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WESTERN UNIVERSITY

ALIGNING INTERNATIONAL CURRICULUM STANDARDS AND PRACTICES
WITH NATIONAL QUALITY ASSURANCE FRAMEWORKS

BY

TINA ANNETTE STEPHENSON

AN ORGANIZATIONAL IMPROVEMENT PLAN
SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE AND POSTDOCTORAL STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

LONDON, ONTARIO, CANADA

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Abstract

This Organizational Improvement Plan (OIP) proposal will consider how the directors of our group of international schools can begin the work of aligning values, standards and practices to meet the needs of both the individual international schools and the nationalized quality assurance frameworks -- working with individual school principals in our home nation. The international school system provides alternatives to local and expatriate parents in an ever-increasing number of schools across the globe. As this number of international school increases, so too does the number of those schools which are required to align their international curriculum standards and practices with nationalized quality assurance requirements in their countries of operation. This often presents widely differing and sometimes divergent norms, values and expectations within a school environment. Taken from the perspective of the leadership of a large group of international schools, this paper explores the complexity of this issue. A cross-cultural perspective which is informed by the work of Hofstede (2011) will employ the action of Distributed Leadership (Gronn, 2002) and various change management drivers to consider how the directors of this large multinational organization can build the capacity and motivation of a group of principals to enact the changes required in each of their individual schools.

Keywords: international schools, nationalized quality assurance, distributed leadership, cross-cultural perspectives, transformative leadership, organizational change readiness

Executive Summary

Introduction and Problem

International schools increasingly represent alternatives to localized school environments for both local and expatriate families across the globe. However, these international schools are increasingly subjected to local host-nation government-based quality assurance frameworks and assessments -- which may represent quite different values and ideas around curriculum standards, practices and leadership than those that international schools typically represent. With the high growth rate and increasing importance of the international school industry, this problem is increasing in scope and urgency. This OIP proposal will consider how the directors of our group of international schools can begin this work of aligning values, standards and practices to meet the needs of both the individual international schools and the nationalized quality assurance frameworks -- working with individual school principals in our home nation.

Planning and Development

Taken from the perspective of the pedagogical director in a family run, entrepreneurial, a multinational organization of international schools, the paper explores the work of the directors in enhancing the motivation and capacity of a diverse group of 14 principal stakeholders in enacting changes required to align international schools standards and practices with local nationalized requirements. Beginning by exploring international school context and the strengths and limits of the current visionary leadership practice; leading to three guiding questions about enhancing the capacity of the directors managing their large and complex roles in general and directly in relation to this change. The paper begins to consider the changes required with Judge and Douglas' (2009) Organizational Capacity for Change construct and its eight dimensions.

A leadership framework is explored based on a cross-cultural perspective, informed by the works of Hofstede (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019) and Dimmock and Walker (2000) to

create a cross-cultural leadership and management analysis appropriate for our complex contexts in international education. They provided us with a national cultural based analysis of the approach which stakeholders may bring to this problem. Hofstede defines culture as a “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one group from another” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 25) and he goes on to define collective programming as “patterns of thinking and feeling and potential acting” (Hofstede, 1991, p. 4). Hofstede (2011) isolated six dimensions along which societal norms and values could be analyzed and measured -- Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long-Term Orientation, and Indulgence -- which are used to analyze the approaches to change evident among our stakeholder principals. We then turned to the work of Gronn (2002) and their work on distributed leadership and apply it to a cross-cultural analysis. Gronn (2002) refers to distributed leadership as a concerted action which intentionally distributes responsibilities widely across the organization.

Gronn (2002) describes three forms or actions through which leadership can be directed. First, there are collaborative forms of working together which arise spontaneously in the workplace; these working relationships are usually formed around a project, idea or initiative, and can end just as spontaneously as they began (Gronn, 2002). Second, there are more intuitive relationships which develop from common understandings and shared experiences among colleagues -- these are more intimate, closer to friendships and usually continue to grow outside of work relationship or environments (Gronn, 2002). Third, there are formalized, structured, often hierarchical relationship and which are connected through institutionalized arrangements and resources (Gronn, 2002). These actions of distributed leadership are then viewed through a cross-cultural lens provided by Hofstede to deepen our understanding and applicability in a culturally complex organization.

This framework is then applied to Kirsch, Chelliah and Parry (2012) and their cross-cultural approach to the drivers that moderate the impact of change. This is then further considered by the directors while engaging in Murdoch's (2015) Inquiry Cycle aligned with Pedaste, Mäeots, Siiman, Jong, Riesen, Kamp, Manoli, Zacharia and Tsourlidaki (2015) five common inquiry phases -- used to support them in the development of their own capacity and motivation in leadership and change processes.

Implementation and Communication

A cross-cultural perspective based on Distributed Leadership is further developed to support a Stakeholder Readiness Analysis, through the framework outlined by Cawsey, Deszca and Ingols (2016) and to consider the likelihood of success of the changes required through the use of the Duration, Integrity, Commitment and Effort framework by Sirkin, Keenan, and Jackson (2005). This is concluded with Armenakis and Harris' (2002) five domains of change messages and three message dissemination strategies once again applied through the actions of Distributed Leadership.

Findings and Future Considerations

Through this extended consideration of the changes required to align international school standards and practices with nationalized requirements, the directors can increase their capacity and motivation towards leadership practice and change managed by more effectively engaging in a cross-cultural approach to Distributed Leadership. Cross-cultural approaches, in general, have significant implications on the application of all leadership and change processes, much beyond this paper to fully consider. The full implications of cross-cultural approaches to leadership and change should be more deeply considered for the benefit of all multinational organizations.

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Chapter 1: Introduction and Problem

As a director in a large family run, entrepreneurial, multinational organization of international schools, I am aware of how managing complexity can become a central idea to approaching leadership and change. This complexity becomes most evident when we are confronted with a change that threatens the educational values which have shaped our organization. This complexity also becomes evident when it impacts our operational independence in many of the nations in which our schools operate.

Our international schools are increasingly expected to align their international curriculum standards and practices with the quality assurance practices of the countries in which they operate. This problem is most acutely being experienced in the 14 international schools in the nation in which our organization was originally founded. A problem which effects approximately 500 teaching and support staff -- along with approximately 3000 students in that country alone, and many more internationally. In many countries, including the country being considered here, failure to meet nationalized requirements could mean denial of operational rights and the loss of an important educational option for teachers as well as local and international families in the countries effected. In order to address this problem, the directors of our organization must be able to effectively raise the capacity and motivation of a group of 14 principals -- who represent a range of cultures and educational backgrounds.

In this chapter, we will consider the entrepreneurial, visionary, transformative leadership practices which have brought our organization to its current level of growth and its position in relation to change readiness. As part of this examination of our organizational history and practice, we will take a close look at the international school milieu globally and what makes it unique from nationalized school systems. We will raise questions about how to address the changes required to align international standards and practices with national requirements, and

begin to reconsider leadership and change management practice in order to address those questions. We will close the chapter by considering the organization's current capacity for change.

Organizational Context

This family-owned and managed group of international schools began more than two decades ago with the opening of a single preschool. The initial goal of the organization was to provide a UK-style education environment to local and expatriate families in an Asian nation. Within six months of opening its first preschool, a primary school was opened. Over the intervening years, as suitable properties became available and demand continued to grow, more schools opened expanding at a relatively steady pace to reach its current number of more than 100 preschools, primary schools and secondary schools globally.

As the early customers from the affluent Asian host nation moved abroad to other Asian countries -- bringing the brand reputation with them -- opportunities arose for franchising and partnerships under its brand. The individual schools represent a range of international curricula chosen by the ownership based on wide-ranging factors: The demands of the community, curriculum reputation in the areas we operate, and differing knowledge and experiences of the individual school principals or franchise owners.

I have found so far in my work developing schools in different countries that individual franchise owners are likely to choose from a range of curricula based on what they believe would best suit the educational aspirations of the community they intend to serve. For example, a school being built in a geographic area with a large expatriate population would be more likely to choose the International Baccalaureate (IB) curriculum. In contrast, the owners of an international school being built to service an affluent local community would likely use a more traditional nationalized curriculum -- such as the UK Early Years Foundation Stages and Key

Stages -- with elements of the host nation curriculum incorporated. The curricula we operate include the IB, Cambridge, Fieldwork Education, and an in-house created curriculum -- as well as single subjects drawn from Asian national curricula -- and increasingly a blend of two or more of these curricula. Together, these schools provide international education and local nationalized education systems to thousands of local host nation and expatriate students.

According to their cornerstone work on strategic management and visionary leadership, Westley and Mintzberg (1989) outline how leadership vision can be broken down into three distinct stages: Creating an image of the desired future, effectively communicating it to followers, and empowering them to enact that future. Our organization aligns very closely with this type of visionary model -- having enacted a vision of a school that provides an education which is more child-centered and respectful of children's voices -- as an alternative to existing more traditionally didactic, nationalized alternatives available. In our vision, children can become more confident and capable global citizens, interacting and co-creating international environments that are beautiful and respectful of their voices. As the intervening years went by, this vision and the education brand it created travelled with its highly mobile customer population across Asia -- and many more students and potential school owners and operators joined the vision. This view of leadership places a lot of control in the hands of individual leaders empowering the founding owner and her family firmly at the top of the hierarchy.

In their work examining the different types of visionary leaders, Westley and Mintzberg (1989) found that visionary leadership can take on a variety of forms and our founder's style of leadership fits firmly into their 'creator' framework. Creators are characterized by the originality of their ideas -- in our case, the early adoption of child-centered, inquiry-based, Reggio Emilia-inspired learning environments for young children. Creators are also identified by their single-minded focus (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989), which in the case of our organization's founder has

led to the consistent development of a global brand of private schools, built up diligently over the last 25 years. According to Ateş, Tarakci, Porck, van Knippenberg and Groenen (2018), research done on this type of visionary leadership in general tends to take quite a positive view -- especially regarding its strengths supporting and coalescing strategy and vision inside organizations. However, as they also point out, most research has been done with a focus only on the top tiers of leadership with little focus on how visionary leadership operates in complex contexts and translates across large organizations (Ateş et al., 2018).

Ateş and colleagues (2018) also found that there is a “dark side” of visionary leadership, referring to the lack of visionary aspects which are translated down hierarchies to the middle levels (p. 2). They found that middle leadership often has quite different views on strategy and change than the senior levels -- and this type of top-down visionary leadership often results in inefficacious implementation by middle levels and increasingly in obstructionist practices (Ateş et al., 2018). I have personally observed this to also be the case inside our organization with the top tiers most closely aligning to the founder's original vision. However, as we move through the hierarchy of the organization, this vision weakens and becomes less important to the day-to-day operations -- most often set aside in favour of more profit-making driven or entrepreneurial business-driven ideals.

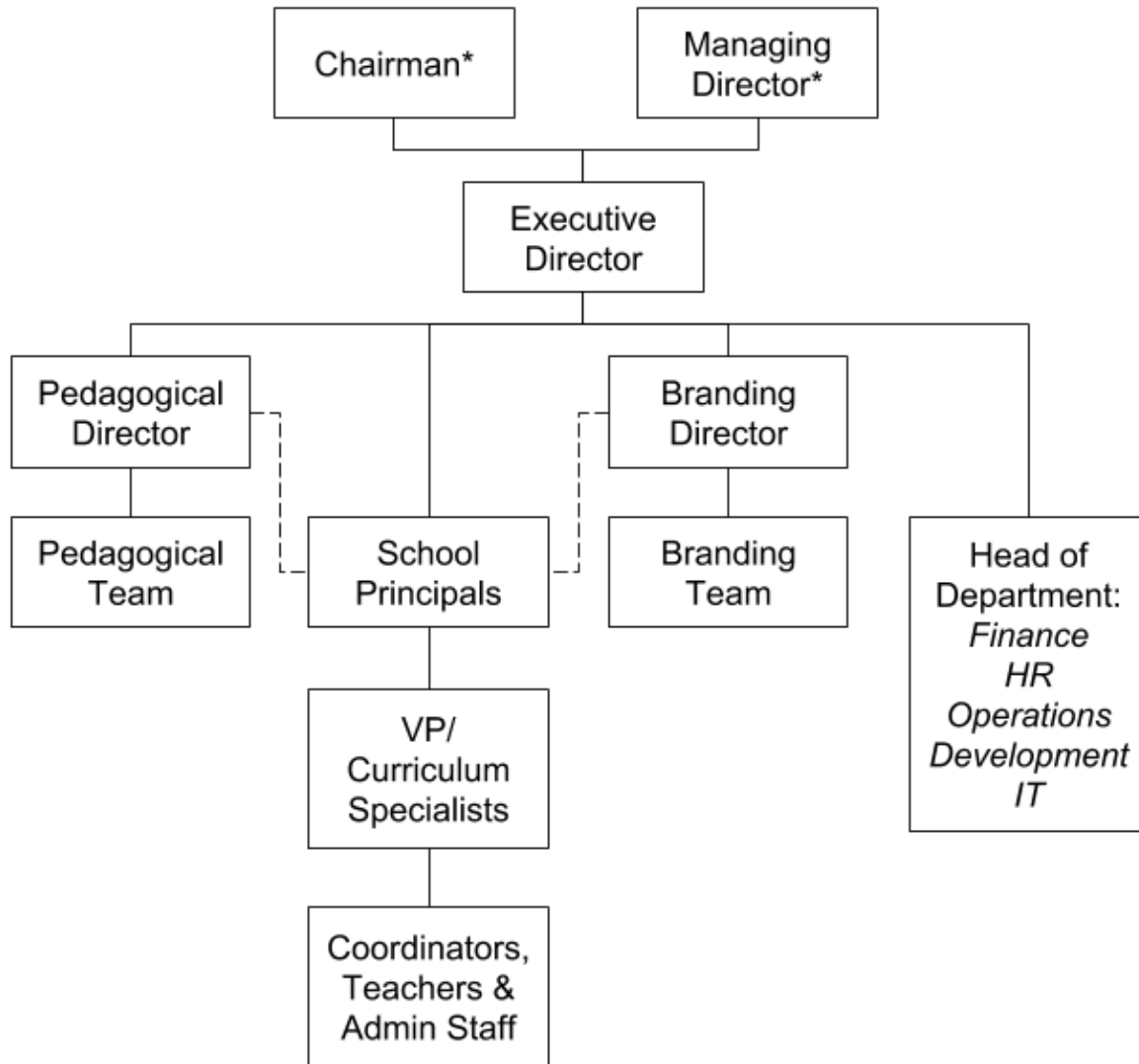
In his widely referenced work, Miller (1983) first defined the characteristics of an entrepreneurial organization: One that actively engages in innovation, has tendencies to engage in relatively risky ventures, and is proactive -- often being the first to innovate or change with the market. Our organization and its creator visionary meet all of these criteria. It was one of the first to offer a high-quality, internationally based education alternative to both local and expatriate parents. Our organization continues to engage in risky education ventures -- opening schools in economically and politically volatile regions of Asia -- being among the first education groups to

adopt challenging curriculum alternatives such as the IB and the Reggio Emilia approach to education -- building strong global partnerships with both of these innovative education organizations.

Hernández-Linares & López-Fernández (2018) -- in their review of the literature on how Miller's concepts of an entrepreneurial organization apply to family-run firms -- found that over time, the entrepreneurial orientation decreases and is replaced by a stronger security-seeking orientation. This does seem to be the case in the leadership transition occurring inside our organization as the founding visionary, entrepreneurial owner passes the leadership of the organization to her son. Our incoming executive director does continue to expand the organization; to do so, he is seeking more stable, local home-nation government-based partnerships and initiatives. Although still highly innovative, these partnerships are not characterized by the same creator, visionary, entrepreneurial level of risk as evident in the past twenty years under the founding director.

At the top of this visionary, entrepreneurial family-run organization are the three owner-directors: Two of which represent the founding generation; the third owner-director is the second generation -- inheriting the company from the founder (See *Figure 1* for the Company Organizational Structure). The principal of each school operates semi-independently, with accountability to the owners; as well as, limited accountability to the branding director in relation to how they represent the organization and limited accountability to the pedagogical director in relation to the approaches to teaching and learning used in the schools. The branding and pedagogical directors are the only two non-family members of the organization carrying director status. The pedagogical director -- my role in the organization -- reports directly to the executive director and carries authority for all pedagogical matters across the group of schools with

individual school principals being expected to defer to the pedagogical director on matters of pedagogy in their schools.



**retiring directors*

Figure 1. Company Organizational Structure

In practice, the pedagogical director role actually relies heavily on principal collaboration. The principals of the individual schools come from a wide range of backgrounds -- expatriate and local -- with a variety of educational attainment and with core experiences grounded in international and national education environments. The direct supervision processes are top-down, mostly concentrated with the owner directors. For example, principals regularly

formally and informally report to the executive director on financial as well as operational matters. It is the executive director who carries all authority for hiring, performance appraisal, and termination or nonrenewal of contract for all principals and non-family directors -- with some advice provided by the pedagogical and branding directors.

Leadership Position and Lens Statement

The agency I enact as the pedagogical director within our organization is multilayered and complex -- and is deeply connected to the ideals of transformative leadership, in particular as outlined by Shields (2011). According to Shields (2011), transformative leadership practice seeks to affect both social and educational change. We will more deeply consider transformative leadership later in this chapter, however, transformative leadership does not fully account for the agency I enact inside the organization. According to Dowding (2011a), an individual's agency arises in relation to the extent to which they can shape the environment and outcomes within the organization. In this sense, my agency is among the highest in the organization -- as one of only five directors -- and my advice is frequently sought by the top tier influencing all pedagogical matters across the schools. However, this is a simple view of agency; the practical exercise of my agency within our organization is highly complex and can best be described by the Agency-Structure Problem also outlined by Dowding (2011b). Dowding (2011b) refers to how agency is not determined by individual traits or abilities alone but arises from a complex interaction with the environment and its other actors -- which work together to determine the actual amount of agency, and the strategies and aims available to individual actors. This is important in my role as the pedagogical director as it demands a great deal of collaboration with the principals, educational middle leaders, and department heads around the organization -- and most positive change outcomes require cooperation across all levels. In many ways, this requires my agency to

be enacted in complex and constantly shifting ways, with a strong focus on cooperation brought forward by nuanced use of power within each individual situation and interaction.

I believe this complex agency within structures and among agents is best considered through the lens of French and Raven (1959) and their cornerstone work on the basis of social power inside organizations. Through an in-depth consideration of the behaviour of agents and the reactions of recipients, they identified the main sources of power and systematically defined them (French & Raven, 1959). These bases can be separated into two main types of power: The first type is based on the position you hold within the organization which includes legitimate, reward and coercive power; the second type, personal power, includes referential and expert power (Gearin, 2017).

