007: p.44).

2.18 Justification for the concept of moral leadership: a brief summary of what has been discussed.

To this point in the discussion, the review of literature has helped to establish and/or clarify the following[23]:

1. Moral leadership as a concept is justified through the historic record of leadership studies.
2. Moral leadership as a concept is justified through an intuitive, self-evident, notion of schools as moral enterprises.
3. Moral leadership as a concept is justified in the literature through a variety of research approaches and theoretical perspectives from leadership theories external to education.
4. Moral leadership is a fundamental and unifying characteristic found within the full range of leadership theories.
5. Moral leadership as a concept is justified in the literature through a wide variety of research approaches and theoretical perspectives from within the field of educational administration.
6. Leadership is defined as a viable construct conveying both influence and the ability for organizational change.
7. Moral leadership of a school has a positive impact on student outcomes.

2.2 Moral Leadership: the development of a robust conception through a historical and expository examination of moral philosophy and moral psychology.

As noted in chapter one, 'the study of ethics is fundamental' to an 'understanding of leadership' (Cuilla, 2003, 302). In addition, I noted that the study of ethics is also about 'human relationships' (302). Since the study of ethics is informed by both moral philosophy and moral psychology, I

23 In addition, the theoretical and methodological perspectives reviewed in the literature encourage the use of case studies within a multi-method research design.

introduce a few concepts from disciplines that help contextualize and clarify the concept of moral leadership as used in this thesis.

One of the challenges in studying moral leadership is that there is little to no attempt to situate the terms and phrases used to describe ethical behaviour within the larger dialogue of moral philosophy. The omission of a philosophical justification has the consequence of subjugating the conception of moral leadership to a researcher's interpretation of what is moral. The outcome is that moral action is frequently expressed with an emotive and relativistic interpretation. The consequence is that it ignores those who subscribed to either deontological, utilitarian, or a virtue based view of ethical behaviour. This is a significant limitation of the literature on moral leadership (Campbell, 2003). Adding a recognized defence of the 'moral' component of the phrase moral leadership would help to formalize the broad range of eloquent exhortations and address the concerns with conceptual clarity as raised by researchers (Cuilla, 2003; Greenfield, 2004; Pijanowski, 2007). Moreover, it would strengthen the tenor of the arguments and it would help elucidate a more thorough understanding of the relationship between ethics and leadership. Cuilla (2003) seems to share this opinion, in a strongly worded statement on the importance of ethical behaviour and leadership she writes, 'In leadership morality is magnified' (p.302). What follows, therefore, is an attempt to 'map' moral leadership to its philosophical roots (Greenfield, 2004: p.22).

2.21 Moral leadership: mapping its roots in philosophy.

The study of the wisdom of morals is the purview of moral philosophy. The following rhetorical questions from Bertrand Russell's introduction to *The History of Western Philosophy*, help elucidate the general divisions in moral philosophy:

> Is there a way of living that is noble and another that is base, or are all ways of living merely futile? If there is a way of living that is noble, in what does it consist, and how shall we achieve it? (Russell, 1945, p.xi).

Depending upon the source consulted, there are three principle divisions[24] in the study of moral philosophy (Fieser, 2009; Law, 2007). *Metaethics*[25] examines broad themes of morality focused upon psychological, metaphysical and epistemological questions (Fieser, 2009; Sayre-McCord, 2014). It looks at 'the concepts and methods of ethics' (Blackburn, 2005, p.231). It is concerned with fundamental issues such as the existence of right and wrong. Metaethics is exemplified in the classic question, what is the nature of the good? (Law, 2007; Reese, 1999).

Normative (prescriptive) ethics 'provides guidance with respect to issues of right and wrong, good and evil' (Reese, 1999, p.526) in other words, it offers a 'guide of what we *ought* to do' (Alexander and Moore, 2012, para. 1, emphasis added). Normative ethics focuses primarily upon deontological, consequentialist and virtue theories (Law, 2007). A *deontological* theory is duty bound, focused upon obligations and principles (Blackburn, 2005). It is linked with the concept of *'the right'* (Alexander and Moore, 2012, para 1). It is a theory associated with Kant and his notions of a universal code of moral behaviour. It is a theory concerned with the *means* by which an action is completed (2012). In opposition to this theory are the *consequentialists* (2012). This theory focuses on the outcome, or the *'the good'* (2012). As Blackburn (2005) writes, 'the value of an action derives entirely from the value of its consequences' (pp.74-75). To this Law (2007) adds, '... an action is right if, and only if, it leads to the greatest happiness of the greatest number of people it affects' (p. 102). In other words, if the outcome is good, then the action was morally correct (Sinnott-Armstrong, 2012). The theory is teleological. The focus is on *ends*, the outcome of the action (Fieser, 2009).

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24 It should be stated that among the three major foci, are many sub-divisions. For example, consequentialism evolved from utilitarianism. There are at least nine different sub-themes in this category each with their own particular nuances. These sub-themes are too specialized to be considered for this thesis.
25 This is spelling based on Blackburn (2005) *Oxford Dictionary of Philosophy*.

Consequentialism arises out of traditional utilitarianism, a theory associated with Bentham and Mills (Reese, 2005, p. 211). The third normative theory and one which may provide both theoretical and practical utility, is v*irtue ethics.* Virtue ethics focuses on the 'moral character' of the individual (Hursthouse, 2012). The focus is not duty or consequences, but rather about 'developing good habits of character' (Fieser, 2009, para. 14). The development of 'habits of moral virtue' has practical implications (Reese, 2005, p.818). Right action expresses 'morally good traits of character, and this is what makes it right' (Law, 2007, p. 108). Morally good traits of character are based on a level of 'emotion, intuition, practical reason' and the ability to discern the nuances of a situation (Hursthouse, 2012, para 6). To be virtuous is to embrace 'a range of considerations as reasons for action' (para 7). Virtue is not seen solely on the basis of action, action-centered, but incorporates an agent's reasons; it is agent centered (Hursthouse, 2012). Virtue ethics' roots are in ancient Greek philosophy. It involves understanding *arête,* goodness, purpose, excellence; developing, moral wisdom, *phronesis*. Moral wisdom is practical as its focus is upon, 'moral sensitivity, perception, imagination, and judgement informed by experience' which facilitate the ability to apply rules or principles correctly (para. 27). Development of virtue is through practice and moral education. Virtue ethics are theories associated primarily with Aristotle though the concept of virtue was written by earlier Greek philosophers and is also found in the writings of Confucius.

The final division within moral philosophy is *applied* ethics (practical) with the focus upon putting one's behaviour into action (Fieser, 2009; Law, 2007). Applied ethics uses normative theories as a guide to decision making on moral issues. It considers the development of criteria for discussion and assessment of various ethical issues (Fieser, 2009). Some of these specific issues include the death penalty, abortion, animal rights, medical and biomedical ethics, business ethics, environmental ethics, organizational ethics and international ethics.

To this discussion of the divisions in moral philosophy should be added *descriptive* ethics. It is an approach to *analyzing* morality. Descriptive ethics is based on observations of human behaviour as it examines people's beliefs about what is right or wrong (Gert, 2012). It is a reference to morality as 'the most important code of conduct put forward' by a society (para.1). While related to moral philosophy and used often to contrast with normative theories, it is a sub-discipline of the social sciences, such as anthropology, psychology and history (para.1). Descriptive ethics is often used in research undertaking an ethnographic study.

The benefits from exposure to ethical discourse is a view shared by Strike (2005) who articulates that the benefits of learning how to better engage in moral reflection and justification will help 'to state some ethical principles and arguments more clearly' (p.3). He argues that knowledge of moral philosophy may help administrators reach more informed decisions, the result of which is that 'we expect that you will be a better administrator' (p.3). This view however is not shared by all researchers. The argument that there are benefits from increased knowledge of ethics is challenged by Leithwood (1999) who wrote,

> Moral philosophy gives greatest attention to those of personal values already evident in the practices of many school leaders and has nothing useful to say about those poor professional values largely absent in such practices. Furthermore, moral philosophy is largely concerned with values that develop over the course of one's lifetime in response to pervasive and sustained personal influences such as religious beliefs, parents, spouses, and adult friends (p. 45).

I disagree with this characterization of how moral philosophy is acquired and the usefulness of the knowledge and skill developed from acquaintance with moral philosophy. Leithwood appears to ignore that normative ethics are imbedded in the foundation of schooling. Further, personal moral development can be attained through moral education and reflection (Rest, 1982). Looking towards moral philosophy for an answer to the ethical

dimensions of school administration was highlighted by Hodgkinson (1991) who wrote,

> Moral leadership is achieved when the administration maintains a productive tension between philosophy and action. Effective leaders employ philosophy to curb the natural tendency of organizational member to over emphasize individual 'spiritedness', or emphasis on self (p.85, quotes in the original).

He follows up this comment by stating, 'The solution of the central problem must then be sought first in the domain of philosophy' (p. 85). As the first science, philosophy has had the obligation to lay out the rationality and criteria for what constitutes truth and 'determine by the best rational methods what is in fact true' (Macintyre, 2007, p.265).

It should be noted that the above is presented as a brief overview of a complex and vast subject. Each theory contains nuances, including many objections and concerns most of which have not been discussed. Moreover, an appreciation of the preceding does not guarantee a path to moral knowledge. In the context of this thesis, its utility is in strengthening the overall quality of the arguments I will make for moral leadership and drawing attention to the limitations inherent in the literature on moral leadership. As Nagel (1979/2012) stated, a moral view is an opinion that 'has to be criticized and defended by moral argument' (p. 90).

The rationale, therefore, for a greater appreciation of moral philosophy can be based on two arguments. The first is that it forces researchers to incorporate the language and arguments from ethics. The result is an increase in clarity and strength of arguments. The second is to let the reader know the philosophical framework from which the moral actions are delineated. This argument is based upon a similar rationale in identifying one's theoretical orientation with regards to the conduct of research. The reason for doing so in research is to let the reader know the theoretical approach taken and hence the potential limitations or bias of any findings and/or conclusions. The combination of a formal ethical language and philosophical framework is

designed to add to the quality of the conceptions of moral leadership put forth by researchers. A brief example may illustrate the concern. It is presented not as a criticism but rather as illustrative of the issue.

It is self-evident that schools are moral enterprises and there is an expectation of moral action. But when going to observe said actions, how does one know that the actions witnessed within a school are to be considered moral? In *The Moral Life of School*, Jackson, Boostrom and Hansen (1993) embrace a wide range of potential actions, gestures and symbols as being moral. The defense of what is moral is based on the teachers' personal ethical beliefs. For example, in recounting an episode taking place within a classroom, classmates laugh at a child for providing a wrong answer; the ensuing response provided by the teacher is not relevant here, however, in recounting the events, Jackson, Boostrom and Hansen state that a moral issue is a personal issue, 'Is this moral a moral issue? It is only if the teacher in question recognises it to be' (p. 180). But teaching in a school or by inference leading a school is a public undertaking. Therefore it is not just the private morality of the principle that is important, but rather there is the normative moral character of a school and being accountable in a public office. This divide between private and public morality is noted by Wueste (1994) who writes, "... professional ethics presupposes a distinction between ethics writ large and ethical conduct peculiar to a profession' (p.1). In other words, it presupposes a distinction between an individual's moral code and "constraints arising from the enterprise in which one is engaged" (p.1). The former implies a basic personal understanding of morality and the latter "constitutes an occupational role morality". Professional ethics are not a new "restatement of the norms of ordinary morality" rather they are norms of a profession "tied to an occupation or role" (p.1). In other words, moral leadership of a school is not just about personal moral beliefs, rather it includes a responsibility towards a community. This leads to a potential clash between private morality and the responsibility of those who act in a public

domain. This reasoning is consistent with Nagel, (1979/2012) who views that public institutions "come under a kind of public morality" (p.82). In accepting public roles, individuals reduce their personal interests in order to achieve the greater interest of society. This does not imply that private morality is not necessary, as Nagel writes, public morality 'emerges naturally from individual morality under the conditions that define the individual public role' (p.78). The tension of professional ethic versus private morality does not always imply a negative relationship. When professional ethics agree with private views, the two reinforce each other in a productive relationship for the organization. According to Broidy and Jones (1998),

> while we do not always make deliberate use of our professional aims as evidence towards practical professional decisions, we perceive issues as involving professional ethics whenever we see decisions on those issues as addressing the aims we are consciously or tacitly committed to. In this way our professional aims help to determine what we recognize as an issue of professional ethics (p.7).

2.22 Moral leadership: mapping its roots in psychology

This thesis is attempting to respond to the request for ‘contextually-sensitive descriptions’ (Greenfield, 2004, p. 175) of moral leadership as it manifests itself within a school. The principal aim is to present arguments and empirical evidence of the process of moral leadership in action. To achieve this aim, therefore, an appreciation of moral philosophy is necessary but not sufficient. An early search of the terms moral and education, led to the work of Kohlberg's moral development and the field of moral psychology. Within the discipline of moral psychology are 'distinctive traditions’ investigating the cognitive and behavioural processes involved in moral reasoning and action (Wright, 1971, p.22). The following reviews some of the literature and the conceptions behind these works.

Kohlberg authored the most widely considered model of cognitive moral development (Puka, 2005). It is particularly relevant to this discussion given

Kohlberg's interest in values education, how schools could teach values. Influenced by Piaget's stage theory of cognitive and moral development, Kohlberg proposed three levels and six stages of moral development (Crain, 1985). Kohlberg developed this theory based upon analysis of responses of 'longitudinal and cross-cultural subjects to hypothetical moral issues'[26] (Kohlberg and Hersh, 1977, p.54). The theory begins with level one referred to as preconventional. This level of morality is self-centered and considered a behavioural response more than an ethical response. Stage one is a base ethic whose characteristics are a deference to authority, fear of punishment, where underlying morality is irrelevant. Stage two encompasses interpretations of morality that are practical and utilitarian to the extent of the individual, actions are not out of 'loyalty, gratitude, or justice' (p.54). Level two is the conventional level where social and/or group influences dominate decision-making. Loyalty and conformity are important. Stage three of this level is commonly referred to as the, ' "good boy - nice girl" orientation ' (quotes in the original, p.55). Stage four is the respect of rules, regulations and order because the social order has stated that these are the rules for the society. Level three is the final level and referred to as post conventional, autonomous, or principled: independent thinking and conclusions separate from a group. Stage five refers to a 'social-contract, legalistic orientation' (p.55). It is based upon rational logical arguments for organizing the rights and standards of individuals within a society. General rules are guided by utilitarian ends and relativism is accepted. Outside the 'constitutionally and democratically agreed upon, right action is a personal view' (p.55). A legal and procedural orientation is emphasized with an acceptance that 'the possibility of changing law in terms of rational considerations of social utility rather than freezing it in terms of Stage 4 "law and order"' (p.55). Stage six is the universalist perspective, similar in respects to Kant's categorical imperative. Right action is defined by appeals 'to logical

26 Using moral issues to assist in analyzing one's moral development and/or disposition is used by other researchers, such as Rest. This supports the contention made in chapter one, that observing moral action reveals one's moral disposition.

comprehensiveness, universality, and consistency' (p.55). Behaviour is not rules driven, but rather dominated by 'universal principles of justice, of the reciprocity and equality of human rights, and of respect for the dignity of human beings as individual persons' (p.55). Kohlberg (Kohlberg and Hersh, 1977), concluded that the most common level of moral reasoning is the conventional (stages 3 and 4).

A challenge to Kohlberg's theory of moral development was presented by Carol Gilligan in her book, *In a Different Voice* (1982). Gilligan (2006) sees her theory in part, as a feminist's critique of existing patriarchal theories of moral development. She writes,

> Did bringing voices that had not been part of the original conversation about moral development—women's voices, and also the voices of people of colour—change that conversation in fundamental ways, or could these "other voices" be incorporated within the existing theoretical framework? (p. 133)

In her theory, often referred to as the ethics of care, she posits that women respond to moral issues differently than males. As she states, it represented a 'paradigm shift because it revealed a disassociation—a split in consciousness—that was so profound and so basic: it was at the core of a patriarchal, racist social order' (p.134). In a reference to Hume's law, the famous *is ought* divide, Gilligan (2006) noted that Kohlberg 'focused on the "ought"' (p.133, double quotes in the original), whereas she focused on the '"is"' (p.133, double quotes in the original). Kohlberg (1982) stated that she presented a 'responsibility orientation' in contrast to his 'justice, rights, and duties orientation' (p.513). In other words, Gilligan presented a view less normative and more descriptive. Kohlberg (1982) eventually modified his position and incorporated some of Gilligan's work to 'to mediate between both male and female judgment and action' (p. 514). He went on to acknowledge that moral action has two components 'a deontic judgment of rights and duties and a second judgment of personal responsibility for action in the situation' (p. 514). Whether there is a substantial difference between

Kohlberg and Gilligan is debated (see Blum, 1988) and a full discussion is beyond the focus of this thesis[27] What should make Gilligan's work of particular interest to educators, however, is her focus on care, responsibility and personal relationships: morality is not impersonal and abstract, but rather about caring for and about individuals (Blum, 1988). These are notions similar to the words, phrases and the general conceptions of care and responsibility used in the literature on leadership in education (see Day, 1997; Sergiovanni, 1993). Gilligan's ethic of care appears to be a natural theory from which researchers in education could use to enhance their own conceptions of leadership. Some researchers have already taken to incorporating this ethic of care into their research and writings (see Shapiro and Stefkovich (2011; Slote, 2013).

2.221 Moral Leadership: an examination of the moral process.

In addition to these two theories of moral development are added two other concepts from moral psychology that are of particular interest to this project. The first was developed by James Rest, neo-Kohlbergian (Rest et al, 2000), and provides a useful description of the psychological processes involved in reaching a moral decision. It is this process that guided the development of the research questions for this thesis. The second builds upon the work of Rest and attempts to bridge the gap between what one says they will do and what one actually does (Jones and Ryan, 1997). The next section begins with the four-stage model, sometimes referred to as the four-component model.

27 According to Rest, there is no difference on scores between male and female respondents to the Defining Issues Test. See Reed, 1997; Rest, 1999; Joregensen, 2006, for further details.

2.222 The Moral Process: The Four-Component Model (FCM)

Kohlberg's moral development model and Gilligan's ethic of care theory describe psychological developments and offer broad insights. This study though is focused on how a school leader acts when faced with a moral issue. As such, a more specific account of how this occurs is found in the four-stage model of the psychological processes involved in reasoning through a specific moral issue. As Rest (1982) notes, his model considers both the ends and the accompanying 'internal processes that govern it"(p. 29). Rest identifies each stage as a component. He begins with Component I: interpreting the situation is a reference to an individual's ability to recognise a moral issue and how acting may affect a person's well-being (Rest, 1982). In a discussion on the 'cognitive aspects of perceiving and interpreting the situation' (p. 30), Rest notes that since 'our knowledge about outcomes is not very good 'knowing what other people really want or what are genuine needs' is uncertain (p. 29). An increase in ambiguity decreases the likelihood of moral behaviour. He notes that there is a wide variety of 'individual differences,' some people are quite sensitive to another's wants or needs and others require more signs of human suffering (p.30). Rest also identifies the importance emotions play in recognising and interpreting the situation. Rest sites research by Zajonc (1980) that indicates that 'affective reactions actually precede complex cognitive operations' (Rest, 1982, p. 30). Rest goes on to explain that 'sometimes emotions highlight salient cues and motivate our "better" selves...' (p. 30, quotes in the original). He acknowledges the negative aspects of our emotions and the potential 'to deny someone full rights because we dislike his or her looks' (p. 30). Component II refers to 'formulating the morally ideal course of action' (p. 31). Rest states that 'in seeking the morally ideal course of action, the person tries to integrate the various considerations - person A's needs, person B's needs, personal needs, expectations founded on previous promises or roles, or instituted practices' (p. 31). In component III, individuals decide what he or she 'actually intends

to do' (p.33). Making the decision of what to does not imply compliance. In general, the individual is aware of a variety of 'possible outcomes' dependent upon the 'different values and motives' (p. 33). In an example of the importance of action to highlight a moral disposition, Rest cites research by Damon (1977) in which children are interviewed about fairness in the distribution of 10 candy bars. When the children actually received the candy bars the distribution they undertook did not follow 'their espoused fairness schemes, and instead gave themselves a disproportionate number of candy bars. The children's espoused moral ideals were compromised by self-interest in the actual behaviour' (p. 33). In the final stage, Component IV, it is here where one is expected to execute and implement 'what one intends to do' (p. 34). This stage,

> involves figuring out the sequence of concrete actions, working around impediments and unexpected difficulties, overcoming fatigue and frustration, resisting distractions and other ornaments, and keeping sight of the eventual goal. Perseverance, resoluteness, competence, and "character" are virtues of component IV (p. 34, quotes in the original).

These traits are what psychologists refer to as 'ego strength and self-regulating skills' (p. 34). But 'ego strength' is not sufficient to guarantee a good outcome. It could be just as easy to use these skills to 'rob a bank' or other more heinous crimes (p. 34). As Rest notes, "Research indicates that resoluteness, deliberateness, and task orientation may be deep seeded aspects of personality organisation-some people are generally scatterbrained, and fickle, and "weak." (p. 34).

Due to space constraints, linking Rest's FCM of moral reasoning to concepts from moral philosophy was not undertaken. It is evident, however, that there are many direct links with concepts from both normative ethics in particular virtue ethics with its focus on character and action. Despite assertions from Rest that those who score high on the DIT correlate well with actual action, some researchers argue his model still does not capture the entire process. It to one of those groups of researchers that I turn to next.

2.223 The Moral Process: Moral Approbation Model (MAM)

The moral approbation model was introduced by Jones and Ryan (1997). This model takes the four-stage moral process of Rest (1982) and adds components between stages one, recognition, and four, implementation. It is a model that is designed to focus not on 'what organisation members decide is ''right" to do in a given situation', but rather 'what they actually do' (Jones and Ryan, 1997, p. 663, quotes in the original). Moral approbation is "defined as moral approval from oneself or others" (p. 663). In other words, individuals rely upon "*reference* groups when deciding how to behave" (p. 663, italics in the original). The moral approbation model (MAM) is focused on moral decision making in organizations and identifies four components that individuals cogitate in determining the course of action (Ryan and Ciarvarella, 2002):

> the severity of the acts consequences, the certainty that the act is moral or immoral, the actors degree of complicity in the act, and the extent of pressure the actor feels to behave unethically' (Jones and Ryan, 1997, p. 663).

Before describing each of the elements, it is important to clarify a few key points associated with this model. The first is that it is a model describing behaviour of an individual, a moral agent, within an organization. The implication is that broad definitions of what is moral and not moral are used. In this regard, moral decisions are defined as 'a decision that is both legal and morally acceptable to the larger community' (Jones, 1991, p. 361). In this sense it is descriptive ethics. The consequence of the action are considered important, therefore, it is teleological with a focus on the end. It is important to note that the model suggests 'moral decision making is issue contingent' (Ryan and Ciavarella, 2002, p. 666). Additionally, an organization includes colleagues who may have other people who influence decision makers. These are referred to by Jones as a referent groups, meaning one's family and colleagues have a part to play in the moral decision (Jones and Ryan, 1997; Ryan and Ciavarella, 2002). It should be clarified that one's referent group

includes 'those people (including himself/herself) that the person looks to for moral example or feedback' (Jones and Ryan, 1997). Last, the model is described in their literature from the perspective of a moral agent within an organization being pressured to behave *unethically*. This is important point to keep in mind as the model's components are explained.

The explanation of their model begins after recognition of the moral act, hence it starts at stage two of Rest's moral process model, Make Moral Judgment. The moral agent then determines 'the amount of moral responsibility that their referent group would ascribe to them' (Ryan and Ciavarella, 2002. p. 180) relative to the moral act in question. At this stage the moral agent must consider the severity of the consequences of the act. The greater the severity, the greater the perceived moral responsibility. For example, a person charged with a crime is held more responsible if he or she injured someone in the course of the criminal act than if the crime were committed without injury to another person. In addition, the certainty of the moral nature of the act in question increases the likelihood of moral behaviour. If the act in question is perceived to be ambiguous then it is harder to determine the degree of approbation. In other words, if the moral agent is certain the act in question is 'the right thing to do' then greater the moral responsibility and hence the level of approbation is felt. The degree to which the moral agent is directly 'involved in the decision or action' (p. 672) will determine his or her level of complicity. An increase in complicity and therefore an increase in moral responsibility. Finally, the pressure to behave responsibly is dependent upon the degree of organisational pressure. If a moral agent is compelled into moral action, the level of attribution of responsibility decreases. As Shaver (1985) notes '… an individual actor can be (correctly) held responsible only in inverse proportion to the amount of external coercion' (80). As this concepts relates to a negative and there are inverse relationships, I prepared Table 2.2 to summarize these relationships graphically.

Table 2.2. Interpreting MAM and the concept of organizational pressure and attribution

Pressure/coercion to act unethically	Level of Responsibility (i.e. attribution)	Intention to act ethically
high	low	low
low	high	high

In the next step, the moral agent establishes intent by determining the level of moral responsibility compared to the level of attribution he/she will receive. If moral attribution meets his/her desired level, intention is established and the final step, engaging in actual behaviour, is likely to occur. This is a very brief overview of the attribution theory. There is analysis of each of these steps, though each step was reviewed, reporting them here is beyond the purpose of the study. The general outline of each step is sufficient for the purpose of this thesis.

An argument presented by Jones and Ryan (1997) is that their moral approbation model bridges "the normative/descriptive "gap" (p. 669). In other words, it avoids the classic *is ought* debate. They argue that support for their model can be found through an examination of literature as found in 'philosophy, religion, biology, socialization, and cognitive development' (p. 669).

It is important to note that in both theories, *recognition* of the moral act is considered important. As will be discussed, recognizing the moral issue as a moral undertaking is a key query among the research questions. As this brief review highlights, moral psychology may offer researchers interested in the study of moral leadership useful tools and theories. Amalgamated with views from moral philosophy the combination provides reason, appeals to authority, and importantly, empirical evidence that may help inform the process of developing a robust conception of moral leadership. The result should be a foundation from which moral leadership can achieve additional clarity.

Importantly for this thesis, however, this review of moral philosophy and moral psychology provides support for the notion that a leader's moral disposition is manifested through observable action.

2.3 A formal defense of the provision of a gifted and talented program as a moral issue.

In the introductory chapter, I argued that provision of a program for gifted students makes for an interesting issue from which to observe moral action. The question still remains, however, as to whether provision of a program for gifted students is in fact a moral issue? In other words, what makes the act of providing an appropriate education for the gifted a moral obligation?

Attempting to justify any moral position is fraught with difficulties and open to much criticism. Relativism dominates our pluralistic society and advocating a moral position is suspect. It is a lengthy process requiring some knowledge of the major works and thoughts in the vast topic of moral philosophy. For this thesis, the process proposed is based upon a dialectic controversially credited to Hegel (Mueller, 1958). It is a form of a dialectic Lavine (1984) referred to as the 'Hegelian triadic process of the dialectic: thesis, antithesis and synthesis' (p. 210).

This thesis attempts to represent arguments in favour of the proposition; in this case, that the provision of a GTP is in fact a moral issue. To enhance credibility this needs to be completed from a neutral position eschewing appeals to emotion or personal belief. It requires that the researcher attempt to adopt the perspective of those who would argue in favour of the proposition irrespective if he or she agrees with the position advocated. For this thesis, the example the education of the gifted requires arguments to be presented that favour the proposition that this issue is in fact a moral issue. The arguments here, therefore, are briefly presented based on four common views routinely encountered in the literature on giftedness. The first

argument presented is that giftedness is an innate ability and therefore requires appropriate nurturing. Gallaher (1995) writes,

> there is considerable evidence to suggest that genetics does play a significant role in the development of various intelligences. Studies of twins and adoptive children clearly indicate that some children are born with more potential for learning rapidly than others. These differences apply within various racial and ethnic groups, not between them (p. 408).

Winner writes that gifted children 'not only develop more rapidly than typical children, but also appear to be qualitatively different' (Winner, 2000, p.153). If giftedness is innate then schools have an obligation to address this special need. The implication from these arguments is that gifted child cannot suppress this innate ability nor should he or she be required too. Furthermore, accommodation would be expected if the child possessed some learning disability that likewise could not be suppressed, therefore, why should it be different for students with innate ability?

The second argument advocates in support of the education of the gifted put forward is a reference directly or indirectly to the potential benefits to society provided by these individuals. This argument is a direct appeal to classic utilitarianism or its descendant referred to as consequentialism (Merry, 2008; Sinnott-Armstrong, 2012). It is not an uncommon occurrence to find in the literature a reference to gifted students as a natural resource: Guttmann (1999) writes,

> Another good case can be made for using educational resources above the threshold to develop new skills and interests in all children, which might be useful to society as well as satisfying to citizens in the future (p.135).

In addition, definitions used in some countries like the United States, Hong Kong and Singapore, reference gifted students in a similar utilitarian fashion. This position follows the economic principle of externalities, specifically, positive externalities. A positive externality is a phrase used in economics to identify benefits accruing to a third party not directly involved in a

transaction (Sloman, 2009, p.306). Classic examples of positive externalities include street lights, flood barriers and corporate training. Not everyone in a society pays for these products or services yet the society as a whole is better off with than without them. In a similar vein, advocates for the gifted state that education for the gifted has benefits beyond those that just accrue to the individual receiving the additional education services (Renzulli, 2002).

A third, though related argument to the preceding, is an appeal for educational justice (Merry, 2008). This necessitates some understanding of the term justice. In developing a conception of justice, a brief look at Rawls' seminal work, A Theory of Justice (1974/1999) is warranted. Rawls presents arguments to develop a conception of justice he refers to as 'justice as fairness' (p.10). He begins with his 'original position' (p.102) by asking that one imagine if they could create a 'purely hypothetical' (p. 11) society under which one would not know the position one would find oneself. Under this 'veil of ignorance' (p.122) one could end up in either an advantaged position with 'native endowments' not morally deserved[28] or a disadvantaged position likewise with 'native endowments' not morally deserved (Rawls, 2001, p.75). A key consideration of Rawls' work is how would one organize a society under these constraints? If the possibilities exist that one would end up in a disadvantaged position, one would rationally expect to ensure that systems and/or institutions are in place such that liberty is guaranteed and that opportunity to move out of a disadvantaged position exists. Further, if one is advantaged then one could receive additional resources subject to the condition that they use those resources to the benefit of the least advantaged. These two notions are expressed in Rawls' two principles of justice:

> First: each person is to have an equal right to the most extensive scheme of equal basic liberties compatible with a similar scheme of liberties for others. Second: social and economic inequalities are to be

28 Rawls explains this by asking, do we believe we morally deserve 'to be born a man rather than a woman, or vice versa (Rawls, 2001: p.75)?'

> arranged so that they are both a) reasonably expected to be to everyone's advantage, and b) attached to positions and offices open to all (p.53).

These two principles are referred to as Fair Equality of Opportunity (FEO) and the Difference Principle (DP). These two principles combine both a utilitarian perspective and contractarian principle. FEO is an appeal for equality, however, not a narrow egalitarian interpretation of equality but rather one subjected to the Difference Principle. In support of his contention, Rawls cites economist Vilfredo Pareto and his conception of social efficiency that bears his name, the Pareto Principle. This principle states that if it is possible to make everyone better off without making someone else worse off, then one achieves an improvement in the overall welfare of a society. If no one can be made better off without making someone else worse off, then the economy has achieved a socially efficient, Pareto optimal point (Sloman, 2009, p.305). As Rawls notes, 'the intuitive idea is that the social order is not to establish and secure the more attractive prospects of those better off unless doing so is to the advantage of those less fortunate' (p.65).

