

Social Justice Leadership, Instructional Leadership, and the Goals of Schooling**Haim Shaked**Accepted to *International Journal of Educational Management***Abstract**

Purpose: School principals should see themselves as social justice leaders, who have the ability to allow all students to succeed, regardless of their characteristics and backgrounds. At the same time, school principals are also called upon to demonstrate instructional leadership, which emphasizes the teaching and learning aspects of school principalship. This paper examines the relations between these two roles of today's school principals.

Design: To investigate the relations between social justice leadership and instructional leadership, this paper add the question of the goal of schooling to the mix. After identifying possible goals of schooling, the paper conceptualizes social justice leadership and instructional leadership, respectively, while also examining their relations with schools' major goals. Possible commonalities and contradictions between social justice leadership and instructional leadership are discussed.

Findings: The prevalent expectation that school leaders should give top priority to ongoing improvement of teaching quality and academic outcomes may be seen as reducing school leaders' involvement in some aspects of social justice leadership such as nurturing students' active citizenship.

Research implications: This paper opens new research avenues. Based on the findings of this paper, the connection between principals' perceptions regarding the goals of schooling and their leadership behaviors should be explored.

Practical implications: It seems advisable to discuss the interplay between social justice leadership and instructional leadership with prospective and current principals, as well as with other school stakeholders.

Value: Insofar as the relations between social justice leadership and instructional leadership have not been explored so far, this paper narrows a gap in the available knowledge.

Keywords: social justice leadership, instructional leadership, goals of schooling

Introduction

Social injustice often characterizes today's western schools, where white, straight, middle-class, and physically able students reach higher achievements, drop out less, and are more likely to attend higher education institutions than their counterparts from other races, gender orientations, socioeconomic backgrounds, and disability statuses (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Sweet et al., 2010). School leaders are considered to have the power to make socially just changes. Therefore, they are asked to explore gaps in academic success between students grouped by race, ethnicity, culture, neighborhood, parental income, or home language (Johnson and Avelar La Salle, 2010; Place et al., 2010), and then they are asked to work as change agents to eliminate inequities in school policies, procedures, and practices (Brown, 2006; McKenzie et al., 2008; Theoharis and Causton-Theoharis, 2008). In fact, they are expected to serve as social justice leaders, who support students from diverse groups with a wide range of needs (Brooks et al., 2017; DeMatthews and Mawhinney, 2014) and ensure that all students are treated equally, without discrimination or favoritism of any kind (Dantley and Tillman, 2010; Jean-Marie, 2008).

At the same time, school principals have another demanding role to play: instructional leadership. In light of mounting expectations to shoulder accountability for their schools' higher levels of student achievement (Reeves, 2014), school leaders are increasingly called upon to enact instructional leadership (Hallinger and Wang, 2015). The most important aspect of instructional leadership, which distinguishes it from other educational leadership conceptualizations, is its active focus on the essential teaching and learning processes at school (Murphy et al., 2016; Rigby, 2014). Instructional leadership is the pattern of behaviors

that school leaders exhibit in order to ensure improved teacher practices and student performance (Brazer and Bauer, 2013; Neumerski, 2012). By emphasizing instructional leadership and by attaching importance to the roles that instructional leaders play, students' academic results may rise (Glickman et al., 2014; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006; May and Supovitz, 2011).

The current paper seeks answer to the question of how the two roles that today's school principals are demanded to fulfill – social justice leadership and instructional leadership – get along conceptually. Social justice leadership has received significant scholarly attention in recent years (Brooks et al., 2017; DeMatthews and Mawhinney, 2014). Concurrently, a fairly extensive body of research has been carried out on instructional leadership and its contribution to student performance (Glickman et al., 2014; Murphy et al., 2016). However, no previous study has dealt with the question of how these two frameworks may interact. Therefore, this paper provides an important opportunity to advance the understanding of the theoretical relationship between social justice leadership and instructional leadership.