My agency is enacted through all the bases -- with both types of power being important -- however, in practice, I am most likely to use the personal power bases to achieve outcomes. This is because I have often found there are strong limits on the usefulness of relying on positional power bases to achieve meaningful, long-term outcomes. This was also evident in the work of Gearin (2017) and his consideration of the bases of power as used among new university presidents. Gearin (2017) found that those who relied on positional power, in particular rewards and coercion, achieved short-term successes but increased resistance to initiate required change over the long term.

My positional power cannot be disregarded as it takes on additional importance in my current national-cultural construct with many of my colleagues being from the Singapore national culture. According to Hofstede Insights (April 5, 2019), Singapore is considered to be very comfortable with hierarchy and with power being concentrated among a few individuals inside organizations and societal structures. In this way, my title provides greater power among my Singaporean colleagues -- as there are only five director-level titles in this sizeable

multinational organization. I have also recently been tasked with creating and coordinating a leadership development program, with a long-term goal of enacting a leadership stream inside the organization -- over which the content and individual candidates, I have a large amount of power and agency over. This further imbues my work with the power to simultaneously reward and, less directly, to coerce colleagues. In essence, my opinion of an individual at virtually any level of the organizational structure can influence their future -- either through direct denial of opportunity or through creating favourable or unfavourable impressions of their work to their superiors.

It is not in positional power through which most of my agency becomes activated: It is through the personal power which I can expect the most influence on outcomes. In my position, knowledge-based power is perceived to be the singularly most important -- with high expectations of abilities and competencies -- as can be expected in the establishment of expert power (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985). It is on the expert power base that I am most readily challenged by my colleagues, especially observed in the first year of my role. I often experience my leadership colleagues listening closely -- testing my knowledge, establishing my abilities and perspective, actively trying to place my role in their context -- and often challenging my knowledge and abilities.

Over time and with patiently applied effort, my knowledge and competencies have come through and my expert power base has gained in momentum, which has enabled referential power (Gearin, 2017). As principals and department heads begin to increasingly understand the ideas and theory-practice connections I bring to the role, they are more likely to commit themselves and their staff to initiatives which I coordinate. As the number of initiatives I manage and the participants in those initiatives grow in number, I work collaboratively with more and more participants to build knowledge and referential power among all of the actors. This creates

a growing positive feedback loop for all of the actors involved -- and in turn, increasing both types of power and increasing my own agency inside the organization.

In line with this positive and growing connection to personal power bases, I have a strong attachment to transformative leadership theory, in particular as outlined by Shields (2011). According to Shields (2011), transformative leadership practice seeks to affect both social and educational change. A large part of my role as the pedagogical director is providing a theoretical grounding for all of our educators in the work of Loris Malaguzzi. Loris Malaguzzi was a notable activist for social justice and equality through education practice and his influence impacted the schools of Reggio Emilia (Moss, 2010). Our visionary founding director also had a strong attachment to the ideals of this type of transformative leadership as she established a relationship with Reggio Children -- the official organization representing the work of Loris Malaguzzi and the municipality of Reggio Emilia, Italy, and its schools globally. However, her actual leadership work was more closely aligned with the previously outlined visionary leadership approaches. Under her leadership, transformational leadership is more likely to be enacted by the principals and pedagogical director. Although both these types of leadership carry inspiring qualities, they are difficult to effectively enact across a large multi-national organizations. Both visionary and transformative leadership strongly link leadership to a single person as the agent of leadership -- which weakens the overall reach of leadership -- especially when leadership in an organization the size of ours must not only transcend cultural but also geographical boundaries. In their work linking this type of visionary strategic leadership and organizational learning, Dusya and Crossan (2004) also link visionary transformative leadership approaches. This visionary transformative leadership practice is passed on to the directors -- especially in pedagogy -- along with the legacy of Reggio Children to guide all pedagogical and teacher training work in our group of schools. Our incoming executive director has continued

this tradition, himself studying in Reggio Emilia and the Loris Malaguzzi International Centre. The executive director therefore brings forward these expectations of social justice and deep respect for educators and children into his work.

Malaguzzi strongly encouraged all educators to draw on the passion generated by ideas and intellectual endeavour to provide the energy they need in their work as educators and as activists for social justice (Moss, 2010). I have adopted this approach when I train and mentor educators and evaluate their schools. The transformation of self, educators, schools and society -- through social justice awareness and activism -- is deeply interwoven together in my leadership work.

The work of Malaguzzi closely aligns with the concepts that Shields (2011) outlines in her description of transformative leadership as “promise, liberation, hope, empowerment, activism, risk, social justice, courage, or revolution” (p. 559). These ideals drive my own work as the pedagogical director for a Reggio-aligned group of schools -- working from the philosophical perspective of Malaguzzi and Reggio Emilia -- making transformative leadership a personalized experiential learning activity. I believe in my work as a force of social change in our schools and the potential of each educator to become socially aware and empowered -- and in turn, to enact the potential in each student to become agents for social change.

In their work closely examining the strengths and challenges of transformative leadership, Caldwell, Dixon, Floyd, Chaudoin, Post and Cheokas (2012) also remind us that transformative leadership demands leaders who are preeminent in virtually all aspects of their practice. This has also been evident in our own organization as I have personally heard colleagues express disappointment in our visionary founder as she is no longer able to maintain the intensive working schedule she once did -- often leaving other levels of leadership within the organization expressing feelings of frustration and eventual disconnection from her original

vision for the organization. Also, according to Caldwell et al. (2012), it also demands very intimate and personal relationships between leaders and followers -- outlining a type of leadership that they consider to be among the most difficult to achieve and highly demanding to sustain. This type of leadership is heavily reliant on a single leader, who creates and directs social justice, equality and participatory leadership of ideas and actions (Caldwell et al., 2012).

This leads to one of the most important weaknesses of this leadership style in relation to the change required to align international and national standards and practices in our schools. In his analysis of transformative leadership practice in modern demanding education environments, Van Oord (2013) speculates that transformative leadership approaches are strongly curtailed under the influence of imposed change processes. Van Oord (2013) points out that in transformative leadership environments, there is a stronger general dissatisfaction with change which does not come from the identified leader. In transformative leadership environments, changes imposed by outside organizations and regulatory environments leads to what he calls the three W's of frustration: "Who made this decision? Why was I not involved? Where does this suddenly come from?" (Van Oord, 2013, p. 434). In a transformative environment which tends to be more participatory in knowledge acquisition and decision making, a change imposed from the outside -- such as this with the need to align two different sets of regulatory requirements in a single school -- tends to create even more confusion than in more traditional styles of leadership because it does not carry the weight of the transformative leader's social justice participatory beliefs (Van Oord, 2013). As will be discussed in other chapters, this has indeed been a problem facing the directors in our organization -- who practice the strongest transformative leadership ideals -- leading them to disseminate unclear and ambivalent messages to the staff, especially other middle and senior leaders about the need to align international and nationalized standards and practices in our schools. Transformative leadership demands high levels of intellectual and

emotional energy -- and a significant willingness to take risks among those who practice it and those who are leaders within the paradigm.

As Shields (2011) points out, there is little empirical evidence to support the efficacy of transformative leadership. I speculate that this may be because, as I have personally seen, motivation based on the power of ideas and activism -- both personal and political -- does not effectively transcend all of the national and cultural boundaries that our work encounters. I regularly train groups of educators representing ten or more national cultures, each bringing their own unique perspective to their work and the ideas I present to them. This problem of cultural and national complexity within our organization provides an important strength in providing true international education alternatives to traditional nationalized systems within all the countries in which we operate. However, cultural and national complexity also presents significant challenges to our sustained operation in many countries -- locally and internationally -- as our organization is increasingly being formally expected to adopt host country norms and expectations. Those country-specific expectations are based on values, standards and practices from a wide range of national perspectives, which have no stable hegemonic national base -- adding many layers of complexity in an organization as truly international as ours.

Leadership Problem of Practice

International schools increasingly represent alternatives for both local and expatriate families across the globe to local curriculum and education structures. However, these international schools are increasingly subjected to local host-nation government-based quality assurance frameworks and assessments -- which may represent quite different values and ideals around curriculum standards, practices and leadership than those that international schools typically represent. Local and international stakeholders in the international school milieu need to begin to address international schools' subjection to local quality assurance and all of the

complications to the administration of international school standards and practices which set them apart from the local education system.

This problem has deep personal meaning because in February 2016, one month into a new position -- as principal at a well-established IB international preschool in its 23rd year of operation -- I found out that our school needed to gain the local preschool accreditation framework certification offered through the national government, in order to continue operating on the same premises. As I started to speak with colleagues and research the accreditation process, I also found out that our school would be the first ever IB World School to require this particular national accreditation. This process would require our school to submit an internationally grounded curriculum structure and its standards and practices to a nationalized quality assurance system -- representing quite different values and ideals around curriculum standards, practices and leadership than those that international schools typically represent.

Furthermore, I found that previous principals within our group of schools had strongly resisted submitting their schools to this particular framework -- with only two schools within the group (delivering different curricula) successfully achieving nationalized quality assurance. We would be the first IB school to complete this preschool framework and only the third school in the history of our organization. Since being introduced to this problem, its scope and importance within our group have grown -- due to policy shifts in our home nation. Of the total 14 international schools in our home nation, all but one are now required to complete some form of local host nation government-based quality assurance appropriate to their school type. It has become apparent that individual school principals, as well as the company directors, need to embrace the challenges associated with international schools submitting to nationalized quality assurance systems in our home nation and in other host countries.

As the organization continues to grow and its schools become an established part of the diverse national education system -- within the many nations in which we operate -- we can increasingly be expected to engage in nationalized quality assurance systems. However, the legal obligation to our host countries should not be the only motivation for participating in government-mandated quality assurance. When we consider the vision of our group of schools which centers around improving the future through education and the mission which involves developing confident and capable international citizens, participation in nationalized quality assurance systems allows us to become more a part of the localized milieu in which we operate: Becoming more familiar with local curriculum, standards and practices; demonstrating alternative approaches to education within that context; opening dialogues with regulatory bodies and local organizations; demonstrating respect for their work; and in the process, providing us a profound opportunity to shape the future of education across the region in which we operate.

It has already been my experience in our home nation that opening challenging conversations with national regulators -- while doing genuine work to comply with their requirements -- has already provided opportunities to influence government education policymakers and stakeholders. Through participation in nationalized quality assurance -- with the increased alignment of our own internationalized values, standards and practices with the local nationalized system -- we can shape the systems in which we operate. Also, by aligning our standards and practices -- to maintain the integrity of our international curriculum systems while meeting the requirements of nationalized systems -- we can truly work to create 'confident and capable global citizens' in our host countries, providing a nationally respected alternative to nationalized curriculum systems.

This OIP proposal will consider how the directors of our group of international schools can begin this work of aligning values, standards and practices to meet the needs of both the

individual international schools and the nationalized quality assurance frameworks -- working with individual school principals in our home nation. This OIP will focus at the director level as they are the only stakeholders in the organization who work across the group of schools and principals, especially in our home nation. It is only the directors who carry authority over the principals and are therefore the most direct links to each individual school. The work of the directors will focus on overcoming the established history of resistance among principals to nationalized quality assurance and develop the company's ability to cope with nationalized requirements. To do this, I believe the directors must consider a cross-cultural perspective on distributed leadership and change processes to target the gaps in motivation and capacity -- so that individual principals can align their international school standards and practices with nationalized requirements.

Framing the Problem of Practice

There is essentially no current research specific to the effects of national quality assurance frameworks being applied to K-12 international school contexts. However, international education contexts being accountable to local quality assurance frameworks has long been an issue in tertiary education as evidenced in the work done by Gift, Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette (2006) -- examining the experiences of local quality assurance being a forced process in an international tertiary education context. Researchers interviewed educators from international programmes in tertiary education who identified challenges around teacher qualification acknowledgement and incorporating specific nationally-based elements into the international curriculum as the core problems of local standards in international contexts (Gift et al., 2006).

Another way to assess the scope of this issue is to consider the many countries which demand nationalized quality assurance in education. Although Australia's Quality Framework in

Education and the UK's Ofsted seem to be best known, according to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2012), there are many nations that require government-based quality assurance or accreditation. There does not appear to be a comprehensive list of nations which require national quality assurance; but we are aware that Hong Kong, Japan, China, Singapore, Korea, Flanders and Norway also expect international schools to participate in localized quality assurance frameworks and strict nationalized requirements (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2012).

There are a few organizations that track the growth of international schools and their work and can provide another measure of the scope of this problem. According to ICEF Monitor (2014), by 2024 there will be over 12,000 international schools teaching 6.9 million students and generating an annual fee income of over US\$62 billion. ISC Research (2017) found that in the year 2000, there were approximately one million children attending approximately 2,500 international schools globally. Currently, ICEF Monitor (2018) reports 9,600 K-12 English as a medium of instruction international schools worldwide -- serving 5.1 million students and generating approximately US\$49 billion in annual fee income. Once considered an option for expatriates on generous salary packages, these schools with their alternatives to national curricula currently draw only 20% of their students from expatriate families, with 80% of the students coming from local families (ICEF Monitor, 2018).

Curriculum standards and practices represent the most divergent element between local and international school contexts -- as well as provide an indicator of the scope of this problem. Many international schools operate one (occasionally both) of the two best-known international curricula: Cambridge Assessment International Education, and the IB. According to the Cambridge website, there are more than 10,000 Cambridge schools in over 160 countries worldwide (Cambridge Assessment International Examinations, 2019); and as for IB, in March

2019, they reported there were 6,521 programmes being offered worldwide across 5,000 schools in 153 countries (International Baccalaureate Organization, 2019). These organizations also provide their own accreditation/regulatory requirements which are often quite different in scope, philosophy and focus from those expected at host national levels. A single school having to meet both sets of often-divergent requirements is a challenge for the entire school community and can pose a threat to their ability to focus effectively on either set of requirements.

There are many international organizations attempting to create quality assurance standards and accreditation systems specifically for international schools, which can be widely acknowledged on local and international levels. The Council of International Schools (2017) is perhaps the best known and offers international accreditation through a peer-based model, which is affiliated with the US National Association of Independent Schools' Commission on Accreditation. There is also a UK-based organization ASIC (2017) which offers quality assurance accreditation based on incorporating aspects of the Ofsted model on a wide range of issues -- including health and safety, governance, management practices, and teaching and learning. The Federation of British International Schools (2017) also offers an Ofsted-linked international school "Quality Mark" accreditation; however, their services seem to be best known only among international schools in Asia. The challenge is that none of these organizations are widely accepted by the nations in which our international schools operate. This difficulty may lie in the close ties these international organizations hold to particular western nations and the values those nations represent -- rather than integrating some of the values and practices of host nations.

Guiding Questions Emerging from Problem of Practice and Leadership Focused Vision for Change

In their work on leadership in Asia Pacific international schools, Lee, Hallinger and Walker (2012) refer to a list of features that shape leadership in international schools (p. 294). These include high levels of: Expectation and diversity in parental expectations; staff and student turnover and mobility; politics surrounding the principal position and diversity of staff; student and board populations (Lee et al., 2012, p. 294). The challenges associated with these features are compounded by pressures associated with unclear roles, and inappropriate and fluid participation of board members in school operations -- combined with competitive pressure for student intake. Most importantly for leadership in the context of this OIP proposal are the conflicts and pressures arising from compliance with host country laws and policies (Lee et al., 2012). Lee and colleagues (2012) took this list of features from the original work of Blandford and Shaw (2001), who presented this list not as about “leadership” but as defining features which distinguish international schools “in terms of the way in which they work” from their national counterparts (p. 21). Drawing then from the intention of both sets of authors, this list of factors can provide us with questions to guide us through the complicated problems which arise in international schools -- such as the ones in our group who are doing the complex work of meeting the requirements of nationalized quality assurance.

The first question which arises concerns how can our organization, especially at the director level, manage the cultural and national complexity of the staff and student populations? Secondly, how can the directors better manage their complex and fluid roles, as is common in international schools (and in the case of our organization, the ownership)? And finally, how can the directors effectively provide the motivation and capacity building required to have the

principals do the work of aligning local requirements and international values, standards and practices.

The first question around cultural and national complexity will be considered in this OIP in relation to the works of Hofstede (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019) and Dimmock and Walker (2000). These cross-cultural thinkers also provide a lens for analysis when considering the second question: The complex and fluid leadership provided by the directors. To consider this question, we will turn to the work of Lee et al. (2012) and their work on distributed leadership. The third question -- relating to the need to align local requirements and international values, standards and practices -- will use a cross-cultural focus on distributed leadership to consider the work of Kirsch, Chelliah and Parry (2012) and their cross-cultural approach to the drivers that moderate the impact of change.

Organizational Change Readiness

Aligning the requirements of nationalized quality systems with international school standards and practices requires significant changes across our schools. However, change is not new to our organization; rather it has been my experience inside the organization that change is constant. Since I joined the organization about three years ago, I have participated in the opening of at least 10 new international schools across a number of countries. Each of our schools is unique, each serving a slightly different blend of the international and local community, and each having teachers and students drawn from across the globe. Our organization fits the description of change as outlined by Tsoukas and Chia (2002) wherein change is a routine or even necessary part of organizational growth -- and not a sudden event.

Although change is not new to our organization, careful consideration of change as involving processes and stakeholders is not widely practiced. I am not aware of any form of change theory or change frameworks ever being applied in the history of our organization.

According to Judge and Douglas (2009), the primary reason that approximately 70% of planned organizational change initiatives fail is due to a lack of assessment instruments to measure an organization's capacity for change. Indeed, I am not aware of the directors making a conscious effort to consider the level of change readiness of the organization prior to implementing change. In their work examining and building on the literature on Organizational Capacity for Change (OCC), Heckmann, Steger and Dowling (2016) found that though change is now widely agreed to be constant and competitively vital to any organization, much of the existing advice on change tend to see change as periodic disruptions to normal operation (Heckmann et al., 2016).

When looking at the history of the growth of our organization, developing more than 100 schools internationally within a 25-year period, change is clearly a normal operational aspect of our organization -- and not an episodic event. The work of Lewin (1947) and his well-established consideration of unfreezing-moving-refreezing model of change readiness, seems to be the dominant, if inaccurate, way of viewing change inside our organization. The process Lewin (1947) outlined involves the stakeholders coming to the understanding that change is required -- thereby 'unfreezing' -- then taking action towards the change -- through 'moving' -- and then once again returning to the first position but with some new elements incorporated from the change -- by 'refreezing'.

