

**Revising theories of rurality and rural educational leadership:
Rural contexts and rural school principals in Eyre Peninsula, South Australia.**

by

Kathryn Gay Hardwick-Franco

Thesis

Submitted to Flinders University

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

College of Education, Psychology and Social Work

February 2021

Declaration

I certify that this thesis:

1. Does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university; and
2. To the best of my knowledge and belief, does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.

Signed

Kathryn Gay Hardwick-Franco

Date

4th September 2020

I acknowledge and I am very thankful for the privilege that is the contribution of an Australian Government Research Training Program Scholarship.

I am also thankful for the Australian Postgraduate Awards scholarship, founded by the Australian Federal Government.

Acknowledgment

I acknowledge the support from my loving and wonderful husband, John Franco. I thank him for his unwavering support of my study for the past thirty years; since we met and fell in love at the University of Adelaide while studying the Bachelor of Arts. Without his support and encouragement, I could have invested neither the time nor money into my studies and research.

I acknowledge the support of my beautiful daughters, Tijana and Grace. I thank them for their continued encouragement and fitting their lives in and around my study. Their friendship and intellect inspire me. What the next generation have to bring to the world is exciting and hope filled.

My parents encouraged and supported my learning and for that I thank them. They both engaged in adult learning, role modelling the possibility of life long study. For that I thank Brian Hardwick and Judy Phelps.

I must also thank my old, blind Jack Russel dog, Rosie – my study-buddy – who sat with me through the years it took to research and write my PhD.

I thank Associate Professor A. Kimi Coaldrake and Steven Knopoff for their work with me during my first four degrees. They stood by me when a lengthy candidature, protracted by pregnancy and related illnesses, could have seen me withdraw. They demanded the highest standards in scholarship, which set me in good stead.

I thank staff at Flinders University who offered support in the form of questions and challenges that spurred me to complete. I especially thank Professor Tara Brabazon for, with her support, I have been able to complete the PhD and publish work in parallel to my doctoral studies during the candidature. Her weekly Friday WriteBunch skype sessions and weekly vlogs offered me a way to connect to academia while residing and researching in remote South Australia. Her intellect is breathtaking. She remains personable,

supportive and positive; her supervision of my thesis has been nothing short of incredible, inspiring, encouraging, positive, demanding...the superlatives go on.

I thank the rural school principals who allowed me insights into the role. For ethical reasons, I cannot name them. But their generosity and sharing of their experiences informs the thesis.

I must thank the Australian Government for the Research Training Program Scholarship and the Australian Postgraduate Awards scholarship. Being awarded a scholarship to study at doctoral level is a privilege I take very seriously. I thank university staff for supporting my application.

I thank family and friends for sharing the journey.

The following thesis is my own work. I have not used a professional editor. I take full responsibility for the work.

Acknowledgement of country

Flinders University acknowledges the Traditional Owners and Custodians, both past and present, of the various locations the University operates on, and recognises their continued relationship and responsibility to these Lands and waters. The research for this thesis was conducted on Kurna Land and Barngarla Land.

Abstract

This doctoral thesis examines the intersections between rurality and rural educational leadership. Yet the rationale for this research extends far beyond this nexus. What happens in rural contexts also impacts non-rural contexts, and it is leaders in the rural setting who bear the responsibility of supporting the rural community to address the complex and multiple impacts. Currently, political leaders and citizens are looking for ways to navigate the effects from multiple crises including climate change, health pandemics, resulting mass movement of humanity, the black lives matter movements and a pending collapse of capitalism. Much of the impact from these effects are experienced in rural contexts. Within our current global environment, there is an urgent need to understand and account for the ways in which rurality and rural educational leadership can support the planet, thereby ensuring a future for humanity. My original contribution to knowledge includes revisioning theories of rurality, reconfiguring rural educational leadership and revealing the nature of rural educational leadership in Eyre Peninsula, South Australia (EPSA).

This doctoral thesis summons existing research, while offering a new pathway to combine the theoretical and empirical, to formulate new models of rurality and rural leadership. Section One revisions theories of rurality. This cannot be achieved through contemporary conservative empirical research, for rurality does 'not sit in a petri dish, waiting to be researched' (Brabazon, Redhead & Chivaura, 2019, p. 4). Results highlight an urgent need to reference contemporary knowledge about rurality, to revision theories of rurality. The result of revisioning rurality is a model that articulates *6-meta-impacts*. The implication from my research is that the *6-meta-impacts* can inform future research undertaken about contemporary rurality. Section Two, similarly, theorises rural educational leadership. The result is a model defining nine aspects, which configure rural educational leadership. A consequence of my findings is that these nine aspects inform research into rural educational leadership. Section Three undertakes empirical research through an examination of results of interviews with rural educational leaders who live and work in EPSA. I show how to use the two models, the *6-meta-impacts* that inform revisioning theories of rurality, and the model that defines nine aspects of rural educational leadership. While the research examined rural

leadership through the role of the rural principal, the theorising has implications for other leaders in rural contexts. Results highlight the nature of educational leadership is distinct for rural principals. An outcome of the findings is a set of recommendations designed to inform the support required by rural educational leaders.

My research is informed by an examination of the work of scholars, global-NGOs, and nation-states. I show ways in which the work of each of these three sectors influences the work of the other sectors. I investigate how the work of each sector (data collection, research, publications, policy and funding decisions) impacts the data, research, publications, policy and funding decisions of the other sectors. My examination exposes that currently, there is not sufficient disaggregation of data to determine the levels to which rurality is different from non-rurality. Instead, I show that rurality and non-rurality are at once the same as - and different from - one another. Future research is required that differentiates for a range of rural contexts, before disaggregated data can expose the full nature of the reality of contemporary ruralities and rural leadership.

The thesis shows how revisioning theories of rurality contributes to - and intersects with - theorising rural educational leadership. The two models I developed are used to create new knowledge that exposes the nature of contemporary rurality and rural leadership. It is this knowledge that is required in order to determine ways in which the world can support rurality and rural leaders, for the success of rurality and rural leaders also impact those in non-rurality. It is in rurality that leaders are now required to address the multiple crises playing out across the globe that threaten the existence of much of humanity.

Key words: rural, leadership, theory, rural educational leadership, rural principal, rural education.

Contents

Declaration	2
Acknowledgment.....	3
Acknowledgement of country	5
Abstract	6
Contents	8
Table of Figures	11
Table of Tables.....	12
Abbreviations.....	14
Publications	17
Journals.....	17
Online	17
Citations.....	18
PROLOGUE.....	21
Living, learning, and leading in rurality	21
Living rural	22
Learning about rural	23
Leading in rural.....	23
Multiple identities: local and global	24
Research with local and global impact.....	25
Local activism with global connection.....	25
#SS4CC.....	27
Isolation	35
Conclusion	35
INTRODUCTION	37
The intersection of rurality and rural educational leadership	37
Revising rural reality.....	37
Philosophical underpinnings	38
Ontology	40
Epistemology	41
My ontology and epistemology.....	42
Theoretical perspective	42
Methodology	43
Methods	46
Theorising rurality is problematic.....	49
Theorising rurality: through an Indigenous First Nations peoples' lens.....	50
Theorising rurality: epistemological assumptions.....	52
Theorising rurality: positivist epistemological assumptions	54
Theorising rurality is a contested space	56
Revising theories of rurality: result of the 6-meta-impacts	60
Theory of rural educational leadership	62
Conclusion	63
SECTION ONE.....	65
Revising theories of rurality	65
Theorising rurality: nation-states	67
Theorising rural: domains of knowledge	69
Theorising rurality: global non-government organisations.....	70
United Nations - defining rural.....	73
The World Bank - a critique	74

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development	75
International Labour Organisation	77
Theorising rurality: by vocations	78
Theorising rurality: through rural planning	79
Theorising rurality: through infrastructure	80
Case study: Russian permafrost	82
Theorising rurality: through positivist quantitative data-sets.....	82
Case study: Australian government theorising rurality through mapping.....	83
Case study: Scotland theorising rurality using population and distance	85
Case study: OECD theorising rurality through population distribution.....	87
Theorising rurality: through poverty	88
Case study: the World Bank	89
Case study: Liberia, Ebola, Uganda, Climate Change and food security	92
Theorising rurality: through policy	93
Theorising rurality: through land ownership and rural planning	96
Rural cracking and rural revisioning	98
Rural gentrification	98
Rural idyllic	99
Agrarian citizenship	101
Rural colonialism	102
Community wellbeing.....	102
Rural community attachment.....	103
Revisioning rurality through online- and social- media.....	104
Movement of people	104
Case study: USA	107
Case Study: Fly-In-Fly-Out.....	107
Economic	108
Case study: the loss of rural banks	109
Neoliberalism destroying profitability of rurality.....	109
Revisioning rural innovation.....	112
Case study: innovation in rural Portugal	112
Theorising rurality through rural activity	113
Agriculture	113
Aquaculture	115
Water.....	116
Food.....	120
Case study: oligarchy Monsanto / Bayer	122
Forestry.....	123
Mining.....	125
Manufacturing.....	127
Health	128
Gender.....	129
Conclusion	130
SECTION TWO	144
Theorising rural educational leadership.....	144
Neoliberal systems	150
Context	152
Indigenous peoples' knowledge systems	154
Rural school ruptures: invasion, genocide, colonisation.....	155
Rural leadership for displaced people.....	157
Substantive theory of cultural educational leadership	160
Critique of research about rural educational leadership	164
Substantive theories of educational leadership.....	165

Substantive theory of palette educational leadership	166
Rural populations matter	167
The issues unique to rural principals	169
Managing and developing staff in rurality	172
Isolation of the principal.....	174
Impost on rural principals from employers' policies.....	174
Lack of research about rural educational leadership from a global perspective	177
Wellbeing of the Australian rural principal: surveys and reports	177
Reviewing the literature on rural educational leadership.....	189
Conclusion	200
The 9 tools	201
SECTION THREE.....	208
Empirical work: analysis of data-sets about EPSA, and analysis of interviews with rural school principals in EPSA.....	208
The Rural context in EPSA	209
Context and the employer: data and policy	210
Context and school: data and schools in EPSA.....	214
Analysis of interview with principals	244
Introduction.....	244
Culture – tool 3	248
Context – tool 2	251
Community – tool 1	251
Elements of the role – tool 4	258
Employer – tool 5	265
Professional development, training and development – tool 7.....	273
Interpersonal – tool 6.....	279
Research and data – tool 8.....	280
6-meta-impacts – tool 9	283
Conclusion	296
CONCLUSION	302
The intersection of revisioned theories of rurality and rural educational leadership puts rurality at the centre.....	302
RECOMMENDATIONS	310
FUTURE RESEARCH	318
APPENDICIES.....	325
Appendix 1 Entry level Eyre Peninsula South Australia Rural school Principal Job and Person Specification	326
Appendix 2 Ethics approval	344
Invitation email to participants	344
Letter of introduction	346
Letter of introduction (cont.).....	347
Consent form.....	348
Information sheet.....	349
Information sheet (cont.)	350
Information sheet (cont.)	351
Approval to work with DECD school sites	352
Ethics approval from DECD.....	353
Appendix 3 Interview questions.....	354
REFERENCE LIST	356

Table of Figures

Figure 1 Interplay between grey literature sources (organisations) and grey literature documents (work) .	44
Figure 2 Knowledge that informs revisioning theories of ruralities	46
Figure 3 6-meta-impacts.....	48
Figure 4 Three aspects of rurality working in concert: commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, human assets.....	57
Figure 5 Importance of human systems.....	58
Figure 6 Theory of Rural Educational Leadership.....	63
Figure 7 Information contributing to theorising rurality.....	72
Figure 8 OECD paradigms of rurality	77
Figure 9 Revisioning theories of rurality requires 4 policy pillars	94
Figure 10 6-meta-impacts.....	148
Figure 11 Defining school context	153
Figure 12 Modified from 'Defining school context'	154
Figure 13 UNHCR numbers of displaced people 2009-2018	158
Figure 14 Percentage of Australian students meeting educational milestones by location.....	169
Figure 15 Contexts relating to schooling.....	191
Figure 16 Theorising rural educational leadership.....	207
Figure 17 Number of each type-of-school in EPSA.....	222
Figure 18 Number of schools per geolocation in EPSA	224
Figure 19 The 45 'small' and 'additional' schools in EPSA.....	228
Figure 20 Number of schools per category in EPSA	230
Figure 21 Percentage of Indigenous Australian students per school in EPSA.....	237
Figure 22 Percentage of Indigenous Australian people per school and town in EPSA	241
Figure 23 Example of interview transcript (P5)	245
Figure 24 Data from interview transcript of P4 placed into one of nine columns in a table	247
Figure 25 Data from interview transcripts of P1-P6 placed into Table 1 Community.....	247
Figure 26 An example of attribution of coding and themes using Community – tool 1	248
Figure 27 Pathway to principal-ship	272
Figure 28 Skill sets and dispositions required of rural principals using – tool 6	280
Figure 29 6-meta-impacts.....	284