A fourth argument encountered is a reference to harm that gifted students who are not stimulated might endure either physically and/or emotionally. Willard-Holt (2003) noted that 'a rat left un-stimulated starts to show a thinning of the cortexes in just four days,' (p.1). This is a potent metaphor designed to emphasize that gifted students need stimulation. Left un-stimulated, these students lose their motivation, their performance declines, and they can become underachievers. Gifted students exposed to intellectually stimulating content, however, outperform those gifted students not receiving this content (Willard-Holt, 2003). Gross (2004) noted that gifted children not in an environment conducive to their abilities became disturbed and discontented. This sentiment was echoed by Kerr and Erb (1991) and Cross (2002), noting that students not receiving appropriate challenge became frustrated.

In the second step of the Hegelian triadic process of the dialectic, the antithesis presents arguments against the proposition that provision of a GTP is a moral issue. It is presented likewise in a neutral manner. Arguments presented in the thesis need to be critically challenged. The first argument related to innate ability of the gifted is directly denied. The very conception of giftedness is rejected; critics argue giftedness is not innate, but rather a social construction (Borland, 2003). It is a concept reified by advocates who promote a divisive social order (Borland, 2009). Further, results from psychometric testing are focused on specific 'cognitive domains' that reflect privilege not ability. In other words, these tests overly represents the 'white middle- and upper-middle class' (Borland, 2009, p.237). Echoing the theme of this argument, critics argue that to suggest some are gifted is to imply that others are not. As Cahill (1995) noted, 'the rhetoric of the gifted-child crusaders are oblivious to the possibility that exceptional educational opportunities might produce gifted children'(p. 1357). Further, the concept of giftedness perpetuates elitism and discrimination, 'behind gifted child knowledge there is a purpose: the preservation of a social order, a class, a race, a community, a culture' (Margolin, 1994, p.3). Critics argue that this political agenda continues the long tradition of divisiveness that has been in place since the early days of its inception (Cahill,1995, p.1356). The gifted education movement's sordid past has advocated hereditary, social economic standing and racial backgrounds of students (see Terman, 1916; Hollingworth, 1926). It has had a close association with the eugenics movement that has been conveniently forgotten (Margolin, 1984).

The second argument presented by supporters of education for the gifted provide is an appeal to utilitarianism. The fundamental problem with this argument is that it relies upon an expectation of benevolence and reciprocity. There is no assurance that gifted students will do the work that benefit society nor feel the obligation to do so (Merry, 2008; Bull, 2008). Further, is it reasonable to burden these students with this expectation? Being gifted does

not imply self-sacrifice nor altruism. Moral superiority of the gifted perpetuates the belief of the gifted being 'superior in every area of human worth' (Margolin, 1994, p.7; Purdy, 1999). Further, special services and programs for those considered gifted are services and programs that could benefit all students. As Cahil notes, advocates of the gifted are ‘are silent about the possibility that ordinary children might benefit from those same educational opportunities’ (Cahil, 1995, p.1357).

The third argument related to the above utilitarian argument, yet focused on educational justice, asks how can it be just to allocate scarce administrative and/or financial resources given that there is no definitive determination of who are these individuals? Can it be justified, therefore, to use scarce resources for those considered advantaged who may simply manifest social advantage and not innate ability? Further, can it be justified to use scarce resources at the expense of those who need assistance? Rawls (1974/1999) notes 'greater resources might be spent on the education of the less rather than the more intelligent, at least over a certain time of life, say the earlier years of school' (p.86). As already noted, services and programs for those considered gifted, are services and programs that could benefit all students. Moreover, if one were to accept the argument of innate ability, should scarce resources be redirected towards individuals whose abilities they did not morally deserve (Rawls, 1974/1999, 2001)?

Fourth, the suggestion that gifted students are harmed is rejected. Advocates for the gifted have a history of exaggerated claims; gifted students may be bored at times, but the suggestion that they are harmed requires evidence. Cahill (1995), in a review of Margolin's Goodness Personified: The Emergence of the Gifted Child, comments that gifted education advocates have perpetuated a belief that:

> The exceptional talents of gifted children are squandered in class rooms with ordinary students and teachers, where they are woefully misunderstood. They created a victim without weakness- the gifted

> child-and a type of villain who is fully redeemable-the ordinary and uninformed peer, teacher, or parent (p.1357).

Having outlined the arguments in the thesis and antithesis, a reconciliation of the two opposing arguments is developed in the synthesis. As Lavine (1984) notes the reconciliation attempts to rise above differences, preserving 'elements of truth from within thesis and antithesis' (p.211) to reach a conclusion. In the example of the education of the gifted, the primary issues of contention against special education are in part, semantic: denotatum vs designatum[29] , the outcome of tensions over scare resources, views of what is justice in terms of educating students of various abilities, remnants of controversial historical antecedents and conflicting political ideology.

An essential first step in resolving this dispute is to address the issue of semantics which encompasses directly or indirectly, terminology and conceptions. The term gifted has moved from its original religious connation to become associated with a divisive ideology (Davidson, Giftedness, 2007). It is evident from a review of the literature that the term itself engenders antagonism (Sausner, 2005). Accusations of reification and/or social construction, are suggestions that the phenomenon of giftedness does not exist, that exceptional abilities observed are due to social privilege and the corresponding nurture one has received. A few difficulties arise, however, with this reasoning. The first is the contention that giftedness is a social construction. The implication from this argument is that a social construct does not exist. This view appears to be based in part on a narrow interpretation of the phrase ‘social construction.' Borland (1997) writes, 'To state that a construct is socially constructed is to state that it gains its meaning, even its existence, from people's interactions, especially their discourse' (p.7). While Borland is correct that 'the terms we use are defined

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29 I use Morris (1939) interpretation: 'A designatum is thus a class of objects as determined by certain defining properties, and as a class, may be without members; the denotata are the members, if any, of the class in question' (p.133.) In other words, denotatum are real, they exist, designatum describes, is a sign of the denotatum. There can be no designatum without the denotatum, but there can be denotatum without designatum.

by and in the interest of dominant social groups' (Haslanger, 1995, p.119) and that the use of a term is defended by appeal and confirmation against usage in 'social practices and traditions' (Scheffer, 1958, p.467), this criticism is insufficient to argue that giftedness is not denotatum. It does not necessitate that 'the only function of judgement is the social one perpetuating useful stories or that our judgement can only represent a social world' (Haslanger, 1995, p.119). Using Borland's interpretation, much of our surroundings would not exist since it is socially constructed based on our 'linguistic and conceptual activities' (p.105). As Haslanger (1995) notes, the problem with the phrase social construction is that it too is socially constructed. To argue that giftedness does not exist because it is a social construct, is logically inconsistent. If one argues that A does not exist because of B, but if the condition B is false since B is, paradoxically, a victim of itself being a B, therefore, the first premise does not hold and the argument is invalid.

Furthermore, the criticism that giftedness is not innate implies a rejection of an inborn characteristic present from birth. This argument appears to be a reluctance to accept differences in the genetic constitution of individuals, at least with regards to cognitive development. This reluctance, though, may be a reflection of political and/or philosophical beliefs rather than a rejection of the scientific evidence. It is not clear in their arguments. Regardless, evidence from neuropsychology suggests that genes do have an impact on one's ability to learn (Oliver, Haworth, and Plomin, 2009) though which genes and the degree of impact are not yet determined and results need to be tempered by prudence[30] (Chabris et al, 2012). Notwithstanding this caution, advocates argue that giftedness is innate, 'that genetics does play a significant role in the development of various intelligences' (Gallagher, 1995, p.408). Irrespective, this does not, however, imply that nurture is not paramount.

30 Chabris et al (2012) caution, ' Our results add IQ to the list of phenotypes that must be approached with great caution when evaluating published molecular genetic associations. In our view, excitement over the value of behavioral and molecular genetic studies in the social sciences should be tempered—as it has been in the medical sciences—by an appreciation that for complex phenotypes, individual common genetic variants of the sort assayed by SNP microarrays are likely to have very small effects' (p.8).

Skinner (1971/2002), the founding voice of behaviourism, strongly advocated the importance of one's environment, however, he does concede the role of the 'idiosyncrasies of genetics' (p.186). Further, Gardner (2006) notes, 'In speaking of genius one moves rather far from the province of behavioural science… yet even if we cannot explain genius, we are wrong to pretend it does not exist (p.50). As Oliver, Haworth, and Plomin, (2009) write in their concluding comments which examined data on more than 5000 pairs of twins in the UK, there is 'a clear reminder that both genes and dynamic environments are important influences in the development of human cognition' (p.10).

The second argument related to the issue of scarce resources is a practical issue that is an ongoing theme of school life. Benjamin Bloom (1985) writing nearly 30 years ago, noted that due to financial costs to society, 'the likelihood that only a very small amount of human potential is ever fully developed' (p.549). Gardner (2006) recognized this concern when he wrote,

> if there is any societal realm in which issues of value are prominent, it is the terrain that must wrestle with the questions of what constitutes gifts and how they should be identified, fostered, and mobilized within a community. For example, equity and excellence need not be in direct conflict, but there is an undeniable tension between them, and particularly so in times of limited resources (p. 52).

The argument for the appropriate use of scarce resources raises the issue of the contractual relationship between the student receiving the special services and society as a whole: a contractarian position. It is correct that no guarantee or expectation is made of the gifted student with respect to eventual direct contribution to his or her community. It is not correct, however, to assume that gifted students pursuing their own objectives, acting in their own self-interest, do not benefit society. This observation was famously made by one of the enlightenment philosophers, Adam Smith (1776) who observed and chronicled the economic exploits of individuals, business and countries. In a reference to individuals attempting to increase their own revenue, he remarks that, 'By pursuing his own interest he frequently

promotes that of the society more effectually than when he really intends to promote it' (p. 572). Further, Smith writes that the individual 'neither intends to promote the public interest, nor knows how much he is promoting it' (p.572), yet the wealth of the society is made larger. In other words, by assisting the gifted to flourish and develop their potential, benefits flow to society.

Directly associated to the issue of scare resources is the third argument relating to the debate about giftedness and educational justice. If the issue of provision of services for the gifted is the case that where resources are scarce, and the choices are to provide service to individuals with 'native endowment not morally deserved,' (Rawls, 2001, p.75) or to those with a disability not morally deserved, then the argument has merit and supersedes the notion of equality. However, if it can be shown that financial constraints are limited or nonexistent, then the principal argument of fair equality of opportunity is not superseded. As Sapon-Shevin (1984) writes,

> Philosophically, there is nothing fundamentally incompatible about providing appropriate education for both groups. Much of the supposed incompatibility between serving the two groups is more accurately a reflection of the tensions which result from competition for limited resources' (p.75).

Furthermore, the argument for educational justice is predicated on the belief that all children deserve an education suitable to their needs and/or 'maximises their abilities' (Winstanley, 2010, p. 17). Regardless of one's position on innate vs social privilege, schools, along with family and the greater society, have an obligation 'to create a more favourable atmosphere for the full development of all students - including those with outstanding talents'(Gallagher, 1995, 410). If schooling is a statutory obligation requiring children to attend school, then schools are a key component that allow an individual to flourish in a society. An education that allows this flourishing to develop becomes a central responsibility of a school. If the child's nature is such that he or she requires special material conducive to his or her ability,

then the school has the obligation to make this available. To do otherwise, would be to fail in the obligation of the function of a school (Winstanley, 2004). An education for all does not imply the same education for all but rather an equitable distribution of opportunities and challenges. Identifying what those challenges are may be complicated, but this does not preclude the requirement for meeting this demand (Winstanley, 2004; Merry, 2008).

The fourth argument presented is primarily political. It is based on criticism levelled at giftedness researchers due in part to controversial historical antecedents and researchers whose views border on hyperbole. Advocates for the gifted must be held accountable for both of these valid criticisms. The study of giftedness arises out of the early research investigating intelligence. Reading these early papers from today's pluralistic perspective, it is evident that there are direct and indirect references that can be interpreted as divisive and elitist. Moreover, the influence of the Eugenics movement is apparent and cannot be ignored. Eugenics began with Galton's early work, Heriditary Genius[31] (1869) written only 30 years prior to Termans' (1905) work. International organizations were established and policies, such as sterilization, lingered well into the 1970s in places such as Sweden (Tilley et al, 2012). Further, words, phrases and perspectives used during these early days would not be acceptable today. For example, Termans' PhD Dissertation was entitled, 'Genius and stupidity: a study of some of the intellectual processes of seven bright and seven stupid boys' (1906, p.1); and Hollingsworth's (1926) inconsequential references to physical characteristics such as the early onset of pubic hair. In addition, Goddard's (1928) descriptions of cherub like qualities add to the circumspect nature of early research. Moreover, the common use of words such as moron, stupidity and feeble minded lessen the tenor of these early works. However, as historians caution, presentism: judging events of the past in current terms, can distort the original intent of the work. In this regard, Binet's work was originally a thesis by French

31 Galton in his 2nd edition notes his regret with the choice of the word genius.

authorities to mitigate the gap between the intellectual differences of rural and urban Parisians. Its original intent was to help those with less educational opportunity, primarily rural children at the time. To do this required the development of psychological measures to identify children considered behind.

Is the acknowledgement of this questionable past, however, sufficient reason to deny the provision of an education for individuals who display unique abilities either inherited or conditioned?

A final argument that is left unanswered among the critics of giftedness relates to the phenomenological evidence of individuals considered gifted. A characteristic of the literature on giftedness is the case study identifying real people and their unique abilities. In Winstalnley's review of Gross (2004), she remarks upon case studies that detail children counting at 12 months of age and reading by 18 months. Using Piaget's model of cognitive development, typical infants at this stage are still active in the sensori -motor stage, learning and examine their surroundings. Yet, these infants are engaging in concrete operation stage typically associated with around the seventh year of development. Given the exaggerated and poorly substantiated claims often encountered in the gifted literature, it is expected that a reader would be sceptical of such reported incidences of advanced development, but this does not preclude that there are examples of individuals with gifts of high ability. If giftedness is merely a socially constructed designatum, then how does one account for the exceptional abilities[32] among these individuals?

If the view that social economic status is the prime cause of giftedness, then critics need to present an explanation for the unique development of these abilities especially in cases where no or limited social privilege exists. The arguments in favour of a gifted program do not deny that some, if not many, of these individuals had simulating home environments that helped scaffold

32 A general search of the internet using google search engine discovered Kieron Williamson, a nine year old artist nicked named the mini Monet, neither parent is artistically inclined and their economic status is modest.

their potential (Vgotsky, 1934/1986). Further, why is a stimulating home environment an argument for denying appropriate educational opportunities?

From this review it appears that critics and advocates of the argument for the education of the gifted need to move away from political ideologies and hyperbole to focus upon practical solutions based on the observable evidence. The conclusion reached and which guides this thesis is that a rational and reasonable argument can be made that individuals considered gifted do exist. If these students exist, schools are, therefore, obligated to provide a program suitable to allow the full development of these individuals. As Dewey (1897) noted in his Pedagogic Creed,

> If the education fails to impart new knowledge or worse discourages the individual then I believe that the question of method is ultimately reducible to the question of the order of development of the child's powers and interests. The law for presenting and treating material is the law implicit within the child's own nature (p.1).

It follows, therefore, that the provision of an education for the gifted is a moral issue.

2.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I reviewed literature related to my principal research question: How is moral leadership manifested within a school? To understand this research question, it was necessary to examine the individual components of this question. The result was the development of the five key objectives:

1. Justify the concept of moral leadership within the context of a school.
2. Develop of a robust conception of moral leadership through a historical and expository examination of multiple sources including moral philosophy and moral psychology.
3. Conduct an expository examination of the moral process as

discussed in the literature from moral psychology.

4. Prepare a coherent defense for the provision of a gifted and talented program as a moral issue.
5. Develop awareness of traditions, frameworks, and methods used in previous research.

From this review of literature, I developed a better understanding of the various leadership theories, theoretical traditions, research frameworks and methods of previous research investigating moral leadership. This was an invaluable process that confirmed my suspicion that moral leadership is a unifying concept fundamental to leadership theories irrespective of tradition. Further, it was evident that other researchers shared my concern regarding the lack of conceptual clarity with regards to moral leadership and the relativist perspective that subjugates what is moral to personal preference. It was necessary, therefore, to improve my understanding of the philosophical implications implied by the word 'moral'. An expository and uncritical examination of moral philosophy ensued. From these works, it was evident that witnessing how one addresses a moral issue demonstrates one's moral disposition. This was consistent with some literature in education which suggested that one's moral disposition is manifested through one's actions towards another. Though this was an interesting contention, the concern related to, how one examines this manifestation? A review of moral psychology ensued and the discovery of works by Rest (1980) and Jones and Ryan (1997) provided a guide to examine this moral process. Combined with research frameworks already established in education, the result was confirmation of the rationale for this thesis. In the next chapter, I discuss my theoretical perspective and present my methodology.

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.0 Introduction

At the core of every research thesis is the Methodology. Behind the methodology are ontological and epistemological views shaped by acculturation, formal education and personal experiences. This chapter begins with an overview of my philosophical orientation that influenced this thesis. I then move on to discuss the research design and methods selected to answer the research sub-questions. As a reminder they are:

1. How does a school leader recognize provision of a GTP as a moral issue?
2. How does the leader of a school decide upon a course of action to address the GTP?
3. How does a school leader decide to implement a course of action to address the GTP?
4. How does the leader of a school implement the course of action to address the GTP?

These combined questions are intended to assist in preparing a response for the principal research question guiding this thesis: How is moral leadership manifested through the provision of a gifted and talented program (GTP)? Following a justification of the research design and methods, I indicate how data were analyzed and offer criteria from ostensibly competing paradigms as to how the quality of this thesis should be judged. The chapter concludes with a detailed look at the limitations of the research.

3.1 On the Subjugation of Objectivity

The protracted debate of qualitative versus quantitative methodologies, is a regular feature of literature on the philosophy of education. According to Eisner (1998) these debates appear to have more to do with perceived forms

of representation than with any actual methodological divide. In this regard, it may be as Marshall McLuhan noted in his book, *the medium is the MASSAGE* (case settings in original). The message has become massaged and the medium is now the message. The medium in this case is research literature that states that quantitative is objective in its search for 'truth;' it is about what is real; it uses mathematics, numbers in its methodology (Bryman, 2012); it is respectable and offers precision (Pring, 2000, p. 258); it is a part of the 'received view' (Guba and Lincoln, 1998, p. 197). Its frequently stated opposite, qualitative, is said to be subjective, unique, and contextually relevant, 'providing rich insights into human behaviour' (p. 198). These are the messages that the labels quantitative and qualitative flash whenever they are mentioned. It is a 'false dualism,' Pring (2000, p. 253). It is a fictitious divide that is misguided and detracts from the work of educational researchers. All quantitative forms of inquiry are reducible to a qualitative base. That qualitative base is the inquirer. The inquirer creates the setting for which the framework must operate. The inquirer is human and the actions, thoughts, and language he or she utilizes are filtered through his or her experiences and consciousness. Dewey recognized this when he wrote, 'there is no experience in which the human contribution is not a factor in determining what actually happens' (Dewey, 1916, p.256). Eisner (1998) in his introduction to the Enlightened Eye, writes,

> both the content of the world and the content of our imagination are dependent upon qualities. It is through the perception of qualities - not only those we can see, but those we experience through any of our senses – that our consciousness comes into being (p. 1).

It is evident that other sciences have come to similar conclusions. In Physics, Gal-or (1981), commenting on the use of mathematics, states:

> Not all of science is Mathematical. Not everything Mathematical is science. Yet there persists in theoretical physics a powerful belief that a sense of mathematical rigor and elegance is an essential, perhaps overriding, element in the search for the truth (p. 13).

In philosophy, Paul Feyerabend, branded a empiricist, realist, irrationalist and also a radical epistemological anarchist, writes in response to his book, *Against Method*,

> One of my motives for writing *Against Method* was to free people from the tyranny of philosophical obfuscators and abstract concepts such as 'truth', 'reality', or 'objectivity', which narrow people's vision and ways of being in the world' (Preston, 2009).

Swiss psychologist Carl Jung, in his classic, *Man and His Symbols,* writes,

> Man as we realize, if we reflect for a moment, never perceives anything fully or comprehends anything completely. He can see, hear, touch, and taste; but how far he sees, how well he hears, what his touch tells him, and what he tastes depend upon the number and quality of his senses... and these limit his perception of the world around him (Jung, 1964, p.4).

In a rather prescient statement, Jung (1964) goes on to state that even with the use of scientific instruments to enhance our senses, 'at some point he (man) reaches the edge of certainty beyond which conscious knowledge cannot pass' (Jung, 1964, p.4). Looking at contemporary sources, Lisa Randall physicist and string theory researcher, writes in her book, *Warped Passages,* that, 'our senses register only three large dimensions… This disinformation campaign started back in the crib where physical laws and common sense supported the notion of three dimensions' (Randall, 2005, p.2). Perhaps the following quote by Heisenberg summarises the issue best, 'when examining nature and the universe instead of looking for objective qualities man encounters himself' (in Gal-or, 1981, p. 381).

What Dewey, Eisner, Jung and others are saying is that 'objectivity,' which is the inherent implication of research considered quantitative, is subjugated to the qualities of the inquirer. It does not imply abandonment in the search for truth. It does not imply that reality does exist or that it does not exist. As Pring (2000) states, resisting one paradigm does not 'inevitably force one to

the other' (Pring, 2000, p. 253). It is simply a recognition of its[33] limitations. There is no logical consistency, as Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) and Guba and Lincoln (1998) appear to suggest that one must switch teams: a rather narrow 'you are with us or against us' interpretation.

That objectivity is subjugated is no more than a realization, a recognition of the limitations of being in possession of a human mind. This limitation of knowledge was argued by David Hume, the 18th century British empiricist, who concluded that our knowledge is limited to our sensory perceptions and the images or ideas they create within us. And, no matter how often an observable event is confirmed in the past, it does not provide certainty, but rather what he referred to as an association of ideas. Hume argues, therefore, that it is just as intelligible to say the sun will *not* rise tomorrow (Lavine, 1984, p. 167).

3.12 Will the sun rise tomorrow: implications for my research design

In this section, I identify my ontological, epistemological, and methodological views. It should be emphasized that these are views held currently based upon my interpretations of the literature to which I have been exposed. In addition, it should be noted that an underlying pragmatism shadows all these statements. My pragmatism[34] is a fundamental position which is looking for a view of the *truths* to the various problems facing education. In this pragmatic context, the search for truths hopes that a truth exists, but it does not imply that it cannot be known nor does it imply that it can be known. It is simply an investigation, an examination, or an inquiry. It is not a suggestion that physical entities are mind dependent nor is it convinced of its exclusive external existence.

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33 positivism

34 Not to be confused with the philosophical position espoused by James or Peirce, but in the sense of the strict definition 'dealing with matters with regards to their practical requirements or consequences' (Blackburn , 1994, p. 1136).

My pragmatic search for truth is an acknowledgement that regardless of my belief in an external world or an internal world that my mind has created, that what does exist is a system of distinguishing, classifying, and searching for commonalities. Pring (2000) likewise acknowledges that distinctions are made, though I disagree with him that this necessarily implies an external reality. Nonetheless, the search for patterns that have a high probability of repeating is perhaps the best we can find. To that end, if by observation, questionnaire, descriptive and/or inferential statistics we discover a highly correlated event, then why not try to falsify or if one prefers verify this using all the means at one's disposal.

With this in mind, my personal view of reality, ontological position, is uncertain. In one respect, it seems simpler and saner to construct logical arguments for the existence of an external reality which exists, a position that pulls me towards the realist, though which kind of realist I have yet to decide. As John Perry notes in his introduction to Bertrand Russell's, *The Problems of Philosophy*, one can be a realist about all sorts of things.

> Philosophers have denied the existence of minds, matter, numbers, space, time, and objective moral principles, to mention just a few things, so other philosophers, who defended the reality of these things, were realists by contrast' (Russell, 1912, p. x).

To be sure, I am plagued by doubts and skepticism, unsure of the degree to which the external reality perceived is mind dependent. Does this imply a path towards the idealists? In short, I really don't know.

Epistemologically, the approach I take is pragmatic, at least in the sense that I have not let my uncertain ontological position preclude me from searching for a truth. I acknowledge that more than one answer can be derived and may be equally valid and reliable. In line with Popper, who said, 'There are no ultimate sources of knowledge. Every source, every suggestion, is welcome; and every source, every suggestion, is open to examination' (Popper, 1963/2002, p. 36). Upon the publication in 1687 of *The Principia :*

Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy by Newton, both empiricists and rationalists laid claim to his discoveries as vindication of their conflicting views (Lavine, 1981, p. 167). Unless Newton, however, was imbued with some special powers that enabled him to suppress his consciousness, his empirical observations had to be rationalized: one cannot divorce reason from perception or the reverse. Denying the influence of one is like denying the influence of the artist's hand upon a canvas; therefore, there is no certainty.[35] Popper and others knew and know this,

> The way in which knowledge progresses and especially our scientific knowledge is by unjustified and justifiable anticipations, by tentative solutions to our problems, by conjectures. The conjectures are controlled by criticism; that is, by attempted refutations, which include severely critical tests. They may survive these tests; but they can never be positively justified; they can neither be established as certainly true nor even as 'probable' (Popper, 1963/2002, p. xi. quotes in the original).

Methodologically, pragmatic considerations with a view that qualitative inquiry includes those traditionally segregated and referred to as quantitative are guiding. The 'Paradigm War' that Hammersley (1996) refers to is a war of which I want no part. As Eisner, (1998) accurately suggests, it is inaccurate to suggest that quantification is not part of qualitative inquiry: 'all empirical phenomena are qualitative' (p. 5). This position is ignored or not believed in the ongoing dispute between the warring tribes. In a criticism of Bryman's (2000) summary of the two 'perceived' views, Hammersely (1996) notes,

> There are, however, some serious problems with this 'paradigm' view of the relationship between quantitative and qualitative research. For one thing, if we look at research today in the human sciences, we find that much of it does not fall neatly into one or other of these two categories. There are multiple methodological dimensions on which research varies: these do not lie in parallel, and each involves a range of positions, not just two (p. 160).

35 A statement recognized as falling victim to its own implications.

Gal-or (1981) in writing about Einstein states,

> as Einstein's research demonstrated there are different types of scientific *truths* and different ways of finding them. One is based on observations; this is how we learned about quasars and pulsars, for example. The other is based on abstract principles and logic: for example, Karl Schwarzschild first derived black holes as a mathematical consequences of general relativity (Gal-or, 1981, p.67).

As there are different types of *truths* and different ways of finding them, I have taken a position that is described by Hammersley as, 'methodologically aware eclecticism' (Hammersley, 1996, p. 174).

The methodological considerations noted are an eclectic mix combining influences from some such as John Dewey, himself a pragmatist[36],

> Life is compartmentalised and the institutionalised compartments are classified… compartmentalisation of occupations and interests brings about separation of that mode of activity commonly called 'practice' from inside, of imagination from executive doing, of significant purpose from work, of emotion from thought and doing. Those who write the anatomy of experience then suppose that these divisions are inherent in the very constitution of human nature (Dewey, 1934, p. 21).

I agree, therefore, with Pring (2000) who notes 'the untenability of the philosophical positions which underpin *both sides* of the dualism' (Pring, 2000, p. 258). I agree with Rowbottom and Aiston (2006) who write, 'on a practical level, we should be concerned with genuine 'fitness for purpose' of different local methods, in specific context, irrespective of whether they have been associated with positivists or interpretivists[37] (p. 154). Only a dogmatic adherence to specific ontological and epistemological positions precludes one from utilizing a variety of methods which would normally be associated with one view of reality. An adherence to the positivist position of perception, objectivity, and quantification is limited, but this criticism does not imply support of interpretivism. The interpretivist's attack on positivists

36 Dewey is associated along with James and Pierce as belonging to the philosophical movement known as pragmatism.
37 See footnote 1.

as being mechanistic and reductionist ignores the pragmatic necessity of compartmentalized, mechanised and routinised structures within any organisation. Its reductionist attack ignores the fact that generalizeable and practical solutions are being demanded by policy makers, parents and practitioners. I agree with the view that a characteristic of a good inquirer is, 'methodological flexibility, rather than the rigid adherence to externally imposed standards necessary to allow inquiry to flourish' (p. 154).

The purpose of this introduction was an attempt to explicate my philosophical orientation and methodological position in relation to the views that appear to permeate educational research. Two 'competing' epistemological positions were selected as a focus of the examination of the literature: positivism and interpretivism. Widely accepted authors in educational research were surveyed and their interpretations discussed. A detailed look at the historical record was undertaken but due to space limitations could not be included. In addition, a review of literature outside the field of educational research was also undertaken. The combined tripartite caused some consternation and frustration since the last two sources did not appear to share the same interpretations nor saw the same utility that was being described in the first. Based on the comments by Pring (2000) and Rowbottom and Aiston (2006), there are those within the educational research community who share similar concerns. What follows is a description of the research design and methods used throughout this thesis. It is influenced by the pragmatism that has been described.

3.2 Research Design

A common criticism of educational research is that it is not 'revisited in subsequent studies' (Leithwood and Day, 2007, p.189). Researchers frequently state that a new study is required which creates a unique perspective due to the new setting that new actors and environment create

(2007). In addition, it is argued that following the framework of previous research could 'constrain the new study' (p. 190). These arguments are based on the belief in the unique context of each school. Though a school's context is unique, so too are many of life's interactions. Yet when one encounters a new situation involving new people and a new environment, one is able to discern sufficient information from previous experience to allow understanding and comprehension to occur. This is possible because there are patterns in life which are consistent, and the brain has the capability to organize and recognize the presented data to make what appears unique, sensible and recognizable (Palmer, 2002). This is referred to as constancy from both Gestalt and perceptual branches of psychology (Helson, 1925; Palmer, 2002). Without such phenomena, life would be difficult to navigate. Though each school has elements that are unique, we can recognize that it is a school because of a constancy of common characteristics. There are, therefore, patterns of behaviour and practices that one can identify (Leithwood, 2007) and investigate within a school.

Investigating patterns of behaviour and practices falls within two distinct categories of educational research: descriptive and experimental research (Bryman, 2004; Cohen and Manion, 2007). The latter requires manipulation of an independent variable and observation of the dependent variable (Bryman, 2004, p.34). The former is more narrative and interpretive. According to Best (1970), descriptive research relates to 'conditions or relationships that exist: practices that prevail; beliefs, points of views, or attitudes that are held; processes that are going on...' (in Cohen and Manion, 2007, p.205). To this, Cohen and Manion (2008) add that descriptive research investigates 'individuals, groups, institutions, methods, and materials in order to describe, compare, contrast, classify, analyse and interpret the entities and the events that constitutes their various fields of enquiry' (p.67). The use of a descriptive methodology is consistent with frameworks established in previous research projects investigating moral

leadership (Stager and Fullan, 1992; Leithwood et al, 2004; Gurr, Drysdale, and Mulford, 2006; Leithwood et al, 2006 NCLS; Rowold, 2008; Leithwood, Patten and Jantzi, 2010). These are projects that have investigated leadership and have identified transformational and/or moral and/or values driven leadership as a fundamental characteristic of effective leaders. An examination of these studies revealed that many followed a methodological framework referred to as mixed or multiple methods (I use both words interchangeably). The common research design selected was a case study. The common methods utilized were interviews, observations, questionnaires, document and artefact analysis. Finally, these studies triangulated their data to corroborate their findings using a combination of narrative, thematic and/or statistical analysis.

As I am attempting to link my study with previous research, I have selected a case study as the research design. In addition, the methods I used were: interviews, observations, questionnaires and document analysis. Finally, I triangulated the data to corroborate the findings. What follows, therefore, is a description of my research design, the methods and instruments used. In addition, I provide a description of the type of analysis that was undertaken.

