

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN HUNGARY

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Abstract. The paper deals with school leadership in Hungary, providing a historical perspective. We review the system changes from the decentralization process following the change of the regime in 1990 to the current centralization process initiated with the 2011 Law on National Public Education. The article focuses on school and leadership autonomy as linchpins of national education systems, analysing different roles (operation, control, maintenance, professional operation) of different stakeholders (maintainer, school, principal, educating staff). We describe the process and requirements of becoming a principal in Hungary, directly focusing on education programmes for school leadership and the evaluation and assessment system of acting principals. The final section deals with different research projects which aim to better understand school leadership through the lenses of organizational culture and effectiveness (Competing Values Framework) and the rhetoric of the learning organization, managing learning schools. Finally, future development prospects are discussed.

Keywords: school leadership, autonomy, responsibility, learning organization, Hungary

INTRODUCTION

In the next chapters, we will discuss the state of educational leadership in Hungary. First, we cover the changes and current state of the legislative environment of school leadership. Then we discuss the role and responsibilities, tasks and evaluation of principals in the Hungarian system. We also elaborate on current research projects regarding learning organizational behaviour and organizational culture of schools. Finally, we discuss possible development opportunities for the future of educational leadership in Hungary.

LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

Before 1990

Throughout the history of education in Hungary, the question of organization and content of education, alongside the responsibility and autonomy of principals, was a political issue (Bocsi, Kozák & Móri, 2016); there was no societal consensus regarding these important questions of public education that would transcend political parties. Educational reforms and regulations were often at the mercy of the actual political structure.

The fundamental reforms of the Hungarian school system began in the 1980s and continued after the political transition from socialism to democracy (1989/1990). In 1985, the new Public Education Law widened the institutional independence and the professional autonomy of schools¹ and teachers. “After the passing of the 1985 act on education, more and more schools were provided with the chance to diverge from the strict rules, to establish new school structures, and to experiment with new subjects, methods and educational content. An ever-growing number of educational institutions were (under the pretence of ‘pedagogical experiments’ or ‘alternative pedagogical programs’) exempted from the obligation to abide by the subject system and the hours of instruction defined by the 1978 central curriculum, and (by abolishing the system of inspection) the different governments practically gave up on directly monitoring the implementation of the central curriculum and sanctioning deviations therefrom, thus the regulative power of

¹ In this paper we usually use the term ‘school’ as a general term, meaning all kind of educational institutions (regardless of the level of instruction, maintainer, general or vocational focus, or other aspects). When it is relevant, we emphasize the special focus (e.g. if a legislative change only affected vocational education).

the central curriculum kept continuously decreasing from the late 1980s on” (Halász, 2001: 50). Also, the Act loosened the strict central control over the appointment of school leaders, enabling school staff to have a consultative vote on the candidates. Only candidates who had the support of the majority of the teaching staff could be appointed.

The law officially did not affect the centralized curriculum (1978) and the school structure (Horn, 2010). In the second half of the '80s, however, changes in the elements of education started with the establishment of non-state and alternative schools, and the reestablishment of some church schools.

Since the educational reform of 1985, there was a decisive depoliticization regarding expectations of schools and the role of school principals, which led to the professionalization of leadership work and focus on professional problems.

After 1990

The democratic government further eliminated state-monopoly in the school system in 1991, making local self-governing authorities responsible for schools. Although the school system was still (mainly, but not directly) financed from the central budget, the decentralization of the administration and supervision ensured that local agencies – municipal governments, churches, or foundations – could enforce their own interests. The new democratic legislation enacted in 1993 legalized changing school structure, providing many choices for students and parents. Also, it established ideological pluralism in the schools, and it finished the work on school autonomy that was started by the educational reform of 1985, thus tailoring the national curriculum to the opportunities arising from school autonomy (Halász, 1994).