Table of Tables

Table 1 Grey Literature sources	43
Table 2 Defining work of organisations – the ‘grey literature documentation’	43
Table 3 Elements of rurality	58
Table 4 Non-rural assets	60
Table 5 Theories of ruralities	66
Table 6 UN population clusters	74
Table 7 List of the 36 OECD member countries in 2018.....	76
Table 8 Theorising rurality by primary vocation.....	78
Table 9 Cracking theories of rurality by vocation.....	79
Table 10 Nation-states and rural population	83
Table 11 Geographic area of major Australian cities (Ha).....	84
Table 12 Scottish Government Urban Rural Classification, 8-fold	86
Table 13 Alternate to Table 12 Scottish Government Rural Non-Rural Classification 8-fold.....	87
Table 14 OECD nations' population distribution types	88
Table 15 UN eradication on rural poverty.....	89
Table 16 2016 World Bank defining poverty.....	90
Table 17 2018 World Bank defining poverty.....	91
Table 18 World Bank GNI incomes 2019	91
Table 19 Theorising agrarian rurality.....	101
Table 20 Reasons for out-migration of rural youth.....	106
Table 21 Impacts on rural students’ decisions to connect with tertiary study	107
Table 22 Results of neoliberalism.....	111
Table 23 World Bank figures 2014: GDP% from agriculture for countries.....	114
Table 24 Elements that impact on the agricultural activities that effect food production.....	114
Table 25 Theorising rural aquaculture	115
Table 26 When mining companies come to town.....	125
Table 27 Costs to local rural mining communities	126
Table 28 Examples of substantive theories of rurality	131
Table 29 Deficit theories of rurality.....	133
Table 30 Why rurality is cracking.....	134
Table 31 Indigenous population information.....	156
Table 32 Immigrant vs non-immigrant 2015 PISA Science score test results	159
Table 33 Percentage of students in rural contexts.....	168
Table 34 Education data pertaining to rural contexts.....	168
Table 35 Issues for rural principals.....	170
Table 36 Threats of school closure.....	173
Table 37 Professional standards for principals – a selection of global views	175
Table 38 Meta-analysis. Number of times rural, remote, regional is mentioned in all Australian Principal Wellbeing Reports	179
Table 39 Rural, remote, region/al principal wellbeing survey – 2011	182
Table 40 Rural, remote, region/al principal wellbeing survey – 2011-2014	184
Table 41 Rural, remote, region/al principal wellbeing survey – 2015	187
Table 42 Issues in rural educational leadership in Africa	192
Table 43 Personal attributes of a rural principal in Africa.....	196
Table 44 Elements of schooling in Africa that highlight contextual elements	196
Table 45 Role of the rural educational leader in Africa.....	199
Table 46 Nature of rural educational context in Africa.....	199
Table 47 Community of the rural principal in Eyre Peninsula	202
Table 48 EPSA partnerships, schools and sites.....	213
Table 49 Type-of-school	213
Table 50 Data about contextual aspects of schools in EPSA	217

Table 51 Australian Early Development Census and Social Economic Indexes for Areas data: vulnerability and socio-economic disadvantage	231
Table 52 EPSA median equivalised income and unemployment data highlighting socio-economic disadvantage.....	232
Table 53 Percentage of Indigenous Australian enrolment by Department partnership in EPSA.....	238
Table 54 Tool 3 Culture from P1 to P6 interview transcript excerpts	249
Table 55 Tool 3 Culture from P1 to P6 interview transcript excerpts	250
Table 56 Personal experiences of the rural principals	252
Table 57 From Tool 1: Community members who impacted the role of the rural principal	253
Table 58 From Tool 1: Roles undertaken by the rural school principal.....	255
Table 59 From Tool 1: Places where community expect rural principals are principals 24/7	257
Table 60 From Tool 1: Reflections on the role	258
Table 61 From Tool 4: Rural principal tasks determined by community	259
Table 62 From Tool 5: Opportunities supporting pathway into principal-ship.....	267
Table 63 From Tool 7: Informal professional development in which rural principals engaged.....	274
Table 64 From Tool 7: Programmatic professional development responses from the Department.....	275
Table 65 From Tool 7: Professional development that principals' access and want to access.....	278
Table 66 From Tool 8: Research and data from P1 to P6 interview transcript excerpts	281
Table 67 From Tool 9: 6-meta-impacts from P1 to P6 interview transcript excerpts	283

Abbreviations

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander	ATSI
Aboriginal schools and Anangu schools	ASs
Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome	AIDS
Area School	AreaS
Australian Bureau of Statistics	ABS
Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority	ACARA
Australian Dollars	\$AUD
Australian Early Development Census	AEDC
Australian Institute of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies	AIATSIS
Australian Institute of Health and Welfare	AIHW
Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership	AITSL
Australian Professional Standard for Principals	APSP
Australian Research Council	ARC
Australian Standard Geographical Classification	ASGC
Better Behaviour Unit	BBU
Birth	B
British Broadcasting Corporation	BBC
Bureau of Meteorology	BOM
Child Parent Centre	CPC
Constant comparative method	CCM
Council of Chief State School Officers	CCSSO
Cultural Educational Leadership	CEL
Department for Education and Child Development	the Department
Department of Education	the Department
Doctor of Philosophy	PhD
Economic Social and Cultural Status	ESCS
Education Leadership and Management	EDLM
European Union	EU
Eyre Peninsula	EP
Eyre Peninsula Local Government Association	EPLGA
Eyre Peninsula Natural Resources Management Board	EPNRM
Eyre Peninsula South Australia	EPSA
Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee	SBREC
Fly-In-Fly-Out	FIFO
Food and Agricultural Organization	FAO
Foundation	F
Full-time equivalent	FTE
Global Financial Crisis	GFC
Gross Domestic Product	GDP
Gross National Income	GNI
Hectare	Ha
High School	HS
Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage	ICSEA
Information Communication Technology	ICT
Information Technology	IT
Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change	IPCC
Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre	iDMC
International Fund for Agricultural Development	IFAD
International Labour Organisation	ILO
International Water and Sanitation Centre	IRC
Job and Person Specification	J&P
Joint Managing Program	JMP

Junior Primary School	JPS
Line	L
Local Government Association	LGA
Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians	MCEETYA
Murray Darling Basin	MDB
National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy	NAPLAN
National Conference of State Legislatures	NCSL
New South Wales	NSW
New Zealand	NZ
No date	ND
Non-Government Organisation	NGO
Northern Sparsely Populations Areas	NSPA
Open Access College	OAC
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development	OECD
Port Lincoln High School	PLHS
Port Lincoln Junior Primary School	PLJPS
Port Lincoln Special School	PLSS
Primary School	PS
Principal 1	P1
Principal 2	P2
Principal 3	P3
Principal 4	P4
Principal 5	P5
Principal 6	P6
Principal Health and Wellbeing	PHAW
Professional Development	PD
Program for International Student Assessment	PISA
Public Service Association	PSA
Reception	R
Regional-Town	RT
School Government Bodies	SGBs
School Strike for Climate Change	#SS4CC
Science Technology Engineering and Mathematics	STEM
Social Economic Indexes for Areas	SEIFA
South Australia	SA
South Australian Certificate of Education	SACE
Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality	SACMEQ
Special School	SS
State Suburbs	SSC
Sustainable Development Goals	SDGs
Temporary Relief Principals	TRP
Temporary Relief Teacher	TRT
The Food and Land Use Coalition	FOLU
The General Teaching Council for Scotland	GTC
Training and Development	T&D
Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study	TIMSS
Twenty-four-hours-per-day-seven-days-per-week	24/7
United Kingdom	UK
United Nations	UN
United Nations Children's Fund	UNICEF
United Nations Development Program	UNDP
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's	UNESCO
United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees	UNHCR

United States of America
United States of American Department of Agriculture
United States Dollars
World Health Organisation

USA
USDA
\$USD
WHO

Publications

During the process of this research, I have published the following articles. I have also listed the citations of this research.

Journals

Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018a). Flexible education in Australia: A reflection from the perspective of the UN'S sustainability development goals. *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning*, 8(3), p. 259-273. DOI: 10.1108/HESWBL-02-2018-0019

Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018d). Music education in remote rural South Australian schools: Does a partnership with a non-government organisation work? *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education*, 28(1), p. 104-120.

Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018e). Rural school principals: Professional development and getting the 3Rs correct [online]. *AQ - Australian Quarterly*, 89(3), p. 21-27. jstor.org/stable/26529668

Hardwick-Franco, K. (2019a). Educational leadership is different in the country; what support does the rural school Principal need? *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 22(3), p. 301-314. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2018.1450997

Hardwick-Franco, K. (2019b). Preferencing principals' views to inform educational reform in rural contexts: a study in discourse analysis. *ACEL Leading and Managing*, 25(2), p. 14-32.

Online

Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018, January 18). *Integrating Real World Impacts to enact meta-Real World Impact*. [Online blog publication]. Retrieved from <https://www.emeraldpublishing.com/news-and-blogs/integrating-real-world-impacts-to-enact-meta-real-world-impact/>

Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018, October 25). *Cultural Educational Leadership*. [YouTube video]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DMxoydRJ7vs>

Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018c). *Home*. [YouTube video Channel]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCp87giol8T6doBydK-WaT-g>

Citations

- Álvarez-Álvarez, C., García Prieto, F. & Pozuelos Estrada, F. (2020). Posibilidades, limitaciones y demandas de los centros educativos del medio rural en el norte y sur de España contemplados desde la dirección escolar. *Perfiles Educativos*, 42(168), p. 94-106. DOI: 10.22201/iissue.24486167e.2020.168.59153
- Eacott, S. (2019). High-Impact school leadership in context. *ACEL Leading and Managing*, 25(2), p. 66-79.
- Echazarra, A. & Radinger, T. (2019). *Learning in rural schools: insights from PISA, TALIS and the literature. OECD Education Working Paper No. 196*. Paris: OECD. DOI: 10.1787/8b1a5cb9-en
- Jaarsveld, L. (2019). Help, ek is 'n skoolhoof in 'n agfeleë gemeenskap! Uitdagings tot die skoolhoof se leierskap- en bestuurstyl. *LitNet Akademies* 16(3), p. 658-677.
- Klar, H., Huggins, K., Andreoli, P. & Buskey, F. (2019). Developing rural school leaders through leadership coaching: A transformative approach, leadership and policy in schools. DOI: 10.1080/15700763.2019.1585553
- Kownacki, A., Barker, D. & Arghode, V. (2020). A grounded theory approach for exploring shared leadership: evidence from urban primary schools in Pennsylvania, *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2020.1804622
- Ledger, S. & Downey, J. (2018). Editorial: Aligning AIJRE Research with the independent review into regional, rural and remote education. *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education*, 28(1), p. i-vi.
- Loizidou, P. & Fokaidou, M. (2020). Experiencing transformation of professional identity: From teaching to leadership in a small rural primary school in Cyprus. *Journal of Education and Culture Studies* 4(20), p. 158-181. DOI: 10.22158/jecs.v4n2p158
- Nelson, T. (2019). Exploring leadership-as-practice in the study of rural school leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2019.1657591
- Ngidi, S. (2019). *Identities of principals leading successful schools in deprived contexts: A narrative inquiry*. (Master of Education thesis, University of KwaZulu-Nata, South Africa). Retrieved from <http://ukzn-dspace.ukzn.ac.za/handle/10413/17489>
- Norqvist, L. & Poromaa Isling, P. (2020). Skolledarskap i Sverige: en forskningsöversikt 2014–2018. *Nordic Studies in Education*, 40(2), p. 167–187. DOI: 10.23865/nse.v40.2230
- Rahdiyanta, D., Nurhadiyanto, D. & Munadi, S. (2019). The effects of situational factors in the implementation of work-based learning model on vocational education in Indonesia. *International Journal of Instruction*, 12(3), p. 307-324. DOI: 10.29333/iji.2019.12319a
- Rembang, M. & Purwastuti, d. (2019). Management of industrial work practice program in vocational high school. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research* 397, 3rd International Conference on Learning Innovation and Quality Education (ICLIQE 2019), p. 180-190.
- Roberts, P. & Downes, N. (2019). The rural difference trope: leader perceptions on regional, rural and remote schooling difference. *ACEL Leading and Managing*, 25(2), p. 51-65.
- Thornton, K. (2019). *Early childhood education trainers' knowledge and use of andragogical principles*. (Doctor of Education thesis, Walden University, Minnesota). Retrieved from <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/6690/>

Wall, T. & Hindley, A. (2018). Work-based and vocational education as catalysts for sustainable development? *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning* 8(3), p. 226-232. DOI 10.1108/HESWBL-08-2018-103

**When the last tree is cut down,
the last fish eaten,
and the last stream poisoned,
you will realize you cannot eat money**

Native American Wisdom

PROLOGUE

**Living, learning, and leading in
rurality**

Living rural

For the past twenty-two years, I have lived and worked in rural South Australia, in a very remote area of the state, in the small, isolated, regional town of Port Lincoln situated at the bottom of the Eyre Peninsula (EP). Port Lincoln is located 650 kilometres from the state's capital city of Adelaide; a sixteen-hour return car drive. It has a population of 14,064 residents (ABS [Port Lincoln LGA], 2019). While a resident of Port Lincoln, I engaged in family life, worked in education and natural resource management. I volunteered in musical, artistic, environmental, cultural, educational, sport and children's organisations. In EP rural communities, volunteering is key to social connection, particularly involvement in sporting groups. In paid and volunteer roles, I enacted rural educational leadership, and without guaranteed paid work, continued studying and researching at Masters and doctoral levels, whilst in these roles.