3.21 Case Study

A case study is a research design[38] (Bryman, 2004). It is used to investigate phenomenon that are bounded by the unique context of an organization and whose interpersonal processes are not immediately evident (Yin, 1982; Anderson, 1990; Stake, 2006). This is useful for this research thesis since examining relationships between various stakeholders is fundamental to the thesis. The focus on context and the complexity of the phenomena necessitate on-site investigation with the flexibility to use a variety of

38 The phrase research design is used here to describe an overall approach to the research thesis. It is considered distinct from research methodology and research methods.

research methods and the ability to follow unplanned pathways finding a balance between systemization and discretion (Yin, 1981; 1982). This view is echoed by Cohen and Manion (2011) who wrote,

> case studies recognise that there are many variables operating in a single case, and, hence to catch the implications of these variables usually requires more than one tool for data collection and many sources of evidence (p. 289).

Multiple data collection techniques provide sources of evidence each used to seek out the nuances and gain a foothold of the underlying meanings in the exchanges with and between the various participants in this study. Combined this approach enables 'readers to gain some understanding of how ideas and abstract principles can fit together' (Yin, 2009, p. 73). This is appropriate for this thesis given it incorporates literature from moral philosophy and moral psychology that might be unfamiliar or abstract with more common and familiar theories of moral leadership.

In a discussion on the importance of context, Cohen and Manion (2011) note that a case study 'investigates and reports real-life, complex dynamic and unfolding interactions of events, human relationships and other factors in a unique instance' (p. 289). The unique instance focused upon in this thesis is the implementation of a GTP. These instances are similar to what I believe Socrates meant in his debates as to how virtue can be taught. It is through examination of instances that we can learn about virtue.

For this thesis, the case study is particularly useful as it is not just a description but rather blends in analysis (2011). The analysis of the data is through a moral lens that 'seeks to understand the perceptions of individual actors' (290). One reason that other researchers (Campbell, 1995) have called for case studies is that they 'strive to portray what it is like to be in a particular situation, to catch the close-up reality of participants experiences' (Cohen and Manion, 2011, p. 290). From these experiences we get a glimpse of not just a leaders characteristics, but rather we get a view at what a school

leader is *doing* (Gunter and Ribbins, 2002) when confronting a moral issue. From this glimpse, we can gain a look into the window of his or her *character* (Greenfield and Ribbins, 1993).

Though other research designs such as cross sectional may offer a similar approach, it is the case study's focus on illuminating 'the unique features of the case' (Bryman, 2004, 50) that is particular useful to this thesis. This is an idiographic approach, an approach defined by Cohen and Manion (2011) as, 'an emphasis on the particular and individual'(p. 6). It is an approach to 'understanding individual behaviour' (p.8). It is contrasted with nomothetic approaches which imply a view to the universal or global features. I consider this thesis to be idiographic. The focus is primarily on one principal and how he arrives at a decision when faced with a moral issue. The investigation, however, includes how the SLT, the teaching staff, the profession of teaching and other stakeholders have an impact on the decisions reached.

Further support for pursuing a case study is found in Rheil and Firestone (2005) in a discussion specifically on research used to study educational leadership. They argue that case study research can generate more comprehensive information that helps to illuminate the 'thinking and actions of multiple actors' (p.164). They note that case study research can be used to study a 'leader's cognitive processes - how leaders construct meanings and act on them to influence others and to impact teaching and learning.' (p. 164). As the focus of this study is on the moral process a school leader followed, a case study appeared to be the most appropriate design to follow. This is consistent with past research focused on leadership. For example, Sammons, Thomas and Mortimore (1997) argue that case studies are 'an important means of increasing understanding of the ways in which internal functioning of different schools can enhance students academic progress' (p.61). As part of this research seeks to explore the 'internal functions' of why the moral issue, a GTP, was provided, selecting a case study as a research design seems consistent with the experiences of seasoned researchers.

A potential source of concern of the use of a case study in this thesis may be the length of time on site. Time on site was limited due in part to the rarity of finding a site meeting the criteria of this thesis. In addition, a practical issue was also a factor, as IST is located a two hour flight from my home. The issue of duration on site, however, may not be that significant. A number of case studies were written by some researchers within similar time frames (see Jackson, 1981; Lightfoot, 1981; Barone, 1983). Further, as Eisner writes, there is no fixed period, the issue is more to do with the 'quality of the evidence the researcher has to support descriptions, interpretations, and appraisals' (p.192). For this thesis, not only was a substantial amount of data collected during the time on site, but the overall quality of the data, in particular the interview and GELQ, are quite rich and provide suitable depth for analysis.

3.22 The Sampling Design

The sampling process is based on a sampling design which is the structure that guides the sampling scheme and sample size. The sampling scheme is a sampling strategy which is the method by which apposite participants are selected (Onwuebuzie and Collins, 2007). Sampling schemes fall under two classes: random and non-random sampling. Random sampling is also referred to as probabilistic sampling (non-purposeful) in which conclusions may be generalized to a broader population. Non-random sampling is also referred to as non-probabilistic sampling (purposeful) and is used when the goal is not to generalize results to the broader population (Onwuebuzie and Collins, 2007). Purposeful sampling is particularly useful when the number of potential cases is small (Blanford and Squire 2000). The general objective of this thesis is to focus on a leader and the moral process he undertook within a school. There is no intention or suggestion that the findings can be generalized, therefore, non-random (purposeful) sampling is the most appropriate approach to follow.

Onwuebuzie and Collins (2006; 2007) offer 19 possible non-random sample schemes. The delineation between the different schemes is not always clear. This thesis, therefore, could be considered a criterion sampling given that 'choosing settings, groups, and/or individuals because they represent one or more criteria' (p.286). Alternatively, it is possible that the scheme is a critical case given that 'choosing settings, groups, and/or individuals based on specific characteristics because their inclusion provides the researcher with compelling insight about a phenomenon' (p.286). For this thesis, the sample design is best described as an amalgamation of the two: a criterion based, critical case. This is similar to what Bryman, (2012) referred to as 'two levels of purposive sampling' (p. 417).

3.221 The Sampling Design: Site Access

The moral issue selected for this study was the provision of a gifted and talented program in the context of an International School[39]. This criterion established the main parameters of the search. The search began using previous informal self-completion surveys of International Schools that had been conducted previously by my school. This list contained the names of 111 International Schools. Phone calls to personal contacts and a review of websites reduced this list to a possible 32 schools (see appendix 1.2 for full details). Among this list are included some of the oldest and most recognized International Schools in Europe. The survey began with a telephone call asking about the school's services or programs for gifted students. Follow-up occurred mostly by phone, however, in a few cases responses were provided by email. Schools were asked specific questions in order to determine if they had a gifted and talented program. From this list, only two schools were found that could be determined to have a GTP. Despite repeated requests, access was denied. During this time, our school was undergoing a Council of

39 To gain a deeper understanding for the context of the research site. I conducted a brief historical review of International Schools. It can be found in appendix 3.8.

International Schools (CIS) inspection. I asked a group of CIS inspectors for a possible lead, but none of the inspectors could name a school with a GTP. This supports the results from a phone call to the CIS main office which could not identify any school among the 535 that they have accredited. One of the visiting CIS team members arrived later than the rest. I spoke with him and he stated that his school had a GTP but that it had gone through a set back and only recently was being restarted. He graciously offered his campus as a site for further exploration. The campus which is located in Turkey, comprises two schools: a secondary and primary school[40].

It should be noted that to an extent this serendipitous event could cause the sampling design to be considered a convenience sample in that that site was 'conveniently available and willing to participate' (p.286). It is also possible that it is to a degree opportunistic in that the GTP was in the process of being restarted. This would allow me to investigate the phenomenon as it is occurring i.e. 'to capitalize on developing events during data collection' (p.286). The latter is an important point since it highlights that that the responses to the interview and questionnaires would be based on recent events. As the GTP was in the early stages of renewal, the recent events, would be easier for respondents to recall and hence may have a positive, though potentially marginal, increase in the reliability of the responses.

3.23 Time Orientation

Time orientation is advocated as a base starting point once the decision has been reached to pursue mixed methods (Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2006, 2007). Two orientations, concurrent and sequential need to be considered. Concurrent refers to research undertaken ‘approximately’ (p.88 and p. 290) at the same time. Perhaps a more useful description is that the research methods are implemented independent of each other. Sequential refers to

40 A more detailed description of the site characteristics is presented in chapter four.

research undertaken in a formal order. Results from the initial research are used to inform and provide comparison with the research that is completed subsequently (Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2006, 2007). This thesis followed a concurrent time orientation. This was due primarily to practicalities such as distance to the research site, a two hour flight, and length of time on site, three days, and limited resources, only one researcher. The process began with questionnaires being distributed shortly after I arrived at the school[41]. After a brief chat with the Head of School, I began my first interview. This was followed by a guided tour of the facilities provided by the Deputy Director of Primary. A schedule of interviews was created, based upon the availability of interviewees. Observations, therefore, occurred in between interviews. Document analysis did not occur until after I returned to Geneva.

3.3 Methods

Having established a sampling design and time orientation, it is necessary to review the various techniques used to gather data. These data collection techniques are referred to as methods. A variety of methods can be used in a case study. Guiding this research thesis is the decision to utilize multiple methods from which data can be triangulated. This is consistent with selecting a concurrent sampling design (Onuwuebuzie and Collins 2007) and with views expressed by Yin, (2009) who advocates for the use of multiple methods in case studies. In this regard, 10 semi-structured interviews, two questionnaires, both formal and informal whole school and classroom observations, and documents analysis were undertaken. For this study, the interviews were the central focus of the data collection. It was from the interviews that I anticipated generating the data that would directly address the four research sub-questions related to the moral process. Each questionnaire had a specific purpose. The first questionnaire was used to

41 There was a problem with distributing one of the questionnaires, but this turned into an unexpected opportunity to carry out some observations. I explain more in section 3.32 below.

determine teacher buy-in with the GTP and the second was used to ascertain the leadership style of the head teacher. Observations and document analysis were seen as confirmatory methods that allowed me to cross-check what was being said in interviews and being written in the questionnaires. The following sections highlights both the method used and the rationale.

3.31 Semi-structured Interviews

The key data collection method utilized in past case studies on moral leadership is the interview. Interviews are an occasion for a respondent to provide a detailed explanation to a question or questions related to the research objectives. The event can be a formal predetermined series of questions to which the respondent is asked to reply. This is referred to as a structured interview. It can be an informal conversation guided by the interviewer, referred to as an unstructured interview. A middle option called a semi- structured interview allows the interviewer to follow a series of guided questions, both open and closed, but also provides flexibility to detour into unplanned territory (Thomas, 1991). It is the latter that was selected for this thesis since it allows a researcher flexibility to ensure full coverage of the agenda and it is in keeping with the theme of developing my thesis on the basis of previous studies.

From a research perspective, the interviews were seen as key to diving deeper into the internal states of the respondents. This is appropriate given that semi-structured interviews can provide greater details and a larger range of information can be uncovered than from other survey methods (Rheil and Firestone , 2005). The information uncovered 'may help to explain connections or when reviewed connections can be determined' (Stake, 1995, p. 65). The interview would 'allow researchers to investigate things that we cannot observe' (Wellington, 2000, p.71). These would include a respondent's values, prejudices, perceptions, feelings and perspectives

(Wellington, 2000). Further, it was concluded that semi-structured interviews were an appropriate balance between unstructured interviews which may yield 'a wealth of valuable data' but then require a great deal of expertise and time to analyse (Bell, 1998, p.94). At the opposite end of the spectrum structured interviews might yield results that were potentially misleading and too constricted by the nature of the questions (Bell, 1998). Semi-structured interviews allow more control by the interviewer and more flexibility than a completely predetermined interview (Wellington, 2000, p.75). The interviewer has control 'over the range and order of questions within a loosely defined framework' (Wellington, 2000, p. 80).

The schedule that was used to guide the interviews was developed following a detailed examination of each question. In appendix 3.1, I include a complete copy I used with the Head of School entitled, Question and Rationale Summary for the Head of School Interview. This document was coloured coded: black indicated that it was the actual question and red indicating the rationale for the question. Figure 3.1 is an example of the analysis that went into the first question. Each of the 13 questions plus the opening preamble in the schedule underwent a similar analysis.

Interview Questions: Internal Factors

1. How do you conceptualize an effective education for the gifted? (emphasis on effective).

    a. Hints/Prompt: Is there any model that you follow? Y / N

        i. If Yes, which model? (prompt, SWM or DMGT or custom)

        ii. Why this particular approach? (alternate phrasing: What was the appeal of this approach)

        iii. Does your conception match the reality of what your school provides? Y / N. Could you please

elaborate?

iv. Would you consider your model a program or series of services?

(Based on response and using Gentry's description indicate if I reach the same conclusion. After this question, use terminology that was provided by interviewee, for example, program or service).

Rationale

1. **type of question**

primarily non-factual (opinion) open ended with some prompts, two small parts closed ended

2. **order of question**

This is the first question which will establish an understanding of each interviewee's perspective on effective gifted education. (According to Kalton (1982) important questions should be near the beginning).

3. **purpose of question or how does question relate to the research question** Given the multitude of definitions, models and conceptions, this question seeks to avoid assumptions and establish each interviewee's perspective. For example, one school might consider an effective GT education as a series of basic services, whereas others might believe similar services constitute a full program. It is expected that the interviewee will offer insight into his/her internal state/motivation

Figure 3.1: Sample of the analysis of the interview questions.

As can be seen in figure 3.1, each question in the schedule was examined for its wording, its use of language, its order and potential impact on previous questions. Leading and compound questions were avoided. The questions were reviewed in consideration of a potential biasing effect and potential impact on subsequent questions (Kalton, Collins and Brooks, 1977, p. 156). Following suggestions by Becker (1998), the interviews were conducted in a private room, usually a closed classroom or office. Instructions were read aloud and, on occasion questions were repeated in keeping with Kalton and Schuman's (1981) suggestion that 'by essentially stating the question twice the respondents' understanding is increased' (p.46). I was not as interested in

the reflexive response but rather a deeper, more reflective consideration of the question. This technique was particularly noticeable with a few key questions, where I intentionally repeated or slightly rephrased the same question two and sometimes three times. The immediate impact was at times a look of incredulity. For example, when I asked the key question, why do they bother to provide a GTP? I would follow-up with one simple word, why? And then again with, why is this important to you? This strategy drew some of the most passionate responses and resulted in generating some of the most pertinent and rich data. All these suggestions have been shown to increase results from respondents (Kalton and Schuman, 1981).

Following suggestions by Stake (1995), I remained attentive, took notes and focused on the responses. As seen in the previous example, occasionally 'a simple question was used to ensure clarity' (Stake, 1995, p. 65). General instructions were provided at the introduction of the interview requesting that the respondents think carefully and take their time to recall information as best as they could (Kalton and Schuman, 1981). During the interview, I was attentive to see if the respondent understood the question or if clarification was required (Becker 1998; Kalton, Collins and Brooks, 1977; Wikman, 2006). I was keenly aware of the potential 'response effect' that may contribute to biasing of the data. This led to some lengthy pauses as the respondent searched for the right words and I tried not to interfere.

Further, I was aware of what (Borg, 1981) referred to as the 'eagerness of the respondent to please the interviewer' (p.87) and its related phenomenon the potential for responding in a socially desirable manner. Neeley and Cronely (2004) describe social desirability bias as the desire to 'present oneself in a positive manner' (p.432). They describe the impact as 'over-reporting opinion and behaviours that are congruent with values deemed socially acceptable and under-reporting those deemed socially undesirable' (p.432). According to Fischer (1993), this concern impacts virtually every branch of social science literature. The concern with regards to social desirability bias resulted in an

indirect approach to investigating the moral nuances of the responses. Although there are only a few studies that were found that investigated the impact of indirect question, these studies did suggest that indirect questioning reduces the impact of social desirability bias (Fischer, 1993). The consequences of this approach meant that there was no explicit attempt to ask interviewees and respondents if they believed the issue of a GTP was a moral issue. Further, there was no explicit question that asked interviewees and respondents what moral process they undertook. Rather the questions were developed that allowed respondents to provide a direct response to the initial question, but also provided a format that allowed respondents to elaborate upon their original response.

This approach at addressing social desirability bias led to a particular emphasis on question technique with regards to the interviews. Similar to the questionnaire, the format was constructed that allowed for an initial response to a direct question and an opportunity to elaborate. As noted above, however, within the interviews I was able to restate questions for emphasis and to encourage deeper reflection by respondents. The result is that the question format and question technique allowed respondents to express their views in a natural process that was less contrived had the questions been more explicit. Had the questions been more direct, i.e. do you think this is a moral issue and why? It raises the issue of whether or not respondents would provide their genuine response or a response that they believed would reflect a desire to be socially responsible and pleasing to the interviewer (Kalton and Schuman's, 1981).

The interview protocol produced responses that are related to both the principle research question and the sub-questions. As noted above, each question underwent analysis, there are notes in parenthesis that I used as a reminder to myself as to what I was hoping to draw out from the respondents. For example, their personal beliefs, vision and internal motivation.

3.311 Demographic Data of the Interviewees

During the course of the visit, 10 interviews occurred. Table 3.1 provides a summary of the demographic information of the individuals who participated in the interviews. The interviewees selected represent the entire SLT, SEN, current and former GTC. These individual were selected as they were each involved to a degree with the initial attempt to implement a GTP and/or were part of the team assisting the re-implementation of the GTP. These individuals were seen as the key informants that could help to illuminate how the moral issue was raised, what was decided, who decided and how it was addressed. Each interviewee was asked a set of questions similar to the interview protocol found in appendix 3.1. Each protocol was slightly modified to reflect the respective role of responsibility that he or she currently occupied.

Table 3.1 Demographic Data of the Interviewees

Anonymised Name	Position	Total Years Teaching	Years In Headship	Years at IST	Years of experience in International or Private Schools and Location	Years of experience in State Funded Schools	Gender	Age Range
DOS	Dean of students	18	NA	6	15 -Kuwait, Muscat, Turkey	3-UK	F	36-45
DDP	Deputy Director of Primary	20	4	12	12- Turkey	8-UK	F	36-45
DOC	Director of Curriculum	16	NA	8	13-Jordan and Jerusalem	4-UK	M	46-55
GTC	GT Coordinator	29	NA	2	10 -Turkey	17 - Poland and UK	F	55-65
HOS	Head of Secondary	21	5	2	15- Bermuda, UAE, Qatar, Turkey	6-UK	M	55-65
HOD-S	Head of Science (Former GTC)	5	NA	3	3 -Turkey	2-UK	M	36-45
KS5-C	Key Stage 5 Coordinator	20	2	5	20 - Netherlands, UK and Turkey	0	M	36-45
SEN-A	Special Ed Needs	1	NA	1	1 -Turkey	0	M	25-35
SEN-HJ	Head Special Ed Needs	8	NA	2	2 -Turkey	6-USA	M	36-45
SEN-K	Special Ed Needs	4	NA	2	2 -Turkey	2-USA	F	25-35
		14.2 years average		4.3 years average	9.3 years average	4.8 years average	4 Females 6 Males	36-45 mode of age range

The order of the interviews was pre-established by the school according to staff availability. The interviews were digitally recorded and field notes and observations of the discussion were made (Stake, 1995). I reviewed the interview recordings upon return to Geneva. The interviews were transcribed and the results were analyzed using Nvio7.

3.312 Interview Analysis

The approach to analysis applied to the interviews is similar to a grounded theory approach, but due in part to the difficulty in finding an appropriate site, theoretical sampling was not possible. The approach was inductive, particular findings leading to more general theory. I describe my approach as a pragmatic semi-grounded theory. I followed Bryman's (2012) prescription to coding:

1. Code as soon as possible.
2. Do not be concerned about too many nodes.
3. Any item can and often should be coded in more than one way.
4. Read through transcripts, field notes, documents, etc.
5. Do it again.
6. Review your nodes.
7. Consider connections between 'concepts and categories'(p.577).
8. Be aware that coding is not analysis, but rather a process to assist analysis.

With this in mind, I began by coding transcripts without any conscious intention to use predetermined themes. There were no code schedules or manuals, as would be expected in content analysis (Bryman, 2012). There are two main approaches to coding. There is open coding described by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as 'the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing' (p.61). There is also initial coding advocated by Charmaz (2006) that is 'very detailed' with many codes created based on 'initial impressions' (Bryman, p, 569). The approach I took was initial coding. In the initial coding stage, I tried to remain open minded and allow codes to be generated through my 'initial impressions' (Bryman, p, 569). I allowed for numerous nodes - a term Nvivo uses to describe 'the process of marking passages of text in a project's documents to be created' (p.596). This is

similar to comments made by Bryman (2012) who noted that the initial coding can be quite detailed.

With several hundred nodes constructed, I then began comparing, contrasting and grouping nodes into larger themes that would eventually turn into concepts. As Cohen and Manion (2011) write, there is '...a process of iteration and reiteration whereby some codes that are used in the early stages of coding might be modified'...(p. 560). This is also similar to Bryman's (2012) description of focused coding. Focused coding entails 'emphasizing the most common codes and those that are seen as most revealing about the data' (p. 569). The focused coding generated concepts and from concepts emerged the final categories. In this analysis, I distinguish between the term concepts and category. Concepts are lower level more preliminary themes, a collection of nodes. A category is 'a higher level of abstraction' (p.570) containing 'two or more concepts' (p.570) and relating to 'real-world phenomena' (p.570).

At the stage of category development, I began to match concepts with existing theories (Harris, 2013; Leithwood, 2007; Leithwood and Day, 2007; Mulford, 2001; Sergiovanni 1999; Southworth, 2000). It should be noted that from among this list researchers, Leithwood's (2007) was most influential. In general, however, examples of some of the notions referenced include: core moral purpose, basic human values and professional beliefs, community, collaboration, coalition building, organizational structure, and distributed leadership. As these predetermined notions were looked for at this stage, there is, therefore, a degree of content analysis. Any concepts, however, that could not be grouped were left to emerge on their own. This process was very much an iterative process, the 'weaving back and forth between data and theory' as described by Bryman, 2012, (p.26). Thus the final development of the categories arose as a result of 'refinement, modification' and an exhaustive iterative approach of the data (Cohen and Manion, 2011, p.560).

Reflecting upon this process, it was felt that theoretical saturation was reached. Theoretical saturation is a state achieved after coding to a point where there is no further illumination of the concept (Bryman, 2012). From this process arose the five categories that would address the research sub-questions. With these categories in place, data from the other instruments was examined and cross-checked to verify if they corroborated with these categories. The result is that the moral aspect of the responses was determined *post hoc* through this emergent coding process that linked the data to existing theories and concepts in moral leadership, moral philosophy and moral psychology.

3.32 Questionnaires

Questionnaires provide an efficient means to ascertain insight across a wide scope of a school albeit at a particular point in time (Bryman, 2012; Cohen and Manion, 2008). Two self-completion questionnaires were used. Questionnaires were distributed to both primary and secondary school teaching staff, gifted coordinators, HODs, and SLTs. The purpose of the first questionnaire was to ascertain the level of knowledge and personal positions (buy-in) with respects to education for the gifted. This was influenced in part by Harris (1997) who suggested that for reforms to be effective teacher buy-in is essential. Similarly, Fullan (2001) states that as gatekeepers of change, the school principal needs to be supportive. The second questionnaire focused on gathering detailed perceptions of the leadership style of the school principal from SLT and other teaching staff.

3.321 Gifted Education Leadership Questionnaire (GELQ)

The first questionnaire, the GELQ, was designed purposely for this study following a detailed look at the literature on questionnaire design (for

example, Kalton and Schuman, 1981; Cohen and Manion, 2011; Wellington, 2000; Bell, 2010). As a reference, a copy of the GELQ distributed to the SLT can be found in appendix 3.2.

The questionnaire was developed by assembling a list of questions and comments frequently found in the gifted and talented literature with respects to gifted students and accepted educational practices (for example, Borland, 1997; Gallahger, 2009; Gentry, 2009; Renzulli and Reiss, 2009). As Wellington (2000) suggested, the questionnaires were targeted. A basic questionnaire was developed for teaching staff. A separate questionnaire, a modified version of the basic, was then developed for GT coordinators, HODs and SLTs. In total four questionnaires were created. To ensure that the questionnaire looked 'easy and attractive' (Cohen and Manion, 2007, p. 338; Wellington, 2000; Bell, 2010), a formatting very similar to a professional questionnaire, the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass and Avolio, 2004), was adopted. The questionnaire was entitled, the Gifted Education Leadership Questionnaire (GELQ). The questionnaire was divided into three sections. Section one and two specifically address the issue of staff support for a gifted education program. Section three of the GELQ was designed as an indirect way to measure the intensity of the attitudes that staff had with regards to the gifted. This was done through assembling a 15 item, five point Likert scale. Scoring was based on 1=Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Uncertain, 4=Disagree and 5=Strongly Disagree. Respondents were provided with closed ended questions and/or statements offering three and five point possible responses: 'the advantage of closed questions is the standardisation of response and economy of processing' (Kalton and Schuman, 1981, p.50). They were provided some opportunity for open ended responses. A thorough review of each question/statement was conducted similar to the process undertaken with the interview schedule. Each question/statement was reviewed in terms of its purpose with respects to the research question. Further, each question was examined for its construction with regards to the

basic guidelines for questionnaire development. The following is a list of some of the items that were considered in creating the questions:

1. word choice and possible misinterpretation of terms,
2. the general layout including placement of 'instructions, font size, and the colours of print for questions and instructions' (Bell, 1999, p.44),
3. the sensitivity to the precise 'wording, format and placement of the question/statement' (p.42),
4. acknowledging that 'marginal changes in definition can have profound effects on survey results' (p. 44),
5. avoiding an overly cumbersome question,
6. a review of the sequence of the questions and the potential impact a preceding question may have on the current question and/or statement (Kalton, Collins and Brooks, 1977),
7. ensuring questions and/or statements were substantive (Wikman, 2006, p.102),
8. avoiding, or unpacking, compound questions,
9. avoiding emotive or openly biased language (Wellington, 2000).

In a broader sense, questions and/or statements were about recent events and/or experiences that would minimize the need for recall. I avoided leading questions, presuming questions, hypothetical questions, offensive questions, and questions covering sensitive issues (Bell, 1999; Wikman, 2006). Finally, after the above review, the questionnaire was piloted (Wellington, 2000). Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire. Importantly, they were also asked to comment on the wording, layout and design of the questionnaire. The details of the pilot are discussed below (see section 3.4).

The results from sections one, two and three of the questionnaires were entered into an excel spreadsheet. The GELQ underwent two steps in the analysis. The first was a simple statistical look at frequency of response and the measure of central tendency, specifically, the mean, median, and mode.

As there was no attempt to create or generalize a theory to a broader population, there was no reason to seek external validity. Moreover, as external validity of this questionnaire was not an objective of this study, there was no attempt to ascertain the internal validity. The GELQ was designed to provide a description of the support for a GTP, therefore, both frequency and measure of central tendency were seen as sufficient. These examples of descriptive statistics are used to describe and summarize data (Cohen and Manion, 2011). The second analysis was based on the responses to the open ended questions but also included any comments respondents may have placed throughout the questionnaire. The results were entered into Nvivo7 and using the nodes established during the analysis of the interview, comments were assigned respectively.

3.33 Observations

In addition to the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, observations both formal and informal, were conducted. Observations were seen as providing supporting or contradictory evidence of the findings generated through the semi-structured interviews and the questionnaires. In other words, I wanted to determine if the claims made in the interviews were in fact being implemented in the classroom.

Observations are divided into two distinct types, participant observation and non-participant observation. Participant observation implies that the researcher joins the group under scrutiny in either a covert or non-covert manor in order to 'gain detailed insights into the lives and perspectives of those being studied' (Hobson, 2007, p.12). Non-participant observation implies that the researcher does not get involved directly with the activities but rather stays aloof recording the interactions and inter-reactions. For this research thesis, non-participant observation was chosen given the potential for loss of objectivity in participant observation that can arise from

developing intimate relationships (Hobson, 2007). From a practical perspective, participant observation would be time consuming adding to the cost of the thesis and increasing logistical demands. As Hobson (2007) identified, 'participant observation is an extremely demanding task and ... might be regarded as a high risk strategy in educational research. A lot can go wrong, and it isn't always possible to anticipate what can go wrong' (p. 13). Non-participant observation can be structured and therefore more focused on the objectives of the research question (Hobson, 2007). The researcher 'has a more concrete notion of what he or she is looking for in the behaviours and interactions being observed' (p.15).

I divided the observations into two sections. The first section was related to general observations. This section had elements of haecceity, what Thompson (2002) referred to as 'this-ness'. In other words, it helped to contextualize the school. This narrative description is similar in tone to the use of portraits as used in the works of Jackson[42] (1981) and Lightfoot (1981) and Barone (1983). Each provided portraits of exemplary schools conducted during brief visits to different schools within the United States. The description of IST provided in section 3.5 serves to establish context and enhance familiarity and empathy. In the context of this study, it use is primarily used in setting the context and establishing familiarity.

The second section was based on a combination of existing literature on the use of observations but also guided by suggestions as noted in the text, *the Moral Life of School* by Jackson, Boostrom and Hansen (1993). Part of the purpose of MLS, is to reveal and contextualize 'the events and features of moral consequences" (p. xii) within a school. The authors suggest a "generalized way of looking at and thinking about what goes on in classrooms" (p.xii). In a review of the text, Campbell (2008)writes, 'Jackson *et al.* (1993) empirically identified several categories of instruction in which moral

[42] This is Philip Jackson who is also one of the co-authors of the Moral Life of Schools. It is noted here in part as an appeal to authority and precedence. In the work cited in this section from 1981, Jackson notes that he spent three days on site.

education occurs both formally and informally' (p.608). The eight categories and a brief description are noted in Figure 3.2. These categories impacted my observations both formally as a schedule and informally as I observed what was happening throughout the school.

Figure 3.2. A summary of the eight categories as noted in MLS used for making ethical observations within a school and classroom.

Category	Description
Moral Instruction as a formal part of the curriculum	This category considers the impact of the formal curriculum upon moral behaviour.
Moral instruction within the regular classroom	Observations made of lessons that were moral in tone though not explicitly moral lessons.
Rituals and ceremonies	Observations of rituals and ceremonies includes routines, uniforms, and other gatherings such as sports, music and theatre.
Visual displays with moral content	Classroom layout colours and posters, corridor displays posters, art works, classroom layout
Spontaneous interjections of moral commentary into ongoing activity	Unexpected unplanned lessons of a moral tone
Classroom rules and regulations	Rules and regulations that are stated and or posted that govern classroom order.
The morality of the curricular substructure	This section refers to concepts that range from basic organization and presentation of curricular content to more subtle aspects that combined enable conditions such that a moral substratum of obligation and responsibility pervade the teaching.
Expressive Morality within the classroom	This section considers the facial expressions of teachers and the moral message they convey.

The observations were based on three events. One observation of a lesson. The other two were more informal. The first was a due to extended tour of the school by the deputy director of primary. The second event occurred out of necessity; one of the questionnaires did not get distributed. The combined outcome was that I was able to visit most of classrooms in the primary and secondary school. It should be emphasized that due to the logistics in arranging the visit to this school, the reported observations were limited to three days, a small time frame out of the total school year. In addition due to its remote location, the school strictly enforces its operating hours, therefore, I had to conduct all research within this confined time frame. I have some concerns in reporting the observations as they did not yield as much useful data as I had hoped. Though informal encounters are representative of sources of data that Anderson (1990) suggests are collected in a typical case study. I should clarify that the unplanned observations raised ethical issues with regards to informed consent. I resolved this issue by only recording notes and reporting upon the views and/or classroom observations from those participants who signed the consent forms.

In addition, the informal observations allowed me to complete the GTP observation schedule. This instrument was based on Gentry's (2009) exemplar program checklist. I reformatted the document into a table and used this to guide my assessment (see appendix 1.1). This allowed me to quickly ascertain what level of GTP was in place. Although scheduling did not allow me to view an enriched class, I was able to verify other aspects of their program through visual observations made on my tour of the campus and through informal questioning of my guide, the Deputy Director of Primary. As GTP was being formally reinstated, many of the programs, services and curriculum modifications were already in place.