Methodology/Structure

To theoretically examine the relationship between social justice leadership and instructional leadership, this article delves into a crucial question about the main goal of schooling: Toward what ultimate goal does "good" education strive? Identifying the primary objective of schooling holds wide-ranging implications, both theoretical and practical. Yet, schooling's main goal has hardly been investigated. Biesta (2009) pointed to "the remarkable absence in many contemporary discussions about education of explicit attention for what is educationally desirable.... There is very little explicit discussion, in other words, about what constitutes good education" (p. 36). In particular, the ultimate target of schooling have barely been examined in direct relation to its conceptual ramifications for social justice leadership and instructional leadership (Shaked, 2018).

An inquiry into schools' main goal permits us to explore the relationship between social justice leadership and instructional leadership. Linking the three concepts of social justice leadership, instructional leadership and the goal of schooling, as the current paper seeks to do, is challenging, particularly as each of them have an extended literature and theoretical perspectives, based on sociological and philosophical approaches. In order to provide an overview, these concepts are discussed only in a comprehensive manner, while giving up multi-dimensional exploration of their nuances.

To develop its argument, this paper consists of a sequence of four parts. The first part investigates the main goal of schooling by exploring the three super-goals conceived for education systems, which engender different types of schools, and then elaborates on the one super-goal that characterizes the majority of today's ordinary schools: socialization. The second part conceptualizes social justice leadership and examines its relations with schools' major socialization goal. The third part presents the foundations, components and benefits of instructional leadership, and examines its relations with the socialization goal of schools. The fourth part then link the points, comparing the goals of social justice and instructional leadership. This part summarizes the paper's main arguments and discusses further research, recommendations and implications.

Part I – The Goals of Schooling

Seeking to describe the fundamental goals of educational institutions, Lamm (1976, 1983) identified the three possible super-goals of schooling – *socialization*, *acculturation*, and *individuation* – which were widely discussed by Harpaz (2010, 2014). The first super-goal, *socialization*, aspires to educate students in order for them to function and succeed in a particular society. To this end, students must acquire the ability to earn a living, learn to get along with others, understand the meaning of living in a democratic society, and so on. Thus, the image of "the educated person" underlying socialization is someone who can integrate

into social structures appropriately. The second super-goal, *acculturation*, strives to impart values and principles that shape character traits and control behaviors. These lofty values and principles are embodied in texts representing a preferred culture, which are internalized and become "second nature." Thus, the image of "the educated person" underlying acculturation is that of people who have freed themselves from their crude impulses, prejudices, and misconceptions. The third super-goal, *individuation*, differs fundamentally from the previous two in that it does not uphold a standardized one-size-fits-all education. The image of "the educated person" underlying individuation is someone who functions authentically or autonomously. Instead of being defined by specific behaviors or beliefs, individuation as a super-goal defines "educated persons" as fulfilling their own particular nature or as creating their own unique world.

Based on these three super-goals of education systems, Lamm (1976) presented three logics of education, as seen on *Table 1*: the *monist logic of imitation* (derived from socialization), the *monist logic of molding* (derived from acculturation), and the *pluralist logic of development* (derived from individuation). These three logics are reflected in various elements of instruction, called "dimensions." As shown on *Table 1*, when instruction as an activity is guided by consistent links among its super-goal, its logic, and its dimensions, a "pattern" is created – a coherent world of education (Guterman and Neuman, 2017; Harpaz, 2010; Silverman, 2017). Under the first, monist pattern of education – aiming to socialize children via imitation of given models – the school is intended to provide the diverse utilitarian knowledge and skills needed for students to become integrated homogeneously into society, so that they and it can function smoothly. This pattern is based on the premise that education should equip young people with tools that enable them to fulfill their roles in society as spouses, parents, professionals, democratic citizens, etc. According to the second monist education pattern of acculturation, learning is based on molding children's

internalization of intrinsically appreciated principles and values, which in turn is expected to affect dispositions and character traits. Thus, teachers are certainly required to teach effectively, but their main role is to act as cultural agents who model desired principles and