After the change of the regime in 1990, there began a process of decentralization of both operative and professional issues, so institutions and leaders gained more autonomy. Through this decentralization process, the previously state-operated institutions became the responsibilities of local authorities. This change opened the path to considering local characteristics of schools and provide local solutions. Local authorities could decide together with the communities of teachers what kind of school they envisioned (Balázs & Szabó, 1998). The shared responsibility between several actors characterized the two decades following the fall of the socialist regime. “Vertically, the responsibility is shared between the central (national), regional, local and institutional levels. There are, thus, four levels of control. At the

local and regional level, the administration of education is integrated into the general system of public administration organized on the basis of local governments. The influence of the regional level is rather weak, but the scope of local and institutional responsibilities is very broad” (Szabó, 2010: 26).

In parallel with this change, the free choice of schools presented keen competition between institutions, which enhanced the role of schools as service providers. This shift was accompanied by the introduction of professional leadership and management regarding school organization, which led to the rise of a new kind of leadership role focusing on a school’s philosophy, vision, and school marketing. These processes induced organizational and pedagogical content changes, which led to more freedom for institutions to develop these aspects. One example would be the possibilities of creating adaptive pedagogical programmes focusing on local characteristics, which could make a school unique in the competitive environment. However, the increasing autonomy was linked to the increasing burden, which in turn led to the decrease in the innovation capability of teachers (Szebedy, 2010).

Describing this period, Szabó concluded that “in the decentralised education administration system, the autonomy of schools is great: school defines its educational programme, its curriculum, the school head makes decisions about employment of teachers (appointment or replacement of teachers, salaries and wages but in the most cases the tight budget does not allow to its realisation), and the schools have certain financial leeway” (Szabó, 2010: 26).

Current changes

Most recently, a system-wide change occurred with the introduction of the new educational act (Act CXC. of 2011 on National Public Education, from now on: NPE Act, 2011).

After 2010, the new conservative Hungarian government started a radical reform of the school system. The transformations strengthened the role of the state and central regulation. The centralization of the educational system has had a long tradition in Hungary as in much of Central and Eastern Europe. The educational policy of the first two decades after the Transition can be somewhat interpreted as an attempt to break away from the continental traditions of educational systems and move toward an Anglo-Saxon (or Atlantic) tradition. The return from a decentralized educational system to a more traditional, centralized one has its roots in the history of educational policies in Hungary (Kozma, 2014).

Many steps of the centralization process stirred fierce political (and sometimes) professional debates. It is clear that the centralization process has its coherent logic and fits well into the history of Hungarian educational policy; however, whether or not the general direction of centralization or its particular provisions are advantageous is debatable.

One of the most important steps of the centralization has been the nationalization of those schools that were maintained by local municipalities. Church and foundation schools have not been nationalized, although the educational government deliberately marginalized the latter ones. A centrally organized operator of state schools², the Klebelsberg Institution Maintenance Centre (Klebelsberg Intézményfenntartó Központ, KLIK), became responsible for the operation of state schools. The nationalization and reorganization did not go smoothly. The system became underfunded and has had daily operational problems.

“The government’s implementing decree of June 2016 reorganises the management structure of schools in such a way that the operation of all schools will be taken over from the municipalities by the state. The central state maintenance will be complemented by 58 district level centres. Schools will be allowed to manage a certain part of their financing, allowing them some autonomy regarding their everyday expenses. The amendment will also authorise school heads to distribute the salary supplement increments of 2016 and 2017 with a performance based differentiation between teachers” (European Commission, 2016: 5). Only kindergartens remained the responsibilities of local municipalities.

This shift is contrary to international trends in school governance (OECD, 2016) and has led to the decrease of roles and responsibilities of the local level in both financial and human resource areas. In this system, the state is the maintainer, operator and controller. There were significant changes regarding the selection of principals, as well as in their roles, responsibilities, and evaluation. These aspects are discussed in the following section.

² According to the law maintainers can be a “natural or legal person who or which has obtained or has the right to perform public education tasks and meets the requirements necessary for operating the public education institution according to the provisions of this Act”. Later the act states that “Public education institutions may be established and operated by the State, nationality self-governments and, within the framework of this Act, church legal persons registered in Hungary as well as other organisations or persons on condition that they have obtained the right for conducting such activity as laid down by statutory provisions (European Commission, 2016: 6). “Operating and maintaining roles of schools used to be separated. The operation (e.g. reparation works) of schools in settlements under 3000 inhabitants was done by the state, above 3000 inhabitants by the municipalities. From 2017 onward the state maintainer will take over this role from all municipalities” (European Commission, 2016: 5.)