Prior to moving to Port Lincoln, I lived in Adelaide for twenty-six years, enjoying sport and volunteering for musical organisations, and worked in Adelaide as a high school teacher. While resident in Port Lincoln, it became clear that living and working in rural contexts is different, and enacting leadership in rural contexts comes with challenges related to rurality. As time unfolded, notions of rurality intrigued me, the differences in the ways in which people in rural communities valued education equally intrigued me, as did the nature of the work of educational leaders in rural contexts. It appeared to me, enacting educational leadership in rural contexts, in both volunteer and paid positions, was different and more difficult, when compared with educational leadership in non-rural contexts. After being identified by a school leadership team, as a future educational leader (school principal) for the Department for Education, I enrolled in a Master of Education (Leadership and Management), to learn about rural educational leadership. The degree included a research component. Thus, began my foray into research about rural educational leadership.

Rurality is a contested concept I explored through my research. Living in, and 'being rural', places me in a unique position to undertake PhD research about rurality. Couper's research showed it is only through living rural, that one can realise 'rural' and 'being rural' are inseparable (Couper, 2018, p. 3). Living in, and 'being rural', while in paid and volunteer roles as a rural educational leader, places me in a unique position

to undertake PhD research about rural educational leadership. This prologue explores ways in which my identities, my research, rurality and my expressions of rural educational leadership intersect. This prologue informs the research process about why I engaged in and undertook this research project, and why the research is important to enact *now*, in 2020. For at this point in time, humanity and the planet, require negotiations at the points where rurality and non-rurality intersect. What is required is a deep understanding of rurality and the ways in which rural educational leaders enact leadership in order to support rural and non-rural contexts and engage with the now while preparing for a future. A future in which impacts of issues pertaining to climate change, health pandemics, bigotry, energy, food, water and air require careful negotiation, noting, the vast majority of our planet is rural.

Learning about rural

I enrolled in a Doctorate, proposing to investigate how rural contexts impacted the development of rural school principals. As the research unfolded, my research embraced not just rural educational leadership, but rurality more broadly. As the research progressed, it became important to firstly revision theories of rurality, focusing on what occurs in contemporary rural contexts. My revisioning rurality informed my theorising rural educational leadership, and I developed a theory of rural educational leadership. Finally, I explored these theories with respect to analysis of transcripts of interviews I conducted with rural principals on Eyre Peninsula South Australia (EPSA). This showed how rurality and rural educational leadership intersected with and impacted each other.

Leading in rural

While undertaking research for the PhD, I lived in the rural context, worked in rurality and enacted rural educational leadership. I engaged in intellectual generosity through sharing knowledge I gained from global research about rurality and climate change, with my local rural community. As a community member I organised the local 2019 Port Lincoln School Strike for Climate Change (#SS4CC), coordinated by a global non-government organisation. I also engaged in rural educational leadership, through using my position power as a volunteer member of the University of Adelaide Alumni Council. While in the role, I impacted

the relationship between the University of Adelaide, the Alumni and educational opportunities in music, for people living in rural, remote and regional South Australia. My vision was to increase the profile and relevance of scholarly intellectual pursuit, research and knowledge systems with local rural people in EPSA. In this prologue, I show how I enacted educational leadership in my rural community. I also show how I used what I learnt through my scholarly pursuits, to support myself negotiate negative responses I received from the rural community, when I enacted rural educational leadership.

This thesis enacts constructivist ontology, defined by Hinshaw, Burden and Shriner as ‘the social context of learning, the individual’s experiences, and the construction of meaning from experiences’ (2012, p. 874). This prologue explores how I made meaning from my experiences while a rural educational leader. The epistemology that underpins this project is constructionism. Those who engage in constructionism, work from the belief that humans attribute meaning; that is, meaning is constructed (Jha, 2012). This prologue explores how I constructed meaning through my experiences related to the cultural processes at play in the rural contexts in which I enacted rural educational leadership. The explorations highlight why I enacted my research and why I chose to enact the research as I present in this thesis.

Multiple identities: local and global

Identity is diverse and we summon multiple affiliations as a researcher (Alcoff and Mendieta, 2003).

Significant to me is the idea that ‘identities are plural, multiple and fluid, merge into one another’ (Alcoff, 2003, p. 7). This concept empowered me to manage my different identities while a PhD candidate. In my rural community, I am considered to be a wife, mother, volunteer, university student and community member. I am also a vlogger, orator, teacher, educational leader and a published researcher. The volunteering and paid work informed my research, my revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership. It also embedded me in the day-to-day realities of rurality, rural families, rural community, the work of school staff and rural school principals.

Research with local and global impact

While researching rural educational leadership in 2017, I was struck by the interplay between rurality and education. I became concerned about the impacts of climate change on rural families and rural communities, and in turn the impact on rural schools, particularly the impact on the nature of rural education, and importantly, the impact on the role of the rural principal. As I was reflecting on this, Emerald Publishing invited scholars to publish short pieces regarding 'research impact'. Emerald published my work on their online blog (Hardwick-Franco, 2018, January 18), in which I advocated researchers engage with me in joint-research to enact what I referred to as 'meta-impact'. I saw the need to link my research about rural educational leadership with the research of climate scientists with the view to enacting trans-disciplinary research. This did not occur. Instead, I broadened the scope of my PhD research, to investigate the interplay between rurality, climate change, and rural educational leadership.

Local activism with global connection

During 2019, I saw the rise of the use of Twitter as a tool for #ClimateChange activism. Hashtags such as #ClimateEmergency and #SchoolStrike4ClimateChange (#SS4CC) gained momentum in the lead up to the global #SS4CC that occurred 20 September 2019. The hashtag movement was connected with the lead up to the 2019 United Nations Climate Action Summit held in September in New York (UN, 2019, June 14). Greta Thunberg called for adults to support young people in the movement. I became involved because I felt strongly about the impact climate change was having on rural contexts, and rural people across the globe. Joining the cause also provided me an opportunity to offer leadership in the global #SS4CC social movement in my local rural context. Further, it offered me a practical way to elevate my engagement with my PhD research project. It reinvigorated my engagement with my research, as I approached the end of the degree. I also felt morally obliged to share climate change science with my local rural community. My vision was to 'impact' and empower local Port Lincoln community members to understand why it was important to take action in relation to climate change, as well as support them to understand what actions they could take. It was important to me, that I shared knowledge about the impact of climate change on rurality, in

ways that empowered others to seek credible information about climate change with reference to the science.

On 6 September 2019, I commenced uploading, short, simple, instructional vlogs using the medium of YouTube videos (Hardwick-Franco, 2018c). My intent was to show people how they could increase their knowledge and understanding about the data and science of climate change without enrolment in a PhD. My intent was for the YouTube videos to be instructional. I deliberately enacted the substantive theory of instructional educational leadership (Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008), a theory that informed my research. Based on knowledge gained through higher degree learning, I shared YouTube videos that were deliberately instructional because I understood what the research said about the positive impact of instructional leadership. I also chose the medium of YouTube, because an experience that kept me connected with the doctoral program was YouTube videos about the PhD, uploaded each week by my supervisor, Professor Tara Brabazon, the Dean of Higher Degrees and Research, Flinders University (Brabazon, ND). Brabazon's role modelling of the ways in which to use YouTube videos as an andragogical tool encouraged me to emulate her teaching method.

I read contemporary research about rurality, to inform my research. Inevitably all the scholarship referenced the impact of climate change on rurality. Access to the Flinders University data base, through PhD enrolment, facilitated my access to this knowledge. I wondered, would people based in non-rural settings who do not see the daily impact of climate change on rurality, enrolled in the PhD, have the same experience as me after reading this science? How did people, based in rural contexts and without enrolment in university degrees, access climate change science from international journals? How many people in rural- and non-rural contexts have access to contemporary, credible, multiple-blind-peer-reviewed research linking rurality and climate change? How many scholars were living in rural contexts and investigating rural, regional, remote, with the view to conducting research about the impacts that climate change was having on rural education and the role of the rural educational leader? The research I conducted and my lived experience, led me to enact a doctorate to revision rurality.

During 2019, I saw the desertification of farms on the lower EP. I saw the hand-line scale fishery in which my husband works, record the worst annual catch on record. Global research and local rural personal experience indicated, that without immediate and serious intervention, humanity cannot survive. I believed I had a duty to engage in action that elevated local peoples' understanding of the global climate crisis. I did this through organising the local Port Lincoln #SS4CC.

It then became apparent that my personal involvement, activism and the impact of my research-informed actions, informed my PhD and led to the inclusion of this prologue in the thesis. Researching rural educational leadership led to researching theories of rurality which led to research about climate change. I used knowledge gained through research about climate change to enact rural educational leadership through sharing knowledge about the impacts of climate change in my local rural context. I then found myself negotiating the impacts that rural educational leadership has on the leader (me). I used knowledge gained through higher degree research to impact my local community, and found I had to use knowledge gained through higher degree research to manage negative responses from the local rural community while I enacted rural educational leadership.

#SS4CC

On 12 August 2019, I appeared on the front page of the local print and online newspaper, the *Port Lincoln Times*, explaining I would be on the public lawn on the town's esplanade on 20 September 2019, for the global #SS4CC. I felt compelled to act local while taking part in a global event.

12 August 2019
- I say I am organizing the strike for the climate
<https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6324444/climate-worth-striking-for/> (Port Lincoln Times, 2019, August 12).

On 15 August 2019, I telephoned the Port Lincoln City Council, regarding the event. I was advised to apply for a permit and pay \$AUD12 for insurance, to sit on the local public lawn holding a recycled cardboard sign with a #ClimateStrike slogan. Later that same day, staff advised me via email, that because the local newspaper reported I was inviting people to join me, I was hosting a public event. I was therefore now required to apply for a *Community Event Permit Application*, with endorsement from a not-for-profit

volunteer community non-government organisation (NGO) that was required to provide Public Liability Insurance for at least \$AUD10,000,000.00.

Inquiries with three local Port Lincoln contacts to acquire insurance and endorsement were to no avail. I wondered why local Port Lincoln people and organisations were neither interested in nor prepared to become involved in the global #SS4CC. Do local people in my rural context not know about or understand climate change science? I felt anyone reading the science would be compelled to act, and the impact global climate change was having on our local agricultural and aquacultural industries, seemed clear to me. Council staff connected me with an international environmental and conservation NGO through which I secured insurance and endorsement for the local #SS4CC event and council approved my permit application. The NGO asked I tell no-one their name. Results of analysis of rural school principal interview transcripts resonated with my experience; rural educational leadership is a role in which you engage on your own. When in a rural context, where I assume leadership, through which I reference knowledge, I am isolated.

In the 12 August 2019 article, I encouraged school students to enact their own research to determine their stance on climate change. This elicited a response from a local man named Kevin, in the form of a letter to the editor, published on 19 August 2019. Of fascination to me is that he believed the science is wrong. Is he dismissing the science? Why was the issue so important to him that he had to publically respond? If he denies climate change is occurring, what is the impact on him, when I invite people to stand in a public space holding recycled cardboard signs? Why is he compelled to make a public statement attempting to discredit me and discredit climate change science?

19 August 2019
- I am informed the science is wrong
<https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6337547/strike-for-climate-a-misguided-protest/>
(Port Lincoln Times, 2019, August 19).

At the time, I was reading *Trump Studies* (Brabazon, Redhead & Chivaura, 2019). This confirmed the impact climate change activism imposed onto white men, who see their assumed privilege through their colonial heritage, challenged by educated, informed, articulate voices of minorities. Minority groups such as #SS4CC

activists who understand the impacts neoliberal capitalist economic systems have on global economic, environmental, health, legal, spiritual and education systems.