Since joining the organization, each time I have been involved in opening a new international school, the discussion and planning around the changes required have been handled as if the resources and changes required are in isolation from the many other changes going on inside the organization -- considering the additional work as episodic, rather than routine. Despite this thinking, I have personally experienced that we quickly move onto the next school opening -- with no noticeable reduction of workload. I have consequently experienced a

refreezing process before the next big change or project comes along; the moving aspect has been constant.

Although other models of organizational change readiness avoids this assumption of spasmodic change, they may be too prescriptive for an organization like ours. I find that some of the criticism outlined by Hughes (2016) of Kotter's eight-step model of organizational readiness for change to be also relevant for our organization. First, the prescriptive order of the eight steps which Kotter describes is difficult to apply to the many changes already in process inside our organization at any given time Hughes (2016). Our organization is going through many changes simultaneously and change is experienced differently in each school; we need a model that considers factors that can be picked up at different times and in support of different change initiatives for consideration.

Organizational capacity for change

To consider our readiness for the change required to align national and international standards, I will engage in Judge and Douglas' (2009) OCC construct and its eight dimensions. The work of Judge and Douglas (2009) is most appropriate for our organization at this time because it allows for the flexibility we need to consider our organization in relation to this particular change, while incorporating our complex history of change.

Trustworthy leadership

The first OCC construct for consideration outlined by Judge and Douglas (2009) is Trustworthy Leadership. This refers to the ability of the senior leadership to establish trust inside the organization (Judge & Douglas, 2009). The senior leadership has generally cultivated a high level of trust, although this is somewhat at risk as we are currently experiencing a generational transition in leadership inside our family-based leadership structure. The incoming generation of leadership does an excellent job of sustaining leadership, which is vital to maintaining trust

inside an organization. They are a good example of Hargreaves' (2007) advice on sustainable leadership: Respecting past ideas and practices, and commonly bringing them into everyday experiences.

The new leadership and the outgoing leadership share many values, and it is still much evident in trust and respect between them. There is a strong tendency among the directors to demonstrate a common front, through the support of each other's initiatives, respect for decisions made and articulation of appreciation for work done. It is also promising that many of the evident practices of transition are also in line with the advice of Lambert (2007) on sustainable leadership, as both generations are focused on learning from each other, and so far that learning appears reciprocal and purposeful. However, the division of power inside the organization has become unclear, with roles and authority still heavily reliant on the outgoing generation and clear transitional plans not yet in place or at least not yet clearly communicated to the middle leadership. Taking all this into account, I believe that the directors meet this consideration and have established trustworthy leadership.

Involved middle management

The next dimension of Judge and Douglas' (2009) OCC is Involved Middle Management. This refers to the ability of the middle leaders to effectively link the senior leaders with the rest of the organization (Judge & Douglas, 2009). The senior leadership, both incoming and outgoing, manage large portfolios of their own work. This limits the time and opportunities shared between them and the most relevant tier of middle leadership in the organization, the principals.

These two tiers of leadership rarely meet as a group, with only a few meetings each academic year. The directors and the principals meet at other times, but only on an as required basis, such as when there is some crisis in the school. In general, the directors are not able to

spend much time in individual schools, and have limited awareness of the individual operational cultures of each school. As the group continues to grow, there seems to be even less available time for interaction between the principals and the directors. Given these barriers, I believe that this dimension is not met and the directors are not enough involved in middle management.

Trusting followers, capable champions and effective communication

The next three of Judge and Douglas' (2009) dimensions for measuring organizational readiness for considerations are Trusting Followers, Capable Champions and Effective Communication. Inside our organization, these three dimensions interact deeply in the consideration of our OCC. Trusting Followers refers to the tendency of stakeholders to dissent and yet still participate with the change, while Capable Champions refers to the ability to attract and retain people who can be effective leaders in change processes (Judge & Douglas, 2009). The hierarchical nature of the company seems to encourage the capacity to follow among most of the relevant stakeholders thus allowing our organization to meet this dimension of the organizational readiness.

While our organization has many trusting followers, this same hierarchical nature -- with much of the power concentrated at the top levels -- provides little encouragement for sustaining capable champions. As a result, there are often many followers but few champions -- creating what Cawsey, Deszca and Ingols (2016) call responsibility diffusion. This occurs when there are many people working on change but few are willing to take leadership, leading to confusion and missed deadlines (Cawsey et al., 2016). Responsibility diffusion also affects another measure of the OCC: Effective Communication across the group, especially among important stakeholders and customers (Judge & Douglas, 2009). In general, there is good communication among stakeholders, although once again the general lack of capable champions means that although communication is passed around, action may be delayed or not taken at all. This tendency

towards responsibility diffusion combined with the generally short tenures of principals in international schools – on average 2.8 years (Hawley, 1994) – has limited the effectiveness of past change processes, as well as interfered with the development of effective communication, especially over the long term.

Accountable culture

This connects to another dimension of the OCC, Accountable Culture, which considers the ability of the organization to effectively manage resources to meet change related deadlines (Judge & Douglas, 2009). Although deadlines are often met, they are often ‘just in time’ responses within the organization, which again can be linked to responsibility diffusion and a lack of capable champions. So although resources often galvanize just in time, it is an area that could be greatly improved.

Systems thinking

The next dimension of OCC as outlined by Judge and Douglas (2009) is around Systems Thinking which refers to the ability of the organization to isolate and understand the root causes and make both internal and external linkages. Systems thinking can also be considered by examining both internal and external forces working for and against change in the organization. Cawsey et al. (2016) suggests that organizations conduct a Force Field Analysis to consider both internal and external forces that drive and restrain change. Internal forces supporting this change include the power of existing capable champions, the high number of followers, and the sustainability of leadership to work for change -- all of which tend to be long-term supports for change. However, there are many principals at the middle leadership level inside the group who strongly resist change -- especially when change is imposed from outside their school -- preferring to focus on their own ideas and opinions about changes within their school.

In the coming chapters, we will closely examine the opinions and relationship in relation to this change and closely consider ways in which the directors can focus on enhancing capacity development and motivation towards this change. External forces, which are driving us towards this change, are government imposed regulatory issues. However, there are also significant pressures to maintain international curriculum standards due to parents' expectations and business requirements. Overall, there are significant systems in the organization which support change over the long term. These systems can work to offset the resisting power of external forces, providing some balance and allowing our organization to meet this dimension. However, the organization does not tend to employ systems thinking in their weighing of internal and external forces and often makes changes on an ad hoc or as required basis -- and so systems thinking needs to be applied consistently in order to maintain the balance in this dimension.

Innovative culture

The last dimension for consideration, Innovative Culture, considers the ability of the organization to encourage and sustain innovation (Judge & Douglas, 2009). Our organization has many innovative individuals throughout the leadership structure, as well as among individual educators and administrators. These innovative individuals often bring forward ideas that can help manage change needed by external forces (especially in business and government environments) and allows the organization as a whole to meet deadlines for change -- with the support of the many followers inside the organization. This generally innovative culture, even if 'just in time', has allowed the senior leadership to better predict changes before they become too urgent. Also, our innovative culture has allowed the senior leadership to enhance their systems thinking, and better mobilize external government and business forces by building innovative partnerships and cultivating important relationships.

Through this OCC, it has become clear the strongest barriers to organizational readiness for change revolve around maintaining an adequate body of capable champions and better establishing a similar level of sustainability among middle leadership -- as exists at the senior leadership level. Also, the directors have the potential to enhance communication by being more involved in middle management. On the other hand, the organization has established strong sustainability in director-level leadership, which enhances predictability and stability which in turn enhances trust among leaders and followers -- as well as strengthens the effectiveness of its innovation and systems thinking. Our internal strengths can act as a counter force to the pressures arising on the leadership to align local and international -- creating a relatively balanced foundation to begin the work of organizational change.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have reflected on the strength of the brand developed over 25 years into 100 schools internationally -- founded by a creative, visionary entrepreneur who has developed an organization based on strong ideals. This organization is in the process of transitioning to another family member who is demonstrating a strong tendency towards sustainability in leadership and is continuing the legacy of transformative leadership practice. These strengths have created a strong and pragmatic foundation. However, as the organization grows, it faces significant challenges in preparing its international schools and their unique standards and practices to meet nationalized requirements. The ability to meet these nationalized requirements while maintaining the integrity of individual schools international standards and practices provides the leadership with the opportunity to truly enact the vision of the organization of improving the future through education. By injecting international standards and international dialogues into the nationalized systems in which we operate, we can enact positive changes and open enriching dialogues with regulators.

In order to meet this challenge, the directors need to address the questions which have arisen around the fluidity of their roles and in turn the type of leadership which can best manage a group of international schools. They also need to consider the question of how to best manage the cultural and national complexity of the staff -- in particular, the principals -- in order to more effectively provide the motivation and capacity building required to have the principals do the work of aligning local requirements and international values, standards and practices. If the directors are able to harness these challenges, they can transform them into strengths and in the process enrich their own practice as leaders -- as well as, strengthen the connection to the organization among the principals and the staff across the organization -- providing a set of culturally appropriate tools to enact this change and many of the yet unforeseen changes the future holds. In all of our decisions, changes and actions, there are individuals who represent the range of cultural values; this diversity allows us to access a wider range of ideas and perspectives, making us better able to manage change now and in the future.

Chapter 2: Planning and Development

Introduction

Visionary leadership (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989) and its combination with transformative leadership practice as outlined by Shields (2011) has inspired the organization to grow into a substantial number of schools. However, when considering the first of the guiding questions of this problem of practice arising in chapter one -- how can our organization, in this current climate with its large and culturally diverse population of staff and students, manage this level of complexity -- it becomes clear that this type of leader-centric practice is too centralized, concentrating leadership among too few individuals to effectively enact change across such a large and complex organization. Although there has been a strong emphasis on transformative practice, inspiration and development, a multinational education organization of dozens of preschools, primary schools and secondary schools across Asia needs to work beyond the capacity of a single leader to motivate individuals across the organization. In an organization spanning so many nations and cultures, leadership theories that embrace complexity are more appropriate.

In this chapter, we will examine the complexity of our organization with a focus on cultural complexity through a lens of Hofstede (2011) -- in particular the country comparisons he outlined. We will use this work of Hofstede to consider appropriate leadership styles with a focus on the actions of Distributed Leadership practice as outlined by Gronn (2002). We will then use a cross-cultural focus on Distributed Leadership to consider the work of Kirsch and colleagues (2012) and their cross-cultural approach to the drivers that moderate the impact of change. Together, these leadership and change theories can provide the directors with theoretical guidance to enable change in an organization as complex as this.

Leadership Approaches to Change

Complexity leadership theory as outlined by Lichtenstein, Uhl-Bien, Marion, Seers, Orton and Schreiber (2006) provides some guidance for complex and adaptive systems such as the one which operates inside our organization. They point to a more decentralized focus on leadership and towards the leadership which emerges from the social forces at work among various actors within organizations -- taking the focus away from the work of a single individual and instead of placing focus on the direction arising from interactions. This level of complexity demands leadership that is more than a single individual can provide; instead of a type of leadership which invites concerted action, arising when multiple individuals contributing their knowledge, passion and motivation to the group (Gronn, 2002). This type of leadership is more descriptive of what actually happens in an organization like ours with so many cultural forces occurring across so many nations. I have had a few recent experiences in which large projects were enacted -- the opening of a high school, and the initiation and coordination of a large international education conference -- in which there was no clear leader. Instead, these successful projects had several small teams interacting through which leadership was fluid and decentralized.

According to work done by Tourish (2019) examining existing literature on complexity leadership theory, the theory has yet to develop to the point where there is a consistently agreed upon path for understanding leader-follower dynamics; there also seems to be a general lack of an overarching version of the theory to which everyone subscribes. According to Fenwick (2010), complexity theory lacks constructs to guide individuals through power-based relationships, politics and responsibility. Fenwick (2010) warns us that complexity leadership theory currently does not provide us with much guidance in relation to the hierarchies in relationships, especially those constructed around knowledge and position. These types of

relationships are generally quite important to the agency I enact within the organization, especially across cultural values.

Complexity leadership theory as outlined by Lichtenstein et al. (2006) can be difficult to enact because the chain of command is unclear, which demands a great deal of autonomy of the team members and flexibility in planning. The theory and practice connections for complexity theory -- because arising spontaneously -- are difficult to predict and rely on a certain amount of faith in the leadership abilities of others. While engaging in these projects in which complexity theory was spontaneously enacted, I noticed a great deal of uncertainty among my colleagues and fellow directors. There were frequent questions about "who is in charge?", and evident uncertainty about who is to blame when things go wrong, and who deserves credit when things go well. In these recent projects, I believe there was a lot more communication -- some of it unnecessary -- because lines of communication were less clear. However, I also found the feeling of teamwork and shared appreciation was more rewarding than within more conventional leadership experiences. In their work examining the enactment of complexity leadership theory, Mendes, Gomes, Marques-Quinteiro, Lind and Curral (2016) found that team performance improved when the emergent leaders were allowed to react to the needs of the team. Mendes et al. (2016) also found that self-organizing teams had higher efficiency and that leadership roles had better opportunities for growth inside those teams.

It is my observation that fear of blame and the seeking of praise are both important motivators toward increasing efficacy and enacting growth -- which can get lost in the type of leadership proposed by complexity theory. In general, in the existing literature on complexity leadership, the nature of how the leader and follower interaction emerges and is engaged still remains largely unexplained (Tourish, 2019). This opens spaces to take a cross-cultural analysis

on the leadership and relationships which arise among groups of motivated individuals, as will be done through a cross-cultural approach to distributed leadership.

Despite its weaknesses in this context, complexity theory provides some tools to enact the types of leadership which are possible given the density of complicated interactions and the social forces at play in our organization -- in particular, those rooted in national culture. To provide a leadership lens complex and practical enough, we can instead look to the combined work of Hofstede (2011) and Dimmock and Walker (2000), as well as begin to address the second guiding question which arose in chapter one: How can the directors better manage their complex and fluid roles, as is common in international schools. To consider this question, we will turn to the work of Lee and colleagues (2012) and their work on distributed leadership.

Many scholars in the field of leadership theory have pointed to the vital importance of cross-cultural consideration in approaching school leadership theory (Dimmock & Walker, 2000; Blandford & Shaw, 2001; Lee et al., 2012; Hayden & Thompson, 2016). An examination of the current principals of our 14 home nation based international schools (Appendix A) has Singapore, the UK and India making the largest groups in terms of national cultural breakdown. To quantify the differences in approach to leadership that are shaped by cultural and national perspectives, I will call upon the work of Geert Hofstede and in particular their country comparisons (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019).

Cultural dimensions.

Hofstede defines culture as a “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one group from another” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 25) and he goes on to define collective programming as “patterns of thinking and feeling and potential acting” (Hofstede, 1991, p. 4). He isolated six dimensions along which societal norms and values could be analyzed and measured: Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long-Term

Orientation, and Indulgence (Hofstede, 2011). To gain a more concrete understanding of the commonalities and differences of culturally-rooted values on the work of our international school leaders in Singapore, we will focus on Hofstede's cultural dimension measures which show the greatest disparity in three of the largest national cultural groupings among our principals as listed in Table 2 (Appendix B): Singapore, UK and India (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019). These cultural dimensions will also be cross-referenced with Dimmock and Walker (2000) work which was built upon Hofstede's (2011) cultural dimensions to create a cross-cultural leadership and management model for international education.

Power distance

First, we will consider Power Distance, which according to Hofstede refers to the level that institutions and organizations within a national culture accept that power is not distributed equally (Hofstede, 2011). A high score indicates that individuals are comfortable with hierarchy and power-concentrated societal structures. In this dimension, India and Singapore both carry a relatively high score -- 77 and 74 respectively -- with the highest scores 104 internationally being attributed Slovak Republic and Malaysia (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019). While the UK carries a score of 35, indicating a large gap separating their collective attitudes about power distance (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019).

Dimmock and Walker (2000) reworked this dimension into a power-distributed/concentrated model to emphasize that societies with a high level of acceptance of power difference are also more likely to concentrate power and decision-making at the top of organizations. This distinction is important to an organization like ours -- based in a national culture with a high score and high level of comfort among the local directors with power concentrated at the top of the organization. Due to this comfort with power concentration, there is a strong expectation among the Singapore directors that the principals also concentrate power

at the top of their schools -- providing them with all the agency required to make any type of change required. Surrounding these problems, there still seems to be a certain amount of confusion among the Singaporean staff and directors as to why this top-down strategy is not sufficient to engage principals in making the changes required to meet nationalized quality assurance requirements. However, even though the directors do expect that the principals align their schools to nationalized requirements, the principals -- most notably the ones from the UK -- resist this expectation and have in general completely refused to participate in nationalized measures -- opting instead to hire local staff to implement the required changes, resulting in limited success.

Ambivalence towards quality assurance in the UK is also evident in the literature on the topic. In her scathing criticism of Ofsted inspections, Anastasia de Waal (2006) points to quality assurance as to the source of creating unnecessary standards and practices which discourage talent and innovation in favour of standardized practices which are simply easier to measure. Richards (2016), a British expatriate now headmaster of the British International School in Phuket, Thailand, writes about how any form of standardization or quality assurance in schools adds of unnecessary bureaucracy which discourages creativity and good practice among teachers -- stripping them of independence and eventually pushing the best teachers out of education. In his work on German teacher resistance to school reform, Terhart (2013) quotes a speech by Hargreaves in which he says, "change is war". Terhart (2013) goes on to say that it is "a war in disguise", claiming that change initiatives in education rarely address this core issue of resistance to change among educators, and that all too often change leaders assume that other educationalists are simply waiting around for someone to suggest change (p. 488). I believe this resistance and the divergent expectations it often creates can be linked to power-distributed/concentrated perspectives and the discomfort of the principals first with simply being

expected to follow a directive which may not be in the best interest of the school and second with a lack of understanding at a director level of this resistance to power concentration.

Individualism

The next of Hofstede's (2011) dimensions with a significant difference in score between Singapore, UK and India is Individualism -- which refers to the tendencies of individuals to define their self-image on an "I" or a "We" basis. The score for the UK of 89 is globally among the highest -- only topped by other Commonwealth countries, with the United States having the top score of 91 (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019). In an 'I' oriented national culture such as the UK, identity is constructed on the primary importance of the needs of the individual over the needs of the group (Hofstede, 2011). With a medium score on this measure of 48, people from India show both collectivist and individualistic traits; however, with a score of 20, Singapore is a collectivist society in which people will generally have tendencies to act in the interest of the group (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019).