CURRENT STATE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN HUNGARY

Becoming a school principal in Hungary

The § 67 of the NPE Act states that the selection of the head of the institution involves a public tender process and that candidates should fulfil the following professional requirements:

- tertiary qualification required to fulfil the teacher position;
- qualification for school leadership as a result of a specialised training programme (see below);
- at least four years of professional experience in teaching;
- full-time employment as a teacher for an indefinite time.

In the open tender, the candidate is asked to present a leadership programme built on the analysis of the current situation and the possible future of the given school. Although there are no official requirements on the content of the leadership programme, it is generally expected to contain a clear institutional vision and to be built on the self-assessment of the principal and the institution³, in synchronization with the annual work programme of the school. Prospective principals should provide strategic goals and operationalize them indicating effectiveness and accountability criteria. In the leadership programme, cooperation with teachers, formative assessment and reflectivity might be central themes. Candidates usually strive for balance regarding tradition and innovation and they must focus on the aspects of teaching and learning as well. Although not compulsory, the candidates might reflect in their programmes areas that are covered in school leadership inspection. The inspection, as discussed later, evaluates incumbent school leaders. The evaluation manual can, however, help the candidates in identifying the requirements and competencies of contemporary school leaders.

The proposal of a leadership programme must be made public on the website of the institution. The teaching staff are neither allowed to vote for the candidates nor have the right to comment. Finally, the head of the institution is appointed by the maintainer (in the case of state-schools, the minister) and is responsible for education at the institution for 5 years. The commissioning, appointing, and decommissioning of principals are the responsibility of the operator. Kindergarten principals, however, are appointed by local maintainers, but the process is similar to the one described above. It is not required for the operator to provide an explanation if they want to refuse the candidate.

³ It is rare to have an external applicant, but in that case it is expected from him/her to gather information regarding the school.

The educational leadership teacher-training programme of the Hungarian-Netherlands School for Educational Management (HUNSEM)

After the change of the socio-political system in Hungary in 1989, strong needs arose to establish a new management programme for prospective school leaders that would have an international character, be grounded on modern management theories, and be based on broad experience and practice. The bilateral projects conducted between 1993 and 1998 and supported by the Hungarian and Dutch Ministries of Education have created the ground for elaboration of the content and organizational form of long-term professional co-operation. The newly created educational management training programme was accredited in 1996. The international evaluation of the programme was carried out by an international professorial committee, which conducted analysis and assessment of the curricula and the teaching staff in order to ensure high quality of training. Finally, the HUNSEM was established in 1998 with the aim to:

- establish the organizational/institutional background of educational management training and management development in the framework of the Dutch-Hungarian bilateral programme;
- assure the scientific foundation and development of this professional field;
- ensure the sustainability and development of the training in line with the market demands;
- deepen and enhance international relations in this particular field.

Four of the six founding institutions have continuously cooperated in the HUNSEM since its inception: The University of Szeged, the Hungarian Institute for Educational Research and Development, University of Amsterdam, and NSO-CNA Leadership Academy (Netherlands School of Educational Management). Throughout the years, other Hungarian universities would join and leave the consortium.

The HUNSEM renewed its mission and strategy in 2014, and we highlight the core elements of its mission in the following statements:

1. The sense of the existence and operations of HUNSEM is creating values for the stakeholders in the field of educational leadership and organizational development.
2. The social mission of HUNSEM is to support sustainably the creation of an equitable education system, and the domestic labour market in accordance with a knowledge society. It trains excellent leaders

to contribute to the improvement of education and the learning efficiency of students, thus the growth of personal prosperity and family welfare.