Community responses to my organising the #SS4CC caused me to pause and consider how local rural people think about me and my role in the community. As a family, we moved to Port Lincoln community in 1998 when I was a young 24-year-old woman, to teach classroom music at the Port Lincoln High School. In 2005, did I present to the community as someone who looked and acted like a scholarly academic, who presented her ethno-musicological research at state, national and international academic conferences? In 2008, I worked as a paid Volunteer Coordinator with the Eyre Peninsula Natural Resources Management Board. A volunteer asked, 'You're a music teacher. How did you get this job?' (pers. comm. 2008 – retired male). Was it difficult for people to accept that people like myself can access education and change career direction?

Had I been allocated an identity by community members, and it confused people when I transferred skills and knowledge? A different community response was 'I love watching what you do next. You're always reinventing yourself' (pers. comm. 2014 – retired female). Is it entertainment to watch people vie for work? As a member of the gig economy, participating in Guy Standing's precariat, (2013), I am forced to reinvent myself to secure work. Has watching people fight for jobs under the neoliberal system become entertainment? It was reported in March 2019 there were five people unemployed for every one job advertised in Australia. There simply are not enough jobs for everyone (Scutt, 2019, March 13). Watching people seek employment should not be entertaining.

During this time, I regularly emailed Vice Chancellors of the three South Australian Universities advocating for delivery of university degree education in rural communities. I invited Vice Chancellors to consider ways a University 'shop-front' could become part of the rural educational landscape of Port Lincoln. Rural people like me, engage in higher degree research quietly, over the years required to gain degrees and create knowledge. Does community confusion about who I am emerge because community members do not see

or hear what research students do? Perhaps the idea that people pursue intellectual lives and inform global thinking, while living in the local rural community, causes tension for local EPSA rural people when it comes to their defining of their rural community?

In an attempt to offer readers of the *Port Lincoln Times* information they could access in order to inform themselves, I wrote a letter to the editor, published 22 August 2019. I offered readers' knowledge to highlight Kevin's claims were based on misunderstandings about how global neoliberal capitalist systems work with respect to the fossil fuel industry. I understood economic inequities across the world are in part due to the global \$USD4.7 trillion-dollar subsidy in 2015 to the fossil fuel industries (Coady, Parry, Le & Shang, 2019, p. 2). The *public* subsidies to the fossil fuel industries contribute to Kevin's acquisition of *personal* wealth.

22 August 2019
<https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6342707/yellow-brick-road-to-pure-joy-in-cummins/> (Port Lincoln Times, 2019, August 22).

During the Australian winter of 2019, I researched theories of rurality. While doing so, I watched the 2019 northern hemisphere summer unfold through my Twitter feed with reports of the impact of the #ClimateCrisis. There were catastrophic changes to glaciers in Iceland and Greenland. Scientists recorded that maximum thaw depths at sites had exceeded changes projected to occur by 2090 (Farquharson et al., 2019, p. 6681). The glacial melts occurred seventy years ahead of scientific predication. And, as counter-intuitive as it seemed, the Arctic Circle was on fire. This was followed by the Australian summer of 2019-2020, in which Australia burned.

2 September 2019
– The Port Lincoln City Council becomes the first regional council to declare a climate emergency
<https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6362455/a-role-to-play-in-climate-change/> (Port Lincoln Times, 2019, September 2).

The need for urgent, global, whole-of-systems change struck me. I understood climatic events that took place during these summers changed climate science. On 2 September 2019 the Port Lincoln City Council became the first regional council to declare a climate emergency. Did my sharing of information influence councillors' decisions? Was my research and sharing my knowledge about this global issue, having local impact?

On 5 January 2020, when I finalised this prologue, only one had person spoken with me about the #SS4CC. I wondered why people with whom I have twenty-year friendships did not contact me in relation to the #SS4CC. The friends I think about work in conservation, fire management, education, state government, food-, mining- and farming- industries and supply equipment to (currently) fossil fuel dependent industries. This confirmed yet again when enacting rural educational leadership, you are alone. Indeed, I wondered, does it further the distance between you and local people – leaving you yet more alone? I felt I had no social capital and that I could not rely on my social capital to engage people in the #SS4CC and climate change science.

On 11 September 2019, the personal attacks continued. In a letter to the editor, Steve questioned my personal actions in relation to my local behaviours and the impact my choices were having on climate change. But I was thinking global. I was thinking about the ways neoliberal capitalist economic policies favour profits for few over the needs of the environment and minorities. I was thinking about the need to immediately and completely divest from fossil fuels. On EPSA, there are attractive vistas of natural oceans and national parks. Does the beauty of the local area make it difficult for local people to connect with the global impacts of climate change and climate change science?

In Steve’s letter to the editor, he advised me to read the lyrics of the Australian National Anthem as a source of scientific evidence, confirming climate change science is not real, wherein he understood the lyrics suggest drought is a natural and normal occurrence. It seemed at once incongruous, absurd and humorous that

11 September 2019
– The personal attacks continue
<https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6378888/railway-roundhouse-memories-cherished/> (Port Lincoln Times, 2019, September 11).

someone would recommend scientific evidence that denies climate change science can be found in lyrics of a national anthem. Research I undertook with respect to national identity during twenty years of ethno-musicological research, deeply informs who I am with respect to celebrating cultural diversity. For me, borders are arbitrary lines on maps because cultural heritage crosses nation-state boundaries. Evidence shows nationalistic icons create deep division, inequity and lead to war. National anthems are examples of

dangerous icons, research about which is worthy of PhD study in- and of-itself. How was I to manage Steve's opinion?

My ethno-musicological research about cultural heritage and nationalism connected me with Anderson's concept of imagined community (Anderson, 2006). It is knowledge I gained from previous higher degree research about 'imagined community' that informed my response to personal attacks. I chose to connect with the trans-local 'imagined community' that I had created for myself. For example, through my Twitter feed, I remain connected to some of the most highly educated, brightest, articulate climate scientists and educational researchers in the world. Professor Gerald Kutney (2020, April 22) was an instructional leader, who advocated for politely not-engaging with climate change deniers. This informed my plan of engagement with Steve – I did not engage.

On 16 September 2019, the local rural television reporter interviewed me on the foreshore in Port Lincoln, about the #SS4CC. His interstate Australian colleagues based in Tasmania edited the report prior to broadcast. The interview was broadcast across regional South Australia and parts of very remote New South Wales. The station is owned by Seven West Media – a company controlled by Australian Capital Equity which is listed on the Australian stock exchange. Stocks are owned by national and international investors, but 63% of the company is owned by Western Australian resident, Kerry Stokes. Media coverage of climate change can impact Stokes' other investments (property, mining and construction). The local rural voice of the Port Lincoln #SS4CC was at once mediated through local, regional, interstate, national and international interests. The local stories are, in real time, connected to global activity through online media and the URL of the local television news bulletin (Nightly News 7 Spencer Gulf, 2019).¹ The local is at once global.

The #SS4CC occurred on 20 September 2019. In a world with a population of 7.7 billion people (World Bank, 2019), over 7.6 million people took part in the world wide strike (350.org, 2019) – some 0.1% of the

¹ The interview of me is the second story of the night and starts from 1.16 and does not accurately represent my view.

population of the globe. Of the 14,500 Port Lincoln residents, at least 200 people joined the Port Lincoln #SS4CC – 1.5% of the town’s population. The local Port Lincoln #SS4CC attracted a higher representation of the population than the global strike. People in Port Lincoln cared about #ClimateChange. The youth had spread the word online, local media coverage brought people, and adults holidaying in Port Lincoln searched the world-wide-web to find the nearest local place to join the strike was Port Lincoln.

At the #SS4CC, I stood as an orator and shared climate science knowledge I had gained, shared why it was important to strike, and what people could do to change their behaviours and government policies. I was at once an activist, an educator and a leader in my local rural context. I physically embodied the lonely and alone-ness in the role as I stood up on the town square, away from the crowd. They listened, cheered, waved, gave the ‘thumbs up’ in approval and hundreds of passing drivers beeped their car horns in solidarity. Two people cried tears of relief because, ‘At least the young people are doing something’ (Anonymous pers. com., 2019). Inviting people to join the #SS4CC, was a deliberate act to enact what I knew to be sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978). A theory that advocates higher cognitive process learning occurs when people learn socially, together. At the #SS4CC, people mingled for ninety-minutes, sharing with each other their knowledge about climate change science. This gave me pause for thought. Am I a rural educational leader who is isolated?

As a person living in a rural context, engaged in the PhD, it was my knowledge and my connection with intellectuals across the global that supported me, while I enacted scholarship with a global reach and lived life as a local, rural resident. I looked to:

- 1) My own knowledge – both what I had learned previously and what I was learning in the PhD
- 2) My ability to access additional knowledge I required to support myself and my research – through skills learned in higher degree learning
- 3) My network for socio-emotional support – connecting with people I met through enrolment in the higher degrees

- 4) My network for knowledge – connecting with people I met through enrolment in higher degrees from whom I could learn
- 5) My network for ways of thinking about knowledge – talking with scholars from across the globe (e.g. using Skype, Twitter, LinkedIn) to discuss with them, ways of thinking about thinking.

The act of reflecting and being reflexive were actions in which I engaged, because I had developed understanding of the skills and knowledge to do so, through my research. My reflexivity empowered me to be at once an ‘insider’ of my local rural community with the emic perspective, while simultaneously an ‘outsider’ global scholar stepping into the etic view of the researcher. At times, in parallel to the PhD, I was researching the very acts and the reactions against my acts that I was enacting.

My personal network for support predominantly consisted of women. We shared our PhD experiences with one another. I met many of these women through my engagement with the WriteBunch (Flinders University, 2019). This online Digital Doctorate experience enabled up to twenty-five, mostly women, to connect with Professor Brabazon. We logged on to Skype and wrote for thirty minutes every Friday 10am–10.30am SA time. The WriteBunch allowed me to connect with women who were similarly studying the PhD from rural, remote, regional Australia and Canada. Online global connections with PhD students have been invaluable to completion of this PhD thesis, for I know of zero local EPSA people engaged in doctoral research.

While enacting rural educational leadership with reference to my PhD research, connections with women from around the globe kept me connected to what has often been a harrowing experience in the PhD. I enacted a literature review of ‘rural, women, PhD’ which returned only 15,300 results. A broader search for ‘women and PhD’ drew 21,600 results. Current research was clear. Women engaged in PhDs that offered experiences bespoke to the experience of females, enabled women to complete the PhD (Boustan & Langan, 2019; Fisher et al., 2019; Dabney et al., 2019; Espino, 2016). My connections with women were supporting me through the PhD. Am I less isolated than I first thought?

Isolation

The experience of isolation of early career researchers is investigated by Belkhir et al. (2019, p. 262) through the lens of 'a social constructionist understanding of social life (Gergen, 2009)'. Belkhir et al. showed isolation is linked to but different from loneliness and solitude. Belkhir and colleagues found early career researchers, inclusive of doctoral candidates, experience academic isolation along four dimensions: geographic, cultural, relational and technical (Belkhir et al., 2019, p. 271). I suspected that I experienced them all, to differing degrees, at different times. Of note, their research does not differentiate for the experience of academics working in 'rural', 'remote' or 'regional' spaces. As a rural educational leader, I remained alone. For me, isolation is normal. While geographically isolated from the academic field and university campuses, I connected with academia using digital means at my disposal: email, telephone, Twitter, LinkedIn, Skype, zoom, reading journals, monographs and attending on campus events in Adelaide. I researched from home, 700 kilometres from the University. I presumed isolation was my work-site. Over a twenty-year period, while in Port Lincoln, I completed two Masters degrees and studied at doctoral level. Always alone. The need to mitigate isolation intrigued me, for isolation can be a strength. Why is isolation considered to be a deficit? I questioned the deficit reading of my isolated academic experience in rural context, while simultaneously lamenting the depth and impact of- my isolation.

Conclusion

During enrolment in the PhD, the lines between my research and personal-identities became blurred and fluid. I used knowledge and networks gained through engagement with scholars from across the globe, to impact my local rural communities. I also used research to inform myself about how to engage local people in activism and programmatic responses. Further, I went to the research to inform myself about how to respond to community reactions towards my activism.

In rural contexts, educational leadership takes many forms. I have not been a rural school principal, which gives me an independent perspective when researching the role. I held an educational leadership role for five years (2012-2016) in the Port Lincoln Education Department regional office, working with principals

across the 80,000 km² that is Eyre Peninsula. I also held a leadership role in the Natural Resources Management Board for two years across the same 80,000 km². I am well positioned to research rurality and rural educational leadership because I am 'being rural' in rural (Couper, 2018).