Table 1. Coherent Patterns of Super-Goals, Logics, and Dimensions in Education

		Super-goals (social significance ascribed to education)		
		Socialization	Acculturation	Individuation
Logics (meta-ideology)		Monist	Monist	Pluralist
		Logic of imitation	Logic of molding	Logic of development
Dimensions (elements of instruction)	Nature of aims in teaching	Extrinsic	Extrinsic controlling intrinsic	Extrinsic controlling intrinsic
	Nature of desired achievement	Performing according to given models	Acting according to given principles	Discovering new principles and criticizing them
	Status of the learner	Homogeneous group member	Homogeneous group member	Unique individual
	Status of the content	Utilitarian	Intrinsically valuable	Supportive of learners' capacities
	Status of the teacher	Employee	Cultural agent	Specialist
	Preferred kind of motivation	Specific teacher's activities	Means as well as end of education	Self-motivation and self-regulation
	Preferred kind of activities	Attention	Teacher-directed	Student-directed
	Preferred kind of leadership	Autocratic	Authoritative	Permissive

values, because learning occurs through teacher-directed situations in which students identify with teachers. As opposed to the monism of the previous education patterns, the pluralism of the third pattern – upholding the super-goal of individuation via support for diverse children's development – affects both teaching content and student learning. Because each student develops uniquely, through attraction to different contents, the study content itself has no intrinsic value other than the significance that the individual attributes to it during learning. Learning is perceived as a self-motivated process regulated by the student, where the teacher is seen as a permissive, supportive specialist who encourages students to discover new principles and criticize them.

Although these three super-goals do not contradict one another, their practical consequences for education are incompatible, because the three patterns would neutralize one another in terms of their educational impact (Guterman and Neuman, 2017; Harpaz, 2010). Therefore, in practice, these three coherent educational "worlds" (Harpaz, 2010: 5) represent three different types of schools. The socialization pattern (monist logic of imitation) occurs in ordinary, standard schools, with which we are most familiar. The second and the third education patterns are manifested much less frequently in western school systems. The acculturation pattern (monist logic of molding) represents schools that aspire first and foremost to instilling and assimilating values, such as schools designed for religious education. The individuation pattern (pluralist logic of development) is manifested in schools that primarily aspire to allowing personal expression, such as democratic schools.

Let us now more deeply examine the prevailing world of education – ordinary schools that are socializing schools, identifying and prioritizing the customary sub-goals of these schools as they seek to prepare young persons for adult life in the society to which they belong. Generally speaking, under the most common super-goal of schools – *socialization* – ordinary schools uphold two types of sub-goals: academic and non-academic (Shaked, 2018).

Schools' *academic* sub-goals involve aims such as broadening and deepening students' knowledge base across various subjects; developing learning skills like creative and analytical thinking, reading, writing, information mapping, and summarization techniques; promoting students' love of learning; cultivating enquiring minds; and sparking students' curiosity (Pritchard, 2013). The *non-academic* sub-goals of schools involve aims such as developing students' emotional well-being; giving students the social tools they need to function within their society, including teaching them to navigate social interactions with peers from different backgrounds and helping them become productive community members; and imparting moral values and promoting students' humanistic and adaptive character traits such as responsibility, self-control, integrity, decency, and good manners (Shaked, 2018).

Biesta (2009, 2014, 2016) called the academic type of sub-goals *qualification* and called the non-academic type of sub-goals *socialization*. Thus, the *qualification* (or academic) sub-goals refer to providing children with the knowledge and skills that will allow them to execute a wide range of actions. This may range from provision of very specific qualification (e.g., training students for a particular skill or technique, or for a particular job or profession) to more general qualification (e.g., when learners become acquainted with modern culture or western civilization). Biesta's conceptualization of *socialization* (or non-academic) sub-goals refers to the many ways in which, through education, students achieve belonging to a particular social, cultural, and political "order." Socialization is sometimes actively pursued by schools, for example with regard to the transmission of particular values and norms or in relation to the continuation of particular community traditions. However, even if socialization is not schools' explicitly declared purpose, it remains a main implicit function. For example, research has shown that schools typically convey a "hidden" curriculum, referring to norms, values, and beliefs that are communicated in schools without aware intent (Jerald, 2006). From this perspective, "citizenship is not 'a' goal of education, it's 'the' goal of education"

(Risinger, 2009: 330). One more function that Biesta (2009) identified in schools, which he termed *subjectification*, is the process of becoming a "subject" rather than an "object" of prevailing social, cultural, and political "order." This educational function takes place in parallel to and at times in contrast to Biesta's *socialization* function. That is, in subjectification, the education process should encourage students not to simply become a "specimen of a more encompassing order" (Biesta, 2009: 40) but rather to maintaining their own individuality and uniqueness in the face of socialization pressures, perhaps akin to the aforementioned super-goal of individuation. However, it is debatable as to whether all education in fact contributes to such subjectification.