3.34 Document collection

Additional sources of information are the various documents and artefacts found within a school and particularly within a classroom (Eisner, 1998). Examining these sources of data would provide a further check of consistency against the results from the questionnaires and interviews. Some researchers distinguish the documents into primary and secondary sources. Primary sources are authored during the period of research where as secondary resources are histories based upon the primary source (Bell, 1999). Primary sources are further divided into deliberate and inadvertent sources. Deliberate sources are autobiographies, memoirs, diaries or other text written with the purpose of providing justification for events or actions. Inadvertent sources are sources that were not prepared for the exclusive use of future researchers but from which researchers can make judgements. These include most routine documents in a school such as minutes, policy documents, handbooks, letters, newspapers (Bell, 1999).

A hermeneutical approach was taken to the analysis of documents. In other words, I attempted to '... seek to bring out the meanings of a text from the perspective of its authors' (Bryman, 2012, p.560). The process requires 'attention to the social and historical context within which the text was produced' (p.560). In the search for meaning, I used both internal and external criticism (Bell, 1999). Some examples of internal criticism include the type of document, author of the document, date and purpose of the document. External criticism include background of the author, bias, omissions, and emotive language (1999). Documents were therefore analyzed with regards to what was written, but also examined for what was not written, i.e. what do ‘the underlying assumptions unintentionally' (1999, p.69) reveal. For this thesis, copies of the school’s mission statement, vision statement, strategic plan, documentation related to gifted programs, and emails between the heads, SLT, HOD and learning support were reviewed. As

others (Eisner, 1998; Hammersley et al, 2001) have noted, the range of documents selected is extensive and the volume can become overwhelming.

3.35 Structural Corroboration and/or Triangulation

Structural corroboration is a term Eisner (1998), uses in place of the more commonly used triangulation. The two terms are closely related and the differences may appear semantic. Triangulation implies the use of at least two varying methods of data collection (Cohen and Manion, 2007) in an attempt to validate and/or justify the knowledge gained in social research (Denzin, 1979; Flick, 2002). Yin, (2009) takes the geographic metaphor further suggesting that,

> the most important advantage presented by using multiple sources of evidence is the development of *`converging lines of inquiry`*, a process of triangulation and corroboration... (p. 115, italics in the original)Thus any case study findings or conclusion is likely to be more convincing and accurate if it is based on several different sources of information, following a corroboratory mode (p.116).

Structural corroboration, in my interpretation, implies a broader more encompassing view examining the 'confluence of multiple sources of evidence or the recurrence of instances that support a conclusion' (Eisner, 1998, p.55). There is coherence to the data and its symbiotic relationship to the research question. Structural corroboration is an attempt to bring together `bits` of data, collected from a variety of methods, and fully cognizant of the unique perspective each method presents (Eisner, 1998). With this nuance in mind, the following discussion for triangulation should also be seen as support for structural corroboration. In attempt to address the issues of validity and reliability, Yin (2009) proposes the use of multiple sources of evidence. He discusses six 'commonly used' sources of evidence found in case studies (p.101). Of the six, this thesis uses interviews, direct observation and document collection which encompasses documents, archival records and physical artefacts. The list provided does not mention

the use of questionnaires. Yin addresses this and suggests others sources of evidence are available and notes his list is not complete. Other researchers have incorporated questionnaires in case studies, see for example Sammons, (1997). In addition, Yin (2009) suggests developing a chain of evidence that would allow other researchers to follow the same process thereby enhancing reliability and validity. What Yin is referring to is a detailed description of each the steps of the research process from questions to the final report. It should present cohesiveness similar to a case presented before a court. In this regards, he echoes Eisner's (1998) discussion on structural corroboration with the legal metaphor of a preponderance of evidence (p.55). This principle is supported by Cohen and Manion (2007) who state that, 'careful note taking and recording of data, identifying sources of documents and the identity of people interviewed are important considerations in order to 'map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour' (p.233). The following diagram in Figure 3.3, is modeled on a similar diagram produced by Yin. It summarizes by illustration how the sources of evidence, the methods, came together to support the corroboration of the information gathered.

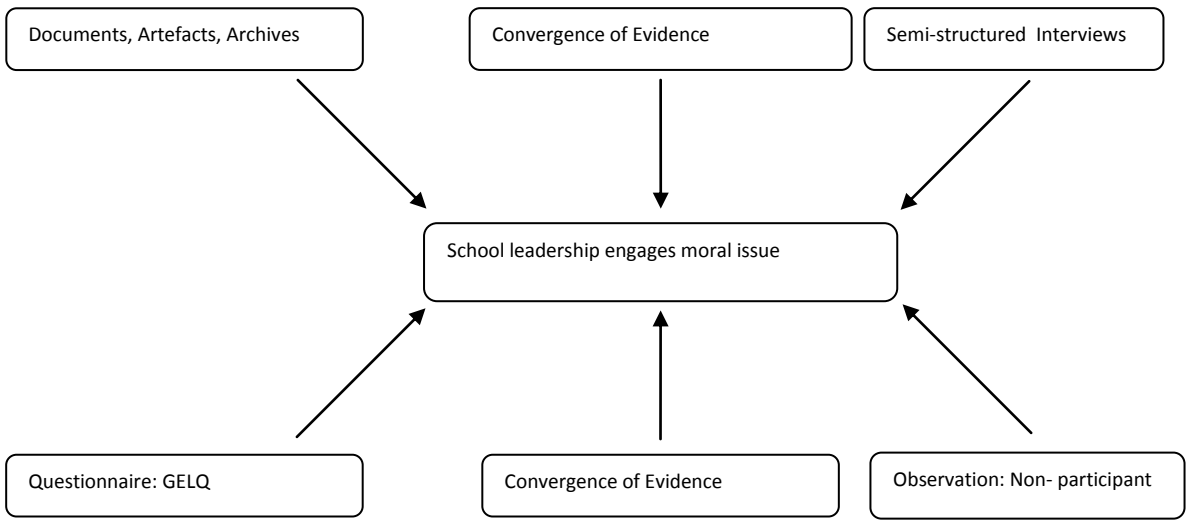

Figure 3.3. Structural Corroboration of the Data Collected

3.36 Validity and/or Trustworthiness: Two Conceptions of Assessment

The manifestation of two ostensibly competing paradigms are two approaches to assessing the quality of a study. There are traditional criteria such as validity and reliability that are used to assess the quality of the research. During the 1980s, these notions were rejected by some researchers as the concepts of trustworthiness and authenticity gained popularity (Morse et al, 2002). As noted in my opening comments of this chapter, I consider my position anchored in pragmatism and methodologically eclectic. As such, this study could be assessed using both criteria as outlined below. A detailed reply to each criterion is provided in section 6.4 of the concluding chapter.

3.361 Traditional View

Reliability refers to whether a study can be repeated and produced with the same results (Yin, 2009). Validity refers to the notion of whether or not instruments used in research measure what they purport to measure (Bell, 1999). If the instruments have validity, then the study should likewise be valid (Cohen and Manion, 2011). Reliability and validity can be divided into four more independent concepts:

2. Internal Validity - whether or not the research yields a result that is valid within the context of the research at the time it was conducted and upon the subjects it was conducted. I make no claim to internal validity of the GELQ, interview or observation schedule.
3. External Validity - do the findings do the findings generated 'generalise to some broader theory' (Rowold and Scholtz, 2009, p.43). I make no claim to external validity.
4. Internal Reliability - if there is more than one researcher do they both agree about what they see and hear (Bryman, 2012, p.390). This was not attempted.

5. External Reliability - the ability to replicate the study. This study provides detailed instructions on how the instruments were developed and used (see appendices 1.1, 3.1, 3.2 for examples of schedules and questionnaire analysis).

3.362 Contemporary View

Some researchers that favour an interpretive perspective, prefer the use of the concept of trustworthiness. This concept is divided into four parts that parallel the divisions noted above. Krefting (1991) identified four strategies based upon Guba and Lincoln's (1998) model. These are:

5. Credibility - similar to internal validity (truth value, e.g. the authority of the researcher, transparency of research process);
6. Transferability - similar to external validity (applicability value, e.g. length and variety of field experience to yield patterns in data that can be verified);
7. Dependability - similar to reliability (consistency value e.g. transparency and rigour in the research process), and
8. Confirmability - similar to objectivity (neutrality values, e.g. reflexivity and openness to findings that disconfirm the pattern).

3.4 Pilot Research

Pilot studies are an important part of the research process (Coleman, 2012; 1999; Wellington, 2000; Bryman, 2008; Yin, 2009; Bell, 2010). Piloting provides an opportunity to evaluate, to validate and to refine the instruments used in the data collection process and data analysis techniques (Anderson and Arsenault, 2007; Yin, 2009). They are small scale versions of the larger thesis (Munn and Drever, 1999). Piloting survey instruments offers ‘insight into basic issues’(Yin, 2009, p.93). Being too close to the instruments, one loses objectivity (Munn and Drever, 1999). Piloting helps address this concern

by providing feedback and clarification and an occasion to address potential problems (Wellington, 2000;Bryman, 2008).

In conducting the pilot, I chose my own school based on a convenience sample (Yin, 2009). I should note that my school does not have a GTP, however, the primary purpose was to evaluate the instruments and the data analysis techniques. This is similar to what Cohen and Manion (2011) refer to as a focus on 'gaining feedback from a limited number of respondents' rather than the data (p.402). In this thesis, both questionnaires and the interviews questions were piloted. The GELQ was distributed to 117 staff members, 17 were returned. The feedback questions were based in part by suggestions from Bell (1999). The instructions asked respondents to address the following questions:

1. how long did it take you to complete?
2. were the instructions clear?
3. were any of the questions are unclear or ambiguous?
4. did you object to answering any of the questions?
5. were any of the questions offensive are culturally insensitive?
6. was the layout of the questionnaire clear and attractive?
7. any other comments.

The feedback focused primarily on grammatical errors, incorrect spelling, format of the questionnaire and the quality of the material used to deliver the questionnaire. No concerns were expressed with regards to content, wording, or offensiveness. This fact is supportive of the diligence of the questionnaire preparation.

I conducted two interviews, the Head of Campus and the Deputy Head of Secondary in charge of pastoral care. The interviews were digitally recorded. The first interview lasted 35 minutes. The second interview went on for 119 minutes. Both were transcribed and analysed. During the piloting of the semi-structured interviews, I was conscientious of the potential of my own bias

and its potential impact upon the respondents' responses. I was careful, therefore, not to comment on the responses but rather attempted to encourage the respondents to provide greater detail. I found this, however, prevented me from participating in a natural interchange. While it was not my intention, the interviews felt more formal and structured than what I had intended. I developed a sense for how to keep the conversation focused on the question. This was particularly noted after the rather lengthy experience with the deputy Head of Secondary interview. In addition, I became more aware of my own interviewing skills and the importance of attentive listening and the use of follow-up questions to clarify statements or comments from the respondents. I confronted a variety of logistical issues with respects to time management/length of the interview, seating arrangements, placement of the recording device, access to a back up recording device, access to power supply, ensuring that an extension cord and power adapters were available. Moreover, that an external drive was available, that the microphone functioned correctly, accepting that interruptions may occur during the interview such as external noise and/or interruptions from other people not realising we are undertaking an interview. The combined experience led to the creation of a checklist of supplies and equipment that I would need to bring (see appendix 3.6). Based on this experience, I agree with Bryman's (2012) observation that 'piloting an interview schedule can provide interviewers with some experience of using it and can infuse them with greater sense of confidence' (p. 263).

3.5 Ethics

As Wellington (2000) accurately describes 'Ethics is the main criterion of educational research and ethical considerations override all others' (p. 54). The research was conducted using the *British Educational Research Association Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research* (BERA 2004). It follows the research *Code of Conduct of the University of Nottingham*. In

addition, it complies with the relevant sections of the *Data Protection Act* (Great Britain, 1998). These documents and ethical issues were reviewed in detail with my supervisors. Amongst some of the key issues addressed were:

1. Seeking both verbal and written permission from the various stakeholders before proceeding (see appendix 3.7 participant consent form). In each interview participants were asked to verbally confirm that they agree to partake in the research and that they have signed the consent form.
2. Each participant was provided with a written explanation detailing the nature of the thesis, how the information gathered would be used, and their rights to privacy.
3. I ensured that voluntary informed consent was understood and agreed to by the participants.
4. Participants were informed that they had the right to withdraw at any time.
5. Information collected remains confidential and names of the participants and their school have been changed to ensure anonymity.

Specifically, this research thesis complies with items indicated in the University Of Nottingham School Of Education Statement of Research Ethics. Ethics approval for the research was granted with no need for revision or resubmission by the research Ethics Coordinator, Faculty of Education, the University Of Nottingham School Of Education. Ethics approval was granted for:

1. interviews with a number of staff (including classroom support, governors),
2. questionnaire surveys with principals and other staff, and
3. classroom observations of teachers.

Throughout the thesis, I accepted the responsibility to protect the integrity and reputation of education research ensuring that the research was conducted at the highest standards. This thesis was approved by the ethics chair at the University of Nottingham, Faculty of Education.

3.6 Limitations

The following is a description of the limitations of this study. Though some limitations were briefly identified previously, additional details are provided.

3.61 General Limitations

The methods selected and the methodological framework supporting this thesis were influenced by the existing literature on moral leadership and special needs research, therefore flaws in their process may be transferred to this thesis. Further, the thesis was influenced by my understanding of the research methods at the point in time when the research was undertaken. It is possible that lack of the experience could have resulted in one method dominating another. Practical considerations such as budget and time impacted the preparation, collection, analysis and conclusions. This concern is raised by Day et al., (2006) who note that access to adequate resources was very valuable to the success of their study.

3.62 Limitations of the Survey Instruments

The two principal methods of data collection for this study were survey instruments. They include questionnaires and interviews. The common attribute is a reliance on questions. The following is a discussion on the limitations inherent in the question development and in the reliability of

respondent responses. It is followed by a description of the specific limitations of questionnaires and interviews.

Developing questions that result in valid and reliable responses is difficult. The difficulty arises throughout the process. Some of these difficulties include the use of words and phrases that can vary in interpretation depending on the context (Wikman, 2006). The order of the questions can create an ordering effect where the presence of an earlier question impacts the response to a later question. This can occur in both closed and open ended questions (Kalton and Schulman, 1981). In addition, offering a middle alternative can 'substantially increases the proportion of respondents stating a neutral view' (Kalton and Schulman, 1981, p. 52). A further complication is the issue of acquiescence which is a reference to a respondent's proclivity to provide positive responses rather than negative. This occurs when respondents are completing questionnaires which provide possible responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree (Kalton and Schulman, 1981).

Moreover, there are concerns with the reliability of the respondent's ability to recall information and or events (Kalton and Schulman, 1981; Bell, 2010). Related to this issue is the problem of telescoping errors during which the respondent confuses events in the past to have occurred recently (Kalton and Schuman, 1981). Kalton and Schuman (1981) note that responses to questions requiring judgement 'are not necessarily stable and constant over time' (p. 87). Individuals responding to similar questions have a 'tendency to show poor correspondence with each other' (p. 91). Respondents may provide responses though they have not adequately developed their opinion or 'have not been exposed' to alternate arguments (p.88). Even if the instrument were perfect, they would still 'generate a lack of correspondence' (p. 95).

As Kalton and Schulman (1981) noted in their review of survey questioning,

> it is not a precision tool... the survey literature contains ample evidence to indicate that serious response errors can, and do, occur with factual questions, and many experiments have shown that the responses to opinion questions can sometimes be substantially affected by apparently insignificant variations in the questions asked (p. 54).

Different factors such as education, age, and sex have been investigated but only education showed some impact in terms of consistency in response. Those who were highly educated were more consistent than those in the middle group which in turn were more consistent than those considered least educated (Wikman, 2006). Unfortunately, highly educated was not defined in Wikman's paper.

3.63 Interviews

Yin (2009) identifies the limitations of interviews as response bias due to poorly designed questions, inaccuracies due to poor recall and reflexivity where the respondent provides a response the interviewer wants to hear (see also Anderson and Arsenault, 1998). This is similar to what Kalton and Schuman (1981) describe as '...social desirability bias: respondents distort their answers towards ones they consider more favourable to them' (p. 45). Bell (2010) notes that interviews are time-consuming in preparation, phrasing questions is challenging and analysis is complicated. Interviews are 'decidedly subjective' and there is the constant threat of response and non-response bias (Bell, 2010; Anderson and Arsenault, 1998).

3.64 Questionnaire

According to Bell (2010), in developing a questionnaire one needs to be aware of question wording, avoid 'ambiguity, imprecision and assumptions'

(p. 77). It is important to avoid leading questions, presuming questions, hypothetical questions, offensive questions, and questions covering sensitive issues. In this thesis, instead of specifically asking respondents their age a range was provided. Anderson and Arsenault, (1998) refer to 'questionnaire fatigue,' respondents completing too many questionnaires. There is also the issue of the respondent's ability to comprehend the questions and the potential for data entry errors.

3.65 Limitations of Observations

Yin (2009) identifies the limitations of direct observations as time consuming and selective. Observations are based on one researcher and therefore limited in terms of reliability (Hobson, 2007). Memory recall of the researcher unless aided with a recording device can be impacted (Hobson, 2007, p.13). As noted, there is some concern with the reliability of the informal observations as they were recorded after the events and may not accurate convey what was said, heard, and/or observed.

3.66 Documentation Analysis Limitations

Given the potential to be overwhelmed with documentary evidence, it is important to be selective and decide what is relevant to the thesis. Yin (2009) identifies the limitations of documentation and artefacts as 'retrievability and biased selectivity' (p.102). In other words, a researcher might highlight only what appears to support his or her views.

3.7 Research Site Characteristics

The narrative description of IST that follows serves to establish context and enhance familiarity (Eisner, 1998). It is similar in style and tone to the use of

portraits as used in the works of Jackson[43] (1981) and Lightfoot (1981) and Barone (1983). This narrative description provides a brief description of the site, observations as noted throughout the on-site visit, and a summary of documents and artefacts. The combination serves to underscore the overall moral tone of the school.

3.71 Geographic and Architectural Setting

The campus is located in a remote hilly area about approximately a 45 minute drive to a major metropolis. It is enclosed by a perimeter fence. The only entrance is through the black iron main gates. The buildings are light beige with classic Mediterranean red tiled roofs. A smiling guard greeted me, checked my ID, presented me with a school visitor's badge and called the office to alert them of my arrival. The front desk was manned by a very pleasant male receptionist. He came up and greeted me, shook my hand and asked me to be seated as the head of school was still occupied. Within moments of installing myself, I was offered coffee and engaged in polite conversation. I turned over my questionnaires which he has offered to distribute to the staff. The receptionist would end up being very helpful during my visit, photocopying, distributing and collecting documents. The main reception was a wide open area with a trophy case along one wall, photographs, potted tropical plants and two white leather couches facing across from each other. A double set of glass doors opened onto a veranda with stairs on either side that descended to a court yard. To one side of the courtyard was an entrance to the primary school. The other side is an entrance to Secondary. On the same level there is an entrance to the theatre, several brown clad portable cabins that contain a theatre arts building, staff lounge and work rooms. There is also a full theatre, a gym and outside covered swimming pool. Below the courtyard was a well maintained sports field with a green football pitch surrounded by an orange track with lanes

demarcated with bright white lines. To the right was an open field that would eventually be transformed into a wooden outdoor Greek theatre and botanical gardens filled with ponds and tropical plants.

3.72 Observations

In this section, I provide a summary of the informal and formal observations that were recorded. The informal are based upon of my first impressions. The latter are more formal based upon the eight categories identified by Jackson, Boostrom and Hansen (1993) in their text, the Moral Life of School (MLS), to guide the observations. Complete details of the observations can be found in appendix 3.3.

Given that schools are moral institutions (Kohlberg, 1982 and Dewey 1916), it should not be surprising that many of the observations provided evidence that would be considered moral in tone. Examples from each of the eight categories suggested in MLS were easily found throughout IST. The supporting evidence included visual displays scattered throughout the school to the events that the school believed were worthwhile to support and promote. I did not observe any anger or hostility directed towards the SLT or those who were moving the GTP forward. The comments made during informal conversations were positive in tone and the moral behaviour of the SLT, teaching staff and support staff was quite visible. These informal encounters are representative of sources of data that Anderson (1990) suggests are collected in a typical case study.

3.73 Documents and Artefacts

The documents analysis provided additional support of the observed moral tone of the school. There is evidence of believing in *the right,* i.e. the desire to want to help all students. In addition there was evidence of wanting to do *the good,* i.e. putting words into practice. These combined objectives were found throughout the policy documents, GTP handbook,

formal email exchanges and newsletters. Complete details of the documentary evidence can be found in appendix 3.4.

3.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, I began by summarizing my ontological and epistemological orientation. An orientation described as pragmatic methodological eclecticism. The rationale for selecting a case study as the research design was provided. I then proceeded to explain the methods and how they were implemented. In addition, I described how data was analyzed dependent upon the method utilized. Furthermore, two approaches from different paradigms were presented that could be used to assess the quality of this study. I then provided review of the ethics that guided this study and how they were implemented. A review of the limitations followed. The chapter concluded with a narrative description of the research site that served to give evidence of the moral tone of the school. In the next chapter, the findings from the analysis derived from the methods described in this chapter are presented.

Chapter Four: Data Presentation and Analysis

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, I present the main findings from the data collected. The results are presented according to the priority of the method I ascribed to them. The outcome is that the results are identified following the order in which the five categories were initially identified. I begin, with the principal method used, semi-structured interviews. I then present results from the GELQ. Following the questionnaire data, I conclude this chapter by summarizing the findings and assessing the quality of the results derived from these methods.

4.1 Results from Semi-Structured Interviews

The main data collection method for this study was the semi-structured interview. During the course of the three-day visit, 10 interviews were conducted. The order of the interviews was pre-established by the school according to staff availability. Though order and timing were considered negligible to the final results, the interview with deputy director of primary was under time pressure and therefore some questions had to be ignored and the depth of follow-up was constrained. Further, interviews with the head of secondary and SEN staff were interrupted. The impact here was a slight, though detectable change in the atmosphere that had been previously established. The first interview commenced with the director of curriculum and the final interview was with the deputy director of primary. The recorded interviews ranged in duration from 17:37 to 57:29 minutes. The average interview lasted approximately 38:50 minutes. The actual time spent with each interviewee was greater than the time noted for the recordings. All interviews were conducted in a closed door setting either in a classroom or in the office of the respective person. The interviews represent the SLT from both Secondary and Primary at this campus. In addition, it included three members of SEN, one HOD (the former GT coordinator), and the current GT

coordinator. Demographic data were collected but there was no attempt to draw inferences from individuals based upon, gender, age or teaching experience (see table 3.5 for details).

Interviews were transcribed, coded and examined through use of NVivo7 software. After repeated coding, nodes and concepts emerged. Through an iterative process of comparing concepts with existing theory the following five categories emerged.

The five main categories listed according to the frequency in which they appear are: personal integrity, professional ethics, structural collaboration, constructive concerns and exogenous influences. This list is not meant to imply neatly delineated concepts, rather these categories are intra-dependent (within] and inter-dependent (between]. This is most clear in examining the core principles: personal integrity and professional ethics. Further details and specific examples are identified in each of the respective sections that follow. Table 4.1 provides a summary of the five main categories. The table shows the main category followed by a brief word or phrase that suggests how I interpreted each category, these were the concepts. The next column reveals how often the main theme appeared in the transcripts. It is expressed as a numeric number not a percentage. Sub-themes that were related to each concept are identified in the next column. Sub-themes represent a direct and/or paraphrased quote from the transcript. The final column provides a reference to which transcript provides evidence in support of the category. For example, we can see that category Structural Collaboration is interpreted as a shared responsibility among the various stakeholders. There were 54 references direct and indirect made within the 10 interviews. Some of the indirect references include the role of responsibility and teacher buy-in. In the last column, I indicate where evidence for this category can be found, in this case, by reviewing the transcript from the HOS. For ease of reference, the order of the Sample Evidence cited follows the order in which the data is presented in this section.

Table 4.1. Summary of the five main categories, concise interpretation and sources of evidence.

Main Category	Interpretation	Total Number of References	Sub-themes	Sample Evidence
Personal Integrity	personal	111	personal responsibility	SEN-K
			make a difference in someone's life	SEN-JH
	universal right to justice		the right thing to do	HOS- Head of Secondary
			determined to do what is best	DOS-Dean of students
			personal importance	KS5C-Key Stage 5 Coordinator
			personal importance	Director of Curriculum
Professional Ethics	Inspired by belief in the teaching profession	74	professional responsibility	Head of Secondary
			expand opportunities	Director of Curriculum
			professional responsibility	SEN-JH
	respect for the profession		professional responsibility	Key Stage 5 Coordinator
			respect for the profession	SEN-K
	teaching professions obligations and responsibilities		expand opportunities	Deputy Director of Primary
Structural Collaboration	shared responsibility among stakeholders	54	teacher initiative	Director of Curriculum
			middle leadership	Deputy Director of Primary
	distributed leadership		teacher acceptance (buy-in)	HOD- S (Former GT Coordinator)
			teacher initiative	Dean of Students
			role of responsibility	Head of Secondary
			sustain the program	
Constructive Concerns	with regards to program form and perception	29	elitist	SEN-A
			costs, stretched resources	
	with regards to program form, perception and implementation		divisive, divide community Staff who are leery of the potential for extra work	Director of Curriculum
	with regards to program implementation		staff who are unsure of what to do, but still support	Dean of Students
	with regards to program implementation		Staff who are leery of the potential for extra work	GT Coordinator
	with regards to program implementation		Staff who are leery of the potential for extra work	KS5C
Exogenous Influences	outside the school, non-staff	21	accreditation	Deputy Director of Primary
	genuine belief in		guiding statement	GT Coordinator
			accreditation	Key Stage 5 Coordinator
	confidence in accreditation process		accreditation	Director of Curriculum
			supportive board	Head of Secondary

4.11 Personal integrity

Personal integrity is a category that encompasses the concepts of personal belief and the right thing to do. Personal belief is defined as private and/or internal ethical views. The right thing to do is considered right action. In other words, personal integrity is a category that combines an individual's private morality with his or her desire to put these beliefs into action. In the context of this study, this belief reflects a desire of personal importance to help *all* children[44]. There is a passionate determination to do what is 'right.' There is genuine conviction in the encompassing nature of the phrase, *all* students. The central ethical issue expressed by each interviewee was the desire to do the 'right thing' for their fellow humans. In only one interview, the current GT coordinator, was there an appeal to the 'standard' arguments found in the literature supporting gifted education. For the rest, the GTP was not the issue. Rather, the GTP was a portal that opened an avenue to put their personal beliefs into action.

Throughout each interview there were moments where the passion of the responses demonstrated the empathy these educators have for students. A sincere concern emerged expressed as a belief in a shared humanity; in other words, one human being helping another. Examples of these passionate responses are in each interview. The following quotations reflect the emotions that surfaced during the course of the interviews. The first comes from a two members of the special needs department. In response to a follow-up question, why it matters if these students achieve their potential? they remark,

> SEN-K: I care, we care, I get really upset, I care. But we're humans, they're our responsibility (SEN-K, Interview).
>
> SEN-JH: It's the idea of making a difference in a person's life (SEN- JH, Interview).

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44 The roots of this desire were not considered a focus of this study. In chapter five, I expand upon ideas introduced in chapter two regarding potential sources of this belief. At this point, it is sufficient to know what the category represents.

In another moving moment, the KS5C responds to my repeated questioning of why he would help the GTP. He responded indirectly by telling me a story of a former student that he taught in the Netherlands. He notes that the student was both academically and socially 'a handful.' He said,

> KS5-C: After 6 years, umm, I taught him for 4 years, and at my leaving, he uhh, was the last student I said goodbye to, and he was in tears... so I think I've answered your question - why I (pause) do the extra mile (Key Stage 5 Co-ordinator, Interview).
>
> .

Consistent among all interviews was the universal notion of doing what is best for a fellow human. In response to a follow-up question with the Dean of Students, I ask if she were not an educator, would she still hold the same view?

> DOS: I think so, yeah. I think that everybody wants to achieve this sort of greatest potential in life and do the best they can, and if someone can help them out somewhere along the line [*slight pause*] I think that's quite important (Dean of Students, Interview).

When pushed again as to why one would want to help, she responded,

> DOS: Because I think you want what is best for others, I definitely want what is best for students here (Dean of Students, Interview).

Are the 'others' referred to above, a reference to all other people? It is hard to know for certain. Within the context of our discussion, there is at least an implicit suggestion that it may. Nonetheless, it is evident that the sentiment includes her students.

The Head of Secondary expresses a similar personal belief in the universal notion of doing what is best for a fellow human. In response to a question asking for his views on a GTP, he provides this passionate extended response,

> HOS: I've not always been a teacher, I used to be a bus driver, [pause] if I was still a bus driver [short pause] I would still wanna give my children the best experiences I could, I'd still want to take them to the match on Sunday and ... I'd still wanna give them every experience that I possibly could, even if I was just a bus driver. [pause]

> Not that there's anything wrong with being a bus driver, but [pause] I'd wanna give my children the opportunity for them to decide for them what they do with their life. And if I'd locked them up in a cupboard, and let them out when they were 18, they, they'd never have that opportunity. And that, that, that opportunity is [short pause] it's absolutely vital, it's a right, children have every right to be educated [short pause]. They have a right to know, what's going on in the world. They have the right to know how to get the best out of it (Head of Secondary, Interview).

This quotes reveals the normative ethics that guides behaviour. The HOS is duty bound, deontological, to his belief in the universal right to an education that is appropriate[45] to the needs of the student. These quotations are also good examples of the question technique that was discussed in section 3.31. Each of the emotional responses came about after the initial response was provided to a direct question. The result was deeper insight and a more personal response that I believe mitigated the concerns of social desirability bias.

4.12 Professional ethics

For this study, I considered professional ethics as a category related to principles imbedded in the very nature of education. In other words, there is a belief in the ethical nature of the teaching profession and the societal responsibility that demands one generation to educate the next (see Dewey, 1916). This assertion is revealed in the comments from the HOS. He states,

> HOS: ...it doesn't matter what I believe, it's still my job (HOS, Interview).

In another less direct manner, the DOC responding to my push for why he would support a GTP states,

> DOC: Because I (pause) want to see kids at our school, kids in my classes, uhh, really get an appreciation of my subject, and really

45 Implicit in the suggestion 'reach their full potential'.

> (pause) think about, and in action the things that they learn in class (DOC, Interview).

In all the interviews, two features related to this category were noticed[46]. The first, is the sincere belief in the importance of being an educator. In this, I am referring to the larger role that a teacher can play in the development of the life of a fellow human. The following comment highlights this view.

> SEN-JH: To teach is a passion to want to make a difference in someone's life, which you can do with talented and gifted, it's the idea of making a difference in a person's life (SEN-JH, Interview).

The second feature was the complementary duality of this category. In this, I am suggesting that there is both a personal and professional ethic that reinforce each other. The distinction from the category personal integrity was not always clear. In the following example, the love of the profession and the personal belief in helping people arise symbiotically in the discussions. In other words, found within this brief comment, is an expression of the intra-dependent (within) and inter-dependent (between) nature of the categories personal integrity and professional ethics.

> KSC-5: I love teaching. I love working with young people... (KSC-5, Interview).

The complementary nature of these two categories is found in many comments throughout the transcripts. The following are examples from an exchange with three members of SEN. In response to a follow-up question related to helping gifted students?

> SEN-K: It's looking at each child as an individual and deciding what they can achieve, and I guess it kind of sucks if you're on the higher end of that spectrum and you don't get stretched in the same way, just because, like I said you know, if while we're struggling, the resources have to go to the other end, but, in the eyes of the world, every child is an individual where you stretch every child, so as far as they can be stretched.