In rural areas, educational leadership is an isolated role. I am lonely. In rural contexts, when I enacted the part of my identity that is that of an international expert, what do local Port Lincoln people see? Does the close connection between people who live in rural communities impact the ways in which locals interact with PhD students? Is it familiarity in relationship in rural contexts that gave local people license to dismiss me, attack and discredit my knowledge?

This prologue provided an opportunity for me to offer my voice and personal experience with respect to theories of rurality and rural educational leadership and the ways in which the two intersect with respect to my personal experiences, while engaged in the PhD research. I live, work, and research in rurality. I work and volunteer in educational leadership roles in my local rural community. I educated people while in leadership roles in rural community and refereed global research. I am a rural educational leader. I am at once in local rurality while connected globally.

Why revision theories of rurality in my PhD? I show ways in which current research about rurality highlights the contemporary nature of ruralities. I also show ways in which rurality and non-rurality impact one another. I do so with the view to informing how to manage our earth as humanity seeks to address multiple simultaneous global challenges impacting people in local rural and non-rural contexts. Why revision theories of rural educational leadership in my PhD? I show ways in which the nature of rural educational leadership is enacted in rurality; it is at once the same as- and different from- educational leadership in non-rural contexts, while deeply connected to revisioned rurality. My living rural and enacting rural educational leadership informs why I engaged in the research and informs how I enacted the research.

INTRODUCTION

**The intersection of rurality and
rural educational leadership**

Revisioning rural reality

This thesis examines the intersections between rurality and rural educational leadership. The prologue offered an examination of my experience as a rural educational leader while living, working and researching in my local rural community, the regional city of Port Lincoln, in a remote area of South Australia, while a PhD candidate. Following this Introduction, Section One offers a revisioning of the theories of rurality, Section Two theorises rural educational leadership and Section Three offers results from analysis of interviews with rural school principals who live and work in Eyre Peninsula, South Australia (EPSA). The thesis concludes by showing how revisioning rurality contributes to - and intersects with - the rural educational leadership. The conclusion calls for ongoing co-contribution to revisioning of rurality and rural educational leadership. My original contributions to knowledge include revisioning theories of rurality, reconfiguring rural educational leadership and revealing the nature of rural educational leadership in EPSA.

This thesis reports on existing research, while offering a new pathway to combine the theoretical and empirical to formulate new models of rurality and rural leadership. The creation of the thesis is reflected in the format. This thesis occurs as three sections. Section One revises theories of rurality through theorising; this cannot be achieved through contemporary conservative empirical research for rurality does 'not sit in a petri dish, waiting to be researched' (Brabazon, Redhead & Chivaura, 2019, p. 4). Section Two, similarly, theorises rural educational leadership. Section Three undertakes empirical research through an examination of results of interviews with rural educational leaders who live and work in EPSA. This thesis uses an embedded literature review, with the attention to rurality being the foundational theory for the entire thesis.

Philosophical underpinnings

To articulate the philosophical underpinnings that inform the research design of this PhD thesis, forthwith, there is an examination of the ontological and epistemological assumptions that inform the research. My philosophical assumptions impact the ways in which my research is framed, executed, written and interpreted. In this new era referred to as the Anthropocene, Gibson and colleagues note we must find 'new ways of thinking and knowing, and innovative forms of action' (2015, p. i). I respond to the call, with

an attempt to show a new way of thinking and knowing through creating knowledge, through 'innovative' ways to approach and enact research. The very structure of my thesis is one way that I show I answer the call for innovation in thinking and knowledge construction. That is, the very structure of my thesis is my attempt to show new ways of thinking, not through the traditional thesis structure, but instead through writing my thesis in three Sections. Section One explores ways in which to revision rurality, and stands alone. I show an innovative way to create knowledge, which reveals theories of rurality that reflect current thinking, as broader humanity comes to experience and understand the impacts of the Anthropocene in rurality impact equally on non-rurality. Section One stands alone as an example of showing that rurality requires new ways of being understood, in order to understand current rurality and plan for the future survival of humanity. It is only after the creation of knowledge that revisions theories of rurality, that it is then possible to explore theories of rural educational leadership, for rural educational leadership is embedded in rurality. Section Two therefore, similarly stands alone. It offers examples of ways in which it is possible to theorise rural educational leadership. However, it is noted, this area of scholarship is under-represented in the research. Section Two must stand alone, highlighting the ways in which rural educational leadership is embedded in rurality while simultaneously the same as- and different from- non-rural educational leadership. It stands alone, but with reference to the work in Section One, for rural educational leadership can only be understood in relation to rurality and Section One. Section Three offers an exploration of rurality and rural educational leadership. Mindful of the knowledge in Section One and knowledge in Section Two, Section Three explores rurality and rural educational leadership, as it played out in EPSA. Each of the three sections stand alone, but must work interdependently, informing one another. This non-traditional and deliberate choice to structure my thesis in this way, shows how the paradigm within which rurality currently operate is shifting and the ways in which rural educational leaders must operate is shifting, and both require revisioning in order to better understand the paradigm shift, as the shift is occurring.

Ontology

Ontological assumptions make claims about what kinds of social phenomenon can exist, the conditions of their existence, and the ways in which they are related (Blaikie, 2010). That is, what constitutes reality and how can we understand its existence? Matthews and Ross (2010) encourage thinking about ontological positioning in terms of 'objectivism, constructivism and realism' (p. 24). Constructivism describes the individual human subject engaging with objects in the world and making sense of them (Crotty, 1998). Constructivism values 'the social context of learning, the individual's experiences, and the construction of meaning from experiences' (Hinshaw, Burden & Shriner, 2012, p. 874). Objectivism, on the other hand holds that one reality exists independent of anyone perceiving it where we can only know reality and truth through reason and objective knowledge (Peikoff, 1993). While realism requires us to believe that knowledge exists in reality independent of our conceptualising or awareness of the knowledge or object. This thesis accepts the notion that knowledge is created through different ontologies and that knowledge created through different ontological perspectives be considered when theorising rurality and rural educational leadership.

Ontology examines 'the nature of being' and asks, for example, 'how does knowledge come into being?' Of note, and consistent with the ontology of constructivism, my project assumes that the nature of reality can be determined through exploring the meaning individuals make of their experience through their engagement with their experience. Constructivism most closely parallels the philosophical underpinnings of this study. This approach assumes an 'emphasis on the world of experience as it is lived, felt, undergone by social actors...what we take to be objective knowledge and truth is the result of perspective' (Schwandt, 2001, p. 236). It is the analysis of how people make sense of rurality and rural educational leadership that informs the construction of knowledge for this thesis.

Epistemology

Epistemological assumptions are concerned with what kinds of knowledge are possible; how we can know these things, with criteria for deciding when knowledge is both adequate and legitimate (Blaikie, 2010). An epistemological question can be 'what constitutes valid knowledge and how can we obtain it?' (Raddon, 2010, p.2). Epistemological alternatives include positivism, interpretivism and constructionism. Positivism is linked to empirical science (Crotty, 1998) where it is believed that knowledge is possible through empirical evidence we experience through our senses; that we create knowledge through experiments, observation and the collection of quantitative data. Interpretivism takes an approach where it is believed knowledge is created through reference to cultural understanding where truth is situated in interpretations of the world with reference to history and social situations. Those who engage in constructionism work from the belief that humans attribute meaning and cultural processes; that is, meaning is constructed (Jha, 2012) where 'meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting' (Crotty, 1998, p. 43). This thesis accepts the notion that knowledge is created through different epistemologies and that knowledge created through different ontological perspectives be considered when theorising rurality and rural educational leadership.

Epistemology examines 'the nature of knowledge' and asks, for example, 'what is the nature of knowledge?' Couper (2018) suggests any epistemology of rurality must connect geographical and existential realities, and the relationships between them. The epistemological question then becomes, 'what is the nature of knowledge used to theorise rurality?' (Edirisingha, 2012). Of note, and consistent with the epistemology of constructionism, my project values individual human subjects engaging with objects in the world and making sense of their experiences to construct knowledge. My role as the researcher is to collect this knowledge and make meaning from it.

My ontology and epistemology

In theorising rurality and rural educational leadership, I wondered, is my thinking impacted by the ontology and epistemology of western European notions of rurality and rural educational leadership? To what degree am I influenced by the ontology and epistemology into which I am enculturated? I reconciled that through my engagement in the PhD, I developed a deeper and more profound understanding about ontology and the ways in which knowledge comes into existence, and a deeper and more profound understanding about epistemology and the ways in which knowledge is validated and obtained. Through doing so, I have been empowered to question my ontological and epistemological assumptions and I welcomed the notion that the assumptions I made about how knowledge comes into being, how knowledge is validated and obtained, were challenged. It is through accepting that my philosophical understandings are able to be challenged, that I created an intellectual space for myself that gave me the freedom to revision rurality and rural educational leadership.

I accept Cervone's (2018) claim, 'Rural is not a geographic constant, rather it is a socially constructed, living, and ever-changing environment' (p, 124). But the research and knowledge I interrogated and the results of this project, were responsive to the broadest knowledge base, through reference to knowledge that deployed a range of philosophical perspectives. Revisioning theories of rurality and rural educational leadership, not only required that my research take into account research conducted from different ontological and epistemological perspectives, but required overt enunciation of the philosophical standpoints inherent in the sources I referenced when revisioning the theories.

Theoretical perspective

Theories specify the relationships between concepts and specify why the relationships exist (Blaikie, 2010). This thesis uses an embedded literature review, with attention to rurality being the foundational theory for the entire thesis. This thesis starts with theories of rurality and explores the rural leadership theories that emerge from it. Section One investigates theories of rurality and concludes with revisioning theories of rurality. Section Two explores theorising rural educational leadership and concludes with a theory of rural

educational leadership. When considering ‘the nature of theory’ (p. 25), Bush (2008) noted ‘there is no single all-embracing theory of educational management’ (p. 9) and Eacott (2010) noted that early inquiries into educational leadership lacked effective theoretical development. Research must pay deep attention to *theorising* not only of educational leadership, but of theorising *rurality*, to inform theories of *rural* educational leadership.

Methodology

The methodology that informs revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership is made with reference to the scholarship and grey literature. This thesis refers to ‘grey literature sources’ where the term ‘source’ can be a synonym for ‘organisation’. Examples of sources, or organisations, that produce grey literature that inform this thesis, include governments, global non-government organisations (NGOs), business, industry, multinational oligarchy, and multi-modal-media (see Table 1). These organisations produce grey literature about rurality, rural education, and rural educational leadership. They enact dissemination through collecting data, enacting research, publishing data and research, theorising rurality and rural educational leadership as well as creating policy, and allocating funding based on this work (see Table 2).

Table 1 Grey Literature sources

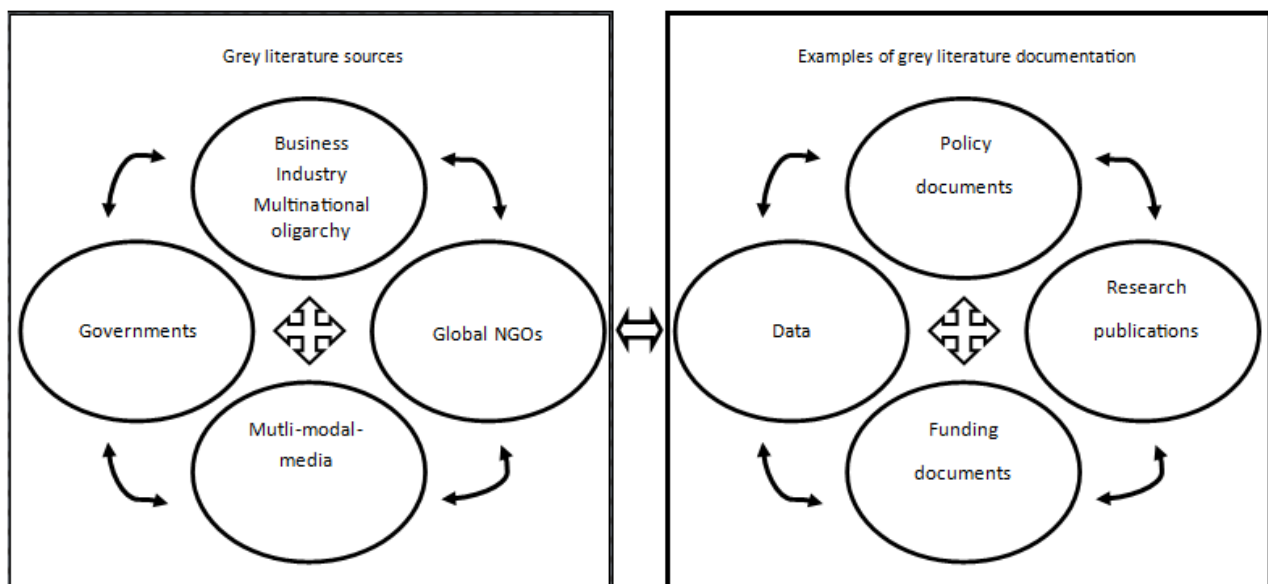
Column 1	Column 2
Grey literature sources / organisation	
Governments	All governments from around the world
Global non-government organisations (NGOs) where these NGOs have global oversight through their work with governments from around the world	To delimit the number of the NGOs due to the confines of this thesis, I reference the work of four NGOs: the United Nations (UN), World Bank, International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
Business, Industry, multinational oligarchy	These can be local, regional, national, international
Multi-modal-media	e.g. Twitter, Linked In, YouTube, Podcasts, internet, radio, newspaper (print and online), television