Part II – Social Justice Leadership and the Goals of Schooling

School leaders are perceived today as those who can transform school environments into spaces where all students thrive, regardless of race, gender, religion, national origin, ability or disability, sexual orientation, age, or other potentially marginalizing characteristics (Rigby, 2014; Theoharis, 2009; Theoharis and Causton-Theoharis, 2008). Therefore, researchers, policymakers, and practitioners expect school leaders to become social justice leaders, who ensure that social justice concepts are realized in schools so that they provide equal opportunities for all students (Brooks et al., 2017; Dantley and Tillman, 2010; DeMatthews and Mawhinney, 2014). Social justice leadership requires "the moral use of power... [to] challenge structures built upon the so-called neutrality of objective reality and acknowledge that the systems we have in place represent and, subsequently, reproduce the dominant culture and values in society" (Bogotch, 2002, p. 140).

Brown (2004) broadly defined the educational work of social justice leaders to "foster successful, equitable, and socially responsible learning and accountability practices for all students" (p. 80). More specifically, McKenzie and her colleagues (2008) identified the two main goals of social justice school leaders. First, "they must raise the academic achievements

of all the students in their school", across the board. Warranting that no talent is wasted, school leaders can contribute to the future assignment of individuals to the academic and social positions that correspond to their aptitudes and motivations, irrespective of their family's wealth, background, or social belonging (Beachum and McCray, 2010; Wang, 2015). Second, social justice school leaders "must prepare their students to live as critical citizens in society". They should foster active supporters of social justice by enabling students to recognize social injustice and encouraging them to be social justice agents who actively seek the promotion of this core value (Jong and Jackson, 2016; Meister et al., 2017). Both of these goals can only be achieved when leaders assign students to inclusive, heterogeneous classrooms that provide all students with access to a rich and engaging curriculum. Social justice concepts should be realized in schools so that they provide equal opportunities for all students and treat all students equally, without discrimination or favoritism of any kind (Capper and Frattura, 2007; Johnson and Avelar La Salle, 2010; Kose, 2009; Losen, 2015).

The two goals of social justice leadership may be seen as compatible with the two goals of ordinary schools, mentioned in the previous section. The first goal of social justice leadership – raising the academic results of all the students in their school – matches the academic goals of schooling, and the second goal of social justice leadership – preparing students to be critical members of society – matches the non-academic goals of schooling. Thus, social justice leaders, who make their schools become agents for promoting social justice, should work toward accomplishing both of the two main goals of schooling: qualification and socialization.

Part III – Instructional Leadership and the Goals of Schooling

In recent decades, researchers and practitioners alike have long argued that school leaders should demonstrate instructional leadership in their schools (Hallinger and Wang, 2015; Kaparou and Bush, 2016). Such leadership may be explained succinctly as the school

leaders' deep and direct involvement in promoting best instructional practices. School leaders who act as instructional leaders are intensely engaged in curricular and instructional issues (Brazer and Bauer, 2013). Simply put, school leaders are expected to focus on improving teaching and learning for all students (Hallinger, 2011; Neumerski, 2012).

The instructional leadership framework is based on the close connections identified between teachers' quality of instruction and students' academic results (Murphy et al., 2016). Research findings are clear: Teaching quality is the most important school-related factor influencing student outcomes (Aaronson et al., 2007; Clotfelter et al., 2007; Lewis, 2008). Namely, achievements of students depend crucially on their teachers' effectiveness, more than many other school factors like curricular programs or student grouping patterns (Hattie, 2009; Wahlstrom and Louis, 2008; Wayne and Youngs, 2003). Such high quality teaching, which is a prerequisite for the students' academic results that are especially valued in today's era of school leaders' accountability for school outcomes, demands constant nurturing and guidance by the school's instructional leader (Blase and Kirby, 2009; Stein and Coburn, 2008).