Dimmock and Walker (2000) have extended this dimension to be group-oriented/self-oriented, emphasizing the effect that group and self-orientation has on the nature of relationships. In self-oriented countries, relationships tend to be loose and transient, and based primarily on self-interest; while in group-oriented cultures, relationships are close and strong -- in which the needs of the individual are secondary to the needs of the group (Dimmock & Walker, 2000). Under this dimension, we can better understand the stronger motivation of local staff to submit to quality assurance -- for the best interest of the organization -- while the leaders from more self-oriented cultures will not be sufficiently motivated to do the work of alignment and will require another form of motivation (Dimmock & Walker, 2000).

Uncertainty avoidance

The next dimension showing a significant difference in score in Hofstede's (2011) dimensions is Uncertainty Avoidance. The score in this dimension reflects the feeling towards unknown situations and the extent to which society creates beliefs and institutions to avoid uncertainty (Hofstede, 2011). With the world's lowest score of 8, Singaporeans embrace a high level of structure and are generally accepting of abiding by the many rules in order to avoid uncertainty; while India at 40 and the UK at 35, have medium-low scores and so are generally more accepting of some uncertainty and are generally not accepting of a high level of regulation in their society -- with Greece carrying the world's highest score at 112 (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019).

Dimmock and Walker (2000) have expanded this dimension into Proactivism/Fatalism, to reflect that some nations higher on this index also tend to believe that they can change things, while nations lower on this index tend to be more accepting of the way things are. This has been evident in observing the approach to nationalized quality assurance among the principals from our different national cultures under consideration. Singaporean leaders have been more willing to accept nationalized requirements as the way things are -- even required to ensure everyone has access to quality education -- while the UK origin principals do not generally feel the regulation is required or beneficial, and therefore do not feel they should be subjected to the requirements. The UK principals tend to feel that they are proactive enough to ensure that their school is already at a high quality and do not require the nationalized oversight.

Conclusion

Cultural complexity arising from attitudes and values about power distribution, individualism, and proactivism greatly shape our approaches to problems. Traditional discourse in leadership have often come from an ethnocentric Anglo-American perspective, and theories

tend to ignore these vital differences in approach -- placing much current educational management discourse on an unstable structure, especially when applied in international contexts (Dimmock & Walker, 2000). Cross-cultural perspectives like those outlined by Hofstede can provide valuable perspectives on behaviour norms and expectations to leaders -- especially those working and living among expatriate and local communities. However, this type of cultural analysis can also be used to justify over simplification and generalization of characteristics of groups of people (Lumby and Foskett, 2011). The categories used in Hofstede's (2011) analysis include words which are heavily laden with values and assumptions, which are themselves rooted in cultural thinking. What it means to have power, be individualistic or masculine, experience uncertainty or indulgence (Hofstede, 2011) all can mean very different things to different people based on their culture of origin. On the other hand as a leader, cross-cultural perspectives can be a useful means to help understand and mitigate culturally rooted norms and expectations -- differences which can pose barriers to capacity development and enacting leadership.

The directors of our organization need to adopt leadership practices that are rooted in these cultural differences in order to be effective in our complex cultural construct. This brings us to the next theme which shapes leadership international schools -- the complex and fluid role of the directors.

Framework for Leading the Change Process

Distributed leadership

With complex and fluid roles in culturally complex situations, the directors can turn to the work of Gronn (2002) and his work on Distributed Leadership to provide a framework for exploring how to more effectively lead across a large and complex international education organization. Gronn (2002) refers to distributed leadership as a concerted action that intentionally distributes responsibilities widely across the organization. Gronn (2002) describes three forms or actions through which leadership can be directed. First, there are collaborative forms of working together which arise spontaneously in the workplace. In these collaborative relationships, there are connecting points among individuals through shared interests, knowledge or experiences -- these working relationships are usually formed around a project, idea or initiative, which can end just as spontaneously as it began (Gronn, 2002). Second, there are more intuitive relationships which develop from common understandings and shared experiences among colleagues -- these spontaneous relationships are more intimate, closer to friendships and usually continue to grow outside of work relationship or environments (Gronn, 2002). Third, there are formalized, structured, often hierarchical relationship and which are connected through institutionalized arrangements and resources (Gronn, 2002).

This type of relationship is most commonly based on a chain of command relationship, which may not involve any form of affinity or collaboration and there may not be trust or sustainability to the relationship outside of an imposed hierarchy (Gronn, 2002). We will also draw upon some of the practices of complexity leadership theory outlined by Lichtenstein et al. (2006) and shift our focus away from the work of an individual leader -- but instead to focus on the interactions which arise in culturally complex situations as locations for change and culturally appropriate leadership practice. By looking closely at interactions and expectations

which arise in relation to national cultural constructs, we can transcend one of the flaws of distributed leadership articulated by Gronn (2016) in his work on deeply considering the implications of distributing leadership. He argues that although distributed leadership is about spreading leadership across an organization, in practice this most often results in a single core leader whose role is to discharge roles out to others -- with too much of a focus still placed on that single leader (Gronn, 2016).

Lee and colleagues (2012) provide a link to education through their examination of Distributed Leadership in East Asian IB International Schools. Their work focuses on the role of distributed leadership in relation to instructional leadership; however, due to the general lack of research on international schools, especially in the Asian context (Lee et al., 2012), it provides us with the most contextually appropriate source of insight into leadership for our current problem. Their work found that distributed leadership is an ideal form of leadership in the diverse contexts of international schools because distributed leadership -- as opposed to shared, collective or collaborative leadership -- does not require people share the same values or goals (Lee et al., 2012). The schools they examined shared the themes that define international schools and their leadership, as well as reflect many common characteristics with our own organization. Each of the schools they worked in was made up of both staff and students from literally dozens of countries, making them as culturally complex as our organization (Lee et al., 2012).

The work on distributed leadership of Gronn (2002) seen through a cross-cultural lens can allow us to focus on the relationship and interactions already existing and work with those from a cross-cultural perspective -- shifting some of the focus away from the leaders at the core and instead of moving that focus to the interactions at play. Lee et al. (2012) isolated three types of action through which distributed leadership is enacted in the international IB schools they considered: Spontaneous collaboration, intuitive working relationships, and institutionalized

practices (p. 670). Two of three of these actions focus on relationships which are seen from a cross-cultural perspective can provide concrete locations in which not only to more effectively distribute leadership but also to shift focus to the interactions, which can be further deepened by applying the national cultural tendencies as outlined by Dimmock and Walker (2000). The leaders can use these actions of distributed leadership -- informed by cultural considerations and relationships -- to address gaps in motivation and capacity for individual principals, bringing them closer to enacting nationalized requirements in their schools.

Spontaneous collaboration

The first action of Distributed Leadership as outlined Gronn (2002) and witnessed by Lee and colleagues (2012) from an international school context is Spontaneous Collaboration (SC). This refers to the leadership they found which is enacted with and through groups that have arisen from naturally occurring interactions among staff as they work towards tasks (Lee et al., 2012). SC is a valuable tool for the directors in enacting Distributed Leadership from a culturally aligned perspective -- especially well suited to leading individual principals from power-distributed cultural orientations. Because authority is not enacted in a top-down manner in power-distributed cultures, SC creates strong grouping in which information and capacity development can be enacted -- allowing individual principals from power-distributed cultural orientations to feel more agency over change (Lee et al., 2012).

SC also appeals to the motivation for both group and self-oriented national cultures. Because of its spontaneous nature, principals from self-oriented cultures will naturally tend to join a group as it meets their needs in some way -- which will powerfully enhance their motivation to continue working with that group -- while culturally group-oriented principals will appreciate the common benefit which arises in this type of collaboration. For these reasons, it makes sense for the directors to focus on capacity-building projects which target those areas in

which SC arises, especially in relation to specific areas of compliance with local and nationalized requirements. For example, all of the principals who currently resist the nationalized requirements are from proactive cultures and feel that the quality of their curriculum implementation, and standards and practices are generally strong. Invitations to share these strong practices through professional development or coaching opportunities would invite SC from both proactive and fatalistic cultural tendency groups -- and in turn, would increase individual capacity, as well as the capacity of the group. Offering capacity building opportunities through SC networks will also allow some initially resistant individuals to closely examine their standards and practices -- perhaps bringing them a step closer to alignment with nationalized systems. This in turn may lead to further SC -- opening new possibilities and dialogues.

Intuitive working relationships

The next type of action in distributed leadership outlined by Gronn (2002) and observed by Lee et al. (2012) in the international school contexts they examined is Intuitive Working Relationships (IWR). These relationships arise from common understandings and approaches -- allowing for enhanced reliance among colleagues -- and lend well to the distribution of leadership. I have observed that there are many strong IWR among principals, which arise not from a shared task but as shared friendship and partially linked through work roles -- often having a deeper more personal connection at their root. These relationships tend to fall along the cultural-national lines already outlined and rarely seem to cross-cultures. However, it still may be possible to use these existing working relations to bridge some of the gaps in understanding and motivation.

By creating opportunities for these distinct groups to come together -- with other IWR groups -- there exists an opportunity to share ideas and compare approaches. For example, a dialogue across existing groups can consider national quality assurance between existing

practices in Singapore and existing practices in the UK. Also, the directors can target these same IWR, especially among resistant principals to share their proactive approaches to the curriculum with the existing group of less resistant principals who may have less proactive approaches to curriculum.

Institutionalized practices

The last area of action in distributed leadership which was seen by Lee and colleagues (2012) and in international schools and can be culturally targeted are Institutionalized Practices. These include formalized organizational structures such as committees and working groups that are often hierarchical with considerable resources directed through them (Lee et al., 2012). This is currently the dominant action of leadership inside our organization, with large tasks frequently being tackled by individuals or committees formed based on director recommendation and work role. In this way, I believe that a culturally appropriate approach to distributing leadership through institutionalized practice can offer the most potential to enacting change inside the organization -- as it is the most familiar leadership approach for existing directors.

In relation to this Problem of Practice, there has been little collaborative work done -- with the majority of the work and dialogue around the issue happening with individual principals behind closed doors. I believe that the future practice for the directors from a top-down perspective should involve bringing together collaborative and intuitive groups and relationships -- allowing those groups to drive committee structures and build relationships and capacity. The directors can bring together existing collaborative groups and intuitive relationships to subtly facilitate those groups to expand in size and capacity -- this would meet the cultural needs and expectations of all of our national groups.

Directors can enhance motivation by working with the existing strengths of groups, encouraging these strengths to be shared and developed. Distributing tasks and committees based

on strengths and commonalities -- which have formed naturally -- while strategically adding members to the group who need to be moved along in the change management process. The groups can work with their existing strengths, while slowly building trust and capacity with members who may not have joined the group without being formally required to do so.

Distributed leadership aligns with my own experiences in working across cultures in multi-national environments as it respects and enhances existing relationships without trying to impose norms and values which may not be culturally appropriate. Also, distributive leadership enhances collaborative practices among individuals and across groups, building a capacity that I believe is vital to effective and transformative education practice. These actions of distributed leadership, especially seen from a cross-cultural perspective, can provide directors with the type of action they need to make their complex and fluid roles more effective in leading the principals towards the motivation and capacity they require to affect international and nationalized alignment changes.

Critical Organizational Analysis

Literature commonly considers change in two ways: ad hoc or episodic change, which tends to be reactive and sudden in nature; and continuous change, which tends to be a normal part of the ongoing work of the organization built into the structure and practice, and more proactive in nature (Cawsey et al., 2016). Although the change at hand -- aligning international schools standards and practices to meet nationalized requirements -- occurs in more of an episodic manner, addressing it will require continuous practices built into the leadership of the organization. Our organization tends to have both reactive and proactive tendencies. It is often reactive in its operational culture, reacting to market or policy shifts with major changes. However, on the other hand, its pedagogical leadership is expected to work in a proactive manner constantly monitoring schools and their leadership to maintain relatively high

pedagogical standards -- along with maintaining a relatively innovate practice culture. The problem at hand involves both operational and pedagogical alignment to occur at a director level and in the schools -- and so requires a shift towards a more proactive change -- while incorporating behaviours of those who are often reactive in their approach to change.

Cawsey et al. (2016) argue that embracing both approaches to change -- reactive and proactive -- is beneficial to sustained and successful organizational growth. I believe that a flexible culturally appropriate approach to distributed leadership applied to change management can accommodate a range of reactions to change, especially those which may be culturally rooted. To enable this type of flexibility, we will use a cross-cultural focus on distributed leadership to consider the work of Kirsch et al. (2012) and their cross-cultural approach to the drivers that moderate the impact of change. This will also allow us to address the third question which arose in chapter one -- relating to addressing the complications in aligning local requirements and international values, standards and practices

In their work on the impact of cross-cultural dynamics on change management, Kirsch et al. (2012) identified six critical drivers that moderate the impact of change. These drivers which were isolated in a multinational survey -- where in turn, were measured in relation to Hofstede's work on national cultural tendencies (Kirsch et al., 2012) associating them with the actions of distributed leadership which have already been brought together with the works of Hofstede (2011) and Dimmock and Walker (2000). The six drivers of Kirsch and colleagues (2012) which moderate change in international environments are: Change leadership, Aligned direction, Emotional energy, Turbulence, Resources, and Work roles (Kirsch et al., 2012, p. 173). These drivers can be categorized under the three actions of distributed leadership outlined above.

Change leadership

The first change driver as outlined by Kirsch et al. (2012) is Change Leadership; they describe it as the strength and manner of how leaders engage with their people through different levels of the organization. This driver points to support the commitment to change demonstrated by the leadership -- and their skills in managing the team towards and through the change (Kirsch et al., 2012). Inside our organization, this driver is best aligned with the SC action of distributed leadership (Appendix C). Usually, a director floats a change initiative and principals or other leadership who are willing or interested rally around the change and begin to implement it. Often, these willing leaders work independently until they spontaneously begin to collaborate with others, who have also been drawn to the initiative. The directors can more effectively distribute their leadership in relation to this change by taking these spontaneously formed groups -- directing more support and resources to enhance the capacity of those already engaged in this change. The directors can assess and monitor the change in relation to this driver by keeping those engaged in the change well supported -- so they can remain positive about the change and motivate the principals who are resistant.

Aligned direction and emotional energy

The next set of change drivers outlined by Kirsch and colleagues (2012) are Aligned Direction and Emotional Energy. These change drivers fit well with the distributed leadership actions as outlined in Appendix C. Aligned Direction refers to the amount of information people have about the change and the capacity of everyone involved; while Emotional Energy refers to individuals understanding of an agreement with the change required (Kirsch et al., 2012). In our organization, people rely heavily on their intuitive groups for communication and understanding; they actively share information inside their intuitive groups, and often form opinions based on that information. This means the directors can focus on members of these existing relationships to ensure there is enough of the right information coming into each group. For example, the

intuitive groups that have formed along UK cultural lines can be targeted with relevant information about the personal benefit for the principals participating in nationalized frameworks. Members of the existing groups could also be offered additional resources for capacity building opportunities that enhance motivation. Strategically, targeting group members with resources and information can enhance the motivation and capacity of the entire group.

The next of Kirsch et al. (2012) drivers of change which is most suited to IWR is Emotional Energy; they describe emotional energy as the positive feelings that people have which motivate them towards the change. This emotional energy seems to most strongly arise within an IWR as people tend to gather in groups with common understandings about the issues which affect their work. Since these IWR already often arise in relation to national culture, to drive this change the directors can use culturally appropriate motivation strategies targeted to these IWR groups, to enhance positive feelings for the whole group. To assess, monitor and evaluate change in relation to aligned direction and emotional energy, it is again useful for the directors to connect with these intuitive groups -- verbally and in writing -- to monitor the amount and type of information and resources they have available -- to keep track over time their feelings about alignment.

Turbulence, resources, and work roles

The final three of Kirsch and colleagues (2012) change drivers are all categorized under the Institutionalized Practices of distributed leadership. The first change driver in this category to consider is Turbulence, which refers to the overall amount of change taking place inside the organization, and the pace and stage of those and other change processes (Kirsch et al., 2012). This driver is categorized under institutionalized practice because there are many current changes going on in the organization -- virtually all of which are driven by the directors and led by committees and groups convened by them. Our organization is in a phase of rapid growth,

especially in relation to the number of schools it carries and in turn, all of the additional initiatives a growing group of schools requires. Principals are often taken out of their schools to aid in opening new schools -- or to engage in other projects initiated by the directors. This makes the level of turbulence high, much of which comes directly from an institutionalized practice level and reflects a high level of power concentration.

The other change driver to consider under institutional practice is Resources; this refers to the skills and capabilities directed towards the change, and the systems and processes (Kirsch et al., 2012). There has so far been very little in terms of resources directed towards enhancing the capacity and motivation to engage in nationalized quality assurance. Most of the resources have been directed towards hiring a local staff person to handle these issues at each school engaged in both international and national quality assurance, instead of focusing on developing the motivation and capacities of those already leading the school community.

The last change driver for consideration under the institutional practice action of distributed leadership is Work Roles. For Kirsch et al. (2012), Work Roles refers to the level of involvement and accountability individuals have in relation to implementing change. In relation to this change, the directors have not set clear expectations in relation to the principal's role in implementing nationalized quality assurance. It seems again they have relied on the group-orientation of individual principals to drive the motivation required for this change -- with little or no resources directed to increasing capacity -- instead diverting the work role to a separate staff role further reducing capacity and motivation. The UK principals are proactive, and I believe that they can be made to understand that nationalized quality assurance is part of their role and if they are given resources to develop their understanding and capacity, they would come to see a level of individual benefit associated with this change.

The directors have a great deal of influence through their institutional practice -- to smooth out turbulence, provide resources and clarify roles -- which could drive forward the changes required to align international and national standards and practices. By working with Kirsch et al. (2012) and their change drivers -- through the actions of Distributed Leadership -- the directors can better use their complex and fluid roles to implement the changes in motivation and capacity required among the principals to address the requirements of both international and national systems, while continuing to respect the existing knowledge, experiences and relationships of the principals.

Possible Solutions to Address the Problem of Practice

Our organization's current leadership legacy -- with its roots in transformative leadership and capacity development using the Reggio Emilia approach -- has established a strong foundation on which the organization has been able to grow to its current size. However, this foundation -- although philosophically strong -- has left the organization vulnerable to the current problem of practice. Entrepreneurial-based, creator, transformative leadership -- as outlined in chapter one -- was good for growth and lent well to the leadership to enact transformative practice at both a director and school level; however, given the current size and scope of the organization at present, it is too individualized to work effectively. Our history of transformative practice has placed too strong of an emphasis on transformative leadership at an individual school level -- creating an environment in which the demands of national quality assurance are viewed sometimes from a hostile perspective amongst individual principals. A culturally grounded approach to change management enacted through distributed leadership as outlined in this paper can offer the complexity required for our directors to lead our organization through this change -- as well as be dynamic enough to handle the yet unknown problems which

are bound to arise in a large multinational organization. Two possible solutions will be discussed below.