3. HUNSEM works as a community: the staff members understand each other; the commitment to modern management and organizational thinking connects us. They form a humane, empathic, opened and motivating community, where essential values are professional calling, commitment to quality and efficiency, training in organisational and personal competencies, producing knowledge, and mediating values.
4. HUNSEM is a learning organisation with future-oriented expertise, characterized by a familiar team who can work together, decision-making and executive mechanisms, and human resources dynamically responding to possibilities and challenges.
5. HUNSEM is active in its internal and external collaboration, and works as a network centre. It is a change-oriented organization, possessing a research-, development- and innovation-supporting culture, transparent internal processes, effective communication, problem-solving focus and TQM based quality assurance.
6. HUNSEM is an adaptive school: student orientation and openness toward users and consumers are decisive criteria for us. The staff members believe in the unity of theory and practice, in the importance of the necessity of developing practical skills and practice-orientated thinking, in the reason for existence, and in the power of shared and involving leadership.

HUNSEM provides a master-level specialized training program for teachers (future and acting principals) in different specializations (school leadership specialization, mentor-teacher specialization). All training programs last two years (120 ECTS), and consist of a foundation phase (1st year) and a specialization phase (2nd year). The teaching methods are based on the active participation of students, and combine contact learning with e-learning. (See the list of courses in Appendix 1.) Besides the core program – leadership training for acting and future school leaders, deputies and middle leaders – there are also specializations which prepare teachers for special tasks and roles that can be considered as leadership roles: mentors (HR specialists), quality assurance advisors, regional educational administrators, supervisors, or school development specialists.

HUNSEM became the second largest leadership institute in Hungary. It has been providing training since 1997, so the first group finished its studies in 1999. Although currently some other institutions provide educational leadership programmes in Hungary HUNSEM is still one of the most

prestigious institutes in this field. Table 1 shows the main data regarding the number of participants who received a diploma from the HUNSEM training program.

Table 1. Number of participants receiving a diploma from a HUNSEM training program

Program/University	Number of participants	Remark
Leadership training program (University of Szeged)	2143	Between 1999 and 2019
Other specialization (University of Szeged)	803	Between 1999 and 2019
Other universities belonging to the HUNSEM consortium	app. 1000–1200	Between 1997 and 2018

Responsibilities and tasks of principals

The decision-making system in Hungarian schools strongly relies on heads of institutions and teaching staff. In many cases, the teaching staff has the right to decide on many school matters, while the principal's role in the decision-making process is a preparatory one, despite the fact that they are responsible for the professional and legal operation of the school. The principals are responsible for pedagogical work, leading and managing the educating staff and preparing materials for decisions, also taking responsibility for their realization and control. School heads have the right to accept the pedagogical programme of the institution. Every six months, the principal has to report to the parent council regarding the operation of the school (NPE Act, 2011).

Despite their responsibilities, school heads don't manage a budget, cannot conclude an agreement individually, and have no professional authority regarding financial matters (these are managed by the maintainer), although some decision making power was transferred back to school heads from 2017. Strategic decisions are difficult to make since change management is not in school leaders' job description and since they can only make suggestions, but not decisions regarding human resource development plans. The employers of teachers are the local educational districts (delegated from the centre operator), so their appointment and dismissal and their wages are the responsibility of the director of the educational district. Although school heads have relative autonomy in the day-to-day

operation of the institution, without financial autonomy they are hindered as they need the approval by the educational district, even for requesting teacher substitutions, which is a different setting compared to the situation before 2011.

Evaluating the work of the principal

In 2015 the Hungarian education system introduced a nation-wide school inspection system, which in turn emphasized the role of institutional self-evaluation. Educational institutions must conduct a systematic institutional self-evaluation that is based on the standards developed by the Educational Authority and approved by the minister responsible for education. The systematic institutional self-evaluation is conducted on three levels: the institution, the leader, and the teacher. Its goal is to identify strengths and possible development areas at each level and to create a development plan based on the results which will be the part of the institutional development plan.