Summarizing the existing research literature, Stronge, Richard, and Catano (2008) culled five core domains that school leaders use to harness instructional leadership to meet their school goals: (a) building and maintaining a school *vision* that establishes clear learning goals and garners schoolwide – and even communitywide – commitment to these goals; (b) *sharing leadership* by counting on the expertise of teacher leaders to improve school effectiveness; (c) leading a *learning community*, which provides meaningful staff development; (d) *gathering data* for utilization in instructional decision-making; and (e) *monitoring* and encouraging curriculum implementation and quality teaching methods by spending time in classrooms. Practically, as leaders of instructional change and improvement, principals are expected to engage in activities such as "monitoring/observing instruction,

school restructuring or reform, supporting teachers' professional development, analyzing student data or work, modeling instructional practices... [and even] teaching a class"

(Goldring et al., 2008: 340).

The conceptual framework of educational leadership presented by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) is one of the most widely used in research (Hallinger and Wang, 2015). This framework consists of three dimensions for this leadership role, which are delineated into ten instructional leadership functions as follows. (1) The dimension of *defining the school mission* incorporates two functions: framing the school's goals and communicating the school's goals. School leaders are responsible for ensuring a clear mission, which focuses on all students' academic progress, and for disseminating this mission carefully to staff. (2) The dimension of *managing the instructional program* includes three functions: supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating curriculum, and monitoring student progress. This dimension focuses on school leaders' role in coordinating and controlling the school academic program. (3) The dimension of *developing a positive school learning climate* is broadest in scope, including five functions: protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, and providing incentives for learning.

A large research base links school leaders' instructional leadership to positive school outcomes, including improved teacher practices and higher student achievements, across a variety of organizational contexts (e.g., elementary, middle, and high schools; public, private, and public charter), spatial contexts like urban/suburban, and temporal contexts from 1980 through the present (e.g., Day et al., 2009; Glickman et al., 2014; Goddard et al., 2010; Heck and Hallinger, 2009, 2010; Jacobson, 2011; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006; May and Supovitz, 2011; Nettles and Harrington, 2007; Quinn, 2002; Sammons et al., 2010; Supovitz et al., 2010). Notably, the effect of instructional leadership on student outcomes was found to be

three to four times as great as that of transformational leadership, where leaders inspire, empower, and stimulate teachers (Robinson et al., 2008). These empirical links between the school leaders' active involvement in instruction, its high quality, and students' achievements have led to scholars' broadly voiced call for contemporary school leaders to view instructional leadership as their primary responsibility and top priority, on a consistent basis (Blase and Blase, 2004; Louis et al., 2010; Murphy et al., 2016; Murphy and Torre, 2014; Neumerski, 2012; Robinson et al., 2008). Accordingly, educational systems' demand for school leaders to assume central responsibility for instructional leadership has been spreading across the world (Rigby, 2014; Supovitz et al., 2010).

How is the instructional framework related to the question of the goals of schooling? I will examine the super-goals of schooling first. Under the super-goal of *socialization*, it is extremely important for school leaders to demonstrate instructional leadership, which assumes that the critical focus for attention by school leaders is teachers' practices because teachers engage in activities directly affecting students' knowledge acquisition and skill development. School leaders' actions should lead to continuous improvement of the quality of instruction to ensure that students acquire the knowledge, language, and social skills required for integration into society.

According to the super-goal of *acculturation*, instructional leadership is less important, because for this super-goal teachers' role-modeling is more crucial than their teaching practices. However, inasmuch as this process takes place while learning texts that represent a preferred culture, instructional leadership is still needed. School leaders are expected to serve as a personal example but also have to undertake responsibilities involving the setting of clear goals, managing the curriculum, evaluating teachers, monitoring lesson plans, and assigning resources to instruction. Hence, there is room for instructional leadership in schools aimed toward acculturation, but only as a relatively secondary phenomenon in the school.