The first solution is building the capacity and motivation of the principals required to align local and international standards and practices -- which involves the directors in enacting distributed leadership through SC and IWR as outlined by Gronn (2002). The second proposed solution is for the directors to place more focus on the Kirsch and colleagues (2012) change drivers related to institutional practices -- Turbulence, Resources and Work Roles -- to better support SC. Both solutions are complementary and can be enacted sequentially or independently. By doing this work of distributed leadership, the directors can also enact communities of practice. According to Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002), a community of practice refers to professional groups who come together on an ongoing basis, and share concerns and practices which in turn deepen their thinking and expertise. In their review of existing literature on professional learning communities, Stoll and colleagues found that these spontaneously arising groups are the best way to build the capacity required to change education environments in a sustainable way (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace & Thomas, 2006). According to Stoll et al. (2006), capacity building arises out of a blending of motivation, skill, positive learning, organizational conditions and culture, and an infrastructure of support.

To implement these revised approaches to leadership, I believe an inquiry approach is appropriate because the core resources required for this change center mostly around developing the capacity of the leadership at both the director and principal level. According to Murdoch (2015), inquiry-based learning cycles are the best way to enact learning for adults and children -- learning which is rich in personal agency, voice, ownership and sustainability. The use of the inquiry cycle and its approach to understanding change is already what we do with our students in our schools -- and widely accepted by all of our stakeholders -- allowing for the co-

construction of knowledge. A large part of my role as the pedagogical director is to guide educators in the implementation of conceptually-driven, inquiry-based learning practice informed by the Reggio Emilia approach -- all of which carry strong linkages to constructivist learning theory and practice (Blessinger & Carfora, 2014). In their work examining the potential for inquiry-based practice, Blessinger and Carfora (2014) suggest that inquiry-based practice should be used across all aspects of educational environments to cultivate lifelong learning practice -- not just in classrooms but also among faculty and administrators.

In their literature review work on looking for common elements of inquiry cycles, Pedaste, Mäeots, Siiman, Jong, Riesen, Kamp, Manoli, Zacharia and Tsourlidaki (2015) identified five common inquiry phases -- orientation, conceptualization, investigation, conclusion, and discussion -- aligns well with the inquiry cycle created by Murdoch (2015), which is the one most commonly used model by educators across our organization. Murdoch's (2015) Inquiry Cycle includes six aspects: Tuning In, Finding Out, Sorting Out, Going Further, Making Conclusions, Taking Action (p. 68). I will combine Murdoch's (2015) work with the findings from Pedaste et al. (2015) to structure a framework which I will apply to implementing the solutions to the problem of practice arising when aligning nationalized systems with the standards and practices of international schools in a manner which also enacts continuous sustainable practice.

Inquiry into spontaneous collaboration and intuitive working relationships

The first solution for consideration is for the directors is to enact distributed leadership through SC and IWR as outlined by Lee et al. (2012). While enacting distributed leadership in this way, the directors should place the strongest focus on enhancing the change drivers of aligned direction and emotional energy as outlined by Kirsch et al. (2012) -- both of which reinforce the enactment of SC in Appendix C. The cross-cultural perspective as outlined above

enact more sustainable practices by acknowledging the needs of the different groups -- which arise both spontaneously and intuitively. This approach to change will also invite deeper inquiry into the actions required to align international and national standards and practices -- while at the same time building stakeholder knowledge, relationships and capacity throughout the process. This will also allow solutions to be co-constructed among the stakeholders, rather than relying on a single visionary or transformative leader, increasing agency and ownership of the individual principal stakeholders over decisions and changes -- as well, transcending the history of resistance among the principal stakeholders to these required changes.

Tuning in

We begin to consider this process through the first stage of inquiry as outlined by Murdoch (2015): Tuning In. For Murdoch (2015), this first stage of inquiry involves making early connections with what is known -- inviting connections between the topic and their experiences and existing knowledge. It is the phase to explore first thinking and create the first invitations for questions and ideas (Murdoch, 2015). This aligns with Pedaste and colleagues (2015) Orientation phase; this phase involves stimulating interest and curiosity in relation to the problem at hand. For this phase, the directors would be invited to discuss their understanding of the cultural-based thinking, leadership and change theory -- establishing what is known about theory-practice connections in their own experience. A discussion could also be opened to consider the general factors of the problem of practice. This phase should devote adequate time to gathering reflective perspectives on the problem of practice, and thoughts and feelings on leadership and change -- without moving too quickly nor pushing forward solutions. The conversations should continue to be interest based -- with a general avoidance of blame and fault finding, with intentional effort directed towards stimulating interest and curiosity. To aid in keeping the conversation positive and on track in the classroom, I often encourage educators to

work through ‘essential agreements’ with their students -- which establish group-based behavioural norms and expectations -- such a tool may also be beneficial in these early finding out stages among the directors.

Finding out

The next phase of inquiry as outlined by Murdoch (2015) is Finding Out; this involves gathering more information -- continuing to ask questions, learning through research and acquiring more knowledge (Murdoch, 2015). For Pedaste et al. (2015), this aligns with the Conceptualization process -- during this process, the understanding of the concept arises through asking and considering questions. It is my experience in the classroom and in professional development practice that this phase is about learning new ideas about the topic and creating the foundation for deepening understanding. For the current solution, it would be an ideal time to bring forward cultural analyses by Hofstede (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019) and Dimmock and Walker (2000) to deepen their understanding of the complexity of the problem through providing a cross-cultural lens to direct questions and seek deeper understanding.

It is an ideal time to begin to establish cross-cultural leadership and change management theory-practice connections. In my own classroom practice, this is strongly an information acquisition phase -- generally more didactic, with information being provided to the learners to increase awareness. It will be vital during this phase to be sure that the directors are interested in developing their learning on cross-cultural communication, leadership and change -- encouraging self-reflection among the directors so that they can have stronger and more interesting theory-practice connections. It may be necessary to consider many different theories on cross-cultural communication, leadership and change -- so that as a group, the directors can begin co-constructing ideas through their own learning and experiences. In this way, the outlined solution could shift to include alternative theory-practice connections and it will be important for the

leaders to be flexible and to listen to and respect one another. In the process of drafting this solution, I also had to go through a similar phase of considering many approaches to leadership and change, and it seems fair that the other directors are also provided with some opportunity to go through a similar process of establishing theory-practice connections which are meaningful.

Sorting out

These theory-practice connections bring us to the next phase of the inquiry process (Murdoch, 2015): Sorting Out -- which involves seeking and identifying patterns in the information and enacting meaning to build new understandings. This aligns with the initial stages of the Investigation phase as outlined by Pedaste and colleagues (2015). For the directors, this would begin with searching for patterns while bringing together cross-cultural theory with the work of leadership and change management -- raising the directors' capacity and enhancing knowledge while they consider how action can best be taken. For our directors, I believe this work will take time as they will need opportunities to consider these theoretical connections along with the interactions they experience inside the organization. Along with this deep consideration, the directors can begin to look for patterns of reaction and ideas of the principals around this change. As patterns emerge, they can in tandem consider their own pattern of leadership and change practice -- looking for aspects that align well and for areas that require development.

Going further

The next phase of inquiry for Murdoch (2015) is Going Further which involves taking learning deeper and personalizing it -- gathering data in a more personal manner in a more systematic analysis of experiences -- which closely aligns with Pedaste et al. (2015) and the latter sub-phases of Investigation: Exploration, Experimentation, and Data Interpretation. For Pedaste and colleagues (2015), this phase involves a systematic process of data and hypothesis

generation; for our directors, this would involve deeply considering the idea of distributing leadership and watching closely for the actions of SC and IWR -- adding a cross-cultural perspective to their observations. We could enact the data component by using Hofstede's (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019) cross-cultural measure on the group of principals (Appendix B) and consider the culturally rooted reactions and ideas about the change process -- perhaps opening dialogues on national and international quality assurance processes. This would involve the devotion of considerable time for reflection and discussion, gathering and sharing observations, anecdotes and data collected -- as well as time to process and deepen their own connection between theory, experience and practice to isolate and reinforce patterns with quantitative and qualitative data. They can then use this new knowledge to build their own understanding of the complexities of nationalized quality assurance in international environments.

Making conclusions

The next phase of inquiry as outlined by Murdoch (2015) is Making Conclusions; in this phase, the directors should review the ideas they had before this process began -- reflecting on the changes in their understanding. This aligns directly with the Conclusion phase identified by Pedaste et al. (2015). I believe for the directors, this is the time to begin to make concrete plans for change. By reflecting on former practice and ideas -- compared with the new information (both qualitative and quantitative) -- we can begin to make conclusions based on the process so far. I believe this will lead us to consider the solution of allocating resources and begin the real work of distributing leadership with a stronger focus on SC and IWR. However, the nature of inquiry processes is that knowledge and actions are co-constructed -- and so they could take entirely new directions in thinking about culture, leadership and change.

Taking action

This brings us to the final phase of the inquiry cycle as outlined by Murdoch (2015): Taking Action. In this phase, it will be time to make changes based on what has been learned -- applying the new theoretical knowledge to practice, creating new practices, and constructing new paradigms for understanding and action. For Pedaste and colleagues (2015), this phase aligns with Discussion -- which has the two sub-phases of Communication of the changes and Reflection on the effects. For our directors, this is the time to begin communicating new understandings and changes, seeking consultation with the stakeholders, and reflecting and posing new problems for a new inquiry cycle -- all from a refreshed inquiry constructed perspective. From my own observations, I suggest this would be the time to focus on concretely supporting the change drivers of aligned direction and emotional energy. This would be best done through enhancing the actions of distributed leadership, SC and IWR. To do this, we can provide concrete resources -- financial and time-based -- to the groups among the principals which have arisen through SC and IWR. The next chapter of this OIP will outline the metrics and communication protocols for this phase of inquiry into this solution.

Inquiry into institutional practices

The second recommended solution involves enacting distributed leadership from a cross-cultural perspective by directing attention and resources to the change drivers of Turbulence, Resources and Work Roles (Kirsch et al., 2012). Turbulence refers to the overall amount of change taking place inside the organization; Resources are the skills, capabilities, systems and processes directed towards change; and Work Roles refers to the level of involvement and accountability individuals have in relation to implementing change (Kirsch et al., 2012). Within our organization, directors often assign large tasks to individuals who then form committees based primarily on work role -- with little or no consideration for the existing groups formed through SC and IWR, where staff would quite naturally and appropriately support. All three of these institutional practices are currently determined solely by the leadership, especially in relation to change.

The directors will take on a change process, which in our organization tend to be reform projects, new curricula or new schools -- with little consideration for existing ongoing changes processes and with relatively little consideration of whether the skills and capabilities of the individuals assigned the change are well suited to the work. This means that individuals often become overwhelmed with changes, causing turnover among the heads of departments and principals -- as well as projects being frequently led by people who know or care little about the required change. For example, when a principal rejects the work of nationalized quality assurance, the school will often rely on a local staff person to do the work of implementation -- often a person outside of the school, who comes into the school specifically to implement quality assurance requirements.

I have directly witnessed that this system is not effective, as it creates animosity in the school community and with the principal based on their perceived interference of this quality

assurance (QA) manager. This typical process also disregards current change processes in effect at the school -- as well as, enacts and enhances feelings of powerlessness on the part of the assigned QA manager as they do not have the agency within the school to effect the changes that are required -- leading to a general failure of the true implementation of the required changes, little capacity having been developed among existing staff, the departure of the assigned QA manager and increased animosity about nationalized QA requirements. Instead, by better acknowledging and supporting existing collaborative and intuitive groups and relationships among the principals, turbulence, resources and work roles can be more appropriately managed and existing resources more appropriately utilized.

By engaging in an inquiry process which leads to these actions of distributed leadership -- combined with appropriate change drivers especially seen from a cross-cultural perspective -- the directors can build their own knowledge and capacity, as well as experience increased agency over the proposed changes allowing them to enact change that can be sustained. Over time, these combined approaches to the development of capacity and motivation can provide the directors with the type of action they need to make their complex and fluid roles more effective in leading the principals towards the motivation and capacity they require to affect international and nationalized alignment changes -- as well as, tackle the unknown changes the future holds for a large international organization such as our own.

Leadership Ethics and Organizational Change Issues

The core ethical considerations which must be addressed in relation to these solutions and approaches revolve around the use of cross-cultural perspectives as a lens for enacting leadership and change. At their best, cross-cultural perspective can provide people -- especially those working and living among expatriate and local communities -- with a lens to focus perspective on concrete and therefore navigable differences. At its worst, cross-cultural perspectives can be

reductionist, generalizing and too often racist in nature. As a long-term expatriate living in Asia, I have personally experienced the unstable and easily shifting nature of experience and perspective when using cross-cultural approaches to understanding difference.

As a leader, cross-cultural perspectives can be a useful means to help understand and mitigate culturally rooted norms and expectations -- differences which can pose barriers to capacity development and enacting leadership. On the other hand, the shift into using cultural differences to justify and reinforce racist assumptions -- supporting hegemony and lending to xenophobia -- can be all too easily enacted even from those of us with the best intentions. According to Lorde (1978), racism is “the belief in the inherent superiority of one race over all others and thereby the right to dominance, manifest and implied” (p. 31). By assigning a Hofstede type score to a national culture, with the use of lower and higher numbers, data can easily be manipulated to reinforce ideas of superiority and the right of one group to dominate the other. In doing this work, I have personally experienced the way that numerical values can blur the fine line between understanding one another and reinforcing ideas of superiority. The assignment of superiority to values and ideas which carry a relatively higher score is an easy error to make. For example, Individualism which is given a high score for highly individualistic national cultures, a person coming from those cultures -- who are conditioned into considering high scores as positive -- can be easily seen as a means to reinforce the notion that Individualism is good. The same can be said for Power Distance receiving a high score in hierarchical cultures, easily taking on the meaning that hierarchy is better because it receives a high score. Although much of the language used by Hofstede is clearly crafted with care towards these notions, the risk of superiority manifest in the numbers and reinforced by existing racist structures is certainly plausible.

This risk of reinforcement of hegemony increases when we consider the location from which cross-cultural management studies are commonly based. In their work on the sources of 93 cross-national, cross-cultural studies published in organizational behaviour journals from 1996 to 2006, Tsui, Nifadkar and Yi (2007) found that of the 365 authors under consideration, about 68% of the first authors and 29% of the co-authors worked for universities based in the United States (p. 426). This reflects a highly situated national cultural perspective which could easily lead to bias in the types of cultural assumptions brought to the work (Tsui, Nifadkar & Yi, 2007, p. 426).

In their article examining moral questions around how deeply educational leaders should engage in culture as a theoretical construct, Lumby and Foskett (2011) warn us that at its core the use of culture as a lens for analysis is a process of simplification and generalization. Although they do agree that the use of culture can provide a useful overview for leaders to understand the expectations of their environment, leaders need to maintain a continual awareness of the needs of those outside the average -- individuals and groups which do not match the generalization. In an international organization such as ours, we tend to attract a population of local and international staff who are more open to working in a cross-cultural environment and therefore less bound to culturally based norms and expectations.

As an organization, our reputation rests on an international foundation and I think therefore we are more likely to attract staff who do not represent the average of their cultures, and do not easily fit into cultural generalizations. Also, the longer we work closely together as a multinational community, the more likely we are to take on each other's national cultural attributes. I personally find that after almost 20 years of living outside of Canada, I am unsure of how easily I fit into some of the cultural dimensions as outlined by Hofstede. Along this line is one of the most common criticisms of Hofstede's work: The general tendency to ignore the

importance of communities within a national cultural group (Jones, 2007). This is genuinely the case with all of the nations being measured in this analysis; the UK, India and Singapore are far from homogeneous nations, with many religions and ethnicities represented in each national culture. I find this type of generalization most obvious in relation to rapidly developing countries, such as India and Singapore, which have seen radical social and economic changes in a single generation.

Although Hofstede's work has been updated several times, with the latest update in 2010, the data can only represent a snapshot in time (Hofstede Insights, April 5, 2019). According to his work analyzing the use of Hofstede metrics in business environments, Jones (2007) argues that this type of time-based and time-limited analysis makes the data on culture subjected to a wider range of differences in interpretation and general inaccuracies. I found this bias to be very relevant in our organization at this time of generational transition in leadership -- with two different generations representing our current leadership -- there are often quite different approaches, especially to race, class and gender.

It is vitally important that cross-national and cross-cultural measures be handled with care and skill. Our directors must be careful not to use cross-cultural measures to reinforce assumptions and resulting power structures; to instead use them as locations from which to build an analysis that can explain behaviours and approaches which might otherwise be misunderstood or mishandled. Directing distributed leadership to SC and IWR groups can avoid some of the pitfalls of a solely cross-cultural approach, as it directs attention and resources to working relationships and roles which arise naturally -- without top-down direction -- in which trust is a built-in component utilizing in a positive perspective to cultural differences, when they do occur.

Conclusion

The work of Hofstede (2011) provides the directors with a lens to approach the complexity of the changes required to align international schools standards and practices with nationalized quality requirements. We also considered how these cross-cultural approaches can direct the actions of Distributed Leadership (Gronn, 2002), as well as provide an enhanced understanding of the forces which drive change in cross-cultural contexts. In addition, we considered an inquiry approach to support the directors in better understanding and managing the complexity of their roles -- especially in relation to the required change processes (Murdoch, 2015). Together, the pieces of this chapter and the theory-practice connections can help the directors to better understand and manage the demands of change and the best approaches to bringing the groups of principals together -- to build the capacity and motivation they require to enact the changes that will be needed in their individual school communities to align their international schools with national requirements.

Chapter 3: Implementation, Evaluation, and Communication

Introduction

In this chapter, we will consider how to best activate the actions of Distributed Leadership as outlined by Gronn (2002) through considering strategies and frameworks for the implementation, evaluation and communication of the changes required to effectively align our international school standards and practices with those of national quality assurance systems. Markiewicz and Patrick (2016) recommend that a monitoring and evaluation framework (MEF) should outline a planning process as well as provide direction for ongoing monitoring and evaluation for a program or initiative. They suggest we carefully consider each step and tool for monitoring, evaluation and implementation -- with a focus on the appropriateness, strengths and challenges of each aspect of the MEF, a process they call scoping the framework (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016, p. 75).

An MEF and communication plan which has received careful consideration through a scoping process can guide management and decision-making procedures in relation to this change process, as well as enhance future change processes. Markiewicz & Patrick (2016) recommend the first steps in scoping the framework involves identifying requirements for the design of the framework and considering stakeholder participation in the change. To do this, we will use a Stakeholder Readiness Analysis, through the framework outlined by Cawsey et al. (2016). This framework incorporates a variety of stakeholders' voices and closely considers their relationship to this change -- as well as their general tendencies towards change. This will provide our organization with a roadmap for more effective messaging and participation, as well as strategies for the development of capacity and motivation -- all vital to the overall likelihood of success of this change (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016, p. 81).