Table 2 Defining work of organisations – the ‘grey literature documentation’

Work of organisations: examples of the grey literature documentation they create
Collect and publish data about rurality and rural educational leadership
Enact and publish research about rurality and rural educational leadership
Theorise rurality and rural educational leadership
Document and publish about rurality and rural educational leadership
Create policy and allocate funding for rurality and rural educational leadership

Research for this thesis investigated the interplay between grey literature sources. Each source, or organisation, looks to the grey literature from other organisations for information to inform the grey literature of their own organisation. This thesis shows there is interplay between the ‘work’ (grey literature) within each organisation. For example, within any organisation, a grey literature (data, research, publications, policy construction and funding allocations) informs and is informed by other grey literature. This thesis also shows, the types of ‘grey literature documentation’ (work) produced by each of the ‘grey literature sources’ (organisations) informs the ways in which other organisations create their grey literature. For example, the detail in different types of documentation issued by any global NGO impacts the detail in, and the ways in which, governments create their grey literature documentation and visa-versa. A visual representation of the interplay of the ‘grey literature sources’ (organisations) and the ‘grey literature documentation’ (documentation) is offered in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Interplay between grey literature sources (organisations) and grey literature documents (work)

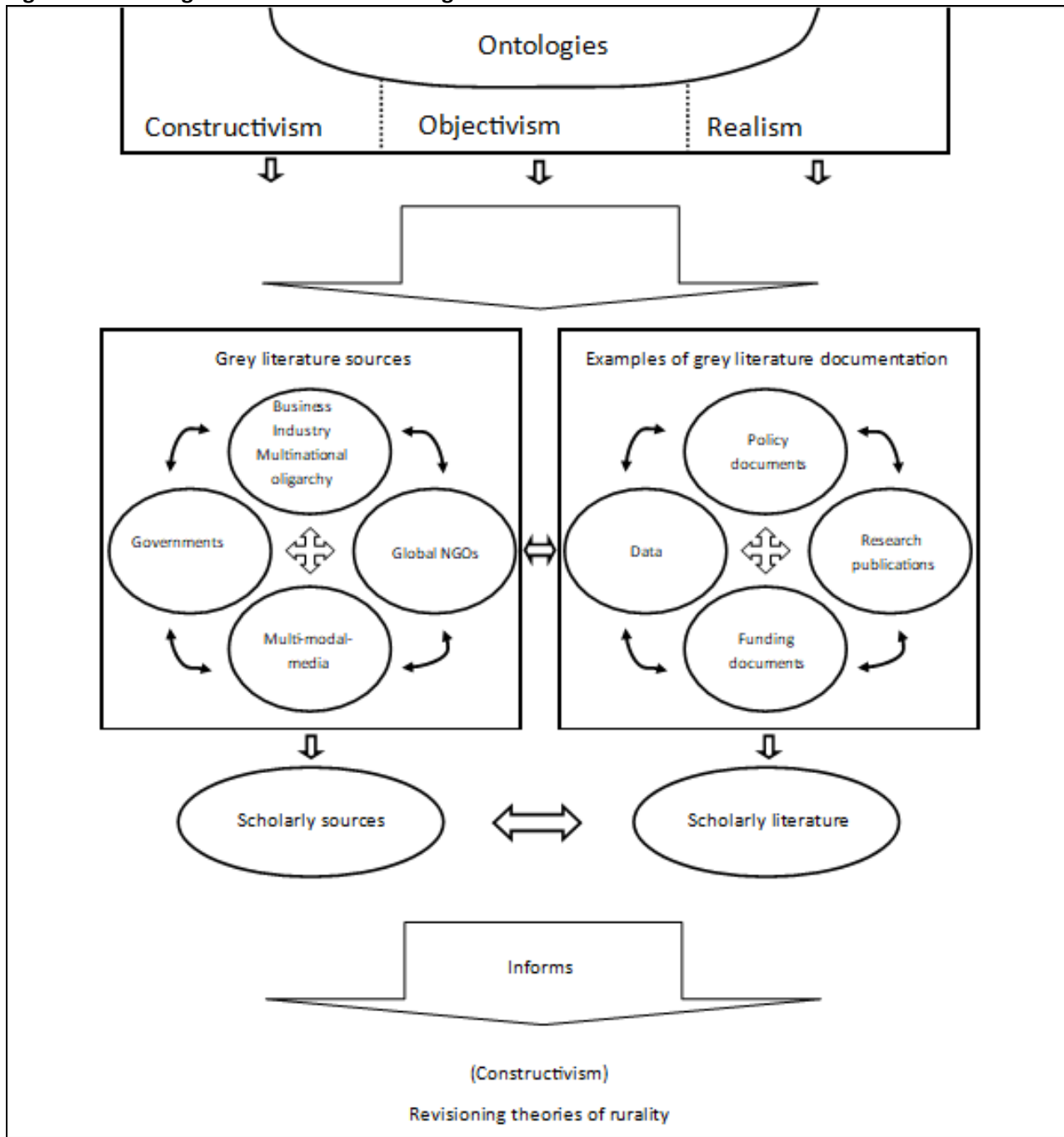


There is opportunity to critique scholars who reference grey literature. However, grey literature can be an important source of information for research (Brabazon, 2018, June 26) for ‘this kind of literature can be of particular importance for public policy’ (Te Riele et al., 2017, p. 120; Lawrence, Houghton, Thomas, & Weldon, 2014) and the use of grey literature is supported internationally by Pisa (2014). For this thesis, critique of- and inclusion of- the grey literature remains important. Important because the ways in which

organisations work, impacts the ways in which the organisations operate in- and impact on- rurality and rural educational leadership. The philosophical assumptions held by each organisation for each piece of work they create influences the resultant published work, but also influence the work that references the resultant published work. I show that the philosophical assumptions that underpin each piece of work, inform the revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership.

Scholars' reference the 'grey literature documentation' (work) and 'grey literature sources' (organisations) when conducting research that scholars publish through scholarly monographs and journal articles. In this thesis, I reference scholarly work in which the scholars' cite 'grey literature documentation' (work) from 'grey literature sources' (organisations). Similarly, 'grey literature sources' (organisations) reference scholars' work. For revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership to be comprehensive, reference to a broad a range of literature (scholarly and 'grey') from a broad range of sources (scholarly and 'grey') remains important. Important because reference to the broadest range of documentation enables my research to capture the broadest theorising of ruralities and rural educational leadership and the broadest understandings of the ways in which theorising of ruralities and rural educational leadership impact each other. In doing so, I create knowledge through referencing work that uses a range of ontological and epistemological perspectives. However, in revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership, in this thesis, knowledge is created through the ontological perspective of constructivism (see Figure 2).

Figure 2 Knowledge that informs revisioning theories of ruralities

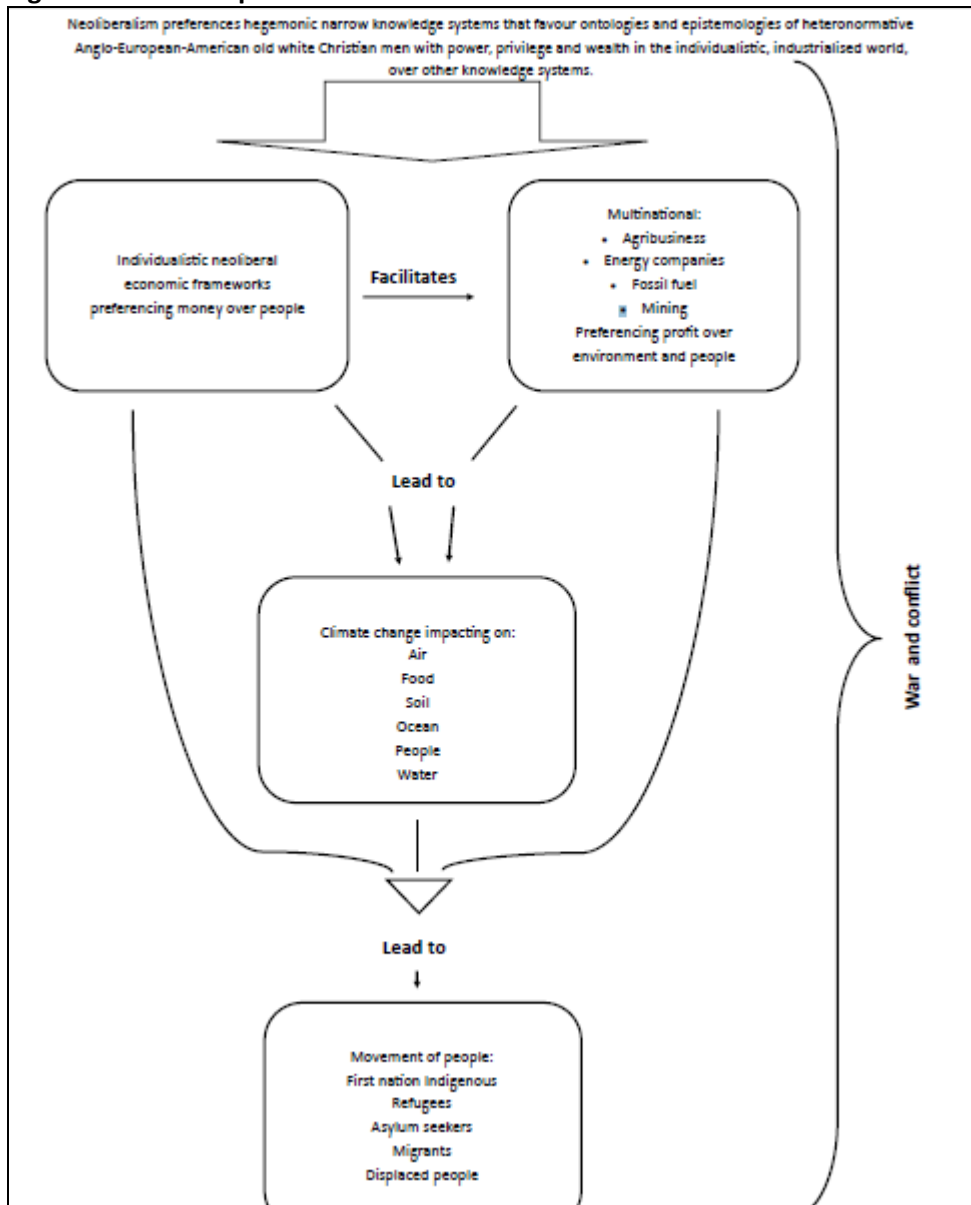


Methods

The methods deployed for Section One and Section Two included reading and analysing scholarly and grey literature, to inform the development of the theorising of rurality and rural educational leadership. The literature review is embedded throughout this thesis, and where appropriate, I enacted document analysis (Silverman, 2014). To inform the thesis, I completed multiple analyses of the transcripts of interviews I had conducted with rural principals in EPSA. That work was used to inform Section Three. To strengthen the

theoretical component of my thesis, I started by reading 300 journal articles about rurality. Within weeks, I had identified key journals, and began the systematic process of reading all articles published in those journals in 2019, 2018 and 2017. I wanted my theorising to be informed by the very latest research. By the time I had read 150 articles, and dozens of monographs, I had 70,000 words to use to start theorising rurality. In the process, I became incensed by the result on rurality of impacts from what was to become the 6-meta-impacts (see Figure 3). As time progressed, as I continued reading and theorising, I came to see the results of 6-meta-impacts on rurality, supported my revisioning rurality. The model that has become the 6-meta-impacts, developed with respect to themes that emerged from analysis of the literature that theorised rurality. It has become the model that I present in this thesis as the model that encapsulates the revisioning of rurality.