For the super-goal of *individuation*, school leaders do not need, and are not allowed, to develop planned sequences of instruction or curricula detailing what students should learn during specific periods, or student assessment procedures. Inasmuch as the basic expectation from students is to develop personality, and schooling is perceived as supporting this individual development, the school leader's role is perceived as facilitator and provider of possibilities or choices. From this point of view, the school leader's instructional leadership is not needed, unless it has quite a different meaning. Instead of enforcing concrete obligations such as improving standardized achievement test scores and aligning programs with the school's curriculum, an individualizing school leader is expected to encourage meaningful teaching and learning while providing teachers with greater control and autonomy. Thus, instructional leadership is not manifested in its usual sense by supervision and control of the curriculum and teaching methods, but rather by supporting both teachers and students in self-directed exploration.

Looking closely on ordinary schools, which are directed to the super-goal of *socialization*, instructional leadership concentrates on the academic sub-goals (*qualification*) rather than the non-academic sub-goals (*socialization*). From the instructional leadership perspective, student learning and academic success (*qualification*) is the most important goal of schooling.

This widespread focus on student learning and performance is not surprising. Apparently, the public expects schools to perform qualification, socialization, and subjectification (maintaining each student's own individuality and uniqueness) simultaneously (Rothstein et al., 2008; Tichnor-Wagner and Socol, 2016). As Labaree (2010: 1) lamented about parents' and community members' expectations:

We want schools to provide us with good citizens and productive workers; to give us opportunity and reduce inequity; to improve our health, reduce crime,

and protect the environment. ... The system never seems to work the way we want it to, but we never give up hope that one day it will succeed.

However, within the formal education system itself, the contemporary era of measurement and accountability in education is based on a belief that what matters most is academic outcome, that is, qualification. Educators' compliance with accountability logics pulls them away from non-academic sub-goals of education (Horn, 2018). Although there are those who believe that non-academic sub-goals should be prioritized (Eun, 2016; McCluskey, 2017), today's education policies focus on student achievement as measured by test performance: "In the end, every element of an effective accountability system must be evaluated by one and only one criteria: did it help students learn and achieve more than they might have without the system?" (Reeves, 2014: 1).

One of the most prominent manifestations of this worldwide reliance on achievement tests is evident in the considerable influence wielded by international comparative studies such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) or the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Findings of these studies, which are intended to provide information about how national education systems perform academically compared to those of other countries, are widely utilized by national governments to inform educational policy and funding (Baird et al., 2016; Engel and Frizzell, 2015). Although the goals of education are to some extent context-dependent (Telafici et al., 2014), educational policy around the world today requires that schools focus primarily on assuring student learning and academic success (i.e., on the school's qualification function), particularly in a small number of curricular domains deemed crucial for 21st century success, such as language, science, and mathematics (Hannaway and Hamilton, 2009; Hargreaves and Braun, 2013).

Inasmuch as qualification and academic success are the linchpin of today's school

systems, instructional leadership is most needed because it focuses the school leader's attention on accomplishing high academic results. School leaders are expected to be particularly concerned with and spend considerable time on improving the teaching and learning aspects of their schools in order to achieve the anticipated qualification outcomes (May and Supovitz, 2011).

Part IV – Discussion/Conclusion: Linking the Points

This paper sought answer to the question of how contemporary school principals' two main roles – social justice leadership and instructional leadership – get along conceptually. To this end, it investigated the relations between each of these two frameworks and the goals of schooling. What is the relationship between instructional leadership and social justice leadership vis-à-vis their schools' goals?

As explained above, social justice school leadership has two key aspects. First, it seeks to raise the academic results of all the students, without exceptions or excuses, in order to enable future assignment of individuals to the academic and social positions that coincide to their talents and motivations (Wang, 2015). Second, it seeks to cultivate critical members of society, who are active supporters of social justice, encouraging students to realize social justice wherever they go (Jong and Jackson, 2016; Meister et al., 2017). These two aspects of social justice school leadership match the two main goals of today's ordinary schools. The first aspect – raising the academic performance of all the students – is compatible with the academic sub-goals of schooling, i.e. qualification; and the second aspect – preparing students to be critical citizens, who fight for social justice – is compatible with the non-academic sub-goals of schooling, i.e. socialization.