This leads us to the next step in scoping the framework as outlined by Markiewicz & Patrick (2016), which involves identifying possible and preferred approaches to this change, as well as reviewing resources devoted to this change. To do this, we will use the Duration, Integrity, Commitment and Effort (DICE) framework by Sirkin, Keenan, and Jackson (2005) and its equations as a tool for measuring our readiness as well as the current state of action in relation to this change. The unique equation which arises from the DICE framework analysis will provide an assessment that measures the likelihood of success of this initiative -- as well as invites us to consider some possible actions to increase our likelihood of success (Sirkin et al., 2005).

The final step in scoping the framework by Markiewicz & Patrick (2016) involves confirming the purpose and parameters of the framework (p. 75). To do this, we will consider the advice of Armenakis and Harris (2002) on crafting and disseminating change messages. This combined with the information provided by the DICE analysis (Sirkin et al., 2005) will show the perceptions of the individual stakeholders on this change and provide direction as to how to reconsider the implementation of this change and how to most effectively communicate that change -- in turn, informing us of what most needs to be monitored and evaluated on an ongoing basis -- to increase our overall likelihood of success in aligning international and national standards and practices in our schools.

Change Implementation Plan

Stakeholder readiness analysis

As the directors begin to consider the best use of Distributed Leadership as outlined by Gronn (2002), the three-step Stakeholder Readiness Analysis (SRA) as outlined by Cawsey and colleagues (2016) can provide them with the information required to identify key individuals through whom to direct the resources to best influence this change. This SRA allows us to closely examine the individual principal's dispositions and actions in relation to change -- in

general and towards this change in particular. This SRA provides insights into the networks of individual principals where resources well directed through these groups could have a cascading effect, moving the entire group of principal stakeholders in the direction of this change -- building the required capacity and motivation through already existing and choice-driven networks (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Markiewicz and Patrick (2016) remind us that the widest possible range of viewpoints for consideration in an SRA maximizes the likelihood of success of the change initiative. The SRA by Cawsey and colleagues (2016) not only incorporates a range of views and tendencies of the stakeholders, but it also allows us to consider those views directly from the perspective of individual stakeholders who are at various places specifically and in general in relation to his change. The range of inclusion of voices and participation in this SRA can be further enhanced by collecting the individual opinions of the principal stakeholders through the use of surveys and interviews (Appendix D and Appendix E for recommended survey and interview questions).

The first step of the SRA is to consider the Change Predispositions of key stakeholders -- their general tendencies towards change in their schools (Cawsey et al., 2016). Next step in the SRA is the Current Commitment Profiles of each principal -- examining each principal's general opinion of and demonstrated commitment toward this change (Cawsey et al., 2016). The final step in this SRA is to place each individual principal on a Change Continuum in relation to the level of action they are or are not taking, in relation to this particular change (Cawsey et al., 2016). In turn, we will consider each step in the SRA in relation to Gronn's (2002) Actions of Distributed Leadership, dividing the principals into groups based on SC and IWR they may have with each other. After the stakeholders are grouped, we can link individual stakeholders through these groups and plan how to more effectively direct support to those already engaged in or supportive of the change.

The directors can most effectively provide this support by making use of the Actions of Distributed Leadership (Gronn, 2002) categorized under Institutional Practices, which inside our organization are almost completely controlled by the directors. The Institutional Practices outlined by Gronn (2002) include Turbulence, referring to the amount of change already underway inside the organization; the directors can reduce the number of change initiatives the supportive individuals are involved in. Another Institutional Practice is Resources -- referring to the amount of time, financial and other resources devoted to this change -- which can be much better directed towards supportive and active individual principal stakeholders identified in this analysis. The directors can also more fairly dispense accountability through better use of Work Roles, which is the final aspect of Institutional Practices outlined by Gronn (2002). By utilizing how they approach these Institutional Practices (Gronn, 2002) -- in relation to individual principals who are connected to each other through SC and/or IWR -- the change can be directed through channels which already exist, enhancing the influence of those engaged in the change and making the change more appealing -- making the relationships stronger and positive for change.

Predispositions for change

We begin our SRA with the five Predispositions for Change which categorizes individuals in relation to their general feeling and approaches to change -- ranging from supportive to resistant (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 274). The first category they outline is Early Adopters, which refers to individuals who generally seek change and want variety (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 274); it is my experience in our group of schools that these individuals frequently adopt new technologies, and innovative teaching and learning ideas in their schools. For the purpose of this analysis, we have two principals who fit into this predisposition -- both of whom frequently bring forward new ideas and are generally very receptive to the ideas of others -- often

being the first to make a positive change even when requested by others (Appendix I). In relation to this change, both principals have been supportive of this change from the first mention of the possibility of nationalized quality assurance in their schools, demonstrating a supportive curiosity about what changes might be required and confident that their staff could be brought on board with the required changes.

The next Predisposition to Change for consideration is Early Majority, which refers to individuals who are receptive to the change but not as much so as the Early Adopters (Cawsey et al., 2016). These individuals will generally follow just behind the Early Adopters -- not waiting too long -- they usually still act quite early. We do not find any principals who fit into this category (Appendix I), which is relevant because to our analysis, because we do have several principals who do fit into the next category, meaning that there is a long gap between the first group and the third group of principals on the continuum, Late Majority.

Late Majority, refers to stakeholders who generally follow along with the change once it is introduced and attempted by several others. We have four principals who fit into the Late Majority position (Appendix I); I believe the lack of Early Majority principals has increased the hesitancy of our principals with a Late Majority tendencies -- as this group tends to watch the experiences of the previous two groups, to learn from them and to have time to assess the risks and potentials associated with the change. Our four principals in this Late Majority category became supportive only after they had enough time to see the type of changes required in the schools, but since there were no Early Majority principals to observe, this process took longer and was clouded by the well-known tendency of the two Early Adopter principals to embrace change, increasing the time lag and general hesitancy around the change. In this case, four of the principals observed the entire process in the other schools -- only engaging in the change required after the other schools had succeeded at nationalized quality assurance.

The next disposition to change as outlined by Cawsey and colleagues (2016) are Laggards -- this refers to individuals who are hesitant to change but will participate eventually, joining the change after many others or only when they are forced to do so. We have two principals who fit in this category (Appendix I); they tend to be uncertain about change and generally resist it and usually only acting when the cost/benefit analysis becomes obvious and not changing places their future in jeopardy. In relation to this change, they have engaged in change processes around aligning national and international requirements but only after it became apparent that the future of their school would be placed at serious risk if they did not act.

The final category of Predisposition to Change by Cawsey et al. (2016) are Non-adopters, which refers to individuals who refuse to change or modify their practices in almost all circumstances. For this analysis, this is our largest category with six principals who meet this profile (Appendix I). However, we should note that it has been my observation that all for these leaders do initiate positive changes in their schools, but it is always changes that originate from their own ideas and priorities; rarely in my experience do they accept change when requested or required by any other stakeholders.

To deepen our analysis and usefulness in relation to implementing this change, we can now apply this step in the SRA with the Actions of Distributed Leadership as outlined by Gronn (2002). When we align these Predispositions Toward Change, with the actions of Distributed Leadership, the Early Adopters becomes an important locus for change. One of our Early Adopter principals (AMT) is connected to one of the Non-Adopters principals (AOR) and to one Laggard (MBR) through an SC grouping (Appendix K). The directors can focus on supporting and developing this tenuous connection and focus planning through these relationships (Appendix J, Appendix K & Appendix L). To support and develop this SC grouping, the director can add more financial and staff resources to the school of AMT, limit her accountability and cut

down on the number of other change initiatives she is expected to undertake. This will not only support her current change process but also send messages to the other members of this SC group, to help motivate the Laggards and Non-Adopters in the group to move toward adopting the change processes required (Appendix J, Appendix K & Appendix L). Although the Early Adopter is only connected to 2 other principals through SC, this link is strong because they work together frequently and the two principals in that SC group carry considerable influence as leaders of large schools -- which are well connected through schools pathways to many other schools and their principals (Appendix J, Appendix K & Appendix L).

Current commitment profile

The next level of the SRA is to consider the Current Commitment Profile of the individual principals specifically in relation to this change (Cawsey et al, 2016). For this profile, Cawsey and colleagues (2016) asks us to consider their commitment at this time in relation to this particular change -- ranging from Committed through to Supportive, Neutral or Resistant (p. 274) -- as seen in Table 3 (Appendix G).

The first Current Commitment Profile descriptor is Resistant and this accounts for the largest portion of our group of principals with seven of our principals in this profile (Cawsey et al., 2016). These Resistant principals do not wish to engage in any changes in their school which may be required and will often not even engage in discussion around nationalized quality assurance requirements in their school. In relation to this change, they have expected the directors to hire additional staff to manage any changes required, often not even supporting or engaging with those staff around required changes.

The next profile is Ambivalent which in this case means they are experiencing mixed or even conflicting ideas and feelings about the change (Cawsey et al., 2016). This accounts for two of our principals, both of whom are the newest to the organization and are trying to learn about

the changes which may be required and are actively considering how to best move toward action in their schools (Cawsey et al., 2016).

The next Current Commitment Profile refers to those who are Neutral -- not really in support of the change, but not acting against it either (Cawsey et al., 2016). We do not have any neutral principals; it seems everyone has a stance in relation to these change processes. This lack of Neutrality is worth noting because this indicates there are only strong opinions on either end of the continuum -- in practice, making discussion often contentious and creating a polarization among those for and those against the change -- further complicating discussion and action.

The next Current Commitment Profile for consideration is Supportive, which refers to those who are making the change and will speak up for the change in group discussions (Cawsey et al., 2016). In this case, they have accepted that the alignment of international and national standards and practices is required for their schools' future stability. This profile accounts for a relatively high number of our principals with three of them currently carrying this profile.

The final Current Commitment Profile for consideration is Committed (Cawsey et al., 2016), in relation to this change, there are the two principals who are committed to working towards the changes required to meet nationalized requirements over the long term and often advocate for the changes as beneficial to their schools.

In relation to applying these Current Commitment Profiles to the actions of Distributed Leadership (Gronn, 2002). It is worthwhile to note that one of our most Committed principals (AMT) is once again connected through SC to two Resistant principals (MBR & AOR), through the same SC group as outlined above in Predispositions for Change analysis (Appendix J, Appendix K & Appendix L). Also, we find that one of the three Supportive (NUB) principals is connected to an influential and Resistant principal (LSN) through an IWR providing another

positive locus for the directors to direct change through the positive use of Institutional Practices (Gronn, 2002; Appendix J, Appendix K & Appendix L).

Change continuum

The final step for the SRA as outlined by Cawsey and colleagues (2016) is to place each principal on the Change Continuum. This Change Continuum is a spectrum which positions individuals from Awareness, through to Interest and on to Taking Action (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 274) as seen in Table 4 (Appendix H).

The first position on this Change Continuum for consideration is Awareness, referring to principals who know about the changes required but have not taken any action as yet toward initiating the required change processes in their schools (Cawsey et al., 2016). This accounts for a very large number of our principals -- eight in total -- which gives us a quick snapshot as to where our group is in relation to this change (Appendix H). This is the largest number of individual principals so far in this analysis which indicates a general lack of action. The next phase for consideration is Interest (Cawsey et al., 2016) -- principals who demonstrate curiosity about the change required but have yet to take considerable action -- this phase accounts for two of our principals (Appendix H). The final phase on the Change Continuum for our consideration is Taking Action (Cawsey et al., 2016), referring to individuals who are moving towards or making the required changes in their schools -- accounting for four of our principals (Appendix H).

Once again in relation to applying these positions on the Change Continuum to the actions of Distributed Leadership, we again find the same connection through SC to a Principal (AMT) who is in the positive position of Taking Action connected to two Resistant principals (MBR & AOR), one of whom is quite influential (MBR) (Appendix K). Another of the four principals who are Taking Action (NUB) is connected to a different influential principal (LSN)

through an IWR reinforcing those 2 positive loci to positively influence change (Appendix J, Appendix K & Appendix L).

Practical implications

From this SRA, it becomes worth noting that the directors have two solid pathways through which to direct Institutional Practices as a positive force for change -- through the SC group which is connected to MBR, AOR & NUB through AMT (Appendix K). The second group they can focus on includes MRW, BIS, AOR, STH & ACL connected through the IWR of NUB & LSN (Appendix K). Through effective use of these relationships, the directors can affect the change readiness of 9 of the 14 principals among them those who are the most resistant to this change (Appendix J, Appendix K & Appendix L).

To more effectively implement the aspects of an ongoing MEF -- as well as scope the framework as outlined in the introduction to this chapter -- Markiewicz and Patrick (2016) suggest selecting an evaluation and implementation team of stakeholders. Their role will include facilitating the discussions surrounding each aspect of the MEF among all the stakeholders and overseeing their participation and the inclusion of their voices and realities (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016). This SRA provides some useful information to use to form an implementation and evaluation team (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016). Markiewicz and Patrick (2016) recommend that the implementation and evaluation team, and the monitoring evaluation framework itself are connected -- linked through experiences, perspectives, values and standards and that of the chosen framework. There are two key stakeholders who are identified in the above SRA as AMT and NUB who carry the attributes outlined by Markiewicz and Patrick (2016), as well as have been identified as positively influential in the SRA. The team can also include myself and two of the other directors. Together, we can work to facilitate the views and participation of the key

stakeholders -- to provide opportunities for discussion, debate and consensus building in relation to implementation ongoing evaluation of the MEF and this change initiative as a whole.

In his literature review on stakeholder readiness literature, Bryson (2004) outlined 15 strategies which could be grouped into four broad categories: Organizing participation; creating ideas for strategic interventions; building a winning coalition around proposal development, review and adoption; and implementing, monitoring and evaluating strategic interventions (p. 21). The strength of the framework outlined by Cawsey and colleagues (2016), as it is related to the actions of Distributed Leadership, provides information on all four of these categories. In addition, it contains aspects of 13 of the 15 stakeholder identification strategies (Bryson, 2004, p. 21), providing advice on how to organize the participation of stakeholders, and locations through which to direct intervention and evaluation -- helping us to build stronger coalitions which can, in turn, enhance adoption strategies.

Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation

The DICE model

In Chapter Two, we considered the Inquiry Cycle of Murdoch (2015) as a process which the directors can go through as they prepare themselves and the individual principals for the changes required to move towards aligning national and international standards and practices in our schools. Inquiry processes are very appropriate for considering stakeholder issues, such as culture, leadership and motivation. However, inquiry is what Sirkin and colleagues (2005) call a soft approach to change, which does not allow us to concretely measure and manage the risks associated with change initiatives. They recommend that organizations also focus on what they call the hard factors of change processes; they define these factors as ones that can be measured, easily communicated and effectively manipulated to improve change outcomes (Sirkin et al., 2005).

Sirkin and colleagues (2005) argue that more measurable approaches to change arise from a careful and quantifiable consideration of four factors of any change initiative: Duration, Integrity, Commitment and Effort. Together these factors make up the DICE model, which is a four-factor model for predicting the success of a change initiative, as well as measuring it in an ongoing fashion; we will use it in this context to measure, assess and help manage the risks associated with changes required to align national and international standard and practices in our schools (Sirkin et al., 2005). The DICE Model can also provide our OIP with a balanced approach to this change initiative by using both hard and soft approaches to change management and measurement (Sirkin et al., 2005). This model not only provides useful advice and observations on how to make improvements in each of these individual factors, it also provides us a scoring system -- providing a quantifiable measure of each factor -- as well as a separate measure for our overall likelihood of success, and a means to assess and make plans to enhance our chances of success over the life of the implementation of this initiative (Sirkin et al., 2005).

The DICE model will also act as our preferred plan-do-study-act (PDSA) model for change process monitoring and evaluation for a few core reasons. First, it solves one of the problems identified by Reed and Card (2015) in their work with PDSA cycles in hospitals: They found that PDSA models in practice have a tendency to weaken learning efforts, and lack the complexity required in institutional environments. The DICE model with its set of associated equations carries a higher level of complexity to be effective in larger institution based environments such as schools. Second, the DICE model can be linked to a long history of planned organizational change models, dating back Lewin (1946) and his three-step model.

In their literature review, Rosenbaum, More and Steane (2018) found 13 established planned organizational change models which share many characteristics of Lewin's (1946) original model and DICE was among them -- although the only one to carry a patent on its

equations. Third, we will rely on this model for this purpose because it enables a hard statistical analysis through the unique equations attached to it, which can provide a definitive roadmap and a more straightforward analysis. It is also interesting to note that, in their work on “Managing Changes in a Millennial Workforce,” Liang and Wong (2017) found that millennials as a generation are more focused on morale during change processes and they also found that the DICE model was particularly effective in stabilizing morale. This generational category is worth noting because when we examine our group of stakeholder principals we find that 9 of 14 principals are millennials.

Duration

The first factor in the DICE model that we will consider in relation to this project is Duration. Duration refers to how long the change process takes, with a general view that shorter is better (Sirkin et al., 2005). However, according to Sirkin and colleagues (2005), organizations too often make an error in being concerned about the length of time a change process will take -- too often worrying that the more time a change takes to implement, the greater the chance of failure.

There is a general opinion that the drive to change will decrease over time -- where opportunities may run out -- that support will fade and the change will ultimately fail. Sirkin et al. (2005), reminds us this is a common error in judgment; they have found the key factor related to time is not how long the change will take but instead how often a change initiative is reviewed. According to these researchers, a frequently reviewed project -- even over the long term -- is more effective than a quick initiative which is not often reviewed; they recommend that change projects should be reviewed on at least a bi-monthly cycle (Sirkin et al., 2005). They also recommend that these reviews should focus on bigger actions and achievements -- rather than everyday actions and events -- looking towards milestones which include a large number of tasks

and would be of interest to senior leadership and important stakeholders (Sirkin et al., 2005).

Sirkin and colleagues (2005) also provide some valuable advice to directors in relation to the bi-monthly meeting, suggesting special attention be given to the interpersonal dynamics of the teams and the shifting perceptions of the change.