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46 Both features are explored in greater detail in chapter five.

> A: Yeah I mean you want [pause] each child to reach their full potential, so whether it's on the lower end or it's on the top end, you want them to do the best that they could possibly achieve, and provide them the – the resources in order to be able to do that, give them the opportunities to do that, and also motivate them towards that, so that's what we all want, all the teachers.
>
> Q: Why does that matter to you? Why does it matter, whether or not those kids achieve their – the potential that you're referring to?
>
> A: [Pause] That's why I became a teacher… (SEN, Interviews)

The idea of providing opportunities and/or expanding opportunities, allowing students to explore their potential was a prominent sub-theme of professional ethics. It is interpreted as an expectation inherent in being an educator. All 10 interviewees expresses a variation of this concept. The KS5C in response to why support the GTP, states,

> KS5-C: Umm, because I think they should receive every single opportunity.

The DDP seemed a bit unsure about my question at first, but then provided the following response.

> DDP: Why bother about what, why bother about G&T or?
>
> Q: Sorry, you're quite busy already.
>
> DDP: Yeah.
>
> Q: You don't *have* to do GT.
>
> DDP: But you *do*. It's not – as I say, it's not an addition, it – it's that every child fulfils their full potential with us, so, so you're doing that child a disservice if uhhh, if you're *not* you know, giving them the best day that they can. It's *exhausting*, you know, that's why the teachers are – yeah, we all get exhausted, but when you see a child just, you know, a light comes on and they go 'yeah, that was a really good lesson!' or you know, if you get any kind of positive feedback from them, I think that's why we all get out of bed in the morning and come here [smiling], you know [laughs], it's not for the money, it's because of the kids [higher] (DDP, interview).

The preceding comment is an inspiring reminder of the ethical nature embedded within education. It highlights both a personal belief and the ethical conviction that the DDP has in her profession.

4.13 Structural collaboration

The category structural collaboration refers to mainly internal factors such as a shared responsibility among the various levels of school leadership and staff. For this study, it encompasses concepts such as distributed leadership, emergent leadership, collaboration, and the importance of teacher buy-in. In response to the question, what was it that led to the implementation of a GTP, the Director of Curriculum noted,

> DOC: We've had a couple of staff, not requesting but doing it, suggesting it, and interested in it, and started looking at the possibilities (DOC, Interview).

In a discussion with DP about how the primary school began and whether or not the GTP was teacher initiated, she states,

> DDP: Yes, one in particular. I worked really closely with the curriculum coordinators, and two years ago the curriculum coordinator organised a G&T action plan really to, to develop in the school (DDP, interview).

Further, the DDP provides goes on to discuss how accommodation, differentiation is planned for in all teacher lesson plans. When I ask if the lesson plans are reviewed, she notes that this is part of the job of the curriculum coordinator, a role she associates with the SLT, and the heads of department. Interestingly, she comments about how the HODs form a middle leadership within the school. Each HOD in primary taking on a specific subject and overseeing the planning.

In response to the question, what is required or necessary in order to sustain a GTP? The HOS responded,

> HOS: I think that with any program you put in a school [short pause] any program at all really, let's forget the G&T program, let's put in an after-school football team. What sustains it is having kids who want, who want it, who, who need that, that, that whatever it may be, that after-school football team, they want that, and have somebody who's prepared to give up time to run it. That that's all that's required. And, really, in in schools, in most schools, uhh, I guess this this becomes fundamental to why people become teachers (HOS, Interview).

Noting the basics that there must first be a need, students want a service, then it is a matter of finding the person to fill the position. In the next excerpt, he describes his view on how busy teachers are and the generosity that most teachers share for their students. He elaborates,

> HOS: In in most schools, teachers work way, way, way over and above what they're supposed to do, on a day-to-day basis, and they do it generously and they do it happily – usually – and when they don't do it happily, they do it because it gives them something to moan about. You know, teachers are just like anybody else, they like to have a bit of a moan, you know, but they still, but they do it. They do it (pause] because it's there (HOS, Interview).

In the following statement, the head reveals his concern for his teaching staff. He is well aware of an individual's need for self-esteem and the importance of a role of responsibility which says in a public manner that the contribution of the individual teacher is valued.

> HOS: Somebody, somebody gets no gain for – from being a G&T coordinator, I mean it's neither here nor there, in fact it's less than what you're given as a prize, it's nothing umm, but it's there, it's it's little, it's a little way of saying 'yes we do value what you're doing and here's something for it, I know it's not a lot, but, but it's recognition' [pause] and people, teachers [pause] they do want that recognition, they do want to feel that their work is valued, they do want to feel that what they do, what they're doing makes a difference (HOS, Interview).

This next quote highlights the inter-dependent nature of these categories. The HOS provides an emotional response explaining his desire to make this school a better place. In this he reveals his professional ethics. At the same time, he references other staff who are collaborating to achieve this improvement.

> HOS: I am trying (short hesitation) very, very hard to make improvements in this school, and I don't think it's only me that's trying, I think a lot of people are trying to, to improve the school (HOS, Interview).

In trying to determine what the initial impetus for the GTP was the DOS provides some insight into the importance of how a small request from a staff member can have a large impact on the overall school. In response to who may have started the initiative for the GTP, the DOS states,

> DOS: I think it would have been from an input from an initial member of staff that's then caused the management team to sort of get together and say 'yes, this is something that we need to address (DOS, Interview).

Confirmation that this was an initiative from a teacher at some point in the past three years comes from the HOD-S (as a reminder the HOD-S is the former GT Coordinator).

Though the other comments in this section have thus far focused upon the positive support for the GTP, the former GT coordinator identified what happens when there is opposition. He states,

> HOD-S: a few HODs were against the program, primarily based on the issues of elitism and perceived threats to their positions.

He goes on to discuss how under the previous head, the lack of participation from the HODs created a significant impediment to moving the GTP forward. The reimplementation of the GTP has come about as a result of the new HOS and the unanimous support from the current SLT. The objections from the former HODs has softened and the HOD-S states the HODs have agreed to participate.

For the HOS, the GTP represents an outlet for his ethical beliefs. He has said that he knows little about the topic, but he does believe that these are children who need help. He could use his positional authority to push the GTP, but he knows the importance of staff feeling valued and having them on

board with school initiatives. In responding to a question about how to move the GTP forward he states,

> HOS: I sort of waited for two years for HOD to do something with it, and I think he's – as I said earlier – I think he's got a bit bogged down and it's moved on, but I – I *don't* want the position or the subject program to disappear (HOS, interview).

In this statement, the HOS demonstrates his patience, empathy and his determination. Importantly, he knows at a practical level he needs staff to participate, at an ethical level he gave the HOD-S and former GT co-coordinator time to succeed or to decide to pass this responsibility to someone else. The outcome is a HOS that ensures the self-esteem of his staff member is not diminished and a program that will be implemented, a win-win outcome.

4.14 Constructive Concerns

Constructive concerns is a unique category that emerged out of the open coding[47]. It had the fourth highest number of references and was alluded to in half of the interviews. It is entitled constructive concerns since this seemed to capture the sentiment expressed by many of the interviewees with regards to either the form and/or perception of the gifted and talented program. In other words, interviewees supported the GTP based on their personal and professional beliefs, but they had concerns. The concerns were not expressed in a derogatory manner, but rather with a genuine desire to ensure there is appropriate help for these students. This category highlights the tension between personal beliefs, professional ethics and organizational demands. In a response to the question, how do you envision a GTP, a member of the SEN responded by expressing their concerns using some of the classic objections to a GTP. I have broken his response into two parts, the first section highlights the concern.

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47 I explore this unique category in section 4.3.

> SEN-A: what do you consider to be gifted, umm, how that's identified, I think that's the first problem with the program, with such programs, because umm I mean it's not only divisionary – you know, creates divides between the classes, also creates divides between the parents I feel, umm [pause] I think that having people labelled as gifted and talented is not the right way to go (SEN-A, Interview).

The second part of his response highlights his positive view and hence constructive nature.

> SEN-A: I think that definitely there should be programs, like, available, extended programs maybe uhhh outside of school time, maybe even built into the – the school day, umm [pause] that are available for students, (SEN-A, Interview).

> SEN-A: I think, I think actually the m… one of the main issues that umm teachers have is about the (pause] the dividing of the students and some feeling that (pause] you know, some are gifted and talented and they're not, and then there's other allowed into special programs and other people aren't and I think a lot of teachers – I think if *that* issue is worked around, then maybe ummm, the others will work themselves out (SEN-A, Interview).

As noted earlier, the most prevalent sceptic of the SLT is the director of curriculum. In a response to whether he is in favour of the program? He affirms his support, but quickly interjects his reservations. Once again these reservations are well known objections[48] to a GTP. I have presented his comments in two parts, the first reveals his concerns.

> DOC: Yes, umm, I do have some concerns, umm [pause] about how it's done, whether it's [pause] perceived to be sort of elitist umm, and separate divides the school community, rather than enriching it. That would be my biggest concern (DOC, Interview).

In this next comment, he reveals his support for helping all children while interjecting two more practical concerns. He continues,

> DOC: I believe we should be offering every child enrichment and [pause] and opportunities above and beyond, but logistically, umm a) we won't get the money for it, and b) there are students who won't be interested and who won't, who won't benefit from it (DOC, Interview).

48 These objections were discussed in chapter two, the literature review.

The DOC is revealing the internal tension he is experiencing between his personal integrity and professional ethics within the context of the provision of a GTP. In one respect, he believes in helping every child and providing opportunities, 'above and beyond,' as he said. In these thoughts, he reveals that he is constructive and positive. In other words, he is trying to reconcile his personal concerns with the expectation to provide a GTP.

In response to a question over whether or not there was resistance, the DOS provides an explanation that helps to highlight the ideas contained within constructive concerns:

> DOS: I don't think *resistance* (emphasis added), you know I don't think anyone's been negative about the fact that we would want to try and sort out the a proper program. I think once it's implemented you'll have a couple of staff who are a bit (hesitation) scared or not sure of what they're supposed to do with it if someone is sort of highlighted as being very talented, say within a math's department, if you've got one of the teachers who's not quite sure what that means, so I think again, we just need to have some more information and guidelines as to what we will do once we set something in place (DOS, Interview).
>
> DOC: Heads of department are - yes, they're keen for it to happen. They are wary that, it may well involve more work for them...but they do educationally see the worth of it, educational (DOC, Interview).

In response to a question regarding resistance, the GTC says,

> GTC: I spoke to a few colleagues and I think they are quite enthusiastic. But I might a have some - a few yes (GTC, Interview).

The teachers concern, she goes onto to imply is with any extra work that they may have to undertake. This is also a sentiment expressed by the KS5-C who noted that he was unaware of any resistance but concerns about extra work.

4.15 Exogenous influences

The category of exogenous influences refers to both institutional and structural conditions which influence ethical behaviour. Among the possible

external influences consider are: accreditation, guiding and/or mission statements, parental influence, the school's board of governors, the school's owners, corporate sponsors, local education authorities, and/or international organizations. In seven of the interviews, there are references to the influence of accreditation, guiding statements, and direct and indirect references to the Declaration of the Rights of the Child as prepared by the United Nations. In the following extract from the deputy director of primary. She is responding to a question with regards to why one would provide a program for the education of the gifted.

> DDP: Because, if you look at the United Nations, every child matters. Those kids… Every child matters, whether they're they're struggling in the class, ESL, special needs, just your average kid that's going along, these – these kids that are, umm, able and talented or gifted and talent or whatever you want to say. Every child matters [Pause]. So that's why I'm doing – you know, that's why I'm here (DDP, interview).

Similar to the inter-dependent nature of personal integrity and professional ethics, exogenous influences arise in concert with these other core principles. In other words, influence does not have to come from just one source, but rather multiple sources that reinforce a similar message. As an example, influence can come from the profession of teaching, the professional ethics and this is reinforced by school policy. This can be seen in the following extract from the gifted coordinator. She is responding to a follow-up question in which she stated that,

> GTC: we owe the same to G&T children as to SEN children, you know. Absolutely, the same you know.
>
> Q: Just following up on that question – why do you think we owe the same to G&T children?
>
> GTC: Because as a school, we uhhh, and how I suppose policy says that we are providing the best education to the best, you know, ummm, we are extracting the best abilities from every child, the best they abilities so, we if are not extracting the best for them – for a gifted child [laughs], we are not doing a proper job [pause] are we? (GTC, Interview).

Note that the GT coordinator cites the school as a source of her obligations but also notes that policy is influencing. In the following excerpt, the Key Stage 5 Coordinator identifies the school mission statement as having some impact. In a question regarding potential external influences he responds,

> KS5C: yes because umm, you know they asked to – to come up and review the mission statement, and one of the key words was [25:35, inaudible] learners and with that you are asked to accommodate for all students and all learning ability in the school, ummm, and through differentiation, you can say something's come out of the GT (KS5-C, Interview).

Exogenous influence from accreditation agencies was also noted in seven of the interviews. The following is a response from one of the biggest sceptics of the GTP, the Director of Curriculum. In responding to a question about influences from the accreditation process, he states,

> DOC: I think the biggest reason is the accreditation processes, specifically CIS, reporting to your provision (DOC, Interview).

Part of the exogenous influence category is a reference to structural conditions. This refers to the formal organization of the school, how it is operated. It also refers to the reasons for which it came into existence. In the context of international schools, some examples would be: Was the school established to satisfy a specific corporate, governmental or non-governmental demand? Is it regulated by local, state, or international accreditation organisations? Does it receive private, state funding or a combination of the two? Is it for profit or not-for-profit? The structural conditions under which a school is founded, funded and operated will impact the degree of influence from external sources. These external sources can impact decisions made and will, therefore, be a mediating influence upon the moral tone of the school. In a reference to the CIS accreditation process, the Deputy Director of Primary states,

> DDP: ...if you look at the CIS model, that is a list of good practice, that is great stuff- the standards and indicators.

She continued quite enthusiastically about both the CIS and COBIS accreditation process, in particular the self-studies at one point exclaiming

> DDP: I am a strong believer in accreditation, just to make sure you don't become complacent, and to have a set of standards and indicators to mark yourself against, I think is-is great practice, reflective practice definitely (DDP, interview)..

In the case of this study, IST is a private for profit school established to meet the needs of one major corporate sponsor. Despite the potential to advertise their gifted program, there is no indication in any of the evidence collected that this was done. Moreover, interviewees were asked specifically if they were aware of any board or corporate requests to provide this program. Each interviewee confirmed that no request were made and/or that they believed none were made.

> Q: Were there any requests from board members or from the owners of the school?
>
> DOC: No. [Long pause] As far as I remember (DOC, Interview).

Furthermore, the one reference to the board was positive in tone, suggesting that the board is in favour of ...

> HOS: the board members they all want what is best for the school-they, they'd rather see the school progressing and I want to see the school progressing, so, so it's there, but they didn't specifically ask for a G&T program. They'd probably think we're talking about Gin and Tonic (laughs) (HOS, Interview).

4.1 Summary

The findings that arose from the interviews resulted in five categories: personal integrity, professional ethics, structural collaboration, exogenous influences and constructive concerns. These categories are not neatly delineated, rather they are both intra-dependent and inter-dependent. The interviews presented information that exposed the moral perspective of the interviewees. Through emotional, passionate and deep reflection to the

questions, the interviews exposed both their deontological ethic, *the right*, and their consequentialist ethic, *the good.* The former reflected primarily through the categories personal beliefs and constructive concerns. The latter, primarily through the categories of professional ethics, structural collaboration and exogenous influences.

4.2 Results from the Gifted Education Leadership Questionnaire (GELQ)

The GELQ was designed to ascertain the personal positions (buy-in] with respects to education for the gifted and level of knowledge with regards to the education of the gifted. The following is, therefore, a summary of the results from the GELQ questionnaire.

4.21 Gifted Education Leadership Questionnaire (GELQ)

The GELQ was created primarily to measure the level of 'teacher buy in' for the gifted program. It is divided into three sections. Section one and two specifically address the issue of staff support for a gifted education program. Section three of the GELQ was designed as an indirect way to measure the intensity of the attitudes that staff had with regards to the gifted. This was done through assembling a 15 item, five point Likert scale. Scoring was based on 1=Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Uncertain, 4=Disagree and 5=Strongly Disagree. The items on this part of the questionnaire focus on three broad and common concepts: who are the gifted, how do you identify them and what accommodations should be made. A complete copy of the GELQ can be found appendix 3.2.

The results from sections one, two and three of the questionnaires were entered into an excel spreadsheet. The GELQ underwent two steps in the analysis. The first was a simple statistical look at the measure of central tendency, specifically, the mean, median, frequency and percentage. The

second analysis was based on the responses to the open ended questions but also included any comments respondents may have placed throughout the questionnaire. The results were entered into Nvivo7 and using the nodes established during the analysis of the interview, comments were assigned respectively. Out of a possible 41 staff, 9 were absent and 16 returned a completed copy of the GELQ. In other words, more than 50% of staff present during my visit returned a completed copy of the GELQ. The returns included the 10 interviewees and six teachers representing both secondary and primary campuses.

4.211 GELQ: the statistics

Section One and Two of the GELQ contain three questions, two of which directly ask a respondent to indicate his or her support for a gifted program both initially and in the currently. The responses revealed that 81.25% (13 out of 16) of respondents supported the GTP initially. In a follow-up question to determine if their views changed, 87.50% (14 out of 16). In both questions, the mode, the most frequent score, was 1, support without concern.

Section three contained 15 items based on common misconceptions frequently found in the literature on gifted student. Highlighted in Table 4.2 are some of the more contentious comments. Notably, according to the responses on the GELQ, the staff appear aware of the common misconceptions with regards to gifted students. For example, item 6, parents are a good source of identification of their child's ability, 87.50% agree. With regards to differentiation, item 8, 75% realise that this an insufficient response to addressing gifted students. A frequent objection to acceleration is potential for social harm, item 15, yet 93.75% of the staff are aware that this is a not a concern supported in the literature.

Table 4.2. GELQ: summary of section three responses

Item Number	Description	Responses as a Percentage	Mode	Ordinal Rating
1	There is an accepted definition of giftedness by the community of gifted education researchers.	37.5%	4	Disagree
2	All children are gifted.	63.5% (3 Blank responses)	1	Strongly agree
3	All children should be treated equally in the classroom.	71.33% (3 Blank responses)	2	Agree
4	Identification of a gifted student should be based primarily on multiple identification methods.	87.50%	1	Strongly agree
5	The identification procedure of a gifted student should assess non-intellectual factors such as creativity and/or leadership as well as academic performance.	87.50%	1	Strongly agree
6	Parents are good at identifying their child's giftedness.	87.50%	2	Agree
7	Students identified as gifted will take care of themselves.	93.75%	4	Disagree
8	Differentiation in the regular classroom is sufficient for most gifted students.	75.00%	4	Disagree
9	As a classroom teacher, I have the skill to differentiate adequately.	75.00%	2	Agree
10	As a classroom teacher, I have the necessary resources to differentiate adequately.	37.5%	3	Undecided
11	As a classroom teacher, I have the time to differentiate adequately.	68.75%	4	Disagree
12	Assignments provided in my classroom are based on each student's learning needs	43.75%	4	Disagree
13	I compact the curriculum for my gifted students.	75.00%	2	Agree
14	I have nominated my students for acceleration.	37.5%	3	Undecided
15	Acceleration is socially harmful for gifted students.	93.75%	4	Disagree

The result suggests that the staff who returned their questionnaire seem aware of the accepted practices in gifted education and/or the misconceptions. Like many other teaching staff, adequate resources to provide an appropriate level instruction are a concern. However, this concern does not seem to impede their attempts at compacting the curriculum with 75% confirming that they engage in this practice. This suggests both personal integrity and professional ethics at work.

It is more complicated to draw inferences to the other categories from the responses to section three. For example, in responding negatively to item 7 and 8, is this a reflection of personal concern for the well being of the student, i.e. a reflection of their personal integrity. It is also possible to interpret this as a response that reflects a professional understanding of the issue, in which

case, it provides support for the category professional ethics. While it is unclear which of the two categories these responses directly support, given the inter-dependent nature of the categories, it is possible that it is a little of both. As was noted in the literature review, one's private morality impacts one's professional ethics (Nagel, 1979/2012; Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2011).

4.212 GELQ: presentation of annotated questionnaires

In addition to the itemized scores, eight respondents chose to add a word, sentence and/or add a commentary either within the questionnaire or at the end of the questionnaire. The results are summarized below in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. GELQ: Summary of annotated questionnaires

Item Number	Description	Proportion of Responses	Concern(s)
Section One			
3	Initially, did you support the giftedness initiative at your school? b. Yes, with some concerns.	13/16	Elitism (6/7)
Section Two			
3	Currently, do you support the giftedness initiative at your school? b. Yes, with some concerns.	14/16	Elitism (6/7)
Section Three			
3	All children should be treated equally in the classroom.	6/13 (3 blank responses)	Difficult to treat 'equally' children with different abilities
10	As a classroom teacher, I have the necessary resources to differentiate adequately.	6/16	Take resources away from other programs
13	I compact the curriculum for my gifted students.	12/16	Too Busy

With the exception of one respondent, 7 respondents chose to write a comment that emphasised their support for the GTP. Importantly, however, 6 individuals felt motivated to indicate their concerns. The principle concern was with the potential for creating an elitist program. This is a classic objection and/or concern frequently noted in the literature (see Gross, 1999).

For example, in section one in response to the question: Initially, did you support the giftedness initiative at your school? Thirteen respondents circled, b. Yes, with some concerns. In six of these, however, the respondents added in the space beside and around the question, their comments. In one case, a respondent wrote,

> I do support the program, but I have concerns it will be seen as elitist (GELQ teacher form - respondent).

On another questionnaire, a respondent wrote an abbreviated comment,

> concerned about it becoming an elite program (GELQ teacher form - respondent).

In the other they wrote,

> I worry that it may take resources away from other programs that help those who are at the other end (GELQ teacher form - respondent).

It is important to note here that these respondents chose to emphasise that they support the program and then noted their respective concerns. This is an example of one of the categories that emerged, constructive concerns. A category where staff are supportive of the school initiative, but have some anxiety worries about the impact of the program.

Another respondent commented on question three,

> In the philosophical context, everyone should be treated equally, but it's difficult to treat 'equally' children with different abilities and those who need help should be treated 'more equally than others' (GELQ teacher form - respondent).

Here he or she is struggling to reconcile his or her egalitarian view with a pragmatic and universal doctrine of helping all children. Once again personal integrity and professional ethics seem to guide the concerns.

In response to question 10, another respondent identified his or her technique in addressing the demands on his or her time yet the simultaneous demand to address the individual needs of her students. In reference to a question on differentiation, she writes,

> I do not have the opportunity as I teach classes of 24. However, some students work faster and better and then the differentiation by outcome kicks in – they go further. Ceilings on their learning are removed (GELQ teacher form - respondent).

The results from the GELQ demonstrate substantial support for the GTP among the respondents. The staff appear to be well informed with regards to accommodation and myths related to gifted education and gifted students. In terms of support for the five categories, the findings here show support for three of the five categories: personal integrity, professional ethics and constructive concerns. There is particular support for the latter as the tension between wanting to do well for these students yet sharing their concerns about practicalities with regards to work load, resources utilization and egalitarian concerns. Similar to the results from the interviews, there is evidence in these categories of both the desire to do what is *right* and what it is *good*.

4.22 Summary

The results from the GELQ provided evidence of widespread support for the gifted program. The staff appear to be well informed of the misconceptions related to gifted students. The combined results support the categories of personal integrity, professional ethics and constructive concerns.

4.3 Summary of the findings of this study

This section presented a summary of the key data collected for this study. The findings of this study suggest that within IST, moral leadership was an inter-dependent (between) and intra-dependent (within) process that encouraged positive change and sustained good practice. Moral leadership was revealed through the interaction of the five categories: personal integrity, professional ethic, exogenous influences, structural

collaboration and constructive concerns. The interviews presented information that supports the moral character of the senior leadership team and in particular, the head of secondary. The interviews provided passionate responses and rich descriptions revealing all five categories. Data from the GELQ were presented. The GELQ results suggest that the staff are accepting of the gifted program and are well versed in issues in gifted education. There was support for three of the five categories that were developed in the interview analysis. In particular, the category of constructive concerns gets notable support in this section.

In Table 4.4 the findings are summarized according to the method utilized. The second column identifies what the purpose was for that method or instrument. The fourth columns identifies whether support for the categories was weak, strong or mixed. The last column identifies the category that received support from the findings.

Table 4.4. Summary of the five main categories revealed through the different methods.

Method	Purpose	Findings Summary	Weak, Mixed or Strong Support/Evidence	Categories
Interviews	Reveals the moral character, the moral intensity of the SLT and the internal and external influences,	Confirms the moral nature of the head and staff and reveals five key categories	Strong	Personal Integrity Professional Ethic Structural Collaboration External Influences Constructive Concerns
Study Questionnaire	GELQ – to reveal the level of support for a GT program and examine the level of knowledge and support for the GT program.	GELQ confirms support for GT and empathy towards GT.	Strong - support for GTP Mixed - support for Categories	Personal Integrity Professional Ethic Constructive Concerns

4.4 The five categories and the research sub-questions

In this section, I analyze the findings and link them to the research sub-questions. The following four research sub-questions are based in part on the FCM of Rest (1982) and the MAM model of Jones and Ryan (1997). The

two models address the moral decision making process. They are brought together in this thesis to assist in examining the moral leadership of the HOD at IST. This examination is in the context of an international school focused on a school-based moral issue identified as the implementation of a gifted and talented program.

4.41 How does a school leader recognize provision of a GTP as a moral issue?

This question can be broadly interpreted as asking how does a school leader recognise a moral situation and interpret how acting may affect a person's well-being? The following narrative situates the first research question within the local context of IST. It provides a brief historic outline of some of the issues that have impacted the development of the GTP.

Two years prior to the time that the research was undertaken, the new principal, HOS, arrived at IST. He found a school struggling. He described it in a rather grave emotional tone, the school did not have 'the best reputation overall' and it had experienced 'troubled, very troubled times.' The HOS discovered a number of school wide issues to address, among them substandard academic performance and low staff morale. Important for this discussion, he discovered that prior to his arrival HOD-S had promoted the idea of a GTP. The former principal had agreed and appointed HOD-S to a role of responsibility as GT coordinator and tasked him to establish a program for students considered gifted. The discovery of the GTP by the new principal when he arrived marks the point he is first confronted with the moral issue in the context of IST. Like other aspects at the school, the GTP was experiencing difficulties; according to the former GT coordinator, HOD-S, it was a struggle to get the program accepted due to limited support among SLT and the teaching staff. During an ensuing change in staff, the new principal, HOS, appointed HOD-S to head the science department and also left him in charge

of the GTP. For the first two years the principal left the GTP in the hands of the HOD-S of science 'to see what he could do' (HOS, Interview).

> HOS: I sort of waited for two years for HOD-S to do something with it, and I think he's – as I said earlier – I think he's got a bit bogged down and it's moved on, but I – I *don't* want the position or the subject program to disappear (HOS, interview).

According to the HOS, the HOD-S became overwhelmed and the problems within the already struggling science department, a department he deemed 'one of his largest and most diverse' (HOS, Interview) did not improve. At this stage, the principal is aware of the issue and is confronted with a moral issue; the principal wanted the HOD-S to focus on developing his department, but he also wanted to find a way to keep the GTP running. The principal had a conflict of outcomes either of which would result in a negative impact for one party. In the first scenario, he could abandon support for the gifted program. The consequences would be that the HOD-S is removed as GT coordinator. This would allow him to work on improving organization and academic outcomes for his department but as a motivated staff member who emerged as a leader and founded the GTP, he might be disappointed at losing the GT coordinator position. The principal had already given the HOD-S two years to demonstrate that he could do well with the two roles. In the second scenario, the principal could continue to support and promote the dual roles taken on by the HOD-S , but then the performance of the science department might continue on its current substandard path and the decline of the GTP might be more permanent. In other words, the HOS had to choose between the potential negative impact upon the self-esteem of the HOD-S and the success of the GTP. Would the HOD-S be disappointed, offended and possibly humiliated for losing the GTP responsibility? Would the opportunity to revitalize the GTP pass if the HOS did not take any action?

Personal Integrity

Following the four stage model, the principal has entered Component I, recognition. The HOS is trying to interpret the situation. According to the model, the initial response is expected to be based on his emotions, the affective preceding the cognitive (Zajonc, 1980). At this point, it is expected that emotions and ambiguity confront the HOS. If the HOS perceives the issue of a GTP as unclear, the less likely he is to support the GTP. In other words, if the principal is not sensitive to another's needs or is not sensitized to the issue, the greater the ambiguity and the less likely the principal is to recognise the provision of the GTP as a moral issue (Rest, 1982). Personal integrity, the private ethical views and desire for right action, are now on alert, heightened. Based on his comments, it seems that the principal has no prior connection to a GTP. During his travels as a CIS inspector and his time as a former principal of a state school in the UK, he was aware of the lack of provision of gifted programs. He stated that he had not come across any other gifted programs during his inspections. Further, the principal stated he was not aware of any personal connections with a gifted student either familial or cordial. It does not appear, therefore, that he is particularly sensitized (positively biased) to the issue. It is evident, however, that he is sensitive to the needs of gifted children.

> HOS: whether it's fashionable or not, we actually do have to do something, to help the children who are at – you know, the ones who are gonna get bored in class, because (very short pause) whatever they learn is way below whatever their capabilities are. There has to be something to help them, and, like most teachers I don't go out and research it, I just do (short pause) whatever I think is right. And that's the way we're going (HOS, interview).

His sensitivity towards helping children may be one source for the reasons he recognises the GTP as a moral issue. But this does not seem to capture the complete picture, there is more at work here. He is not waiting for his profession to dictate what he should or should not do. Using Kohlberg's moral development theory, his reasoning here is beyond simple notions of

loyalty and conformity, stage 3; his reasoning is beyond accepting what society is dictating, stage 4; the HOS appears to be, at least with this issue, in stage six, making an autonomous decision in pursuit of right action (Kohlberg and Hersh, 1977). This sensitivity actually reflect his sensitivity for all children. It is important to him that he and his staff have a positive impact in the lives of the individuals that are under his care. As he states,

> HOS: ...it would be nice to know that we'd made a difference to them (HOS).

This comment is consistent with what Starrat (2004) wrote,

> The first and most basic domain of ethical responsibility is as a human being. In this domain, an educational leader considers the humanly ethical thing to do, taking into account the dignity and the inviolability of the other person (p.125).

There is a paternalistic feeling the emanates from his general demeanor and becomes evident in the phrase, 'our children.' It is personal to him that experiences and opportunities are provided to students. His comments express his private morality, his belief and a desire, a motivation for right action. In other words, his personal integrity is begin displayed.

> HOS: ...it is every generation's (short pause) *job*, *every* generation's job to educate the next generation, and 'educate' doesn't particularly mean teaching them 'one plus one equals two', (short pause), it means getting them to grow up into citizens who are going to run the world. They *need*, they must have this. Otherwise they're never going to (short pause) be the leaders of tomorrow (HOS, Interview).

In the preceding comment we see his personal integrity melding with his professional ethical views, the provision of a GTP is not about a view of the gifted but rather, a more normative view of education:

> HOS: opportunity is (short pause) it's absoutely vital, it's a right, children have a right (very) to be educated (short pause). They have a right to *know*, what's going on in the world. They have the right to know how to get the best out of it (HOS, Interview).

His personal view is consistent with the construct of personal integrity that was described in part as doing the right thing for all students. This discussion

echoes the research by Day et al (1999) who wrote that, 'The head teacher's belief in the potential of all and the possibility of developing everyone within the community of their school lay at the heart of their philosophies of leadership' (p.15).