At the same time, instructional leadership primarily assists school leaders in promoting academic sub-goals, while abandoning the non-academic socializing sub-goals. In this matter, the instructional leadership framework is consistent with the exigent outcome-based

accountability environment, which is also based on a belief that what matter most are academic results (Baird et al., 2016; Engel and Frizzell, 2015; Reeves, 2014).

In light of this, social justice leadership and instructional leadership differ from each other. While instructional leadership in the contemporary era of accountability focuses exclusively on the academic sub-goals of schooling, social justice leadership ascribes importance to both the academic and non-academic goals of schooling. Preparing students to be active citizens by identifying and questioning inequity is very important for social justice leaders, whereas such preparation may be seen as deviation from the goal from the standpoint of instructional leaders. Thus, instructional leadership and social justice leadership may be considered as somewhat contradictory.

This difference can be seen in *Figure 1*, where the ellipses represent the frameworks discussed in this paper, while the rectangles represent the goals of these frameworks. The three possible super-goals of schooling – *socialization*, *acculturation*, and *individuation* – are presented at the top right of the *Figure 1*. Each of these super-goals is accompanied by an example of a matching school type: ordinary schools, religious schools and democratic schools. For the *socialization* super-goal, which characterizes common, ordinary schools, *Figure 1* elaborates two sub-goals: academic and non-academic, which were called by Biesta (2009, 2014, 2016) *qualification* and *socialization*, respectively. These two sub-goals correspond to the two key goals of social justice leadership, presented at the bottom of *Figure 1* – *All students' high achievement* and *Preparing critical citizens*. However, the goal of instructional leadership – high achievement – correspond only to the academic sub-goals of *socialization*, and not to the non-academic sub-goals.

Instructional leadership could possibly be viewed as strengthening social justice leadership, because the latter strives to lead all students to the qualification sub-goal of high academic performance, regardless of diverse students' potentially marginalizing