To concretely consider the likelihood of success for our current change initiative, Sirkin et al. (2005) provide questions in relation to each DICE factor which enable a score for each factor. In relation to this factor, the questions center on how often reviews of this initiative occur (Sirkin et al., 2005). In our organizations, supervision and support of the individual principals is generally ad hoc, and usually only provided at the request of the principal or when something is going wrong in the school -- and so there is currently no formalized review or groups formed to monitor the experiences of principals leading a school which is undergoing a nationalized quality assurance. Principal performance reviews (when required or provided) rarely have concrete targets attached and, in my experience, focus on the ongoing day-to-day tasks -- with generally no formal schedule for review. Because of the ad hoc nature of the review, it is difficult to place inside the types of concrete time frames required by this question for this factor, however, I can certainly state that reviews do not occur on the bi-monthly time frame as recommended by Sirkin and colleagues (2005). I would instead estimate that these meetings -- when they do occur -- happen on the longest provided timeframe in the model (more than 8 months apart) and provides us four points for this factor, which is the "worst possible" score (Sirkin et al., 2005).

Integrity

The next factor for consideration according to Sirkin and colleagues (2005) is Integrity which is related to the skills needed to manage change. They argue that there are many factors that interfere with change leadership; often top performers already have large portfolios of projects, in addition to being deeply involved in the management of day-to-day matters (Sirkin et

al., 2005). Sirkin et al. (2005) argue that the success of any change initiative relies on the quality of teams and their leadership, and so organizations must improve the balance of their best staff between committing to change initiatives while still maintaining day-to-day operations.

According to Sirkin and colleagues (2005), senior leadership -- in our case, the directors -- should be attentive when forming teams and establishing leadership of those teams with a strong focus placed on skills, knowledge and social networks. Sirkin et al. (2005) also warn us that the leaders of change initiatives must have the skills required to truly lead the change -- not to just focus on personality, but also to look for qualities such as the ability to live with uncertainty -- being systematic in their thinking and approach, and the willingness to accept responsibility and contribute to the integrity of an initiative.

To score our current state of Integrity, Sirkin and colleagues (2005) asks us to consider questions which center around the capability of the team and its leadership -- their skills and motivations, and the time they have to devote to the change at hand. Under this factor, a score of one is the best possible score -- it is reserved for organizations in which at least 50% of the team members' time is devoted to the project -- which immediately eliminates our organization for receiving such a favourable score. In addition, Sirkin et al. (2005) ask us to consider the extent to which the team members are lacking in all the qualities listed above -- with poorly skilled leaders and team members scoring four, the lowest score possible. I believe in relation to this change, our team will be led by skilled individual principals -- almost all with considerable team leadership skills and possessing many of the qualities listed above -- but with very little time to devote to aligning their standards and practices with nationalized requirements. I believe our score will be somewhere in the median range for this factor at three points.

Commitment

The next factor for consideration under the DICE method is Commitment. For this factor, the focus is shared between two different groups of stakeholders, and these groups are scored differently in the final measure (Sirkin et al., 2005). The first group of focus is influential people in the organization, who are not necessarily those with the top titles and the degree to which their backing for this project is apparent to the other stakeholders. Sirkin and colleagues (2005) argue that if the most influential people are seen to be fully backing the initiative, then it is more likely to succeed.

The second group of focus under the Commitment factor is those stakeholders who must deal with the new processes resulting from the change initiative -- individuals who will be expected to take on changes in working and thinking processes. Sirkin et al. (2005) warn us of the dangers of just in time and inconsistent communication with the people who are most affected by the change initiatives. They point out that often the senior level -- and those most affected by the change -- tend to have very different perspectives on the change process (Sirkin et al., 2005). This factor is a very strong weakness in relation to the change initiative at hand. I have seen that the influential senior leadership currently considers the changes required to standards and practices to be at best a necessary evil and at worst government imposed unnecessary bureaucracy -- often overlooking the positive changes which have been experienced in schools which have already gone through the process of aligning their standards and practices. This ambiguous view coming from influential leadership towards the change has in turn enabled some of the individual school principals to also maintain unsupportive attitudes towards the changes required.

In scoring the Commitment factors, Sirkin and colleagues (2005) ask questions about the communication of commitment to the change from influential individuals, and how convincing

and consistent those messages are. For scoring under this aspect, first we look at the evident attitudes towards this change among the most influential people in the organization; the senior level influential leaders appear reluctant to support the change and demonstrate mixed feelings towards it -- leading us to receive the worst possible score of four for this part of the factor (Sirkin et al., 2005). The implication of this low score is that those who are willing to engage in change work can be seen as risking the favourable opinions of influential leaders, as well as some of their peers.

The second level of scoring -- under the Commitment factor -- relates to the extent to which those stakeholders most affected by the change believe it is worthwhile -- and the level of support or anxiety toward the change that they demonstrate. In relation to this change, it is interesting to note that the most affected are also the most engaged stakeholders; the teachers and school administrators seem to understand that the future of our schools -- and therefore their jobs -- hinge on implementing these changes and also in general seems to carry a curiosity or loyalty toward local system requirements. These less influential stakeholders seem more supportive of this change than the more influential members of senior leadership. Accordingly, I will score these stakeholders with two points as they are not enthusiastic but seem generally willing.

Effort

The next factor for consideration under the DICE method is Effort (Sirkin et al., 2005). This refers to the tendency of most organizations not to factor the current workload of staff when considering a change initiative. According to Sirkin and colleagues (2005), any individual stakeholders' workload should not increase by more than 10%; going beyond that level, they warn the change will become too difficult to sustain along with the demands of normal operations -- and the likelihood of its success will decrease. Leadership must decide whether the project is important enough to reassign the normal job roles of the people affected. For our

organization, which is in a strong growth phase, with new schools regularly being opened at a rate, internationally, of three or more new schools per year, this effort factor needs very critical reflection. Many of the stakeholders under consideration in this analysis are principals, who all lead active and demanding schools of their own -- with new and ongoing teaching and learning initiatives happening all the time. An already demanding job requiring 60 or 70 working hours per week to sustain, almost all of the stakeholder principals are managing tasks and projects related to the expansion of the group of schools.

In scoring this Effort factor, we are asked by Sirkin et al. (2005) to consider the percentage of change effort required, and does it come on top of an already heavy workload; as well, do the stakeholders involved already regularly resist any increase in demands. The general rule for scoring in this factor is closer to a 10% addition to the workload, the lower the score -- with 10% allowing for a score of one point -- while 40% or more demands a score of four points (Sirkin et al., 2005). It is difficult to concretely measure this factor across a group of schools -- with some schools requiring relatively little work to align international and national standards and practices, while other schools and principals face a significant task. I believe that for most of the principal stakeholders, it is around a 20% to 30% change to their workload, giving us around three points for this initiative.

DICE scoring analyses

In this DICE analysis, it is the final score which indicates the likelihood of success of this initiative. Sirkin et al. (2005) provide us with a formula under which our current total score is 23 -- which currently places us in the 'Woe Zone' for this project (p. 114). According to this DICE analysis, this overall score means the project is extremely risky at this time and is unlikely to succeed. However, this is a current analysis if the measures suggested throughout this OIP are implemented, several of the scores would rise. For example, in relation to the first factor

Duration, it is simple enough to improve the score by ensuring that there is a review process implemented on a bi-monthly basis and that the review focuses on larger aspects of the initiative rather than the day-to-day tasks involved. These measures applied consistently would improve the project score to a one under the factor of Duration.

The second factor, Integrity, scored a three under a current analysis. I believe that this could be brought down to a score of two by assigning a principal to lead the initiative -- an individual well connected through the actions of Distributed Leadership (Gronn, 2002) as outlined in the SRA. In addition, a change leader -- who is supported by a strong middle leadership team at their school -- may help manage some of the day-to-day burden at the school and would demonstrate stronger Integrity in relation to this change by devoting time and resources to the team and its members, allowing us to improve our score solidly to a two on the factor of Integrity.

In relation to the third factor and our worst score of four points, it is possible for the directors to bring up this score through more openly and obviously supporting the initiative. They can do this by actively supporting the actions of Distributed Leadership, IWR, and SC -- through better mobilizing their institutional practices -- as well as, by sending clear messages at meetings and working groups which support the positive effects of aligning nationalized and international stands and practices (Gronn, 2002). These positive changes clearly communicated could improve our score from the lowest to the highest on this factor -- revising our potential to a score of one.

For the fourth and final factor of Effort, there are concrete things the directors can do to improve our score. First, they can bring on additional staff to manage new school initiatives -- instead of relying on existing principals to support the opening of new schools. Second, the directors can ensure that schools have adequate resources to ensure that skilled middle leadership

is in place to help support principals in the day-to-day operations of the schools -- so the principals can direct a concrete amount of their time towards implementing the changes which may be required to align international and nationalized standards and practices in their school. These supports could reduce the general time burden in their work as principals, as well as the time burden specific to this initiative allowing the generalized score to improve to as low as two for this factor.

A systematic reconsideration of our approach to this change as outlined throughout this OIP -- including a cross-cultural approach to Distributed Leadership (Gronn, 2002), a process of inquiry through which the influential leadership comes on board with the changes required, and a systematic stakeholder analysis (Cawsey et al., 2016) which includes cross-cultural considerations -- can contribute to improving our score under the DICE framework. This type of approach combined with some of the advice provided by Sirkin and colleagues (2005) can quite practically increase our score to ten and place the project in the “Win Zone” -- making it into a project that is very likely to succeed (Sirkin et al., 2005, p. 114).

Kusek and Rist (2004) warns that a significant risk associated with using a pre-established MEF, like the DICE model (Sirkin et al., 2005), lies in the lack of country-specific or projects specific reference points. This is a worthwhile warning in our case given the complexity of our organization -- especially in relation to national cultural connection points. The diverse range of perspectives based on the different national cultural values represented by our principal stakeholders is not reflected in the analysis. Each stakeholder will view the aspects of the DICE model through their own individualized national cultural values-based lens (Sirkin et al., 2005). This is why during implementation, the evaluation team can initiate surveys and interviews with the principals -- recommended questions are provided in Appendix F.

On the other hand, Kusek and Rist (2004) also point out a pre-established framework usually has considerable thought and energy already invested into them and is often easier to transfer establish and practice frameworks among change projects and initiatives. The adoption of a pre-established framework can also save time as the creation of a framework and testing it to ensure effectiveness is a highly time-consuming and participatory task -- which would be placed on the stakeholders who are already very time constrained. Another concern raised by Kusek and Rist (2004) is that pre-established systems can feel imposed on stakeholders and therefore not promote buy-in and integration (p. 74). This is a genuine risk in our organization and we would need to spend some time establishing the validity of the chosen model and enhance participation. This can be work done by the implementation and evaluation team outlined in the SRA (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Plan to Communicate the Need for Change and the Change Process

In his work examining and creating strategies for communicating change messages, Klein (1996) warns us to avoid the prevailing mistake in relation to rolling out change messages: To roll out messages incrementally over extended periods of time, with a focus on as few stakeholders as possible and with the underlying assumption that this will ease the change burden by limiting the number of people affected. Klein (1996) warns, often in practice, this slow and limited roll out often results in the opposite effect -- miscommunication and resistance. Although the logic is that the slow and limited rollout of the change message will make the changes easier to accept, and minimize the backlash against the change, it instead invites misunderstanding of the fundamental reasons for the change -- its benefits and its necessity (Klein, 1996).

This type of prevailing change message mistake has indeed been the case inside our organization -- especially in relation to this change -- with only some stakeholders brought into the required change processes and only then on an ad hoc basis; the result is the current situation

in which some of our stakeholders did not just receive miscommunication about the nature of the change, but have formed strong negative assumptions about nationalized QA -- assumptions which have become somewhat ingrained in their thinking. The directors also have not demonstrated a strong commitment to this change, in opinion or in resources.

This lack of high-level commitment to change messaging was described by Moates and colleagues as a common but particularly hazardous mistake, especially when activating groups of individuals in change messaging, as we are considering in this change process (Moates, Armenakis, Gregory, Albritton & Feild, 2005). They found that this lack of clear messaging and commitment often caused further misunderstandings about the intent and requirements which drive change (Moates et al., 2005). Also according to Armenakis, Harris, Cole, Fillmer and Self (2007) in their work on assessing progress of change messages, typically change researchers tend to focus on the final reactions to change messages but there is little work done on continual evaluation of change messages and the work of revising existing change messages -- so we must approach crafting and communicating our change message in tandem with other factors such as our SRA (Gronn, 2002).

In their work on the best practices of crafting and disseminating a change message, Armenakis and Harris (2002) outlined the components a change message should include as well as align strategies for conveying that message, which can correct the mistakes outlined above by activating a timely, clarified and corrective set of change message through the appropriate channels. Armenakis and Harris (2002) outline five domains a change message must include in order to be effective, these are: Discrepancy, efficacy, appropriateness, principles support, and personal valence. According to Armenakis and Harris (2002), all five of these domains should be communicated through three separate strategies: Persuasive communication, active communication, and the management of internal and external information.

To best consider how to use these message domains and conveying strategies in our organization, we will use the information collected in the SRA outlined by Cawsey and colleagues (2016) and applied in the first section of this chapter -- with special attention paid to the current commitment profiles and positions on the change continuum of our principals -- to plan and craft our change messages. In analyzing Cawsey and colleagues (2016), the current commitment profiles of our principals in relation to the actions of distributed leadership by Gronn (2002), it can be seen in the SRA that all of the Resistant principals can be connected to more supportive principals through SC or IWR in Appendix K (Cawsey et al., 2016). This allows close consideration of how those groups can be used to enhance the messages conveyed through Armenakis and Harris' (2002) five message domains and three message conveying strategies to make all the principals less resistant and more likely to take action in relation to the changes required to align international standards and practices with nationalized QA frameworks. A summary of the plan to communicate change in relation to the 5 change message domains and the 3 communication strategies has been summarized in Appendix M.

Discrepancy

According to Armenakis and Harris (2002), discrepancy is the first domain of change messages to consider. This refers to the feelings about how much the change is really required (Armenakis & Harris, 2002), and questions around the need to change from the current state of the organization. For the principals to agree with the Discrepancy of this change, there needs to be a stronger belief that something is not right and that it needs to change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). In looking at the Current Commitment Profile aspect of the SRA (Cawsey et al., 2016), it can be observed that half of the 14 stakeholder principals are Resistant to this change (Appendix G). This is suggestive that the feelings about the Discrepancy of this change among that group of resistant principals are insubstantial enough to support the change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002).

This lack of strength and clarity of the Discrepancy message for this change can be linked to the first of Armenakis and Harris (2002) message conveying strategies -- Persuasive Communication -- which refers to direct leadership driving communication of the change.

The directors have not been effective at conveying the need for this change, which in the case of many of our schools is actually quite dire -- if an increasing number of schools do not commit to nationalized QA requirements, they will not be allowed by the local government to continue to operate. Even though the Discrepancy of this change could have been the strongest domain conveyed, it was still approached by the directors in an ad hoc, individualized manner. This led to a great deal of miscommunication about the actual need and requirements of the change among the stakeholders.

The remaining two message conveying strategies as outlined by Armenakis and Harris (2002) -- Active Communication and Managing Internal and External Information -- were also not conveyed strongly or not utilized at all. Active Communication involves stakeholders in activities which enable them to learn directly about the change for each other (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Managing Internal and External Information refers to making the ideas and opinions of other available to stakeholder (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). All of these message conveying strategies -- Persuasive Communication, Active Communication, and Managing Internal and External Information -- can be effectively mobilized to address questions and concerns about Discrepancy, especially to the resistant principals through using the existing IWR and SC groups, as outlined by Gronn (2002) and applied to our principals in the SRA. The stakeholders who are currently resistant can work with those who are committed and supportive to the change, to become more convinced of the Discrepancy of this change. Also, the directors can become more proactive in their communication of this change and its genuine Discrepancy.

Efficacy

The next domain of the change messages outlined by Armenakis and Harris (2002) is Efficacy. This refers to the individual stakeholder's confidence in their ability to succeed at making the change required (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). They argue that stakeholders will only be willing to risk in investing in the change if they believe that they are likely to succeed (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). With seven principals still Resistant in their Current Commitment Profile, it is clear that this domain also needs to be addressed (Cawsey et al., 2016). This could be because there has not been a strong message of confidence conveyed through any of the three message conveying strategies.

The directors have a history of not communicating confidence in the ability of the principals to bring their international schools through the changes required to meet the nationalized QA standards. I have often heard directors communicating that they are concerned that nationalized QA measures will decrease the overall quality of the international school's environments. This further erodes the confidence of the leaders, creating a risk that principals may feel that to engage in nationalized requirements will decrease the quality of their schools. This furthers the likelihood of confusion and misinformation in relation to this change. This alone conveys a deep failure of communicating Efficacy by the directors through the message conveying strategy of Persuasive Communication (Armenakis & Harris, 2002); there has neither been much opportunity to develop Active Communication as outlined by Armenakis & Harris (2002) among the four principals who are taking action (as outlined in their positions on the Change Continuum), and have already achieved success in meeting nationalized QA standards (Cawsey et al., 2016).

There also has been very little open communication among national and international stakeholders -- staff students and parents -- about the benefits of nationalized QA standards in

international schools all adding up to a general failure of the third and final message conveying strategy of Managing Internal and External Stakeholders communication (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). This domain of Efficacy could also be enhanced by the use of IWR and SC groups (Gronn, 2002) to drive Active Communication (Armenakis & Harris, 2002) between principals who have made changes and been successful. Also, better use of IWR and SC (Gronn, 2002) can enhance the sharing of information among schools on concrete strategies on how to succeed, as well as bring forward external stakeholders such as cooperative/supportive government regulators who have worked with successful schools.

Appropriateness

The next domain of a change message outlined by Armenakis and Harris (2002) is Appropriateness. This refers to the general sense of comfort stakeholders feel in relation to change required (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Stakeholders may understand change is necessary or desirable but do not feel comfortable with the type or style of change proposed (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). I believe that it is this aspect of the change message which contributes most to the high level of resistance in the Current Commitment Profiles of the principals (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Many principals feel that alignment with a nationalized QA system will be harmful to the international curriculum standards and policies in place in their schools -- unfortunately, the directors themselves have also articulated this concern although as this change progresses, they do so less frequently. Although the more committed and supportive principals have found that this is not necessarily the case, that message has not been conveyed through any of the three strategies outlined by Armenakis & Harris (2002). With the directors also skeptical about the change, the Active Communication and the Management of Internal and External information strategies have also not been well enacted (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). The directors need to

listen more closely to the experiences of those who are committed and taking action, and encourage pathways, like those available through SC and IWR in Appendix K (Gronn, 2002) for them to share more information on the appropriateness of the change.