The self-evaluation of principals is conducted according to the yearly self-evaluation plan, at the second and fourth year of the appointment based on the expectations developed by the work-group responsible for self-evaluation, the principal and the educating staff. The evaluation manual that contains not only the standards but also the exact procedures is partly based on the results of the International Cooperation for School Leadership project (supported by the European Commission), the so-called Central5 competences for school leadership (Révai & Kirkham, 2013). The five key dimensions identified in the project and their correspondence to the evaluating system are presented in Table 2:

Table 2. Comparing competences from Central5 and the Hungarian evaluation system for principals

Competence areas of Central5	Hungarian evaluation areas of principals
Leading and managing learning and teaching	Leading and managing educational processes – teaching, learning, improving, diagnostic
Leading and managing change	Leading and managing institutional change
Leading and managing self	Improving leadership competencies
Leading and managing others	Leading and managing the staff of the school
Leading and managing the institution	Leading and managing the institution and its operation

The external evaluation of principals is based on general pedagogical and leadership aspects. Inspectors evaluate the realization of the goals set by the principal regarding pedagogical and leadership development. The goal of the evaluation is to give realistic feedback on the principals' work. The evaluators make their assessment based on school documents interviews and local inspections. They make written recommendations in which they mark the areas that are extraordinary and those ones that are in the need of improvement.

Current research and development projects regarding educational leadership in Hungary

The Hungarian-Netherland School for Educational Management (HUNSEM) is not only an educational institution but also regularly conducts and engages in various research and development projects focusing on educational leadership. Since 2014 HUNSEM has been involved in a regional research and development project focusing on helping schools to become learning organisations. The learning organization (Senge, 1990) is an adaptive, self-organizing entity, able to manage knowledge (Garvin, 1993) with the appropriate cultural aspects (vision, values, behaviour) supporting the learning environment, processes supporting learning and development, and structural aspects enabling the support of learning activities (Armstrong & Foley, 2003) in order to continuously learn, develop and adapt to the ever-changing environment (Ali, 2012).

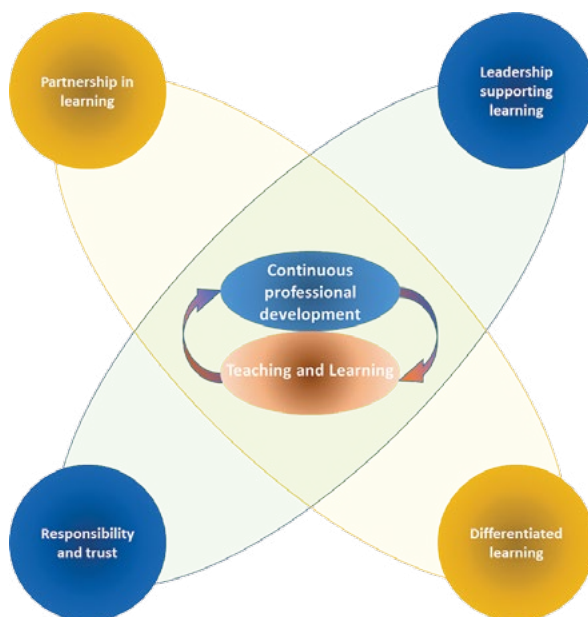
Several empirical studies explored the concept by linking leadership, organizational learning, and student outcomes (for example the *Leadership for Organisational Learning and Student Outcomes* by Silins, Mulford and Zarins (2002) and the *Leadership in the Process of Organizational Learning in Schools* by Pol, Hlousková, Lazarová, Novotny and Sedláček (2011)).

In 2015, between June and September, a large-scale questionnaire was implemented in the Southern-Great Plains Region of Hungary for heads of institutions, middle managers, and individual teachers in schools. The questionnaires were linked through the educational ID of the institutions. The questionnaire focused on the validation of the HUNSEM's learning organization model and the assessment of organizational culture via the Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The database contains the responses of 62 schools (submitted by school principals), 199 deputy-heads and 1192 teachers.

The HUNSEM's learning organizational model was later incorporated in the educational leadership programme as a diagnostic and development

tool, thus ensuring the sustainability of the research and development project. The model consists of the elements shown in Figure 1 (Anka, Baráth, Cseh, Fazekas, Horváth, Kézy, Menyhárt & Sipos, 2015).