Figure 3 6-meta-impacts



My revisioning theories of rurality (Section One) and the results of analysis of the interview transcripts (Section Three) informed my theorising rural educational leadership (Section Two). The theorising rural educational leadership occurred through reading about rural educational leadership, educational leadership, and rural education more broadly. As I noticed themes emerging in the research about rural educational leadership, I was mindful of the work I was undertaking to revision rurality. I was also mindful of the results from the multiple ways I analysed the interview transcripts. Themes were emerging in regard to rural educational leadership that were related to the work I was doing to revision rurality. This intersection informed the revisioning theories of rurality, and shaped theorising rural educational leadership, which was also shaped, inflected and framed by the (multiple) results of analysis of the

interview transcripts. As the revisioning rurality, and rural educational leadership was occurring, I needed to reanalyse the interview transcripts, in line with the work being achieved in Section One and Section Two. The methods of analysing the interview transcript are explained at the beginning of Section Three, followed by the analysis. The three sections danced together, stumbling over each other's feet, emerging in parallel, while entwined and co-dependent, until the three understood the rules of the dance, and could work in each other's space; informing each other, while remaining distinct from one another.

Theorising rurality is problematic

Theorising rurality and rural educational leadership is problematic, but important for 'a theory offers an analytical tool to assist us in understanding and explaining a field of study in a systematic way' (Couper, 2018). What is rurality, what is rural educational leadership? Who has authority to decide? Whose voice informs the debate that determines who and what thinking can be used to theorise? Where ontology is understood as the nature of being – what is the nature of being that is used to theorise rurality and rural educational leadership? – and who chooses which ontological position is used to determine the data and research that can be used to theorise – and why make that particular decision? Where epistemology is understood as the nature of knowledge - what is the nature of knowledge used to theorise rurality and rural educational leadership? - and who chooses which epistemological position is used to determine the data and research that can be used to theorise - and why make that particular decision? This thesis accepts that theorising rurality and rural educational leadership is problematic, because there is an array of theories wherein my work needs to be account for the range in my revisioning and theorising.

Section One offers example of ways in which revisioning theories of ruralities can be enacted, concluding with my revisioning theories of rurality. Section Two offers an example of ways in which to theorise rural educational leadership, concluding with my theory of rural education leadership. The conclusion also argues for scholars, organisations and schools, to work in concert, to engage in ongoing co-construction of the revisioning of the theories of rurality and rural educational leadership. Underlying the theoretical assumptions of my thesis is the notion that revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership requires

cognizance of the need to articulate the results of the 6-meta-impacts on rurality and rural educational leadership, as well as finding ways re-dress the results of the 6-meta-impacts. Important, is that the theories account for, accommodate and include knowledge systems of the Indigenous people.

Theorising rurality: through an Indigenous First Nations peoples' lens

Revisiting theories of rurality require Australian Indigenous peoples' knowledge systems to inform research conducted in Australia. Indigenous First Nations peoples from around the world, herein referred to as Indigenous people, carry ontological and epistemological assumptions about their world. Work by Hughes and Laura (2018, p. 344) highlight important thinking about the ontology and epistemology of Australian indigenous peoples.

Australian Aboriginal ontologies and epistemological groundings reject the objective post-enlightenment claim that truth must be tangible and proven to be valued; and prioritise the role of intuition, sensory and emotional experience, and the connectedness of all beings within a relational network of life (Williams & Aboriginal Affairs (N.S.W), 2011) where all beings within such ontology hold intrinsic value for their role to play in the mediation of truth and their contribution to the unfolding and allowing of knowledge (Lloyd et. al, 2012; Wright et al., 2012).

Australian Indigenous people share the ways in which they understand weather and the ways in which they understand their knowledge about weather (BOM, 2016): 'Yolꞵ ontology of connection ... requires us to acknowledge ourselves as connected to each other, to other people and to other things' (Lloyd et. al, 2012, p. 1075). Gregory Cajete (1994) explored the ontological and epistemological perspectives of Native American Indians in his book *Look to the Mountain*. It offered ground-breaking reading as it was the first book to enunciate parallels between Native American Indian philosophy and western philosophy, in relation to education, written by a Native American Indian teacher. Cajete's work explored the notion that non-positivist knowledge systems underpinned the ontological and epistemological perspectives of his people, wherein relationship between people and nature are preferred.

Revisoning rurality and rural educational leadership advocates inclusion of the ontological and epistemological perspective of Indigenous people. This thesis acknowledges acquisition of land, resources and power, by invaders, colonisers, and peoples who committed, and in many instances, continue to commit, genocide against Indigenous peoples (Fernandes & Welch, 2019). Important to this thesis, invaders embedded their non-Indigenous ontology, epistemologies and theories of rurality and rural educational leadership, into the human systems through which the Indigenous people must currently operate; itself an enactment of cultural invasion, colonisation and cultural genocide. The human systems to which this occurred include for example, culture, economics, education, health, law / lore, political structures, recreation, resources, social, and spiritual systems. When revisoning rurality and rural educational leadership, I advocate the importance of remaining cognizant of the impact of non-Indigenous ontologies, epistemologies and resultant inequities as they relate to Indigenous peoples. I advocate theories of rurality and rural educational leadership reference knowledge systems of the Indigenous peoples.

Revisoning ruralities requires reference, understanding and engagement with Indigenous peoples, their heritage and connection with rurality, their knowledge about ruralities and their ontological and epistemological philosophical perspectives. The population of the earth is estimated to be 7,750,000,000 (World Bank, 2019). It is important to note that around only 476 million Indigenous people worldwide, a mere 6% of the world's population, resident in over 90 countries, occupy around a quarter of the world's surface area and account for around 15% of the extreme poor (World Bank, 2020), while they protect an enormous 80% of the world's biodiversity (Monet, 2019, September 26). The research for this thesis concluded in 2019, the year in which the United Nations General Assembly declared 2019 as the International Year of Indigenous Languages through which language systems of Indigenous peoples were celebrated. In Australian, Aboriginal and Torres Straight Islands, while sharing a name, identify across some 256 nations and speak more than 250 Indigenous Australian languages. An enormous 90% of languages are considered endangered (AIATSIS, ND). Their languages carry their knowledge. The loss of language is of grave concern for along with loss of language is loss of knowledge; a loss of knowledge about rurality in which Indigenous people have leadership and can educate the non-Indigenous.

Revising rurality requires accommodation of historic, current and ongoing violent dispossession of Indigenous peoples from their lands. 2019 marked the anniversary of 400 years since the brutal and systematic enslavement of African nations was driven by the project of Western capitalist modernity (Neilson & Peters, 2020). The brutality of the slave trade is to be remembered because in the past, the use of slaves led to the 'successes' of those who engaged in the slave-trade. A result of the 6-meta-impacts traps people into a modern-day slavery as highlighted by case studies that inform this thesis, that show Indigenous people are still slaves, for they are slaves to the neoliberal capitalist multinational oligarchy such as Monsanto-Bayer. Dispossession of Indigenous people from their rural lands remains a contemporary *modus operandi* for those willing to enact violence in order to gain access to the valuable commercial assets that sit within rural contexts. Confusingly, this occurs even when that means burning the valuable rural assets. 2019 was a significant year as we saw the Brazilian Amazon Rainforest burn at unprecedented rates and the murder of Indigenous people who were protecting the natural rural elements, the trees, from which the entire world benefits through, for example, carbon storage. Independent media reported, that indigenous forest protector Paulo Paulino Guajajara, was shot dead in the Amazon by illegal loggers on Saturday November 2nd, 2019 (Goodman, 2019, November 4).

Theorising rurality: epistemological assumptions

Couper (2018) noted, in relation to theorising rural health, that any epistemology of rurality must connect geographical and existential realities, and the relationships between them. What this means for my research, is that when theorising rurality and rural educational leadership, I account for the epistemological assumptions that determine the nature of knowledge that are used to theorise rurality, with respect to the connections and relationships between geographic and existential realities. There are a range of theories of rurality and a range of ways to theorise rurality. There are theories from Indigenous peoples, and those related to western European romantic traditions with depictions of gentrified rural squires lording over slave like peasants - or indeed lording over slaves. There are theories related to invading / colonial / settler nations - where the invaders believed they had the right to invade 'foreign' lands they deemed to be *terra nullis*, and commit genocide, in an attempt to 'tame' what they believe to be dangerous animals, plants,

people and wilderness. There are theories related to the idealisms of an 'idyllic rural', for those seeking a 'tree-change' or 'sea change', the resident, investor, retiree, tourist, or those seeking recreation. There are theories related to neoliberal positivist capitalist views of rurality, where rural is often interpreted as a blank slate ripe for harvesting of the biodiversity, energy, fossil fuels, minerals, natural- and farmed-resources, food, soil and water - where the commodification and extraction of commercial rural assets is often at the expense of the environment and the people living rural. There are theories of the agriculturalists and aquaculturalists who see rural environments as that which produce food. There are theories of ecologists and environmentalists who work to understand elements of nature that exists in rural contexts with the view to understanding and protecting the biodiversity in our ecosystems. There are also theories of those who see the rural communities as safe places to live and work in the company of relaxed friendly 'country' people. Further, is rural, a place that is not urban? Is rural a place defined through a deficit lens for it is without the elements that exist in the cultural non-rural centre? Where rural is bereft of large buildings symbolising what some view as important nationalistic cultural knowledge? Urbanicity is often theorised as modern and progressive, whereas rurality is deemed as outmoded and regressive within society in the United States of America (USA) (Theobald & Wood, 2010). Beach and colleagues (2019) suggested that research about rurality is scarce and tended to be conducted from an urban-centric perspective and theory (Beach et al., 2019) which Farrugia (2014, p. 293) referred to as research conducted through an 'unacknowledged metrocentricity'. It has been suggested that rurality is represented as another aspect of industrial and post-industrial political metrocentricity (Farrugia, 2014; Massey, 1994). Whereas Couper suggested, 'It is always unacceptable to define people by what they are not' (2018, p. 3). In revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership this thesis shows binary notions pertaining to rural / non-rural are irrelevant to contemporary theorising. Instead, theorising requires an accommodation of the complexities inherent in the theories, where revisioning rurality, and rural educational leadership, occurs with reference to contemporary rurality.

Theorising rurality: positivist epistemological assumptions

Amidst neoliberal ideologies, theories of rurality are often defined in relation to positivist epistemologies.

People enact data collection and research, creating knowledge through empirical evidence we experience through our senses; understanding we create knowledge through collection of quantitative data (Crotty, 1998). As a result, theories of rurality and rural educational leadership emerge through reference to quantitative data. Rural is theorised in relation to population and population density and through measuring the distance between rural contexts and non-rural major centres or cities. Rural is theorised through a deficit model, highlighting any number of socio-demographic data indicating rurality is deficit when compared with non-rural contexts:

- data resulting from national and international education testing indicated lower levels of educational attainment amongst rural youth, when compared to their non-rural peers (Lamb et al., 2015)
- data resulting from national research showed higher levels of disease, poorer access to and use of health services, shorter life span amongst people living rural and remote (AIHW, 2019) while international research by the World Health Organisation did not differentiate for rural people (WHO, 2019)
- higher levels of unemployment
- lower average annual incomes
- higher levels of poverty.

There are positivist theories of rurality that reference neoliberal conceptualisations of rurality, based on the money that can be generated from rural contexts. As the results of the 6-meta-impacts continue to devastate rural contexts, required, is deep contestation of the theorising of rurality that preferences positivist neoliberal notions related to extraction of commodified rural assets. This is particularly important where commercial activity leaves natural rural assets, rural human assets (the people) and the human systems that support rural people, bereft of support.

There are leaders, decision makers, those with power and influence, who value positivist epistemological assumptions and the quantifiable data that drives neoliberal capitalist theorising of rurality. Revisioning rurality, must take into account the diversity of quantitative positivist data-sets. I offer a simple example forthwith to demonstrate that quantitative data-sets about an element of rurality, such as water, can offer a diversity of outcomes, which illustrates the need for equal reference to qualitative data, when theorising rurality. A quantifiable data-set can be used to highlight what the coal magnates quantify as profits to be made from extracting and selling the coal that currently sits under the reservoir that supplies water to Sydney residents in New South Wales. A different data-set, the quantifiable number of approximately 2,000,000 Sydney residents, can be counted as those that will have to drink poisoned water from the reservoir. Scientists can test the levels of toxins in the water and quantify the levels of poisons that people will consume. This simple example references only three sets of quantifiable data, but highlights the ways in which quantifiable data about rurality is not sufficient to tell the story that contributes to the theorising rurality. Is the positivist theorising rurality that references neoliberal conceptualisations of rurality, based on the money that can be generated from rural contexts through the sales of the rural asset – coal - the data-set to use to theorise rurality and the value of rurality? Can a value be placed on the natural asset – water – that is harvested and stored in rurality, for the benefit of the non-rural residents? Is it the qualitative data that tells the story of the changes that occur to Sydney brought about by the supply of drinking water poisoned by coal mining the data used to theorise rurality? Clearly, even in this simple example, data-sets about rurality offer a diversity of outcomes. It is qualitative data that is required in order to explore the quantitative knowledge produced by data-sets, to ensure the debate about whether to mine the coal, or not, is fully informed. Rather than determine which knowledge systems are used to theorise rurality, I advocate knowledge from both qualitative and quantitative data contribute to theorising rurality.