When I push again and ask, what if it was not part of your job, he replies,

> HOS: (Pause) but if it's the job of every generation to take care of the next generation, which I *absolutely* totally believe, it doesn't matter what I believe, it's still my job (HOS, Interview).

In this brief statement, the HOS makes an unequivocal[49] declaration of his commitment as a human being to ensure the continuation of the next group of humans. Without stating it, he has declared what Dewey (1916) likewise expressed as the vital role of education as a fundamental duty of every society to ensure its longevity. Here then the use of the term 'job' is not a reference to a profession, but rather the *job* is the moral obligation of the mature in society to educate the immature (1916).

Professional Ethics

There is a gruff trait to the HOS. Yet this external mannerism masks a gentle man convinced of the need to expand opportunities and experiences for his students.

> HOS: I think we should be giving our children every opportunity to have experiences (HOS, interview).

When I pushed him to explain why does it matters to him that these children should have these experiences. I received an incredulous look; there was a long pause, before he replied,

> HOS: because, I'm in education, it's part of my job, because I'm a parent (HOS, interview).

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[49] Note the redundant words absolutely and totally used in conjunction. Both words imply no deviation, no equivocation, this is a 100% commitment restated to ensure there is no doubt at least to his passionate belief in his statement.

In this response, we see the interaction of personal views with his professional obligations. It is an example of Nagel's (1979/2012) description of private and public morality; the personal views inform the professional obligations which are bounded within the public role as an educator. There are likely personal motives for wanting the school to be successful, for example reasons associated with self-esteem and self-actualization. It is evident, however, that there is a larger theme associated with the idea of schooling as important, and also the idea that he is determined to see the GTP succeed,

> HOS: I could have just quietly forgotten about it but, umm… (long pause) I – I don't want to just quietly forget about it and let it go. Not yet. I want to see if we can do something with it (HOS, interview).

In the interview, the principal makes no explicit statement that the GTP is a moral issue. He admits he has no real idea of what to do for these students.

> HOS: I, I haven't got (pause) hard evidence – this is what we should do, we should do this, we should do this, we should do this(HOS, Interview).

These combined comments suggest that for him the GTP is an expression of a deeper commitment to education - a professional ethic.

There is more at work in this stage than just the personal integrity of the HOS. The intersection of his private morality with the public morality that accompany his occupation and the nature of his position lead to the sources of his professional ethics. There is very much an inter-dependent and intra-dependent component to the categories of personal integrity and professional ethics. When professional ethics agree with private views, the two reinforce each other in a productive relationship for the organization. As Broidy and Jones (1998) write that,

> while we do not always make deliberate use of our professional aims as evidence towards practical professional decisions, we perceive issues as involving professional ethics whenever we see decisions on those issues as addressing the aims we are consciously or tacitly

> committed to. In this way our professional aims help to determine what we recognize as an issue of professional ethics (p.7).

Similar to personal integrity this construct arose in all of the interviews though not referenced as frequently. Professional ethics is tied to the very nature of schooling. They are tied to 'an occupational role' (Wueste, 1994, p.1). In other words, moral leadership of a school is not just about personal moral beliefs, rather it includes a responsibility towards an organization and a community.

Structural Collaboration

Personal integrity and professional ethics are the primary instigators focusing the HOS on the moral issue. These categories do not exist independent of one another. When they are confronted with a member of staff willing to take on a role of responsibility, it helps raise the profile of that issue. Before the GTP was recognized as a moral issue by the HOS, he had to be made aware that the GTP even existed. To clarify this point, the HOS did not arrive at IST with the conscious intention to promote the GTP. As he stated in the interviews, he had no personal connection nor did he know a great deal about the topic. The GTP was raised as an issue in part because the GTP had been instigated by the previous head and the HOD-S was already assigned to lead the GTP. The GTP was, therefore, one of many issues at IST that the HOS had to address upon his arrival. The HOD-S emergence as leader raises the issue in the eyes of a otherwise busy HOS. There is no indication from the HOS or the HOD-S that anyone referred to the GTP as a moral issue. From the perspective of the HOS, the moral aspect of the GTP was dependent upon his personal integrity and professional ethics.

Exogenous Influences

At IST, the potential exogenous influence of the guiding statement and accreditation process contribute to the recognition of the provision of a GTP as a moral issue. Based on responses from the principal it appears that there

is some influence from the guiding statement. It is not clear that this statement in isolation of other factors would be sufficient motivation to move forward with implementation of a GTP. This view is informed speculation and based on my interpretation of the comments from the HOS and observations of his demeanor and disposition that suggest that the HOS is a strong willed individual with passionate views of education. Moreover, using a similar logic as was used with the relationship between personal integrity and professional ethics, I suggest that it is reasonable to expect a consistency of views between the former and the principles as laid out in the guiding statement.

> HOS: One of the points, umm, in our guidance statements is that, every student can reach their full (very short pause) potential. Now, that to me, the word "every" as in every student, means … literally every one of them (HOS, Interview).

Once again a passionate response; this HOS does not view this document as some bureaucratic distraction or a check mark to be completed on an accreditation form. This HOS believes in the principles of the guiding statement and will work to ensure they are implemented.

It should also be noted here that the HOS confirmed that there were *no* external corporate and/or parental requests that were made or that were a consideration. In addition, there were no discussions regarding the potential marketing of this new GTP. This is consistent with responses from the other interviews, the questionnaire, observations and document analysis.

In Figure 4.1, I provided a summary of the categories associated with question one. We can see that in order to recognize a school-based issue as moral, there are pre-existing conditions and contributing factors at IST. Personal integrity, is a pre-existing condition inherent in the makeup of the individual, in this case the HOS. The HOS relied on his universal beliefs and a desire for action. His personal beliefs are supported with his professional ethical views. Contributing factors are the emergence of staff to raise the

issue but also fill the role of responsibility. In addition, the belief in acting on the principles within the guiding statement and the coincidental factor that IST was going through an accreditation process all contribute to raising the issue.

Figure 4.1. Summary of the categories as they relate to the first research sub-question: How does a school leader recognize provision of a GTP as a moral issue?

Category	Pre-existing conditions and contributing factors at IST
personal integrity	principal 's personal beliefs and desire for action
professional ethics	personal belief and desire agree with professional ethical convictions
structural collaboration	existing staff member emerged to take on role of responsibility.
exogenous influence	guiding statement and accreditation process

4.42 How does the leader of a school decide upon a course of action to address the GTP?

In the FCM, this question refers to component II. In this stage, an individual begins to formulate 'the morally ideal course of action' (Rest, 1982, p. 31). Rest states that 'in seeking the morally ideal course of action, the person tries to integrate the various considerations-person A's needs, person B's needs, personal needs, expectations founded on previous promises or roles, or instituted practices' (p. 31). In other words, how sensitized is the HOS to the GTP, to the needs of students and staff.

At IST, the GTP was already established by his predecessor. The course of action was to determine if the HOS would support the renewal of the GTP or simply abandon it all together. To arrive at this decision required the involvement of all five categories with varying degrees of influence. As established in stage one, the GTP was consistent with the principal's personal integrity and professional ethical convictions. It was also consistent with the exogenous influence of the guiding statement and accreditation process. The principal knew that the existing person responsible was having difficulty

managing the dual role of HOD-S and GT coordinator. The collegial atmosphere, consistent with the category of structural collaboration, within the school allowed another member of staff to emerge and take on the responsibility. This helped to resolve part of the moral issue for the principal. He could continue the support for GTP and also keep improving the science department. Further, there were no expressed objections from others on the SLT or from teaching staff, though there were constructive concerns that were expressed specifically regarding elitism, divisiveness and integration of the program into curriculum.

In figure 4.2, I provide a summary of the categories associated with question two. Similar to recognition, it begins with the HOS's personal belief in helping all children. This view is supported by his professional ethical code to help all students which includes students considered gifted. A staff member emerges to take on role of responsibility reflecting the collaborative structure in place at IST. Technical and logistical advice and services are available through exogenous organizations, in this case Ofsted. Staff is supportive though with some constructive concerns. Therefore, through a combination of the five categories the course of action was decided upon.

Figure 4.2. Summary of the categories as they relate to the second research sub-question: How does the leader of a school decide upon a course of action to address the GTP?

Category	Pre-existing conditions and contributing factors at IST
personal integrity	principal 's personal beliefs and desire for action
professional ethics	personal belief and desire agree with professional ethical convictions
structural collaboration	another member of staff emerged to take on the responsibility
exogenous influence	technical and logistical advice, i.e. dfes guide book and id procedures
constructive concerns	supportive but concerns expressed regarding elitism, divisiveness and added work load in integrating the program into curriculum

4.43 How does a school leader decide to implement a course of action to address the moral issue?

The decision to implement the moral action comes from a combination of all five categories. In this step, associated with Component III of the FCM, individuals decide what he or she 'actually intends to do' (Rest, 1982, p.33), though making the decision of what to do *does not* imply compliance. In general, the individual is aware of a variety of 'possible outcomes' dependent upon the 'different values and motives' (p. 33).

The MAM bridges stage 2 and 3. In discussing this bridge, Jones and Ryan (1997) add that it is at this point that that the moral agent will begin to go through a series of steps in order to determine his or her intention. According to Jones and Ryan (1997), individuals compare their intentions, their 'anticipated behaviour' (p.667) to the level of moral responsibility they believe the issue requires. This is compared to the level of attribution they desire from their referent group. As a reminder the referent group comprises, colleagues, friends, family and, importantly, themselves[50]. If they believe the level of attribution they receive meets the 'comfort threshold' (p.667) then intention is established and action is likely to follow.

In the case of IST and the issue of provision of a GTP, the HOS, has assessed the differing potential outcomes; this was examined in question two selecting a course of action. These are compared to his interpretation of moral responsibility and the level of attribution, personal or external, he expects to receive.

Therefore, in order to answer the question of the ideal course of action, we need to first go through a series of preliminary questions that are part of the MAM presented in chapter two. As a reminder, this model attempts to bridge

50 Each of these groups have an impact along with the gender of the moral actor. These are discussed in chapter six implications for further research.

the gap between intention and action. There are four components a moral agent must address in determining the course of action, they are:

1. the severity of the act's consequences,
2. the certainty that the act is moral or immoral,
3. the complicity of the moral agent in the action, and
4. the pressure the actor feels to behave unethically (Jones and Ryan, 1997).

Together these assist the moral agent in determining 'the amount of moral responsibility that their referent group would ascribe to them' (Ryan and Ciavarella, 2002. p. 180) relative to the moral act in question. In other words, how much pressure there is to act morally. The model is issue contingent and importantly, it is described in their literature from the perspective of a moral agent within an organization being pressured to behave unethically.

1. In the context of IST and the issue of provision of a GTP, the first consideration, therefore, is what the consequences of the act are. As described in their model, what is the harm that will come from inaction. In other words, if no provision is made for a GTP, what harm will come to the students? The models suggest that the greater the severity of harm, the greater the perceived moral responsibility. In our context, the level of harm is unclear and there is no indication from any of interviews or other methods that respondents believed there was an issue of harm.
2. The next consideration is the certainty of the moral nature of the act in question. If the act in question is perceived to be ambiguous then it is harder to determine the degree of approbation. In other words, if the moral agent is certain the act in question is 'the right thing to do' then greater the moral responsibility and hence the level of approbation is felt. As was quite evident throughout the interviews,

there is a strong belief, a certainty, in providing assistance, experiences and opportunities to all students.

3. Next, the moral agent determines his or her level of complicity; in other words, how directly 'involved in the decision or action' (p. 672) her or she will be. An increase in complicity therefore signifies an increase in moral responsibility. The power and authority inherent in his position as Head at IST places the HOS as directly responsible for supporting and/or pushing this issue forward, therefore, he has a high degree of complicity.

4. The last consideration is the degree of organisational pressure to behave responsibly. If an agent is coerced into a decision or action, the level of attribution of responsibility decreases. In other words, as Shaver states, an "… individual actor can be (correctly) held responsible only in inverse proportion to the amount of external coercion" (1985, p. 80). At IST, the results from most of the methods used suggest that this is a moral school community. I have already presented a number of excerpts from interviews highlighting their passionate determination from the various staff members to do what is right. Additional evidence from the GELQ, a review of documents and observations of the school support this contention. From within this context, the expectation at IST to behave ethically appears high. If Shaver's (1985) condition holds true in the opposite, then the responsibility, the attribution level, for acting morally, therefore, is also high. The implication is that the HOS's moral decision/action can be attributed to him. In other words, his level of responsibility for the moral decision/action is high, therefore, he can be held responsible for his moral behaviour. The conclusion is that the conditions for the intention to act are high.

Table 4.5. Reproduced from Table 2.2 Interpreting MAM and the concept of organizational pressure and attribution

Pressure/coercion to act unethically	Level of Responsibility (i.e. attribution)	Intention to act
high	low	low
low	high	high

In this section there are many issues coming together to address the question of intent. It is complicated by the addition of the four considerations of MAM. But these are considerations that help us to determine the moral intention for action. Figure 4.3 summarizes the links between the consideration of the MAM and the five categories from this study. The combination provide a response to research sub-question three. The outcome of no harm with regards to the severity of the acts consequences is consistent with both personal integrity and professional ethics. Likewise the degree of certainty that the act is moral, in this case, the GTP, is consistent with both categories of personal integrity and professional ethics. The complicity of the moral agent in the action in this case is high. The HOS through his positional authority can advance or block the GTP from proceeding. That he chooses to pursue the GTP is a reflection of his personal integrity, his professional ethical beliefs and the collaborative and collegial nature of staff at IST. Schools are by nature moral institutions and as was seen in the data, IST is no exception. The pressure the HOS feels to behave unethically is therefore low. His level of responsibility for his decision and/or actions is high. In other words, as an autonomous being, a morally responsible agent, he can be held morally accountable for his behaviour (Eshelman, 2014). The support from the organization and its external stakeholders combined with the HOS's personal integrity and professional ethics and the intention to act is established.

Figure 4.3. Summary of MAM and a response to the third research sub-question: How does a school leader decide to implement a course of action to address the moral issue?

Consideration	Outcome	Associated Category
the severity of the act's consequences	no harm	personal integrity professional ethics
the certainty that the act is moral or immoral	high degree of certainty	personal integrity professional ethics
the complicity of the moral agent in the action	high degree of complicity	personal integrity professional ethics structural collaboration
the pressure the actor feels to behave unethically	low, therefore, the responsibility for behaving ethically is high.	personal integrity professional ethics structural collaboration exogenous influence
	Conclusion: intention to act is established	

4.44 How does the leader of a school implement the course of action to address the GTP?

Implementation of the moral action is aligned with Component IV of the FCM. It is here where one is expected to begin to execute and implement 'what one intends to do' (Rest, 1982, p. 34). This stage,

> involves figuring out the sequence of concrete actions, working around impediments and unexpected difficulties, overcoming fatigue and frustration, resisting distractions and other ornaments, and keeping sight of the eventual goal. Perseverance, resoluteness, competence, and "character" are virtues of component IV (p. 34, quotes in the original).

Stage four is about praxis: theory transitioning into practice. Here the function of personal integrity and professional ethics is to ensure the desire for action inherent in personal and professional beliefs are manifested. At IST, the HOS explained that once the need is established, someone will emerge who is motivated to take the responsibility and 'give up their time to run it' (HOS, Interview). As long as the need is evident, even if the initiating person leaves, someone else will come and fill in the position.

> HOS: And, and teachers (small pause) *generally* – not always, but *generally* – have the best interest of the kids in in in at the forefront of their mind, so I think once it starts, once it gets going, it's fairly easy, it's self-perpetuating (HOS, Interviews).

At IST, the GTP was not being forced upon staff, the issue emerged from a staff member's concerns. The emergence of someone to take on a role of responsibility is a concept associated with structural collaboration. This individual will oversee the logistical and mechanical issues that are required to move the GTP forward. But this is not done in isolation, collaboration with fellow staff who have bought-in to the GTP is required. These staff must also go through a similar process of examining personal beliefs and desires for action. Emphasizing the importance of assisting all students as opposed to emphasizing the GTP was consistent with the teaching profession's aim to assist all students. The GTP program was to be presented as an integrated part of their curriculum. Portraying the program as integrated and part of the overall desire to provide all students with experience and opportunities appears to have addressed concerns of elitism and division. Through dialogue, workshops and sensitivity to staff, the SLT ensured that concerns are respected and addressed.

In addition to professional beliefs, motivation and participation, resources are necessary. Logistical and technical issues such as identification schedules and GTP information that are provided by local state and international

sources. At IST, the policy handbook laid out clear procedures and guidelines. It provided instruments that were designed by the DfES and respected researchers from within the GT community. Accreditation bureaus provide legitimacy and an appeal to external authority that may help to convince those that are unsure of the moral dimensions of the issue.

In Figure 4.4, I provide a summary of the categories associate with question four. The crucial stage of implementing the action is dependent upon having the right people in place, resources available and the motivation to get the job done. Structural collaboration, exogenous influences and professional ethics combine to see that theory gets translated into practice.

Figure 4.4 Summary of the categories as they relate to the fourth research sub-question: How does the leader of a school implement the course of action to address the GTP?

Category	Pre-existing conditions and contributing factors at IST
professional ethics	belief and desire to execute professional ethical convictions among staff
structural collaboration	another member of staff emerged to take on the responsibility
exogenous influence	technical and logistical advice, dfes guide book and id procedures

4.45 Summary

Each of the four sub-questions relates to a stage in the moral process. Within the various stages of the moral process, each of the five categories had a role to play. As has been emphasized previously, the categories are not neatly delineated, there is overlap in the conceptions and ideas expressed from within each category. There are arguments for including or subtracting categories from each step. For example, in step four I indentified professional ethics as having a principal role. As discussed, professional ethics has a dual nature. Each time it is identified, there is an implicit connection to private

morality and, therefore, the category of personal integrity. The intent however was to show the prominent category and how they interact throughout the process.

In Figure 4.5, I summarize the categories and how they relate to each question in the moral process. It is important to keep in mind that it is a specific summary related to the issue of provision of a GTP within the context at IST.

Figure 4.5. Summary of the five categories as they relate to the moral process.

Question 1: Recognition	Question 2: Select Course of Action	Moral Attribution Model (MAM)		Question 3: Establish Intent	Question 4: Implement Moral Action
Associated Category	**Associated Category**	**Moral Responsibility**	**Associated Category**	**Associated Category**	**Associated Category**
personal integrity: principal's personal beliefs and desire for action	personal integrity: principal's personal beliefs and desire for action	no harm	personal integrity professional ethics	personal integrity: principal's personal beliefs and desire for action	professional ethics: belief and desire to execute professional ethical convictions
professional ethics: belief and desire to execute professional ethical convictions	professional ethics: belief and desire to execute professional ethical convictions	high degree of certainty	personal integrity professional ethics	professional ethics: belief and desire to execute professional ethical convictions	exogenous influence: DfES guide book and id procedures
exogenous influence: accreditation process	exogenous influence: guiding statement and accreditation process	high degree of complicity	personal integrity professional ethics structural collaboration	exogenous influence: guiding statement and accreditation process	structural collaboration: gifted and talented coordinator takes over
structural collaboration – existing staff member emerged under previous head.	structural collaboration – another member of staff emerged to take on the responsibility	low organizational pressure to behave unethically, therefore, the responsibility for behaving ethically is high	personal integrity professional ethics structural collaboration exogenous influence	structural collaboration – another member of staff to emerge and take on the responsibility	
	constructive concerns: expressed specifically regarding elitism, divisiveness and integration of the program into curriculum	conclusion: intention to act is established		constructive concerns: expressed specifically with regards to elitism, divisiveness and integration of the program into curriculum	

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter provided the findings from the analysis of the data examining the leadership practices at IST focused upon the implementation of a GTP. Through the moral lens of moral leadership theories, five categories emerged from the interviews. Each of these categories were corroborated to varying degrees by data obtained through the interviews and questionnaire.

The following chapter will explore each category in greater details linking them to the four sub-questions that form the moral process that led to the development of the GTP. It will also address the overall research question that guided this thesis.

Chapter Five: Discussion

5.0 Introduction

The aim of this thesis is to present an examination of leadership practice as it responds to the implementation of a gifted and talented program. The examination is conducted through the lens of the moral leadership conception introduced in chapter one. This augmented conception drew upon theories from moral leadership, moral philosophy and concepts from moral psychology that were outlined in chapter two. In this chapter, I link the five categories developed in chapter four to the existing literature. The chapter culminates with a response to the guiding research question: How is moral leadership manifested through the provision of a GTP in a school?

5.1 The Five Categories

In this section, I review each category in greater detail and link its conception to the literature.

5.11 Personal Integrity

Begley (2005) write that, 'Personal values in general have been shown to be significant influences on decision making' (p.62). The category personal integrity combines an individual's personal values with a desire for right action. This desire can be interpreted as the motivation to do right action. In the literature, we find motivation for right action as an expression of 'morally good traits of character' (Law, 2007, p. 108). Morally good traits of character are based on a level of 'emotion, intuition, practical reason' and the ability to discern the nuances of a situation (Hursthouse, 2012, para. 6). These are descriptions associated within the philosophical literature with virtue and a virtuous character. Virtue and the notion of a virtuous character have a well established tradition associated with the

concept of integrity (Cox, La Caze, and Levine, 2013). Though there is disagreement and challenge to the idea of integrity as a virtue (2013), for the reasoning being pursued here, it is its association with the concept of moral purpose that is of interest.

Within the literature in education one will find references to moral purpose (Day, 1997; Fullan, 2002; Robertson, 2011). These are often discussed in terms of the moral purpose of a teacher (see Stager and Fullan, 1992; Day, 1997) and in the context of school leadership (Day, 2007; Fullan, 2002). In both contexts, moral purpose is seen as a foundational concept driving change. For example, in a discussion on educational change and reform, Stager and Fullan (1992) write, 'The personal moral purpose of the individual teacher is a critical building block for educational change.' (p. 3). In a more current study on perceptions of teaching by Kane and Mallon, (2006) results from 790 questionnaires completed by teachers and principals are discussed. They write,

> One of the strongest and enduring group of factors affecting recruitment and retention decisions is teachers' individual intrinsic motivation to working with children, to make a useful contribution to society and to gain personal fulfillment from a job well done (p.160).

However, the concept of moral purpose as described in literature does not make the distinction between personal and professional ethical views. The two are combined in the same description. For example, Stager and Fullan (1992) write about 'personal moral purpose' (p.3) and then in the next sentence, linking the two thoughts, discuss a study focused on the desire to make a difference in the lives of students; yet the former is a personal matter while the latter is professional. It is only by being in the profession of teaching that the child becomes your student. This is not a pedantic argument. For example, in the debate over which side to butter

the toast, the argument is silly because the act is inconsequential. However, it does not alter the fact that butter and toast are separate entities. And this is what I am arguing, personal integrity is not the same as professional ethics, though the two complement each other nicely, like butter does to toast. In this interpretation, I take some comfort in Begley (2005) who in writing about administration and values note the difference between personal and public values,

> it becomes possible, and in fact necessary, to distinguish the values manifested by individuals from their professional values as well as the more collective social values of a group or organization (p.57).

In my interpretation of the findings from the interviews, this distinction was quite clear and was captured in phrases such as a reference to all children, not all students. There were references to a responsibility as a human, not as a teacher, for example, SEN-K '...we're humans, they're our responsibility.' When I push the DOS and ask, what if you were not teacher, she talks of the importance to help someone regardless. The HOS passionately stated he meets his obligations not because he is a teacher, but because a belief it is the *right* thing to do. It is this desire to work with children and 'make a useful contribution to society' that reflects the personal/private morality of the individual.

Personal integrity is a category with direct and indirect support in the literature (Busch and Glover, 2014). Personal integrity combines an individual's private morality with his or her desire to put these beliefs into action. The HOS at IST is motivated to pursue the implementation of the GTP, not because of ideology but because of his personal ethical belief. There is a passionate determination revealed in his comments to do what is *right*. His belief reflects a desire of personal importance to help *all* children. Personal integrity is personal belief and a desire that is a motivating force for moral action. At IST, this is a motivating force for action, but it is not just expressed by the HOS rather it is expressed by each member of the SLT.

5.12 Professional Ethics

In section 4.12, the category of professional ethics was defined as a belief in the ethical nature of the teaching profession and its societal responsibility to educate the next generation. I commented on the complementary duality of this category. I described it as an intra-dependent and inter-dependent relationship between personal integrity and professional ethics. The intra-dependent nature, within itself, is a reference to the individual teacher's private morality that serves as a base. The profession of teaching acts as a conduit for the internal ethic of the individual to be realised. In another sense, professional ethics is an external influence. It is an ethic instigated by the demands from a society. These demands are twofold. First, is the basic demand for an institution in which to educate children. Second, is the demand that the institution reflect the public morality. In accepting public roles, individuals reduce their personal interests in order to achieve the greater interest of society (Nagel, 1979/2012). This does not imply that private morality is not necessary, as Nagel writes, public morality 'emerges naturally from individual morality under the conditions that define the individual public role' (p.78). For each of the educators interviewed for this study, their very conception of a teacher inspired a belief in a responsibility to act ethically.

Within the literature in education references to professional ethics are frequently indirect with the focus more upon moral purpose and/or shared values (see Day et al, 1999). Moral purpose was discussed in the previous section on personal integrity. It arises here again given the duality of the concept of professional ethics. Stager and Fullan, (1992) write of a similar idea where they note that a morality expressed as care or the desire to make a difference is a common expression made by new entrants to teaching. It is implicit in the nature of teaching. Shared values implies ethical beliefs held between individuals, the school and the

profession (see Leithwood et al, 2010; Sammons, 2003). This internal nature serves to enhance the professional ethics of the profession, thus emphasizing the inter-dependent nature of the category.

Shapiro (2006) discussed how through her collaborative work with Stefkovich[51] they developed their conception of a professional ethic and how it could not be dismissed, but rather should be a principal concern. She writes that the ethics of the profession, 'should not be placed off to the side, but instead, it should be central' (p.2). Shapiro goes on to legitimize the very conception of a professional ethic by stating how they came to realize 'that the ethic of the profession was a very real entity' (p.2). Shapiro references an external standard as helping them to become 'more aware that the ethic of the profession was important in the field of educational leadership (p.2).

As was seen in the data, at IST, there is genuine conviction in the encompassing nature of the phrase *all* students. At IST, all students includes those who are often considered advantage, frequently over looked and considered gifted. Professional ethics combined with personal integrity, are driving forces that motivate the HOS to support and implement the GTP. Similar to the category of personal integrity, this is a view not held exclusively by the HOS, but rather a view expressed by each member of the SLT.

5.13 Structural Collaboration

The category structural collaboration refers to concepts such as collaboration, community, distributed leadership, emergent leadership, partnership, shared responsibility, staffing, and the importance of teacher

[51] In this piece, Shapiro writes in the 3rd person and does not list a specific work at the section the quote was taken from. Later in the article she does note some of their joint work at relevant at the time. These include, 1994, 1996, 1997, 1998 or 2003.

buy-in. Within the educational literature similar conceptions are found. Datnow (2002) for examples, reports that reforms do not come about 'from individuals or institutions acting in isolation' (p.233). Reforms require collegiality and collaboration; they require leadership that can 'co-construct' reforms and develop 'joint understandings' (p.233). Harris, A. (2003) writes of the need for a professional community to have 'a shared sense of purpose, engage in collaborative work and accept joint responsibility for the outcomes of their work' (p.379). Harris et al, (1997) write about schools 'where responsibility is more widely shared' (p.1). Additional support is found in (Datnow, 2002; Harris, A., 2003; Sergiovanni, 1993; Leithwood and Day, 2007; Spillane et al, 2003) description of coalition building, community, partnership, mutual responsibility, staffing.

Outside of the education literature Follet (1918) and Barnard (1938) are emphasizing the importance of sharing, communication, and moral complexity. Maslow (1954) writes of the need for recognition and worth to feel self-esteem. In the context of the moral process, structural collaboration also refers to the influence from an individual's referent group. The referent group are colleagues that may have other people who influence decision makers. It is from this group that an individual seeks approval in regards to how to behave (Jones and Ryan, 1997; Ryan and Ciavarella, 2002).

At IST, it is quite evident from the interviews and GELQ that there is unanimous support for the GTP among the SLT of both secondary and primary school. Among the teachers that responded on the GELQ, here too there is wide support. There is a shared sense of purpose that is not just focused on the GTP, but more importantly, it is a collective sense of helping all students succeed. There is an acceptance of the joint responsibility for the overall success of the school.

In terms of academic results, the school has been successful since the arrival of the new HOS. At IST, most of the staff were in place prior to the arrival of the new HOS. Many were there during the troubled times. Something changed when the new HOS arrived. In terms of academic results, the school has gone from a 2/3rd passing rate on the IB to 100% in three years. ICGSE scores have gone from 75% to 88% passing rate with nearly have of those scoring A or A*. This was not done in isolation but rather through collaboration among the staff. The HOS is aware of the troubled past, but those issues seem behind him he moves forward with a team dedicated to doing 'what is best for our students' (DOS, Interview). How much is due to his moral foundation is uncertain, but it is clear that the HOS is aware of his staff and his or her need for self-esteem. In other words, the HOS is aware of the need for teachers to feel valued, for recognition and worth, even if the roles of responsibility is not glamorous. In reference to the GTC role, he stated, 'it's a little way of saying 'yes we do value what you're doing and here's something for it, I know it's not a lot'' (HOS, Interview).

5.14 Constructive Concerns

Constructive concerns is a unique category that emerged out of the open coding. Unlike the other categories that have either direct or indirect references in existing leadership literature or at least to their component characteristics, the ideas expressed in constructive concerns was not encountered as readily.

In a search for literature that may assist in developing this concept, I first looked at the distributed leadership literature. This was because there are some aspects that resonate with elements that are found within the idea of distributed leadership (see Harris, 2006). The category of constructive concerns as I conceive it is related to an empowering

atmosphere that allows followers to be comfortable in their critical assessment of the methods in which a leader is pursuing an objective. In a search of the literature external to the field of educational research, I found works by Kelly (2008) that have elements in his discussion on followership that are similar. He writes about a 'constructive alternative' as one of the components of a star follower (Kelly, 2008, p.7). There is also a reference by Chaleff (2008) to 'constructively challenge,'

> We equip people with the mind-set and skills top energetically support positive leadership at all levels and to talk back constructively to these same leaders when necessary. (Chaleff, 2008, p.70).

These concepts are similar to what I had in mind. Constructive concerns presupposes that the follower agrees with the end objective or at least has confidence in the reasoned judgement of the leader that the end is worthwhile to pursue. At IST there was near unanimous support for the GTP but this was not blind followership. The overwhelming support revealed in the responses to the GELQ also came with a majority view that expressed their concerns.

To an extent there is a self-evident quality with my use of the phrase constructive concerns. A basic interpretation of the term, constructive, implies a positive tone. Whereas a basic interpretation of the term concerns captures the sentiment of apprehension or worries. Taken together they imply positive apprehension or worries which is less helpful than the phrase constructive concerns. Adding another layer of meaning framed within the context of the GTP at IST may make it more clear. At IST, concerns were expressed that revealed the staff's apprehensions with regards to the potential for the GTP to be seen as elitist or divisive. Some worried about the resources that may be redirected to the GTP and what other programs may be negatively impacted (for example, see comments from DOC section 4.15). But these comments were not made in isolation,

they were qualified statements made that confirmed support for the GTP. In other words, the statements were made with a genuine desire to be constructive.

In one sense, constructive concerns has similarity to the phrase constructive dialogue. Though this phrase has more negative connotations implying a search for compromise. The individuals that expressed the notion of constructive concerns were quite clear about their desire to support the GTP, it was not a sentiment expressing some middle ground. For example, in the GELQ section two in response to the question, do you support the gifted education program at your school? The respondent circled,

> 'b. Yes, with some concerns' (Teach Form, GELQ).