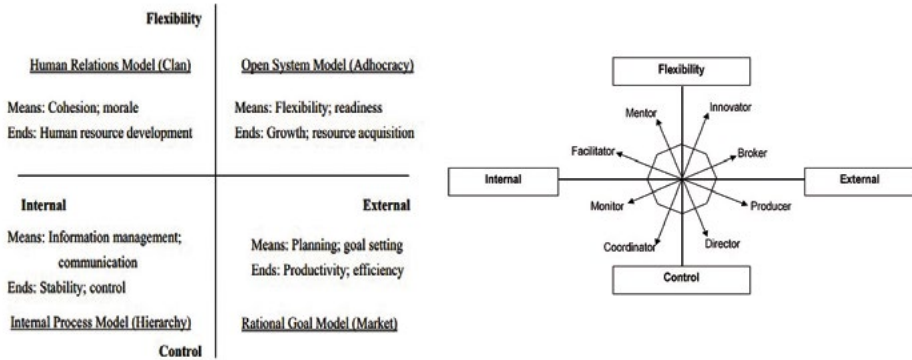
Figure 1. The HUNSEM's learning organizational model for schools (Anka et al., 2015, p. 21)



In the centre of the model is the core business of educational institutions – teaching and learning – which is reinforced by the continuous professional development of staff. One axis of the model is the human aspect, namely partnership in learning and differentiated learning. The other axis is the organizational aspect of the model, namely responsibility and trust regarding the organizational culture and the leadership which is supporting learning. Regarding these dimensions, we found significant differences between highly competitive schools and less competitive schools (based on National Competence Measurement data) and also between organizations which are less and more characterized by organizational learning. Combining these dimensions we created a scale for Learning Organizational Behaviour (LOB) (Horváth, Verderber & Baráth, 2015).

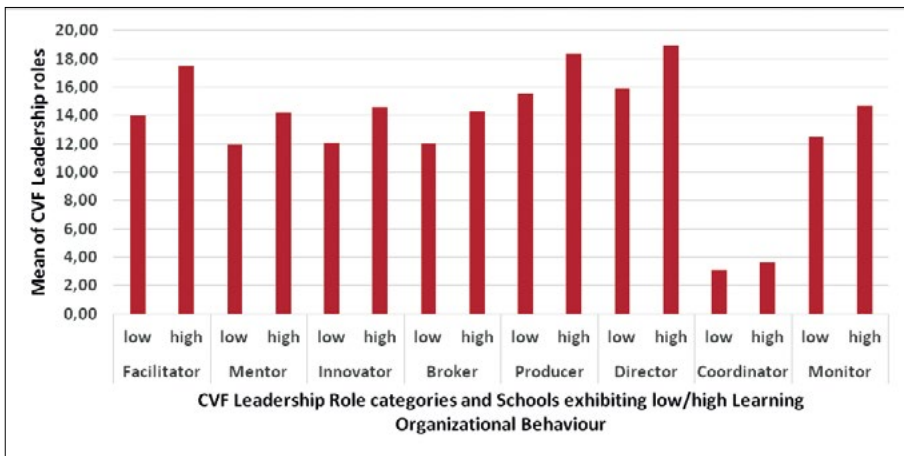
Cameron and Quinn's Competing Values Framework is a well-known tool in educational research. Along the axes of flexibility-control and internal-external focus, it considers four organizational culture models and eight leadership roles (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2011)



In order to answer the question of what leadership style characterizes the Hungarian public education institution which is operating as a learning organization, we divided the sample along the Learning Organizational Behaviour scale to a high profile organization and a low profile organization. The comparison of different leadership roles across these categories gave us data presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Comparing schools with low and high Learning Organizational Behaviour across leadership roles of the Competing Values Framework



Both types of organizations – highly competitive and less competitive schools – were high on the Director and the Producer roles, which belong to the External-Control quadrant of the framework. Also, we could connect highly competitive schools with the Facilitator role as well, which is in the Internal-Flexibility quadrant. The Director role behaviours consist of designing and organizing work, including delegation, envisioning the future, and keeping tasks and goals consistent and clear. The Producer role behaviours consist of managing time and stress, taking care of productivity, and focusing on results. These leaders are task-oriented and work-focused; their influence is based on intensity and rationality. These leaders are energized by competitive situations, and winning is an important goal (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Quinn, Faerman & Thompson, 1996). The Facilitator role behaviours consist of building effective teams, facilitating participative decision-making, problem-solving and managing conflict, as well as seeking consensus (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Quinn *et al.*, 1996). The Coordinator role, which is in the Internal-Control quadrant, is insignificant for both highly and less competitive schools. The Coordinator role behaviours consist of organizing the work structure, schedules, giving assignments, managing projects, and designing work processes across functional areas, and their influence are based on these. These leaders are dependable and reliable (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Quinn *et al.*, 1996).