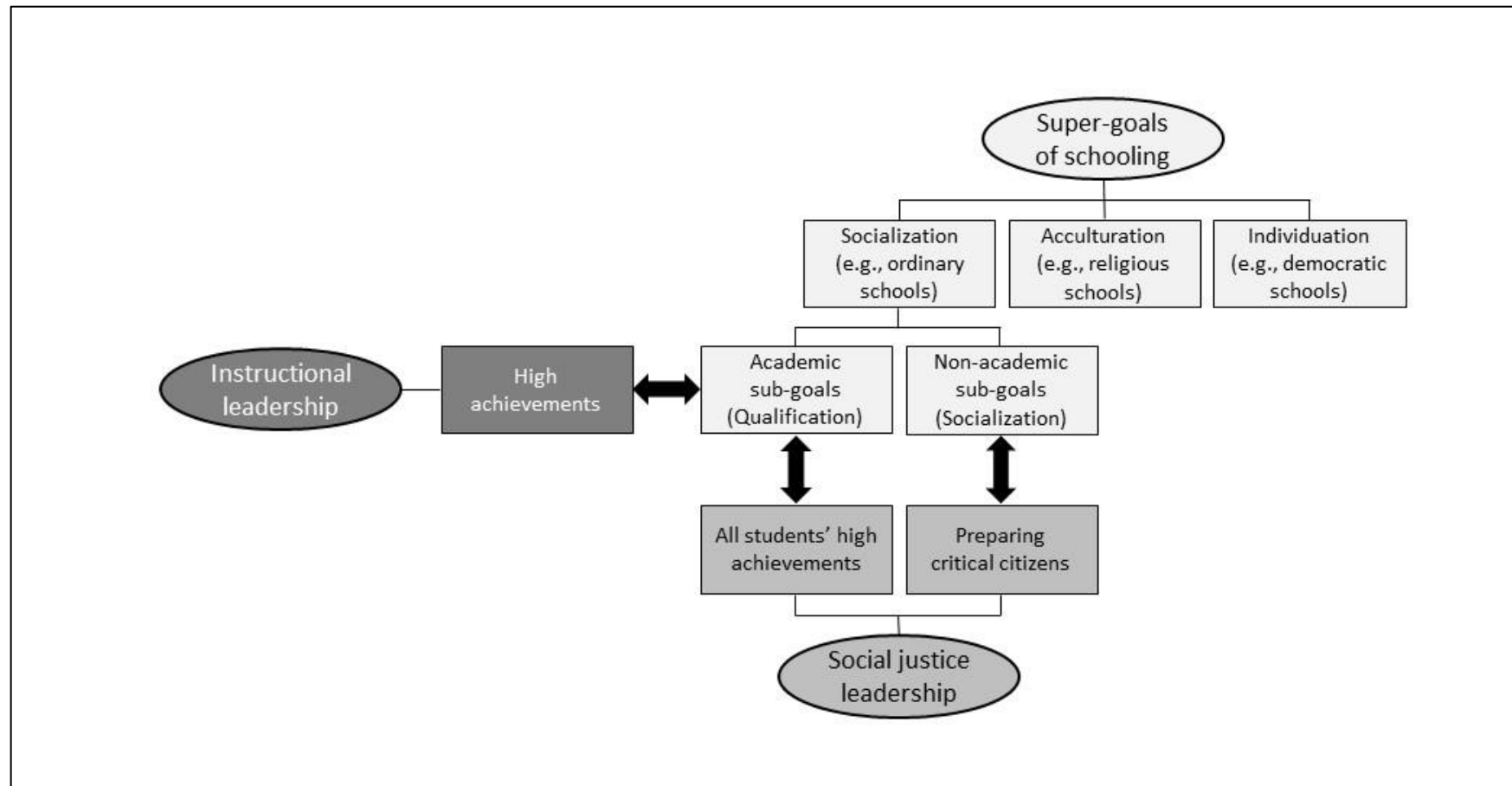
characteristics. Through the lens of the goals of schooling, however, this paper demonstrated that these two leadership styles do differ. Contrary to the unidimensional notional link between instructional leadership and the wholly academic sub-goals of schooling, social justice school leadership seeks to achieve both academic sub-goals (to allow all students to succeed academically, even when it appears that conditions are hopeless), and non-academic sub-goals (to cultivate active supporters of social justice by enabling their students to question social injustice and encouraging them to seek the realization of social justice). Thus, the widely voiced expectation that school leaders should make instructional leadership the key component of their role may be seen as reducing school leaders' involvement in some aspects of social justice leadership, such as preparing students to live as active, critical citizens in society

This paper opens future research avenues. Inasmuch as the goal of schooling plays a key role in prominent educational leadership frameworks, the perceptions of school leaders regarding this topic may be worthy of further research attention. Specifically, how might school leaders' perceptions regarding the goals of their schools influence their leadership behaviors? Comparisons of school leaders' perceptions regarding the goals of schooling according to their demographic variables (e.g., sex, education, experience), school characteristics (e.g., primary/secondary level, socioeconomic status), and sociocultural context also may be explored in further research. More broadly, such a comparisons may be conducted in various sociocultural contexts, in terms such as power distance (the extent to which the lower ranking individuals of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally), individualism (as opposed to collectivism), and masculinity (as opposed to femininity).

Turning to practice, this paper suggests that to enhance social justice leadership, school leaders should receive professional legitimacy for the integration of qualification-oriented

instructional leadership with socialization-oriented functions of social justice leadership. Alongside the extensive, multi-action initiatives to ratchet up the importance of the academic sub-goals of schools directly linked to instructional leadership, the non-academic sub-goals, which serve social justice leadership through the encouragement of students to become advocates for social justice, also need to occupy a central place in school leadership. A principal should not only promote student achievement but also their awareness of social inequity and injustice and their willingness to act to change it. It seems advisable to discuss the interplay between social justice leadership and instructional leadership with prospective and current principals, in various stages of their educational careers, such as preparation programs, mentoring programs provided to beginning principals, and professional development as principals. It is also a topic that is important to discuss along with a wide spectrum of school stakeholders, such as the school board as the immediate formal authority and employer of both principals and school staff; the parents, either as individuals or in the form of parents' committees as an organized actor; policymakers at the national and regional levels; and the local community.

Figure 1. Relations among instructional leadership, social justice leadership and the goals of schooling



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