The respondent then wrote in the margin,

> I do support the program, but I have concerns it will be seen as elitist (Teacher form - GELQ).

Constructive concerns is, therefore, defined as a category that reflects concerns that have been communicated in a reasoned, mature, positive and supporting manner. It is not derogatory and it also reflects the importance of a follower. In the context of IST, it is a category that reflects both an individual's apprehension with a GTP and his/her support. This category highlights the tension between an individual's personal beliefs, their professional ethics and organizational demands. Tension between these, however, does not have to imply a negative relationship (Broidy and Jones, 1998).

In reflecting upon the contribution to research, it may be that this concept of constructive concerns is the most fruitful. It is not previously identified in literature, it arose without any preconceived expectations

and it highlights the significance of the responsibility of other staff in the leadership of a school.

5.15 Exogenous influences

Exogenous influences is a category that refers to both institutional and structural factors which influence ethical behaviour. The term exogenous refers to originating outside or external to a system or organism. Exogenous influences are therefore an influence upon the system or organism. The organism here is the individual educator. In other words, these are factors external to the individual but not necessarily to the school. These factors can be institutional and/or structural conditions. Among the possible institutional factors are: accreditation, local education authorities (LEA), and/or international organizations. Possible structural conditions are guiding and/or mission statements, parental influence, a school's board of governors, a school's owners and/or corporate sponsors. There is a sense here of the themes expressed by Gunter and Ribbins (2002) in writing about educational leadership research in general when the wrote,

> The scope of educational leadership is therefore wider than those who are formally designated leaders and so includes children and teachers, and reaches beyond the organization to include parents and the wider community (372).

Within the literature from education there are many references to institutional factors, Southworth and Lincoln (1999) writing about LEA' it definitely served its purpose and has helped us to develop as a learning organization (p.185). In a discussion on school improvement and the external influence from district advisers, Harris, A. (2002) writes, 'There is increasing evidence to suggest that the external agency provided by the district advisers is a crucial component of successful school improvement'

(p.11). Support for structural conditions, in particular the ideas associated with communicating a clear vision are well documented in the literature Hallinger et al (1996) state, 'A clear mission, in turn, influenced student opportunity to learn and teachers' expectations for student achievement' (p.543) (see also Mulford, 2001; Sammons, 2003). In the interviews, the KS5-C confirms that the mission statement may have had some role to play in the GTP. Likewise, the DDP cites the UN charter for the rights of the child as an influence.

5.2 Summary

In the preceding section each category found support to varying degrees from within the literature. The development of four of these categories was not too unexpected given their similarities to concepts in existing literature within education. Two categories that arose from the data, personal integrity and professional ethics are often grouped together within the literature. It was argued that they are distinct categories. The category called constructive concerns, however, emerged without preconceived notions. Support for this category in the existing literature was minimal.

5.3 How is moral leadership manifested through the provision of a GTP in a school?

In chapter three, I suggested that this thesis requires a degree of patience from the reader as multiple theories, sources of evidence and corresponding arguments are presented and developed. This section represents the various strands of this narrative brought together into a final cohesive argument to address the principal research question: How is moral leadership manifested through the provision of a GTP in a school?

This question is being answered in the context of an examination of a principal in an International School in Turkey and how he arrives at a decision when faced with the issue of providing a GTP. Provision of a GTP was defended as a moral issue and acted as the locus, the centre of activity, from which the manifestation of moral action from the school's leader could be examined.

At IST, the HOS journeyed through the four stages of Rest's (1982) FCM. In the first stage, recognition was brought about through a combination of personal beliefs and a desire to put those beliefs into action. This was called personal integrity. Closely related to this category was the belief in the profession of teaching and the desire to help all students, this was referred to as professional ethics. These two core categories form the foundation from which the moral process could advance and address the issue of the development of the GTP. It is evident from the data that the HOS and the SLT exhibit personal integrity. Each member of the SLT spoke of the personal importance they held to help all children develop into better human beings. Each spoke of their determination to do the right thing. Further, it is likewise evident from the data that the SLT have a passionate belief in the ethics of the teaching profession. Each member of the SLT spoke of their professional responsibility to provide and expand opportunities for all students. A part of the category of structural collaboration is a collegial atmosphere. At IST, this encouraged staff to emerge and draw the attention of a busy HOS, who arriving at a school that had gone through a difficult period would have been preoccupied with other priorities, to the GTP. The category exogenous influences, in this case the accreditation process that drew additional attention and recognition, to the moral issue of the GTP. In this case, the requirement of the CIS inspection to provide adequate service for students identified as gifted.

In stage 2, selecting what actions to take involved the categories structural collaboration and constructive concerns that assisted the HOS through

collaboration, community (Sergiovanni, 1993) and followership (Kelly, 2008). At IST, motivated staff put themselves forward to help develop a program while others committed to support the GTP in spite of their reservations. These two categories join together with the resources of exogenous influences to provide guidance, technical and logistical advice resulting in theoretical options to consider. At IST we see the benefit of external stakeholders providing their support to staff with the all embracing phrase, 'do what is best for the students' (HOS, Interview). Logistical and technical support from organizations such as DfES provided advice on how to manage a GTP and are integrated into the planning at IST. As a gatekeeper of change, the HOS's personal integrity and professional ethical beliefs agreed with the efforts of staff and the comments and resources from external stakeholders. Addressing his own concerns and those of his staff who were supportive but not complacent, allowed for the course of action to be decided upon.

Establishing intention, stage three, is primarily a reflective stage. Once a course of action is discussed and provided for, intention refocuses back to internal beliefs and sources of attribution from within oneself and the organization. Here the two categories of personal integrity and professional ethics rise again to the fore with both echoing themes similar to moral purpose (see Day, 1997, 2007; Fullan, 2002; Stager and Fullan, 1992). Within this reflective stage the MAM suggests that moral agent will review the severity of the act's consequences, the certainty that the act is moral or immoral, the complicity of the moral agent in the action and the pressure the actor feels to behave unethically. At IST, stage three appears to have occurred without much delay. The comments by the HOS that once this issue was recognised, he simply needed staff to volunteer and resources in place suggest the outcome was rarely in doubt.

Stage four is about implementation; it is here where theory ends and practice begins. In this stage of the moral process collaboration and community as found in the category of structural collaboration, join together with the

resources provided through exogenous influences, providing staffing, logistical and technical resources. These are guided by the professional desire to make a difference, a professional ethic. The results is the implementation of the moral act. At IST, the manifestation of that moral act, the moral leadership, was the evidence of the renewal of the GTP .

Understanding the process of a leader as he or she addresses a moral issue provides both insight and support for the concept of moral leadership. In the context of IST, moral leadership manifested itself through the support provided for the provision of a GTP. Combined the five categories work both intra-dependently and inter-dependently to reveal a moral process the HOS of IST underwent in addressing the provision of a GTP. It is through examining this moral process that one can see how the moral action came about; and it is through the actions of persons of moral integrity that we gain a glimpse, an instance, of an individual's moral disposition. This view is supported by Prust (1996) who wrote,

> when we accredit someone a person of integrity, we make a claim about how her actions and her commitments relate... we presume that whatever action of hers it takes integrity to do is moral action, and that, when we see integrity manifest in her actions, we can expect what she is doing to be moral (p.147).

From this examination of the moral process undertaken at IST, it can be stated that in addressing the issue of provision of a GTP, moral leadership manifested itself within this school. From recognizing the GTP as a moral issue, to deciding what action to take to address the GTP, to establishing intention, and then the final step of actual implementation, it is evident from the findings from this study that each of these categories had a role to play in the moral process undertaken by the HOS at IST.

5.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I examined each category and linked it to existing literature. I then, combined the FCM and MAM with these categories to produce an answer to the main research question. In the next chapter, I summarize the substantive, theoretical and methodical aims of this thesis. I review the research process that I undertook and provide suggestion for future researchers investigating moral leadership.

Chapter Six: Concluding Comments

6.0 Introduction

In this concluding chapter, I reflect upon the research process that led me to a response to the guiding research question. I then summarize the substantive findings and review the theoretical and methodological aims of this thesis. I discuss the limitations of this study and conclude with implications for leadership practice.

6.1 Reflections Upon the Research Process

My initial journey into the study of moral leadership was set against a backdrop of performativity (Day, 2004) and a 'results driven business' (Bush, 2015, p.12). It began rather naively as a search for a deeper understanding of leadership that better reflected the moral nature of a school. The introduction to moral leadership during my course modules was promising, but this promise soon collided with my interest in philosophy. In particular, I had questions with regards to the interpretations within the literature of the ethical aspects of moral leadership. Many of the characteristic that were claimed to represent moral leadership were emotive descriptions (Campbell, 1995) lacking direct connections to moral philosophy (Greenfield, 2004). This omission reduces the conception of moral leadership to a researcher's interpretation of what is moral. While these descriptions might be satisfactory to moral relativists, to those that view morality through a more universal conception this would be concerning. Moreover, results presented in the literature were frequently dependent upon self-reporting (by the principal) and/or reporting by others (staff). This raises the concern with regards to the desire to appear socially responsible i.e. social desirability bias (Kalton and Schulman, 1981; Neeley and Cronely, 2004).

Further, instruments often focused upon what one might do and not what

one has actually done (Ryan and Jones, 1997; Jewel, 2001). Moreover, once the moral act manifests, the observer must then be familiar with moral discourse to determine if what one is observing is in fact moral. Combined these fundamental and technical criticisms diminish the value of the concept of moral leadership and the integrity of the findings. As my readings intensified, it was evident that others shared my concerns (Campbell, 1995; Cuilla, 2003; Greenfield, 2004; Jewel, 2001).

It was through fortuitous timing in my readings of texts by Aristotle, Plato and literature by Liethwood (2007) that the idea of investigating moral action began to resonate with me. In particular the idea that virtue may be observed through virtuous acts (Cuilla, 2003). This is not a new revelation, rather it is a sentiment well developed in historical texts and in particular in the parable of the Good Samaritan in which the actions of the Samaritan defined his morality and not the piety of the priest that walked by the stricken traveler.

With this in mind, I began to consider what school-based moral issue could serve as a focus to observe how it was addressed by a school leader. Through my background in providing workshops and seminars on the topic of gifted education, I was aware of the political divisive nature of this topic. A search of the gifted and talented literature led me to realize that underprovision was far more widespread than I had at first realized. This was supported by my own survey of 32 International Schools across Europe. A key question at this stage, however, was whether or not provision of a GTP was really a moral issue? A deep search of literature on GT and special needs provided some answers, but I required a process in order to assist me to minimize my own bias and to derive an answer. It was through my readings of Lavine (1989) that I came across the idea of the Helgel's dialectics. Using my interpretation of the notions of 'conscious reflection' and the process of 'opposing sides' (Kosok, 1972, p.238), I developed arguments which satisfied me that provision of a GTP is a moral issue. Finding a suitable site that met the criterion of a GTP was complicated by the underprovision noted earlier.

Though I was confident that a school who took the trouble to put in place a GTP might also be a good site from which to examine moral leadership, I was quite prepared for that not to be the case. From a practical perspective, the consequence would have been the selection of a new moral issue to serve as a focus of this thesis. In general, the theoretical aims and methodological process utilized in this thesis would have remained the same. Once a site was found, however, the next challenge lay in determining how to investigate moral leadership. A search of the literature revealed case study as the main research design and interviews, questionnaires, observations and document analysis were the principal methods. The challenge then became to gain a better understanding of the meaning of the words moral and leadership. This led to a search of literature and texts related leadership, organizational theory, moral philosophy and moral psychology. During this search, I came across references to moral decision making. I had some familiarity already due to my earlier investigation of cognitive moral development as presented by Kolberg. In my review on Kolhberg, I came across the FCM by Rest (1982) and MAM by Ryan and Jones (1997). These two would both provide additional information on understanding the moral decision making process. Combined with the literature on moral leadership, a path forward on how to examine moral action developed. Putting these various strands together led to the model that I used to investigate the GTP, the moral issue, at IST. I began to develop the various instruments that I would use. I spent a considerable time reviewing questionnaire development and interview techniques. This led to a major concern and that was the issue of social desirability bias. The desire to be seen as social responsible was a criticism of mine with regards to the self-reporting or reporting by others used in extant literature on moral leadership. Further readings led me to adjust both the way questions were phrased and the technique I would use. The result was a more structured interview and careful use of question technique that avoided leading the respondent in a predetermined manner. I used rephrasing and repetition to provide time for the interviewee to reflect upon their response. The result

was that the majority of interviewees provided emotional responses that reflected deeper views with regards to their personal and professional ethical beliefs. Though I went into the interviews familiar with the leadership literature and the major works in moral philosophy, I did not have any predetermined categories in mind. I did not realise the five categories that would emerge nor did I have a sense for how each category would interact and be accountable to each of the four steps in the FCM. These results did not materialise until the data was transcribed and then coded. Although the interpretation of the moral dimension of the responses was added post hoc in the analysis stage, I was careful to ensure that my interpretation reflected what was provided to me in the interviews and substantiated through the other methods used. I have been careful to note that the results are contextual as they reflect a specific individual and his SLT, a specific school and school organizational structure. Having said this, the five categories developed seemed to fit with quite naturally within the FCM and MAM and in terms of explaining the moral leadership at IST. This result should not be too surprising, however, as four of the five categories are consistent with extant literature.

6.2 Substantive findings

In examining the leadership of IST as it responds to the provision of a GTP, this thesis produced five categories which are suggested as having a key role in the moral decision making process undertaken by the school's leader in addressing this moral issue. Four of these categories are related to existing conceptions as found in the literature on leadership in education: personal integrity, professional ethics, structural collaboration and exogenous influences. In the literature, however, personal integrity and professional ethics are often bundled together with personal values/beliefs and professional values/beliefs. In this thesis, the two are seen as similar but distinct categories (Begley, 2005). The fifth category constructive concerns is

a unique concept that arose from the data with no direct reference found within the literature.

In addition to the above five categories, a moral decision making process of a school leader was advanced in this thesis. This moral process was based upon Rest's (1982) Four Component Model and Ryans and Jone's (1997) Moral Attribution Model. The manifestation of moral leadership at IST journeyed through each of the four components. In the first stage is recognition of the GTP as a moral issue. In the second stage was the selection of what actions to undertake to address this issue. Establishing the intention to carry out the action occurs in stage three. The praxis stage, the bridge from theory to practice (Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2011), occurred in stage four implementation of the moral action.

6.3 Theoretical Aims

The theoretical objective was to search for support for the notion of moral leadership. This objective began by reducing the phrase moral leadership into its component parts, *moral* and *leadership*. To increase my understanding of the term moral, I began an extensive examination of material from both moral philosophy and moral psychology. The review of this material was both expository and not critical. Gaining a clearer understanding of leadership, required an review of leadership literature both within and external to education and included an examination of its historical antecedents. The result was that I was able to address the second theoretical aim, the desire to find support for moral leadership as a foundational characteristic unifying leadership theories.

6.4 Methodological Aims

The methodological aim of this study was to advance a framework for

studying moral leadership that was based upon the notion of an examination of school leader and his or her response to a school-based moral issue. The framework that arose incorporated a model of the moral process that provided specific sign posts, stages, that allow for the examination of the factors that impact the moral decision making a school leader undergoes in addressing a moral issue. The inductive multi-discipline approach taken in this study may serve as a guide for research in developing arguments based upon empirical case study evidence of moral issues confronted by school leaders.

6.5 Limitations

The limitations discussed here are presented with the general understanding that there was a rigorous attempt to achieve trustworthiness. In this regard, I can confidently state that I conducted the research process and analysis, truthfully and with transparency of process in an attempt to achieve credibility (Bryman, 2012) and coherence of argument (Eisner, 1998). Dependability was sought through rigour in the analysis and detailed preparation of the instruments used (for example, see appendix 3.1). I attempted to achieve confirmability through openness (Krefting, 1991) and conscious reflection (Kosok, 1972). I identified my value stance in terms of the research process and philosophical disposition. I disclosed any potential conflicts and/or biases (Krefting, 1991).

The first limitation was the sample size which was limited due to the demand to find a GTP. The result was that the findings represent one unique case. If one considers IST a critical case, then the findings may have more utility. An additional site would have allowed for comparisons between sites and a test of the categories generated from the first site. Further, it would enable generalizations of the findings to other contexts (Bryman, 2012). Despite the use of multiple data generating methods and robust preparation in developing the interview protocol and GELQ questionnaire, there was no

intention to generalise the findings.

The second limitation was the use of theories from moral philosophy and concepts moral psychology. While I was careful to note that these were being used in a expository manner and not intentionally critical, it is possible that I have misinterpreted the philosophical implications. Further, it is possible that I have misinterpreted Rest's (1982) FCM or the MAM by Ryan and Jones (1997).

6.6 Implications for Leadership Practices

The practical utility from this study is twofold. The first is that it provides a case study of a school addressing a moral issue. Researchers have suggested that there is a need for moral case studies that can assist school leaders when confronted with similar situations (Campbell, 1995; Greenfield, 2004; Ribbins, 2005; Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2011).

The second implication arose as I was discussing Component I, recognition of the moral issue. I had noted that if the HOS was not sensitive to another's needs or is not sensitized to the issue, the greater the ambiguity and the less likely the HOS is to recognise the moral issue. In this statement, the question of sensitivity to an issue can be addressed through moral education. Further, training and being sensitive to various issues has the potential of increasing an ethical response (Rest, 1982). In a discussion on the benefits of values education, Rest (1982) writes,

> these findings tell us something about moral judgement: it is not a matter of learning a special terminology, or of mastering certain tricks of argument, or of being able to drop the names of moral philosophers; rather, moral judgement reflects some more basic natural growth. The amount of change brought about by ethics courses is apparently less than the total effect of a college education.... Nevertheless, the success of some courses gives us an opportunity to investigate further the conditions and elements that

> may promote better scientific knowledge and develop more effective programs (p.33).

By advancing notions of the moral decision making process in the context of leadership practice, this study encourages policy makers, international, state and local authorities to consider the importance of values education for existing SLT and teaching staff. With acknowledgment to the contextual nature of each school, as the number of moral case studies are developed and subsequently analyzed, the better equipped leaders will be when confronting similar issues. As Gunter and Ribbins (2002) noted, 'By knowing more, better and differently about educational leadership we can make informed choices about teaching and leading' (p. 372). In discussing the importance of moving from theory to practice, Shaprio (2006) commented on the utility of analyzing school-based moral issues in order to improve decision making,

> The merging of theory with practice is quite a balancing act. The use of ethical dilemmas is one way to accomplish that balance. Hopefully, by using authentic teaching materials combined with paradigms and concepts, theory and practice can be beneficial and help to remove educational administration programs from the charge of being Ivory Towers. It should also assist in making them into learning communities that are relevant, critical and thought-provoking. In addition, it should foster moral decision making, and hopefully, in so doing, help to develop authentic and inspiring educational leaders for the future (p.7)

It is hoped that what has been developed in this thesis answered the call from researchers for examples of leaders facing moral issues (Campbell, 1995; Greenfield, 2004; Ribbins, 2005; Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2011).

6.7 Implications for future research

The following are suggestions that may assist future researchers investigating moral leadership. The first is that researchers should situate moral commentary within an appropriate theoretical paradigm from moral

philosophy (Campbell, 2003; Ciulla, 2003; Hodgkinson, 1976). This allows the discussion to move away from the potential of vulgar relativism to a structured and reasoned discussion of morality constructed of arguments based on the language of ethics.

Second, consider incorporating perspectives and instruments, from moral psychology and the subcategory called moral reasoning. These perspectives and instruments have undergone extensive peer review and may enhance validity and reliability. Further, perspectives from moral reasoning increase the potential for conceptual clarity (Hodgkinson, 1976).

Third, researchers should consider incorporating perspectives and instruments from leadership studies' outside of the field education.

Fourth, and most distinctively, researchers should consider identifying a moral criterion as a focus from which the actions of a school's leader can be observed (Campbell, 2008; Rest, 1974; Sockett and Lepage, 2002). The moral criterion could be any school-based moral issue. To avoid the trap of vulgar relativism, the moral issue must be established through use of reasoned argument as a moral issue. Establishing a moral issue is a challenging undertaking, yet if moral leadership research is to move beyond panegyric writing a moral issue observed must be defended as in fact, a moral issue. I suggest the use of a dialectic mode for reasoning in order to argue for the inclusion of a proposed moral issue. This idea is inspired by an interpretation of the Hegelian triadic dialectic model: thesis, arguments in favour; the antithesis, arguments against; synthesis, a resolution of the opposing arguments. The intended outcome is a practical process designed to mitigate, though it does not eliminate, personal bias.

6.8 Concluding Comments

Evidence of moral action in leadership can be found throughout history from the Sumerian story of the Epic of Gilgamesh to the transformational theory presented 4,000 years later in the works of Burns (1978). Over the past thirty years there has been a growing body of literature within the field of education focused upon moral leadership (Schrag, 1979, Hodgkins, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1992; Fullan, 2002; Greenfield, 2004; Pijanowski, 2007, Rowold, 2008). This reaction may be in response to rising global competition that has led governments to press schools for greater efficiencies and outcomes considered more effective (Leithwood, 2005). The consequences of this accountability culture have placed increasing demands on administrators and teachers, which in turn have increased levels of stresses with consequences for school climate and on school wide morale (Day, 2003a; Mulford, 2005; Mulford and Moreno, 2006). The culmination of these concerns has led some researchers to view recent policies in some countries as a government attempt to reorient 'the strong liberal-humanist traditions of schools' towards a narrowly focused functionalist view of education (Day, 2005, p.394). While some may consider this view overstated, at least it can be said that the opaque nature of the interventions has made leading a school more 'complex and uncertain' (Leithwood, 2005, p.440). If there is a positive outcome from these interventions, however, it has been to focus attention of researchers on the characteristics and behaviours associated with moral leadership (Day, 2003a).

As Aristotle famously noted, humans are social beings; humans, therefore, are moral beings. Moral interactions are the roots of our humanity; they influence our relationships and they define our existence. Leadership is a moral act (Cuilla, 2003); it influences relationships and it is defined by its actions. Results from this thesis suggest that at IST, the decision to make provision for a GTP was a good example of moral leadership in action. As the impassioned responses during the interviews suggest, the senior leadership

team at IST recognises their important social responsibility. In this, the SLT has declared what Dewey (1916) likewise expressed as the vital role of education as a fundamental obligation of every society.

> Society exists through a process of transmission quite as much as biological life. This transmission occurs by means of communication of habits of doing, thinking and feeling from the older to the younger. Without the communication of ideals, passing out of the group life to those who are coming into it, social life could not survive (p.9).

The good habits of doing, thinking and feeling were on display at IST and for this I am grateful to have shared a brief moment with this school.

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Appendices

Appendix 1.1. Gentry's (2009) description of a comprehensive continuum of gifted education and talent development services: High School

	Characteristics	Check	Observation/Notes
1	General Classroom Enrichment	x	Some, left to teacher to undertake
2	Discovery, Inquiry, Problem-Based Learning	x	Expected of teachers to implement
3	Academies of Inquiry		
4	Differentiation	x	Some, left to teacher to undertake
5	Individual and Small Group Counselling		
6	Social, Emotional, Physical Health	x	SEN in charge
7	Career and Educational Counseling	x	
8	Integrated Technology, Career and Technical Education Courses	x	Full ITC programs
9	Multicultural/Foreign Language	x	Arabic, French, English, Spanish, Korean, Mandarin
10	Independent Study in Interest Area	x	Friday afternoons set aside
11	Arts Enrichment		
12	Curriculum Compacting	x	Some, left to teacher to undertake
13	Type III: Advanced Product/Service in Interest Area		
14	Honours Courses		
15	Advanced Placement Courses	NA	
16	Advanced Options in Leadership, Music, Visual, and Performing Arts		
17	Self-Designed Courses, Advanced Independent Study		
18	International Baccalaureate, Advanced Academies	x	IB
19	Magnet Schools, Special Schools	NA	
20	Individual Options: Internships, Apprenticeships, Mentorships, IEP, Dual Exceptionalities	x	mentorships with external firms
21	Acceleration Options: Subject Acceleration, Telescoping, Dual Enrolment in College Classes, Credit by Exam, Early College Entry	x	occasional
22	Special Talent Programs: Young Writers, Saturday and Summer Programs, Future Problem Solving, Math Olympiad, Science Olympiad, Math Leagues, Science Fairs, Talent Searches, Odyssey of the Mind, History Day, Geography Bee, First Robotics, Science Searches, Rube Goldberg Engineering, Lego League, Destination Imagination, Invention Convention, Youth in Government, Close up, Governors' Schools and Academies, and so on		
	Source: Adapted, updated, and expanded from Renzulli (1994). a. Services for all young people are highlighted in gray, and these options do not constitute gifted services but do set the stage for discovery and development of talent in more youth and children.		

Appendix 1.2 Results from a multi-country survey of International Schools in Europe.

This thesis presents an examination of the moral process as revealed through a focus on a moral issue identified as a provision of a GTP. To achieve this objective the initial task of this study was to identify schools with programs or in the process of developing a full program for the gifted. For this thesis, only schools with full programs or in the process of developing a full program were sought. The primary reason is the view that a full program requires a deeper commitment, encouragement and involvement from school leaders. Further, a full program requires whole school participation from external stake holders, senior leadership team, teachers and parents.

An unexpected outcome of the process of searching for a research site that met this criteria was comments and e-mails that supported the contention that programs for the gifted are underprovided and that misunderstandings of the needs of student considered gifted is also apparent within a number of International Schools. This is an important point as it supports the suggestion made in this thesis that there is negligible external pressure for school leaders at to pursue a program for the gifted.

The survey was conducted between May and November 2010. Among the 32 International Schools contacted, representatives from 12 schools claimed to have a gifted program. Follow up on these schools revealed that the claims were exaggerated or in accurate. Two of these schools offered a pull-out program in math. Of these two, one school limited service to just grade nine students. In the other school, it was open to all math students. The third school offered an after school science program called, Odyssey of the Mind. A review of the literature related to the gifted reveals that these services are inadequate (see Gentry, 2009).

Of the remaining nine schools who said yes, each of these stated that they either offer AP or IB programs and consider this sufficient provision52. This view can be summarized by the following emailed comment received from an established principal. It should be noted that this principal is an editorial board member of an education journal and a founding member of the Council of International Schools, one of the main accreditation bodies for international schools. He wrote,

> *We don't provide assistance to gifted students in the delineated, programmatic sense in which you ask the question. Our students go on to sit the IB Diploma, which caters for the highest ability levels, but we don't make formal provision for individuals or groups beyond high quality teaching, small classes, etc.* (Head of a European International School, May 2010, italics in the original).

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52 These 12 schools were therefore rejected as a potential site for this project. See chapter three for complete details on site selection.

Further, some of the responses received were abrupt. A well established International School in the UK stated that they offered a program for the gifted. During the follow up, when asked for a copy of the school's policy statement for the gifted, the reply received simply read 'Google advance placement.'

The results from the telephone survey were surprising. Many of these schools are private institutions53, monetary constraints are not a significant factor when compared to the financial limitations of many state funded schools. Further, the constituents of these schools are primarily middle class to the ultra affluent, financial resources are usually not a significant concern.

In addition to the telephone survey, in May of 2012, I extended my search to include public schools in Switzerland. The following is a response I received regarding the state of gifted education in Swiss public schools.

> In Switzerland, no public school propose courses specific for gifted children. There exists sometimes arrangements in certain public schools, but no real programs (Co-présidente ASEP, translated from Suisse French/Romand).

The accuracy of this emailed comment is suspected. A paper published in 2012 by Myers, discusses two public schools in a German speaking canton that claim to have programs. Multiple requests to gain access to these school was unsuccessful, therefore, it could not be confirmed.

Table 1.1 Appendix. Results from the multi-country telephone survey of International Schools.

Total number of International Schools Contacted	International Schools that stated they provided a gifted program but provided simplistic services	International Schools that stated they provided a gifted program but provide only the IB	International Schools that stated they do not provide a gifted program	International Schools that stated they do provide a gifted program but denied access or follow up	Swiss Publics Schools with gifted programs
32	3	9	18	2	0[54]

53 Some are public private combinations, for example the International School of DeHague.
[54] This number is suspected.

Appendix 1.3. A review of literature in support of the underprovision of gifted education programs around the world.

In this thesis, it is argued that one potential influence for the lack of moral approbation is due to the significant underprovision of programs and services for gifted students that is evident across countries throughout the world. This view was developed after a review of literature on the state of gifted education programmes. As the literature in some of the countries identified is limited, an assumption is made that the information is an accurate representation. It should be noted that current published information was minimal, therefore, the reader should take note of the date from which the reference was taken.

In the US, the underprovision of GTP has been a consistent theme specifically referenced in the literature as early as the 1960s. Passow (1960) wrote, 'there are serious inadequacies in the educational provisions for the gifted' (p. 142); the Marland Report (ref 1971), noted that 'existing services for the gifted serve only a small percentage' (p. 10); National Excellence: A Case for Developing America's Talent (1993) refers to progress since the Marland report, but notes the lack of substantive programming as part of 'the quiet crisis' in education (p. 5). In 2004, the University of Iowa released one of the largest studies conducted on gifted education in the US. The document was entitled, 'A Nation Deceived: How Schools Hold Back America's Brightest' (Colangelo, Assouline, and Gross, 2004). Once again the research confirmed that US schools were not living up to the requirements and expectations of providing adequate services for the gifted. More recently, Jolly (2009) in a reference to the setbacks since the 2001 No Child Left Behind Act, states 'many gifted children continue not to receive appropriate educational experiences' (p.49).

This pattern of underprovision is similar, if not worse, in many countries around the world. In the UK, the Ofsted Standards and Quality report of 2002/2003 stated that, 'consistently high quality provision across subjects for

gifted and talented pupils remains the exception rather than the rule' (p.4). A decade later in 2013, another Ofsted report noted that,

> Too many non-selective schools are failing to nurture scholastic excellence. While the best of these schools provide excellent opportunities, many of our most able students receive mediocre provision. Put simply, they are not doing well enough because their secondary schools fail to challenge and support them sufficiently from the beginning. In too many lessons observed by inspectors, teaching is not supporting our highest attaining students to do well. We know from our inspections that this is particularly the case in mixed ability groups. This survey suggests that few checks are made on whether mixed ability teaching helps the most able to achieve their potential. (p.5).

In Denmark, there are no official programmes for the gifted (Reid and Boettger, 2015). Finland does not provide programs because of the official view that their regular curriculum can satisfy all learners. There is no specific mention of gifted learners in legislation (2015). In a summary of their review of GTP in Europe, Reid and Boettger state that they believe that most GT are targeted at ambitious and high achieving individuals who represent the 'ti of the iceberg' yet the 'vast majority of gifted are hidden from view' (2015, p.168). Among the northern European countries, the Netherlands seems further ahead than other countries with advocacy and training, a range of identification procedures, but widespread accommodation is still developing (Hoogeveen, 2013).

In Austria, Switzerland and Germany, each have legislation, but actual provision remains difficult to ascertain. As noted in chapter one, a request to the head of the gifted Association of Switzerland in 2012 could not name one school that provided a gifted program. This may be a reflection of what Reid and Boettger (2015) noted three years later that there is an aversion to the concept of giftedness among German speaking countries as a result of historical issues.

In Eastern Europe, the Czech Republic does not appear to have advanced their development of GTP. In 2008, a school inspection report noted a lack of provision of programs for gifted students (2015). Next door in Slovakia, the situation is better. It opened its first school for the gifted in 1998. In 2008, legislation considered gifted students as special needs students requiring accommodation, but widespread provision has still not been achieved (2015). Hungary, seems to be one of the more advanced nations in Europe in regards to GTP development. In addition to legislation, there is a plan to have a gifted education specialist in each school acting as a coordinator (2015).