In all cases, the organizations which have a high value on the Learning Organizational Behaviour scale are prone to higher values in the leadership style scales. If we examine the difference between the two groups with the means of the leadership style scales we find that all differences are significant.

To understand the deeper relations between the different leadership roles and the different dimensions of learning organizational behaviour we examined the correlations between these variables. Altogether, the Facilitator role has the highest correlation ($r=0.708$; $p<0.001$) with the learning organizational behaviour, meaning that the more competitive schools are more likely to identify with Facilitator leadership role. The Facilitator role belongs to the human relations model and the clan culture and it mainly means that the leader is strong in building teams, using participative decision making, and managing conflict. The clan culture is similar to a family-type organization because it is full of shared values and common goals, cohesion, participation, and an emphasis on empowerment and employee involvement. Quinn and Rohrbaugh contend that (cited by Yu & Wu, 2009: 38) the clan culture is just the organizational culture defined by Wilkins and Ouchi (1983: 472–474), which can be developed under certain conditions, such as a relatively long history and stable membership, absence of

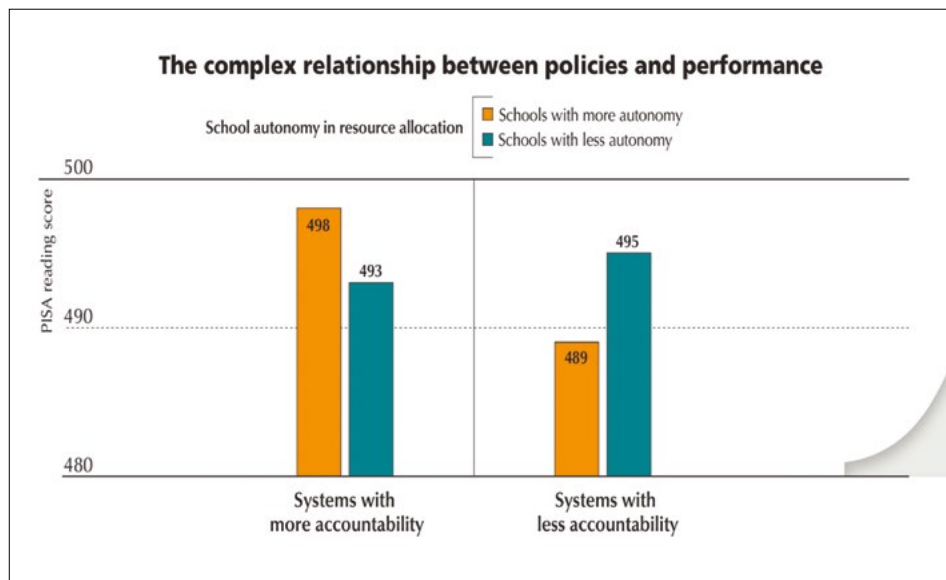
institutional alternatives, thick interactions among members, etc. Cameron and Quinn argue that clan-type firms are more like extended families than economic entities; instead of hierarchical structure they work as semi-autonomous work teams, ensure empowering work environments, and facilitate employee participation, commitment, and loyalty (Cameron & Quinn, 2011: 41–43).

VIEW TOWARD THE FUTURE

When looking at the possible future of educational leadership in Hungary we must distinguish a legislative and professional aspect of the question. From a legislative point of view, it seems that the current system will remain intact and little radical change can be expected regarding the current core values of the system. From a professional point of view, it is a question whether or not maintaining or challenging the status quo would be a rational strategy. Any professional development regarding school leadership which accepts the current situation and explores the possibilities within the boundaries of the system effectively maintains the current situation. The current situation is crippling some aspects of school leadership (e.g., control over budget, human resources) but it could lead to the fulfilment of other aspects of leadership (e.g., pedagogical leadership, mentor roles). It depends on the intentions and culture of micro, mezzo, and macro level governance, their interactions, and, also on the requirements of the fast changing knowledge society.