Principle support

The fourth change message domain by Armenakis and Harris (2002) for consideration is Principle Support. This refers to the commitment of resources by the organization to this change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Many stakeholders will be hesitant to embrace a change until there is a clear commitment of support from the organization towards the changes required (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Once again, the Current Commitment Profile demonstrates that this component is generally weak -- although I do not think that the direction of resources will be a defining factor in the success of this change message (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Indeed the stakeholder principals who are currently most Resistant on their Current Commitment Profile (Cawsey et al., 2016) also have the most Principle Support already directed towards the changes that are required to align international and nationalized standards and practices -- having at least one full time staff member devoted to this change, who in turn gets resources allocated to their work (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). In this way, the Principle Support (Armenakis & Harris, 2002) directed towards this change has curiously enabled and encouraged the resistance to the changes required by the Resistant principals -- which is why I recommend that Principle Support instead be directed to building capacity of existing staff in schools as they become more supportive on their Current Commitment Profiles rather than directing the most significant resources allocated to this change towards hiring a single staff to administer change in the schools of Resistant principals (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Personal valence

The fifth and final change message domain by Armenakis and Harris (2002) for consideration is Personal Valence. This centers around the perception of personal or professional benefit from the change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). To determine Personal Valence, each individual stakeholder will weigh out the negative and positive potential outcomes of the change as considered in the distribution of work and the fairness of the impact among all the members of their team including themselves (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Beginning with the earliest messages about this change, all of our stakeholders, including the directors have been unclear about the benefits of making the changes required in our schools.

Although for many schools, their continued existence hinges on their ability to obtain local QA frameworks, there remains a strong internal belief that international standards and practices are superior. Along this line, there is a view that nationalized QA systems are more traditional and therefore less innovative and so aligning to those standards and practices will bring down the overall quality. The problem is that in many ways this is true, at least superficially: The cost-benefit analysis does not send strong positive messages in favour of the change required; however, there are positive changes which have been experienced by those who are taking action, which can be emphasized and can be more effectively brought forward, especially through better understanding of these positive changes by the directors leading to the improved use of Persuasive Communication (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Active Communication (Armenakis & Harris, 2002) among stakeholders can be well activated through SC and IWR groups (Gronn, 2002) which involve those who have taken actions and experienced positive results.

Also, the directors could do a better job of opening dialogues among their local and international stakeholders across the organization, focusing on the positive effects of aligning

international and national standards and practices. Positive message though all three strategies need to be sent about how the future of the school can become more stable, how processes can be better grounded in the host nation and how open communication between international and national governing bodies can enhance overall communication and staff and student experiences. Through these positive messages, local and international staff can learn more about the positives of aligned standards and practices as well as can develop capacity on the work of alignment, valuable to them and the community as a whole.

Taken against the Current Commitment Profiles and Positions on the Change Continuum (Cawsey et al., 2016), it is clear that not enough initial attention was paid to the domains and conveying strategies of this message. The primary problem is that due to this lack of attention, we must go back and look at the domains from a perspective of seeking ways to correct mistakes already made.

The work of this OIP already rests heavily on a cross-cultural approach to change through the Actions of Distributed Leadership as outlined by Gronn (2002). It seems logical then to extend this cross-cultural work by considering the five domains and three strategies of Armenakis and Harris (2002) through a cross-cultural approach to the actions of Distributed Leadership. In particular, Gronn's (2002) SC and IWR both fit well with the Active Communication Strategy, as well as provide solid platforms for converting strategies of Persuasive Communication and Managing Internal and External Information. The final action of distributed leadership as outlined by Gronn (2002), Work Roles, also provides a good channel for distributing resources for the change message domain of Principle Support, and the improved allocation of resources toward a more generalized capacity development of many stakeholders rather than a single staff member being assigned the tasks required in the change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Skilled applications of these strategies with the consideration of the domain can

reshape these change messages, to move more stakeholders from Resistance in the Change Profile towards Taking Action on the Change Continuum (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Next Steps and Future Considerations

With more than 100 schools internationally, the issues associated with international schools being required to meet nationalized quality assurance frameworks will continue to demand a complex synthesis of standards and practices across our groups of schools -- which is the first future direction which needs to be better explored. International school groups and organizations, international curriculum organizations, and international school accreditation organizations need to do a better job liaising with national education stakeholders to educate them on existing quality assurance mechanisms, and work together with educators and policymakers to create systems which satisfy the needs of both international and national education systems. These organizations also need to work harder to implement common quality assurance ideals beyond just those of western countries in order to build confidence in their schools on a host national level.

In the meantime, individual international schools and groups must create a set of universal systems -- based on a loose amalgamation of existing local national and international quality assurance expectations -- to better safeguard their unique values, standards and practices. International schools also need to acquire local expertise in national quality assurance, ideally through hiring local staff that has direct experience -- as well as provide ongoing training and preparation for leadership and educators on both sets of ideals and practices -- which drive national and international quality assurance in education. International educators need to shift their thinking to be more accountable to the expectations: Meeting regular and often divergent quality assurance requirement is a core part of their work, rather than occasional supplemental tasks which come up only around inspection times.

Parents who choose international schools in countries where there are relative amounts of democratic freedom need to question their local government on the requirement for international schools to be subjected to local quality assurance frameworks. And when choosing schools based on quality assurance scores, parents should make themselves aware of the goals, approaches and values of the imposed or voluntary processes of quality assurance -- to be sure that the values and practices, which inform the quality assurance process at the school, match with their own expectations of what should be measured. In general, national quality assurance frameworks are designed to encourage schools to improve teaching and learning, however, this may not be the case for many international schools. This problem needs to be better addressed so that international schools can continue to effectively provide alternative education to local and expatriate populations in their host countries.

However, this OIP does much more than address international schools and nationalized quality assurance, it closely examines cultural complexity and recommends an approach to Distributed Leadership to address the complexity of the organization. However, there is still much work to be done to effectively and appropriately distribute leadership and manage change across a large, multinational, growing educational organization like ours. In general, this OIP lacks depth in its cultural analysis. We must more truly address the cultural complexity in an organization like ours -- and its deep and profound impacts on leadership and change.

The norms, expectations and values which are rooted in our culture are the foundations on which every person builds their professional practices, as leaders and as followers. It is my opinion that this deeper consideration is not well reflected in literature in general -- culture is often taken as a side consideration or as a lens as it is in this paper. This is not just naïve; in my opinion, it is dangerous. The discourses which do not work from cultural considerations at their core must by their nature make assumptions. For example, to assume that the practices associated

with deeply intimate leadership approaches like transformative leadership are received the same across cultural boundaries is naive. Based on core assumptions that all cultures values and personal transformation in the workplace or that ideology and work need to go together, in some cultures these notions are quite dangerous -- in particular to women and children. This adds another layer because issues of race, class, age and gender often further complicate cultural boundaries. This general lack of a culturally rooted, deeper analysis assumes neutrality which easily leads to bias -- and in my experience, bias also easily tips into practices which abuse power and privilege.

Lastly, as I have worked through this problem and considered the impact of culture on perception and practice of leadership, I have also had to grapple with the challenges of defining culture and the assumptions that rest at the center of any definition. The work of Hofstede provides a good starting point, but the weaknesses of the cultural dimensions quickly become apparent. I have lived outside Canada for nearly 20 years, my son was born in Hong Kong and is being raised in Singapore -- the cultural aspects of my family are hard to determine. Cultural assumptions have always been complicated, but they are quickly slipping beyond being complicated, into being antiquated. We need to consider culture but we also need to systematically reconsider what culture means and whom it represents. Our international school communities are full of expatriate and local children, with complex cultural identities; it is an excellent place to begin this deeper consideration of culture in a modern context. We can work to enact our mission and vision by creating competent and capable global citizens who understand fully the complexities of their world, by encouraging them to consider what culture means to them and how it impacts their behaviour.

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Appendix A: Principals by National Culture

Table 1

Principals by National Culture

<u>National Culture</u>	<u>Number of Principals</u>
Singapore	8
UK	4
India	3
Canada	1
South Africa	1

Appendix B: Hofstede's National Culture Measures for Singapore, UK and India

Table 2

Hofstede's National Culture Measures for Singapore, UK & India

<u>Cultural Dimension</u>	<u>Singapore</u>	<u>UK</u>	<u>India</u>
Power Distance	74	35	77
Individualism	20	89	48
Uncertainty Avoidance	8	35	40

Appendix C: Theoretical Framework Applying a Cross-Cultural Approach to Distributed Leadership through Change Drivers

Change Drivers		National Culture		
		UK	Singapore	India
Distributed Leadership	Spontaneous Collaboration	Change Leadership		
	Intuitive Working Relationships	Aligned Direction Emotional Energy		
	Institutional Practices		Turbulence Resources Work Roles	

Figure 2. Theoretical Framework Applying a Cross-Cultural Approach to Distributed Leadership through Change Drivers

Appendix D: Stakeholder Readiness Analysis Interview Questions

1. Can you describe your general attitude to implementing change in your school?
2. Can you describe your opinion about the need to align your school with the national quality assurance framework?
3. Can you describe the actions you have taken towards this change in your school?
4. Can you describe the working relationships you have with the other principals?
5. Are there principals which you have stronger working relationships with?

Appendix E: Stakeholder Readiness Analysis Online Survey Questions

1. Using the words listed below, how would you describe your current level of commitment towards the changes required to align the international standards and practices in your school with the nationalized quality assurance framework?
 - a. Resistant
 - b. Ambivalent
 - c. Neutral
 - d. Supportive
 - e. Committed
2. Using the words listed below, how would you describe your level of understanding of the changes required to align the international standards and practices in your school with the nationalized quality assurance framework?
 - a. Awareness
 - b. Interest
 - c. Taking Action
3. Can you choose one descriptor from the list below which best describes your general attitude to implementing change in your school?
 - a. Frequently seeks change and excitement; often the first person in your peer groups to try new ideas or initiatives
 - b. Am often among the first of my peers to try new things; I seek change and development to keep myself engaged in my work
 - c. Enjoy trying new ideas and initiatives but only after they have been enacted successfully by others
 - d. Generally unlikely to adopt changes unless it becomes clear that change is required; prefer stability to change
 - e. Will avoid making change

Appendix F: DICE Questions

1. From the list below, please choose one time frame which best describes when you last received any supervision or support from the directors, directed towards the changes required to align the international standards and practices in your school with nationalized quality assurance frameworks.
 - a. Less than 2 months
 - b. Between 3 and 4 months
 - c. Between 4 and 8 months
 - d. More than 8 months
2. As a leader, do you feel capable of the changes required to align the international standards and practices in your school with nationalized quality assurance frameworks?
 - a. Not capable
 - b. Capable
 - c. Very capable
3. Please rate the skill level in general in relation to this change of your team members.
 - a. Not capable
 - b. Capable
 - c. Very capable
4. Please rate your motivation-level in relation to this change.
 - a. Not motivated
 - b. Motivated
 - c. Very motivated
5. Please rate the motivation-level of your team in relation to this change.
 - a. Not motivated
 - b. Motivated
 - c. Very motivated
6. Do you have sufficient time to spend on this change initiative?
 - a. Not enough time
 - b. Enough time
 - c. Plenty of time
7. Have you been accorded time equating about 50% by the leadership to devote to this initiative?
 - a. Less than 50%
 - b. Approximately 50%
 - c. Less than 50%
8. Have the directors though words and actions clearly communicated the need for this change?
 - a. Yes
 - b. Somewhat
 - c. No
9. In relation to question 8, did you find this message convincing?
 - a. Yes
 - b. Somewhat
 - c. No
10. Have the directors allocated resources to your school specifically to support this change?
 - a. Yes

- b. Somewhat
 - c. No
11. Do the employees most affected by the change understand the reason for it and believe it's worthwhile?
- a. Yes
 - b. Somewhat
 - c. No
12. Using the list provided below, how would you most accurately describe the feeling of those employees most affected by the change?
- a. Enthusiastic
 - b. Supportive
 - c. Worried
 - d. Obstructive

Appendix G: Principals by Current Commitment Profile

Table 3

Principals by Current Commitment Profile

<u>Current Commitment Profile</u>	<u>Number of Principals</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Resistant	7	50.0%
Ambivalent	2	14.3%
Neutral	0	0.0%
Supportive	3	21.4%
Committed	2	14.3%

Appendix H: Principals by Change Continuum

Table 4

Principals by Change Continuum

<u>Change Continuum</u>	<u>Number of Principals</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Awareness	8	57.1%
Interest	2	14.3%
Taking Action	4	28.6%

Appendix I: Principals by Predisposition to Change

Table 5

Principals by Predispositions to Change

<u>Predispositions to Change</u>	<u>Number of Principals</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Early Adopters	2	14.3%
Early Majority	0	0.0%
Late Majority	4	28.6%
Laggards	2	14.3%
Non-adopters	6	42.8%

Appendix J: Principals by SRA with the Actions of Distributed Leadership

Table 6

Principals by SRA with Actions of Distributed Leadership

<u>Principal Identifier</u>	<u>Stakeholder Readiness Analysis</u>	<u>Spontaneous Collaboration</u>	<u>Intuitive Working Relationship</u>
MBR	Laggard, Resistant, Awareness	AOR, AMT	
STH	Non-adopters, Resistant, Awareness	LSN	LSN
LSN	Non-adopters, Resistant, Awareness	STH, ACL	STH, AOR
AOR	Non-adopters, Resistant, Awareness	MBR	E78
ACL	Non-adopters, Resistant, Awareness	LSN	NUB, LSN
AMT	Early adopters, Committed, Taking Action	MBR, AOR, NUB	
NUB	Late Majority, Supportive, Taking Action	MRW, BIS, AMT	MRW, BIS, ACL, LSN
ZNW	Laggard, Ambivalent, Awareness		
MRW	Late Majority, Supportive, Interest	BIS, NUB	BIS, NUB
BIS	Late Majority, Ambivalent, Interest	MRW, NUB	MRW, NUB
J23	Non-adopters, Resistant, Awareness		
E78	Non-adopters, Resistant, Awareness	LSN, STH	AOR
D77	Late Majority, Supportive, Taking Action	NUB, J23	
MVN	Early adopters, Committed, Taking Action		

Appendix K: Network Map Illustrating SC and IWR

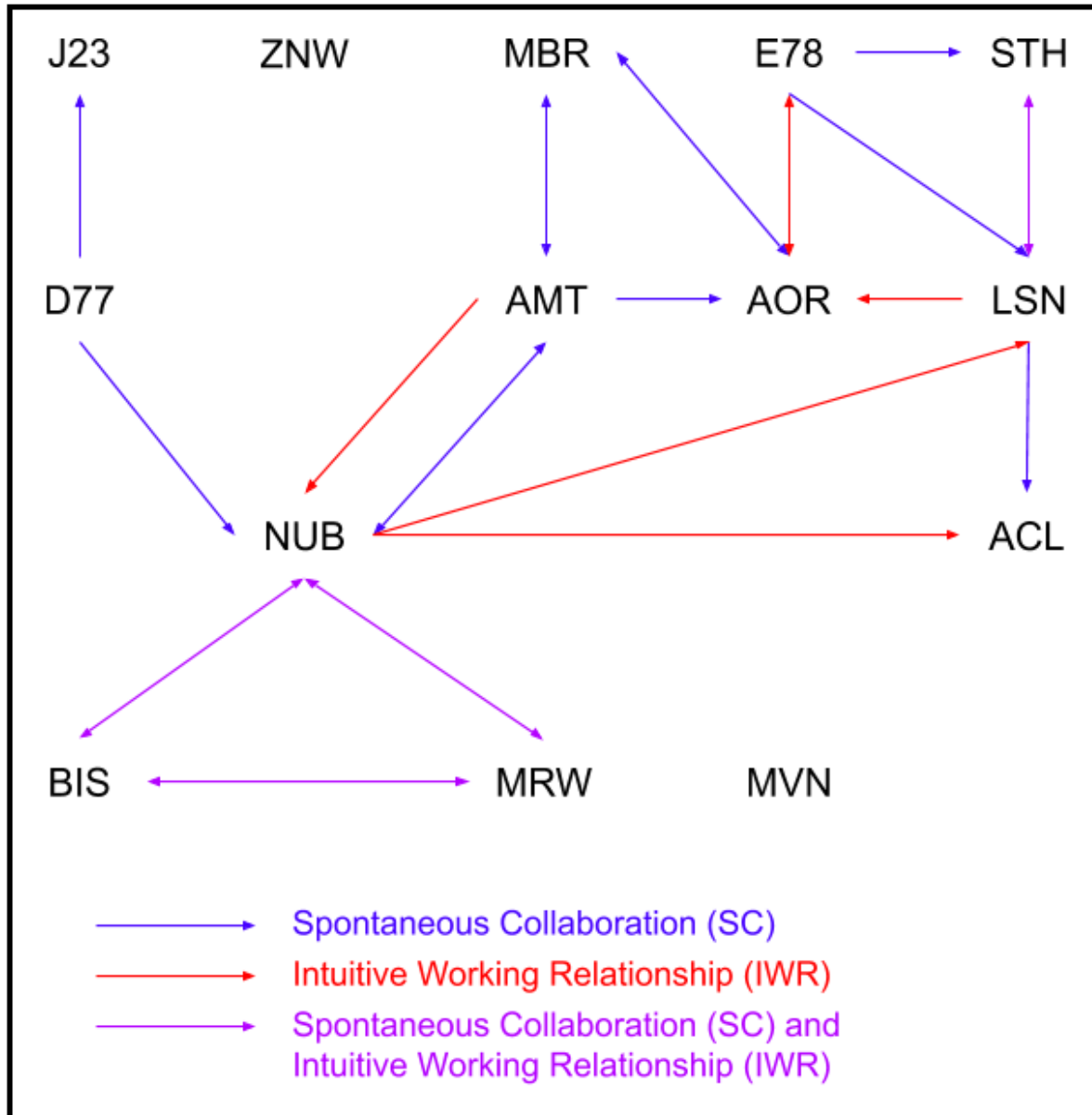


Figure 3. Network Map Illustrating SC and IWR

Appendix L: Principals by SC and IWR Intersections

Table 7

Principals by SC and IWR Intersections

<u>Principal Identifier</u>	<u>Number of Spontaneous Collaboration Intersections</u>	<u>Number of Intuitive Working Relationship Intersections</u>	<u>Total Number of Network Map Intersections</u>
MBR	3	0	3
STH	3	2	5
LSN	4	4	8
AOR	3	3	6
ACL	1	1	2
AMT	4	1	5
NUB	6	7	13
ZNW	0	0	0
MRW	4	4	8
BIS	4	4	8
J23	1	0	1
E78	2	2	4
D77	2	0	2
MVN	0	0	0

Appendix M: Communication Plan for the Change Message Domains

Communication Strategies	Discrepancy	Efficacy	Appropriateness	Principles Support	Personal Valence
Persuasive Communication	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Active Communication		✓	✓		✓
Management of Internal & External Information	✓				

Figure 4. Communication Plan for the Change Message Domains