Romania, recognised gifted education in legislation in place in 1995 at the k-12 level plus universities. A publication in the year 2000 noted that 'its implementation is often missing' (Persson et al, 2000, p.708). An article in ECHA 2007 newsletter noted, a new law that passed in 2007. Yet there was no indication on the status of actual provision. A recent online article quoted the president of the Gifted Education Centre of Romania as stating,

> eight years have passed since National Law no.17/2007 for Gifted Children in Romania was issued and yet, the context has not been created at this point to implement differentiated educational policies for this category (2015, para.6).

In Greece, there are no specific programs or educational structures for the provision of the gifted (Gari, Kalantzi-Azizi and Myonas, 2000; Georgas et al, 2004). In Russia, there are variety of regional programmes for the gifted with most focused on academically successful students, winners of competitions, and Olympiads (Scheblanova, E. and Shumakova, N. 2007).

In the Mideast, basic schooling issues such as unqualified teachers still dominate and have prevented the establishment of gifted education programs. Though gifted education is not completely absent. Countries such as Jordan opened its first school for the gifted in 1991. Qatar established a centre for gifted education in 1999.These two plus Bahrain, Iraq (prewar),

and Kuwait offer a variety of accommodations from pullout to acceleration (Subhi-Yamin, 2009).

In South Africa has a history of provision for gifted students beginning as early as 1967. However, the post apartheid period has seen a number of provisions decline and the closing down of centres for gifted students. Current documentations on special education needs makes no reference to gifted learners (Van der Westhuizen, 2009). In the rest of sub Saharan Africa, given the state of general education few countries in concern themselves with gifted education. Similarly, South America has made some progress but remains 'unquestionably challenging' due to limited resources (Soriano de Alencar, 2009). The results from South East Asia show concerted efforts being made in some countries such as Singapore, Korea (Choi and Hon, 2009) and Taiwan. Though even in these countries special programs are reaching a minority of the student population. For example, Taiwan of which detailed numbers on the state of gifted education is available show that despite over thirty years of gifted education programming, coverage is limited to 1/8th of the total schools (Phillipson et al, 2009). As can be seen from this review, even in countries with legislation, commitment, and training, underprovision is still an issue.

Appendix 3.1: Question and Rationale Summary for the Head of School Interview

The following is a list of questions that were used in the interview process. Each question is followed by a brief examination/analysis of the question.

Preamble

What we are trying to determine is the link between school leaders and the provision of an effective gifted education. An effective gifted education is defined in the literature, however, part of this project is to examine your interpretation/ your beliefs.

With this in mind, the first question is:

Rationale

The preamble is designed to focus the attention of the interviewee on the topic. Further, it is an attempt to provide clarity and precision in order to minimize respondent confusion (Kalton, 1982, Wikman, 2006).

Interview Questions: Internal Factors

1. How do you conceptualize an effective education for the gifted? (emphasis on effective).
    a. Hints/Prompt: Is there any model that you follow? Y / N
        i. If Yes, which model? (prompt, SWM or DMGT or custom)
        ii. Why this particular approach? (alternate phrasing: What was the appeal of this approach)
        iii. Does your conception match the reality of what your school provides? Y / N. Could you please elaborate?
        iv. Would you consider your model a program or series of services?

            (Based on response and using Gentry's description indicate if I reach the same conclusion. After this question, use terminology that was provided by interviewee, for example, program or service).

    Rationale

    1. type of question
    primarily non-factual (opinion) open ended with some prompts, two small parts closed ended

    2. order of question
    This is the first question which will establish an understanding of each interviewee's perspective on effective gifted education. (According to Kalton (1982) important questions should be near the beginning).

    3. **purpose of question or how does question relate to the research**

question Given the multitude of definitions, models and conceptions, this question seeks to avoid assumptions and establish each interviewee's perspective. For example, one school might consider an effective GT education as a series of basic services, whereas others might believe similar services constitute a full program. It is expected that the interviewee will offer insight into his/her internal state/motivation

2. What internal factors instigated the development of an education for the gifted in your school?
    a. Internal factors here are defined as (circle one, note the terminology used):
        i. school vision,
        ii. parents requests,
        iii. teacher requests,
        iv. board request,
        v. personal choice (circle one)
            1. If personal, explore the possible motivations, a child, a relative, a friend, personnel philosophy. Identify if other.
            2. Does Principal express a utilitarian or an egalitarian view? Note phrases or words used.

Rationale

9. type of question

the first part is open, the second is partially closed but with some prompts

10. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**

This question is related to the underlying impetus to the research question. This motivation is to try and identify possible reasons why some schools provide an education for the gifted. From this information perhaps some suggestions/clues can be found that address the issue of under provision of education for the gifted. The question attempts to examine school based factors that he or she believes were significant.

3. Can you describe the process you undertook to move from policy to implementation?

Rationale

11. type of question

open

12. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**

This is primarily a practical question attempting to discover the processes undertaken by the interviewee.

4. What obstacles, if any, did you experience in the development of your GT

programs?
Please describe them (circle one).

a. Staff
    i. SMT, HOD, SEN, other
b. parents,
c. board,
d. other(s) note information
    i. Follow-up question, if not provided above: How did you address these obstacles?

Rationale

13. type of question
14. open though with some prompts
15. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**
    Question 4 and follow up– This/these question(s) is/are designed to identify potential problems but also highlights how the interviewee overcame these obstacles. How the interviewee overcame the obstacles may provide further clues to his or her internal state.

5. What internal factors contributed to the development of your GT programs?
Please describe them (circle one).

a. staff
    i. SMT, HOD, SEN, other
b. parents,
c. board,
d. other(s) note information

Rationale

16. type of question
    open though the second part has some prompts

17. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**
    This question is designed to identify people, events, materials that contributed positively to the development of the program.

6. Most principals of schools are very busy, would you consider that the case with you? Y / N
    a. If that is the case, why do you bother to provide the program for the gifted?

Rationale

18. type of question
    the first part is closed, the second is open

19. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**
This question is designed as a check for consistency, but also to probe more explicitly the link between provision of education for the gifted and the leaders' internal motivation. It is very similar to part a subsection v. The order is intentional. It allows a discussion to occur and time for reflection which should assist recall and allow for a more nuanced/precise response.

7. How would you characterize the level of knowledge of your staff with respects to the issue of gifted students?

Rationale

20. type of question
combination of open

21. **purpose of question how does the question relate to the research question**
This question is an attempt to ascertain the perception the head has of his staff's capability in the issue of gifted education. This will be compared with a survey that staff will complete. The information can assist in understanding the conditions that lead to 'buy-in' by staff. 'Buy –in' is an essential feature of reform programs (Harris,?).

8. What internal factors determine the sustainability of policy of gifted education in your school?
    a. Do you experience obstacles in sustaining the gifted education?
        Y / N
        i. If so, please describe them.
        ii. staff
            1. SMT, HOD, SEN, other
        iii. parents,
        iv. board,
        v. other(s) note information

Rationale

22. type of question
open though the second part has some prompts

23. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**
This is questions is similar to question 2, except that the focus is on sustainability. It is appropriate for interviewee's where the programs were established by a predecessor. In addition, how the interviewee sustains the program may provide clues to his or her internal motivation/state.

9. How would you describe your style of leadership? (listen for key words

phrases such as vision, personal belief).

Rationale

24. type of question

open

25. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**

This question is designed to examine the internal motivation/state of the interviewee.

Interview Questions: External Factors

10. What external factors determined the development of gifted education in your school?
    a. External factors here are defined as (circle one, note the terminology used):
        i. Accreditation
            1. If so, list body.
        ii. State Regulations,
        iii. State requests,
        iv. Corporate requests,
        v. Business Decision (Marketing)
        vi. Funding
        vii. Other(s)

Rationale

26. type of question

the first part is open, the second is partially closed but with some prompts

27. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**

This question is designed to identify people, events, materials that contributed to the development of the program.

11. What external factors, if any, were obstacles to the development of a GT programs?

Rationale

28. type of question

the first part is open with some prompts

29. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**

Trying to identify potential obstacles estion is similar to question one except the focus is on potential circumstances that are external to the school.

12. What external factors determine the sustainability of policy of gifted education in a school?

    a. Do these external factors create any obstacles in sustaining of a GT programs?

Rationale

30. type of question
the first part is open with some prompts

31. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**
This question is similar to question one except the focus in on potential circumstances that are external to the school.

13. Is it expensive to run a program for the gifted? Y / N

Rationale

32. type of question
closed factual question

33. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**
This question is focused on a common objection found in the literature. It should also reveal the leaders knowledge of the GT, but also his provided further evidence of his internal motivation.

General Questions

Rationale

34. type of question
the first part is open, the second is partially closed but with some prompts

35. **purpose of question how does question relate to the research question**
The following are primarily factual closed questions designed to examine other possible influences on the development of an education for the gifted and its link to school leaders

.

36. How are specific regulations enforced?
    1. Is this enforcement effective?

37. How are accreditation standards enforced?
    1. Is this enforcement effective?

Personal Information

38. Number of years in education?
    1. How many in state schools?
    2. How many in Private Schools?
    3. How many in International schools?

39. Number of years as Principal?

40. Did any of your past schools provide for GT?
    1. If so, please describe them.

41. Age Range (circle one)
    1. 25-35
    2. 36-45
    3. 46-55
    4. 56-65
42. Gender M / F (circle one)

School Information

43. How is the school funded?
44. Why was it founded?
45. Number of students?
46. Number of staff?
47. How old is the school?

General Information

Do you know of other schools, international or otherwise that provide an education for the gifted? Y / N (circle)

If so, please write/who/where?

Appendix 3.2 GELQ: Senior Leadership Team

Senior Leadership Team Form

GELQ
Gifted Education Leadership Questionnaire

(Form SMT-version 001)

Produced by Ferenc Nemeth, Doctoral Candidate, Faculty of Education

Nottingham University, UK

Gifted Education Leadership Questionnaire
Senior Leadership Team Form

Your Principal's Name: _____Date:_____

Your Organization's Name:_____
Your Position: _____

Questionnaire Purpose
This questionnaire was designed to ascertain the opinions of the Senior Management Team on a variety of issues related to the education of the gifted student. Further, it examines these issues in connection with their school's leadership.

Confidentiality
The questionnaire is anonymous and results will be provided to the staff at a later date.

Use of Data
It is understood that by completing this questionnaire you are giving your consent to allow this data to be collected, analyzed and published.

Questionnaire Instructions
Please note that there are three sections. Each section has a specific method for indicating your response. Answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, leave the answer blank. Feel free to use the last page or back side of the questionnaire to note any concerns or to provide further information.

Questions and/or concerns
If you have any queries about this questionnaire, please contact Ferenc Nemeth at ttxfn2@nottingham.co.uk.

Thank you for your participation.

Section One: Gifted Education : Your School's Program

Instructions: Please circle the response most applicable to your personal experience.

1. From the following list, please select the individual(s) responsible for **instigating** your school's gifted program. (Circle more than one if applicable)

    a. Principal
    b. Vice Principal
    c. Head of Department (Please identify which department)_____
    d. Learning Support Teacher(s)
    e. Classroom Teacher(s)
    f. Parent(s)
    g. Board Member(s)

h. Other_____
i. I was not present.

2. From the following list, please select the individual(s) responsible for **sustaining** your school's gifted program. (Circle more than one if applicable)

a. Principal
b. Vice Principal
c. Head of Department (Please identify which department)_____
d. Learning Support Teacher(s)
e. Classroom Teacher(s)
f. Parent(s)
g. Board Member(s)
h. Other_____
i. I do not know.

3. Initially, did you support the giftedness initiative at your school?

a. Yes, without concern. (proceed to Section Two)
b. Yes, with some concerns.
c. No.
d. I was not present. (proceed to Section Two)

3.1 This is a follow up question if you circled either **b or c** in question 3 above. Please circle your concern(s).

i. I did not agree with the philosophy of providing assistance to gifted students.
ii. I believed we already provided sufficient assistance to gifted students.
iii. I did not believe in the existence of a gifted student.
iv. Other, please explain_____

4. Do you permit:

a. whole grade acceleration Yes / No
b. multiple grade acceleration Yes / No
c. subject grade acceleration Yes / No

Please elaborate: _____

5. Do you encourage participation in external competitions? Yes / No

Comment: _____

6. Do you provide student mentoring? (Older student working with a younger but highly able student) Yes / No

Comment: _____

Section Two: Gifted Education: Your Personal View

Instructions: Please circle the response most applicable to your personal experience.

1. Did you receive any professional development related to giftedness in preparation for the implementation of your school's gifted program? Yes / No / Don't Know

2. Do you currently receive any professional development related to giftedness to assist you in the continued support of the gifted program? Yes / No / Don't Know

3. Do you currently support the giftedness program at your school?

   a. Yes, without concern. (proceed to Section Three)
   b. Yes, with some concerns
   c. No.

   3.1 This is a follow up question if you circled either b or c in question 3 above. Please circle your concern(s).

   i. I do not agree with the philosophy of providing assistance to gifted students.
   ii. I believe we already provide sufficient assistance to gifted students.
   iii. I do not believe in the existence of a gifted student.
   iv. Other, please explain_____

Section Three: What is your understanding of giftedness?

Instructions

Please respond to each statement in this section. If a statement is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

Use the following rating scale:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
SA	A	U	D	SD

1. There is an accepted definition of giftedness by the

	community of gifted education researchers.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
2.	All children are gifted.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
3.	All children should be treated equally in the classroom.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
4.	Identification of a gifted student should be based primarily on an intelligence test.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
5.	The identification procedure of a gifted student should assess non-intellectual factors such as creativity and/or leadership as well as academic performance.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
6.	Parents are good at identifying their child's giftedness.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
7.	Students identified as gifted will take care of themselves.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
8.	Differentiation in the regular classroom is sufficient for most gifted students.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
9.	As a classroom teacher, I have the skill to differentiate adequately.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
10.	As a classroom teacher, I have the necessary resources to differentiate adequately.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
11.	As a classroom teacher, I have the time to differentiate adequately.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
12.	Assignments provided in my classroom are based on each student's learning needs.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
13.	I compact the curriculum for my gifted students.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
14.	I have nominated my students for acceleration.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
15.	Acceleration is socially harmful for gifted students.	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**

In the space below, feel free to write any additional comments.

Thank you again for your participation!

Appendix 3.3: Observations

Informal Observations

At the time I carried out the research, there were 41 teaching staff with 9 absent due to illness or school trips. The pleasant surroundings were complimented by the teaching, administrative, cleaning and kitchen staff. A consistent theme during my visit was the friendly and welcoming nature of the people I met. At all times, the teachers I met were very receptive of my presence. As staff, students and parents were warned of my pending visit, a number of teachers came up and introduced themselves to me. As I poked my head into the various classrooms, I was greeted quite warmly. At the workshop on gifted education that I delivered, teachers appeared to be engaged in the topic and asked many questions. It was evident that a number of the teachers were well informed on the topic of gifted education. At the lunches I had with staff or during the coffee breaks, the discussions were pleasant. I was asked my views on various identification and accommodation procedures. I discovered that preliminary testing is carried out on all students utilising the Cognitive Assessment Test (CAT). Depending on the results and in combination with other observations, some students are sent for more formal testing. There was a genuine concern that their identification procedures might miss some students. A consistent theme of expanding opportunities for all their students is discussed in many of the conversations. There seemed to be little of the typical suspicion that I have come to expect when discussing the idea of a gifted program. Concerns focused on the classic objection regarding the danger of creating an exclusive program. There was concern about finding the correct balance amid the benefits of utilizing parental nominations and potential negatives from parental pressure to have their child selected. In all these comments what was apparent was the genuine concern to make their program work for the benefit of all their students. It should be emphasized that these were informal observations with individuals who were participating in the study.

Formal Observations

The formal observations were based on an observation of a lesson and the other on an extended tour of the school by the deputy director of primary. I also conducted a second set of observations related to the GTP. My observation schedule was kept easily accessible and I was able to check off the various accommodations that IST was currently making. The observation schedule utilized can be found in appendix 1.1. This schedule was based on Gentry's model of an exemplary GTP discussed in chapter one.

The Moral Life of Schools (MLS]

The following are observations based on the eight categories as discussed in *The Moral Life of Schools* by Jackson, Boostrom and Hansen (1993). Except where self-evident, each section begins with a sentence describing what is the focus of the particular observation. The observations were brief but encompass the majority of the classrooms in primary and secondary. For convenience, I refer to the authors and text as MLS.

Moral Instruction as a formal part of the curriculum

This category considers the impact of the formal curriculum upon moral behaviour. In this regard, as the majority of students are children of expatiate parents, many of whom are on three year contracts, the ability to move and reinstate oneself in a common curriculum is important. The IB and IGCSE are the principal programs that have been designed to meet this need. The IB obligates certain courses of instruction. In all its subjects, it demands references to the multi-cultural fabric of the world. The following excerpt if from the IB Mission statement:

> The International Baccalaureate aims to develop inquiring, knowledgeable and caring young people who help to create a better and more peaceful world through intercultural understanding and respect (IBO, 2012].

The IGCSE provides a similar description though not as encompassing and not as part of a mission statement.

> The syllabuses are international in outlook, but retain a local relevance. They have been created specifically for an international student body and avoid cultural bias (CIE,IGCSE, 2012).

In this regard, the school observes the formal curricular structure as one would expect in either a US, UK or IB international school.

Moral instruction within the regular classroom

In one classroom, I observed the teacher work the room, offering advice and commentary. She was asked for her appraisal. The teacher's comments were authentic in tone and encouraging while providing suggestions for improvement. One student concerned about the orderliness of her work, received the comment 'it is OK, it doesn't need to be in the lines' a reference to the paint she was having difficulty keeping between the lines of her painting.

As noted, time restrictions prevented more substantive in-class observations, however, in one secondary class it was observed that students were studying political movements and the role that Ghandi had played in India's push for independence. There were no explicit moral messages noted during this brief encounter. No other observations of this kind were noted in other classes during the short visit. It seems reasonable to conclude based on the nature of the curriculum that further examples would be found throughout the school year.

Rituals and ceremonies

Given the non-denominational nature of this school, there were no morning rituals such as prayers, pledges to allegiance or national anthems. Formal uniforms were required, but there was no other formal ritual that was noticed. No ceremonies were observed. Information regarding ceremonies that occurred during the year came mainly from posters on school walls or

from the website (discussed in greater detail in section six, documents and artefacts]. Ceremonies included music and theatre productions, sports days, assemblies and special events such as, International Week and Breast Cancer Awareness Week.

In the class I observed, when the bell rang it surprised everyone in the room; both teacher and students were well engrossed in the activity. Students without need of instruction began putting away items, wiping down desks and washing their hands.

Visual displays with moral content

It was evident by viewing the walls in the hallway that events such as international week, fun day, sports day, theatre productions and whole school breast cancer awareness were themes that were explored or about to be in the upcoming weeks and months. Classrooms, in particular the primary classrooms, were 'stuffed' with all sorts of items. Classroom chairs and tables took on all sorts of combinations: circular, square and horseshoe arrangements; traditional rows and in one classroom tables were pushed off into a corner. A bombardment of bright colours and large displays of signs and pictures from ancient Greece, Mongolian emperors, battlefields of world war one to faces of children having fun in a park surrounded by balloons.

Most of the secondary classrooms were more traditional in terms of seating arrangements, though the occasional horseshoe and square were seen. Similar to primary, the walls were full of displays of student works, maps, formulas, and/or famous quotes. In one class, Huxley's admonishment, 'facts do not cease to exist because they are ignored' was posted and in another, it was Shakespeare's, 'to thine own self be true.' Each classroom had a beamer and white board. Most had computers and printers. The few rooms that were not well decorated or covered were meeting or study rooms. In the class I observed, the classroom gave the impression of being small in size, but

this was not the case. Rather, the room was stuffed with a range of artefacts: for example there were maps, computers, printers, closets with paint supplies, easels with art work, four circular desks, a sink and a colourful carpet on the floor. All four walls were coloured and filled with an assortment of items: for example there were overlapping maps, art work, drawings, cut out letters with phrases such as 'carpe diem', pictures of whales, different countries, cultures, a picture of a young girl wearing a hijab and another with a baseball ball cap.

Spontaneous interjections of moral commentary into ongoing activity

In the class I observed, the lesson was a culminating lesson after a unit on colour. Students were finalizing their own works. Students talked among themselves while they worked asking each other for their opinions and dolling out compliments. The teacher had her own work displayed on an easel in the rear of the room. Students were commenting on how much they enjoyed her work. The teacher appeared pleased and happy. The patience and kindness of the classroom teacher were quite evident. As the class ended, she noted to students who were already in the process of cleaning up, that they would be late for class and that she would clean up after them. The students were very appreciated and chorus of 'thank you' ensued.

Classroom rules and regulations

In the class I observed, despite the noise and the busy activity that was unfolding in the lesson, students appeared respectful towards their teacher and one another. The brief visit to other classes showed similar behaviour, though how much was due to my presence is indeterminable.

The morality of the curricular substructure

This section refers to concepts that range from basic organization and presentation of curricular content to more subtle aspects that combined

enable conditions such that a moral substratum of obligation and responsibility pervade the teaching. Indeed, these enabling conditions are so important that the very aspect of teaching would be undermined if they were not present. Specific examples of the more subtle substructures referred in MLS are the assumptions of worthwhileness, truthfulness and cheating. At IST, both the IB and IGCSE programs guide and influence curricular development. The visit was too brief to witness the expansive use of more nuanced aspects of cheating, but the basic assumption of worthwhileness and truthfulness as central principles of teaching were evident. In other words, no instances were observed where the teacher appeared to convey information that was meaningless or false. In the art lesson, for example, the teacher delivered her assessment of student art work with a frank appraisal that respected the dignity of her students. The assumption of worthwhileness was also present. Students were engaged and appeared to enjoy the class. Their enthusiasm, questions, concern for their own art work and appreciation of others including their teachers work, suggested that they found the activity worthwhile.

Expressive Morality within the classroom

This section considers the facial expressions of teachers and the moral messages they convey (1993). Teacher deportment and expressions appeared in the whole, positive. In the art lesson, the teacher's smile was a strong visual reminder of the calm and genuine affection she had for her students. Smiles were evident throughout the classes I visited and among the various teaching and support staff. While handing out the questionnaire, very few teachers appeared annoyed by my interruption. Certainly, one prominent feature of this school is the abundance of smiles and genuine warmth.

Observations of the Gifted and Talented Program

The observation of the GTP were mainly a confirmatory exercise ensuring that what was being said was actually occurring. The observations were conducted shortly after I arrived at IST and completed my introductory meeting with the Head of Secondary. The observation schedule was attached to my field notes and observations were recorded as they arose. Further, observations were cross-checked with the GTC and HOD-S (former GTC), the responses on GELQ and documents that were provided. Given that the GTP was being restarted, it was to be expected that some services were not being provided.

Of the 21 characteristics of a good GTP, the high school was currently following 9. Some of these include Career and Educational Counseling, Integrated Technology, Career and Technical Education Courses, Multicultural/Foreign Language, Independent Study in Interest Area, IB and Scholars Cup. According to the current GTC, plans are in place to introduce more accommodation services and techniques such as acceleration, counselling, and more talent programs such a Odyssey of the Mind, Math and Science Olympiads. The primary school was not as advanced as the high school, but identification procedures, multi-lingual opportunities, and enrichment classes were being provided. Some subject grade and whole grade acceleration had already occurred.

Appendix 3.4. Document Analysis

Documents are a record of policies and events that are expected to occur and/or do occur within the school. For this study, documents are considered a written record, both paper and virtual, that publically reveals a school's ethical position and therefore reflects a school's moral proclivity. A number of primary and inadvertent sources (Bell, 1999) were reviewed. The internal records examined included formal written policies, strategic planning documents, the school website, newsletters and an email exchange. It also includes external documents such as official documents from government and accreditation organizations. The documents are seen through a semiotic lens looking at both denotative and connotative meaning (Bryman, 2012).

Strategic Planning Documents

Three main documents are considered in this section: a planning document specific to gifted education at this school, a policy handbook and a school wide development plan.

The strategy document

The strategy document prepared in 2010, entitled IST Gifted and Talented Strategy 2010-2012, outlines the proposed aim of the gifted program.

> The main purpose of a Gifted and Talented strategy is to provide opportunities at school where special gifts, abilities and talents of all students are revealed and nurtured to help students fulfill their potential (2).

The familiar secondary theme of providing opportunities surfaces again in the internal documents. Providing opportunities was a theme associated with the category of professional ethics.

The policy handbook

The policy handbook entitled, IST Gifted and Talented Handbook, was created in March 2010 and revised in March 2011. It is a 23 page document,

well researched and written by a member of the SLT. It displays evidence of familiarity with the literature as related to gifted education. The author of the handbook is sensitive to the advantages that international schools provide relative to state funded schools such as smaller class size, motivated parents (both the positive and negative implications) with resources to provide enriched home environments. The document refers to the provision of 'learning opportunities ' for students identified as gifted (IST Gifted and Talented Handbook, 2011: 4). The identification process is multifaceted, it requests information from classroom teachers and special education needs coordinator. Notably. it includes nomination by parents and peers in the identification process.

> The starting point will always be the class teacher however we feel it is imperative to also involve the students previous teachers, specialist teachers, parents peers, and the student him or herself (p.5).

Structural collaboration is evident through the references to collaboration with parents, staff and peers. In a reference to some of the benefits evolving from a program for the gifted they write,

> In recognition that talents need to be extended beyond the classroom and applied to the interest of the students, provision must include extending beyond the classroom. At IST, we feel this is an excellent opportunity to work with parents by providing them with an opportunity to share their expert skills and to be an important member of our learning community (p.8).

The identification and the accommodation process continue to demonstrate the care and responsibility for these students. Further evidence can be found in the following page in phrases that emphasize sentiment and professional obligation.

> As well, we feel it is essential to provide students with the scaffolding and opportunities to apply their talents to their interests and to the real world (p.9).

The handbook provides practical steps to ensure ongoing communication between parents and staff and includes steps to measure if students received some benefit from these endeavours:

> it is essential to check whether they are benefitting from participating in the program (p.10).

Further, the handbook identifies the importance of informing the secondary school of gifted students transitioning from the primary school. In addition, the handbook outlines their concern with regards to acceleration of primary students into secondary classes. Here we see references to both structural collaboration and professional ethics.

Moreover, issues such as identification and accommodation noted in this handbook appear to have been well communicated to staff given the outcome of the responses in the GELQ. It should also be clarified that the primary school was still investigating how it would proceed with a gifted program. This is notable since it suggests buy-in by the primary school.

School Development Plan

The school development plan prepared in September 2011/2012 and containing an addendum added in March 2012 outlines an action plan that states, criteria, funding and proposed timelines. There is an expectation that all staff are included in supporting the gifted program through a variety of accommodations. In the following example, the discussion is focused on the basic responsibility for differentiation. The continuing theme of providing opportunities for the gifted is identified.

> Therefore, all staff must be aware of and consider their roles in the learning environment not only in light of students requiring additional support to meet National Curriculum expectations but also for those who are considered 'more able' for 'gifted and talented' to ensure we aim to help every student meet their full academic potential.
>
> Please note that extension work and differentiation is to be based on providing learning opportunities beyond the year level expectations. It

> is not achieved through a larger amount of work or giving more questions (IST School Development Plan, p.5).

This again is another well informed document with regards to the gifted. It is evident from this planning documents that there is a sensitivity towards the gifted student. There is an expectation of collaboration among staff. Further, there is deep concern among the SLT to provide opportunities for enrichment that are not just additional work. This document provides support for professional ethics and structural collaboration.

Website and Electronic Newsletters

Websites and electronic newsletters provide a variety of examples that reveal the ethical complexion of the school and its leadership. Both forms of communication, provided examples such as celebrating individuals and/or school wide accomplishments. Both provided examples of events that the school has undertaken such as museum trips, aquarium trips, international week and model United Nations. The newsletter also includes an introductory letter from Head of Maths, a letter from both the Art and Music department inviting parents and their students to participate in school activities. This is a school trying to develop a community.

During the interviews, HOS spoke of the difficult times that preceded his arrival and the subsequent attempt that he and his team are making to improve not only the experiences but also the results. Evidence of the improving results can be found in reviewing the annual edition of the September newsletter. In 2010, the newsletters reported that the passing rates for the IB exams was 62.5%. This result improved in 2011 to 68%. In 2012, it was 75% and in 2013, 100% of students enrolled in the diploma program passed their final exams. In addition to improving IB scores, the results of the IGCSE have also improved from a 75% to 88% percent passing rate during this same time period. In the 2013 cohort, 46% of IGCSE grades were A or A*. The head was clearly proud and enthusiastic of the improved results. In the 2013 he wrote,

> We have started the year with the great news that our results have improved in both IGCSE and IBDP for the second (IST, Head of Secondary, September 2013 newsletter).

The IB and IGCSE may be interpreted as a source of exogenous influences. Both curriculums establish well respected standards. These standards in turn become objectives towards which the SLT and teaching staff work . The list of activities continues to highlight the desire for examining opportunities and experiences. This is associated with the category of professional ethics.

Email

Structural collaboration is revealed through collegiality, sharing, participation and positive affirmation. In an excerpt from an email exchange that was provided by a member of the SLT, these notions are exemplified. In this case, a teacher puts forth an idea of expanding opportunities for students in an English class. She writes,

> SST - We work hard to promote writing for the core group and we work hard to support the students who struggle with writing but wouldn't it be nice to provide something more for the gifted writers in our school?

After describing her idea for a completion, she concludes by stating,

> SST-This might also serve as an excellent way to begin considering the gifted and talented in literacy... (Secondary School Teacher, November, 2011).

Comments from SLT and colleagues to the proposed idea were positive:

> 'I think this is a lovely idea.' (Fellow Teacher)
>
> 'Ditto great idea.' (Deputy Director of Primary)
>
> 'Thank you for this. It sounds like a great idea to me' (Head of Secondary).

All the comments are positive and supportive of the staff members' suggestions for developing the abilities of gifted students. In addition to structural collaboration, this exchange also highlights expanding opportunities, a concept associated with the category professional ethics.

External Documents form Government and Accreditation Organizations

For this study, external documents refer specifically to National Quality Standards as prepared by the DfES and accreditation organizations. The policy handbook makes many references to DfES such as using the Classroom Evaluation Grid as prepared by National Strategies in Gifted and Talented Education. In addition, IST is accredited by the IB and COBIS. During my visit, IST was in the midst of the CIS accreditation process, a multi-visit multi-year requirement. As part of the CIS accreditation is meeting needs for all students. It includes several references requesting information on how a school is planning to address the needs of gifted students. As was noted during the interview with the DOC, the accreditation process was seen as a possible motivator for the development of the GTP. Both documents demonstrates the importance of external agencies in shaping policy for a school. As such both are considered as representative of the support for the category exogenous influences.

Appendix 3.5. Checklist of Equipment and Supplies for Field Research

Item	Notes	Confirmation
Laptop		
Microphone		
Additional Recording Device		
Power cord		
Extension Cord		
Portable Pointer		
Power adapters		
Do not disturb sign		
Questionnaires		
Interview Schedules		
External Drive		
USB Stick with Presentation		

Appendix 3.6. **PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM**

Project title ……Moral Leadership and the Education of the Gifted…..……

Researcher's name …Ferenc Nemeth.....……

Supervisor's name …Linda Ellison.....……

1. I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.

2. I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.

3. I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.

4. I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential.

5. I understand that an audio recording will be created during the interview.

6. I understand that data will be stored on an external memory stick. A hard copy of the transcript will be prepared and kept on file at Nottingham University. Only authorized researchers and other personnel from the University of Nottingham will have access to the research. Access will be granted only after a formal request has been made to the researcher or to the University of Nottingham.

7. I understand that I may contact the researcher or supervisor if I require further information about the research, and that I may contact the Research Ethics Coordinator of the School of Education, University of Nottingham, if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement in the research.

Signed …… (research participant)

Print name ……Ferenc Nemeth…… **Date** …September 28, 2011……

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