On the other hand, from a system point of view, synchronizing legislative and professional aspects of leadership, the balance between accountability and responsibility is an important question for the future. As can be seen from the PISA results in Figure 4, accountability and autonomy go hand in hand: schools with less autonomy tend to perform better in systems with less accountability and schools with more autonomy tend to perform better in systems with more accountability (OECD, 2011).

Figure 4. The complex relationship between policies and performance (OECD, 2011, p. 4)



Still, on the system level, Hungarian education must face the dwindling numbers of student teachers and mass shortage of teachers in schools. This is a prospect that could overwrite legislative and professional practice in order to provide minimum service in schools (e.g., the coverage of disciplinary areas by other teachers).

Regarding institutional and leadership level aspects, we turn to the results of our research projects using the lens of learning organizations and the competing values framework. It is evident from a series of research results that schools operating as learning organizations have better student outcomes (Pol *et al.*, 2011; Silins, Mulford & Zarins, 2002). For example, the Welsh Government initiated a change in their education system focusing on developing schools as learning organizations in partnership with the OECD in order to improve student outcomes (OECD, 2018). It is evident from our research project that the rational goal model is the strong suit of principals in Hungary (as it was before 2011, see Baráth (2009)), but the current legislative context set impediments for the fulfilment of these roles, therefore, naturally pushing principals to other aspects of the competing values framework. One promising aspect would be the human relations model, expanding the facilitator and mentor roles of leaders. In this aspect, principals could focus on internal leadership (instead of management) roles, facilitating

informal workplace learning, collaboration among staff, an important prerequisite of the learning organization model.

Beside internal cooperation there would be a need for inter-organizational cooperation as well as another source of professional development facilitated by school leaders. Initiatives in these areas show promising results as can be seen from a research project focusing on the development and embedding of horizontal learning in the Hungarian education system. The role espousing a learning-centred vision, support of professional development, and self-directed learning from the leadership seems to be a crucial element in supporting schools' inner and external knowledge sharing practices (Horváth, Simon & Kovács, 2015).

To summarize, school leadership in Hungary must face diverse challenges in the future, partially stemming from contextual and legislative factors (e.g., decreasing number of teachers, issues of accountability and responsibility). In response, the development of school leaders must prepare future school leaders for these challenges and help them to better exploit and explore the opportunities of a more human- and learning-/learner-centred approach to leadership.

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Appendix 1. HUNSEM leadership training for acting and future school leaders

1st semester (foundation phase)		
Subjectgroup	Course	Credits
Organization	Organizationa ltheory and organizational culture in education	3
	Organizational development in schools	3
	HR management in educational institutions	5
	Strategic planning in education	3
T-grouptraining	Personal development and improving communication skills	3
Knowledge management	Development of reflective thinking	3
	Knowledge sharing (internal and external)	3
Information management	Gathering and analyzing information	5
Number of credits		28
2nd semester (foundation phase)		
Quality improvement	Quality management in education	5
	Innovation management in education	3
	Project management in education	3
Education policy and administration	Theories of educationalsystems	4
	Governance of education	3
	Legal environment of education	3
Efficiency and evaluation of education system	Efficiency and effectiveness of education	3
	Institutional evaluation	3
T-group training	Conflict management	3
Number of credits		30

3rd semester (specialization phase)		
Leadership development	Theories of leadership and operative management of schools	6
	Organizational communication	3
Finance and administration	Legal aspects of school leadership	3
	Resource management in school	5
Thesis-writing	Seminar for thesis-writing	2
Practice	Field practice	3
T-group training	Training for development of leadership competences	3
Number of credits		25
4th semester (specialization phase)		
Strategic management	Marketing in education	3
	Managing adaptive education	3
Education and development	Quality improvement	3
	Curriculum regulation, local/institutional curriculum	3
	Effective school	3
	Special elective course 1	3
	Special elective course 2	3
Number of credits		21
Final exam		12
Total number of credits		120