Quantitative data can be used to highlight deficits of rurality, and thereby inform theorising rurality.

Decision makers use quantitative data to inform organisational policy creation and distribution of funding.

The data can be used make decisions that improve the data-sets in rural contexts, and thereby make a

positive and measurable difference for rural people. In turn, this improves the ever important quantitative

data-sets valued by those who currently hold power and make policy decisions and funding allocations that can improve the data-sets they value. This thesis shows raw numbers are not enough to inform policy and allocate funding that support remediation of natural rural environments, the people who live in them and the human systems that support them. Rather, revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership must reference to the qualitative human stories and environmental stories that sit behind the data.

Theorising rurality is a contested space

Rurality is an increasingly valuable and contested concept. This is because people understand the commercial value of the assets inherent in rural contexts. Examples of **'commercialised rural assets'** include

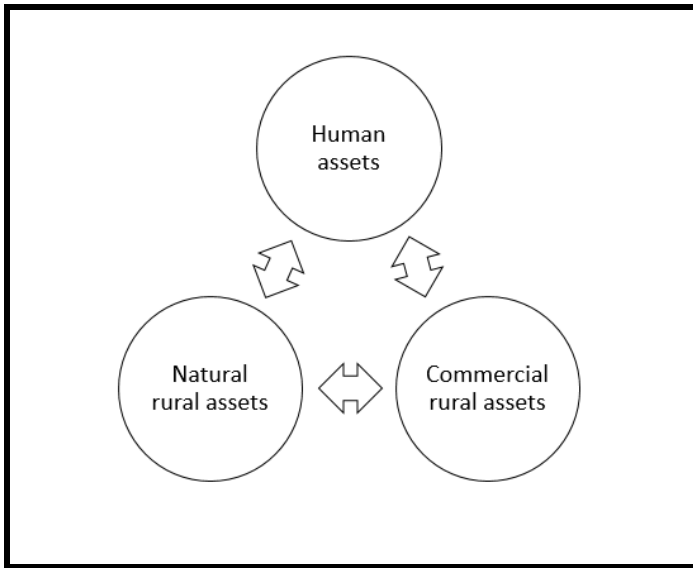
business, energy production, food (agriculture, aquaculture), industry, infrastructure, manufacturing, nation-state borders, ocean, resources (forestry, fossil fuels, mining), safe sanitation, tourism, transport and water (Table 3, Column 1)

Commercial rural assets can only continue to have value if there is management of what this thesis terms **'natural rural elements'** examples of which include

[addressing] climate change, biodiversity, biospheres, ecosystems, management of feral flora and fauna, protection of endemic flora and fauna, remediation of air, ocean, soil and water (Table 3, Column 2).

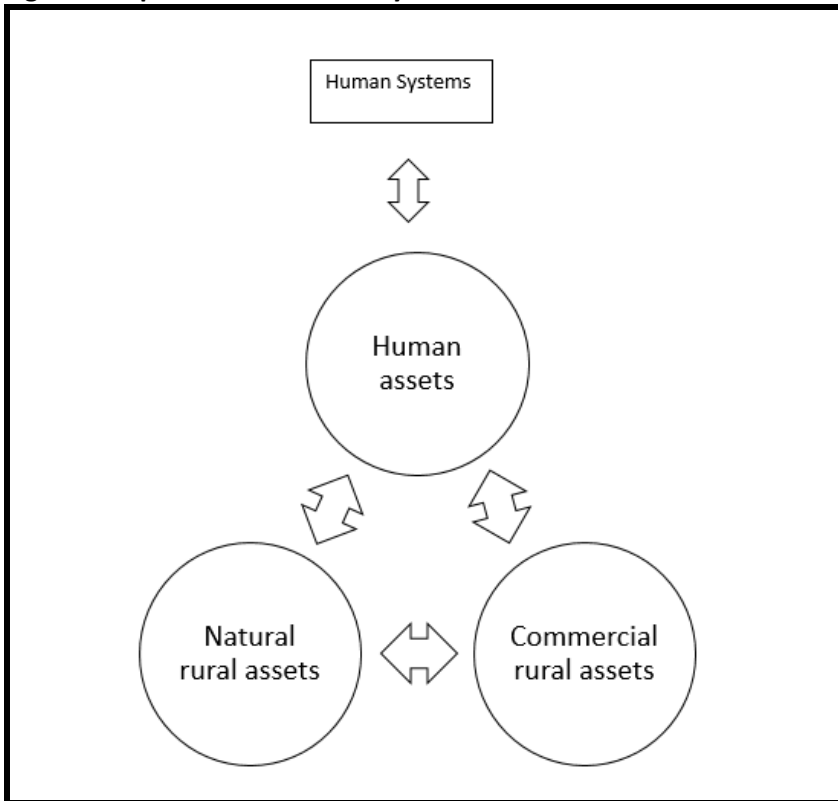
Another important asset in rural contexts is the **'human assets'**, the people who live and work in rural contexts (Table 3, Column 3). These three aspects of rurality work in concert (see Figure 4).

Figure 4 Three aspects of rurality working in concert: commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, human assets



This thesis recognises that ‘commercial rural assets’ that are exploited for commercial gain can only continue to exist and have value when the ‘natural rural elements’ that facilitates there being a commercial rural asset are cared for by the ‘human asset’ – the people. Of note also, the people living in rural contexts similarly require care through support of the human systems that support the rural people. Examples of these human systems include cultural, economic, education, health, Indigenous First Nations peoples’ cultures, legal, management of renewable resources, political (government), recreation, social and spiritual (religious) systems (see Table 3, Column 4). Revisioning rurality requires analysis of connections between the commercial rural assets, the natural rural elements, the human assets who live and work in rural contexts and the human systems that support them to do so (see Figure 5).

Figure 5 Importance of human systems



I advocate that in order to better understand this process, required, is support through investment in data collection, research, policy creation and application, as well as funding. It is only through knowledge gained through data and research that there is opportunity to understand how to maintain the systems that support the humans care who for the natural rural elements that allow for exploitation and commodification of the natural rural assets into commercial rural assets.

Table 3 Elements of rurality

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Commercial rural assets	Natural rural elements	Human assets	Human systems
Business	Addressing climate change	People	Cultural (including notions of community)
Energy production	Bio-diversity / biospheres / ecosystems		Economic
Food (agriculture and aquaculture – plants and animals)	Management of feral flora and fauna		Education
Industry	Protection of endemic flora and fauna		Health
Infrastructure	Remediation of air		Indigenous First Nations peoples' cultures
Manufacturing	Remediation of ocean		Legal

Nation-state borders	Remediation of soil (land)		Management of renewable resources
Oceans	Remediation of water		Political (government)
Resources (forestry, fossil fuels, mining)			Recreation (tourism, travellers, locals)
Sanitation			Social
Tourism			Spiritual (religious) systems
Transportation (goods and people)			
Water			

Revisioning rurality requires the asking of questions. Who decides who has power and control over the physical spaces and natural rural elements that exist across different rural contexts and how is the determination made that allocates power and control? Who decides who has power and control over the commercial rural assets in rural contexts and how is the determination made that allocates power and control? Who decides who has power and control over the people and the human systems in rural contexts and how is the determination made that allocates power and control? Revisioning rurality requires examining the negotiations and outcomes regarding who has the ownership, control and power over the philosophical parameters used when deciding who has the ownership, control and power over notions such as rurality, theories of rurality, rural data, research conducted in rurality, policy formation that impacts rurality, funding allocation to rurality, commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, human assets and human systems. Clearly, it remains important to examine and critique theories of rurality and there are many dissenting voices and counter-currents who do so, as noted throughout the thesis.

Revisioning rurality needs to be cognizant of ways in which non-rural theorise rurality. Theories of rurality are often constructed with reference to non-rural centric understandings of rurality based on assumptions the non-rural make about the rural, thereby theorising rurality through the lens of what rural is not. Rural is not urban. Rural does not host symbolic nationalistic cultural knowledge (see Table 4) that are instead,

Table 4 Non-rural assets

Non-rural (urban) assets
Economic centres (e.g. banks)
Educational centres (e.g. universities)
Entertainment centres (opera houses, large theatres, major sporting arenas)
Health centres (hospitals)
Infrastructure (e.g. ports)
Legal centres (e.g. supreme courts)
Political centres (e.g. parliament houses, government departments)
Religious centres (e.g. largest mosques, temples, cathedrals)
Transport hubs (e.g. international airports, train stations, bus stations, ports)

hosted within the geographic or cultural boundaries considered non-rural. Öhrn (2012) argues there is a need to counter historically structurally forms of class cultural superiority that can work as a hegemonic force to help sustain the social reproduction of ideologies of difference with material consequences. These cultural practices are ingrained in our political, institutional, and legal structures and are almost quite literally taken for granted (Öhrn, 2012). This thesis argues that reduction of theorising of the rurality to a rural/non-rural binary is ingrained and problematic, and requires not to be taken for granted, but instead needs to be overtly challenged. Challenged in part, because there are instances where the distinction between rural/non-rural is thought of as a continuum rather than a binary opposition, a place where non-rural bleeds into suburbia, a place where the urban is the urban fringe, peri-urban and rural fringe. Revisioning rurality requires reconciliation of the term 'rural' for the terms 'urban', 'rural', 'regional', 'remote', 'very remote' and 'country' are used differently by different nation-states, scholars, scholarly disciplines and organisations.

Revisioning theories of rurality: result of the 6-meta-impacts

One of the outcomes of this thesis is a revisioning theories of rurality (Section One). This is offered visually as the **6-meta-impacts**. This thesis highlights it is urgent to address the results of the 6-meta-impacts as they relate to the revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership. I offer here, introductory commentary of the 6-meta-impacts. Firstly, is the notion referred to in this thesis as the **narrow knowledge systems**. Narrow knowledge systems support the cultural bias and hegemony of the ontologies and epistemologies that favour the heteronormative and individualistic industrialised Anglo-European-

American old white Christian man who holds power, privilege and wealth. These narrow knowledge systems support the second meta-impact, the impact of the individualistic **neoliberal capitalist economic framework** that preferences the increase in individual monetary wealth over the health and wellbeing of the environment and people. Neoliberalism has many definitions with the simplest configuration of this ideology being the predominance of the market over all other factors, determinants, models and motivations. Profit is the goal. De- or under-regulation are the engines (Brabazon, Redhead & Chivaura, 2019, p. 49). Combined, the first two meta-impacts facilitate the third meta-impact, that of the **multinational oligarchy** destroying rural environments and rural communities. These multinationals include agribusiness, non-renewable energy, finance, fossil fuel, mining, and pharmaceutical companies. The combined effort of the first three, create the fourth meta-impact, that of the **destruction of the climactic systems**. The impact of the ongoing and escalating destruction of the climactic systems, results in the destruction of, for example, the earth's air, biodiversity, ecosystems, food, ocean, soil and water. The result of first four meta-impacts, leads to the fifth meta-impact, the **movement of people**. This sees the increase in the numbers of Indigenous peoples, asylum seekers, refugees, migrants and displaced people moving across the globe in the pursuit of seeking environments that are healthy and can sustain human life. The results of the previous five meta-impacts results in **war and conflict**. In turn, results of all the 6-meta-impacts, impact one another.

This thesis highlights, there is a pressing need to support rural educational leaders in ways that support them to support their communities respond to the results of these **6-meta-impacts**. The current post-global-financial crisis, prolonged recession and austerity era, increased public understanding of the imminent collapse of multiple climactic systems, and as I completed the editing of my thesis in 2020, the impact of pandemic COVID-19 and the #blacklivesmatter movement, all offered impetus to re-theorise and reflect on the new theories of rurality in ways that reflect the current realities for rural contexts. Papadopoulos (2019) looked at changing socio-economic environments and showed they are deeply affected by the hegemony of neoliberal austerity policies which are connected with notions of over consumption. Cervone (2018, p.67) considers the,

neoliberal view of environmental protection, in that it is merely a barrier to profit. The natural world is there to be sacrificed in the name of capitalist accumulation. This domination and subsequent destruction of nature is perhaps the most pressing consequence of neoliberalism, as it will have the most damaging and lasting effects. [Cervone asks,] How democratic a society is or is not is no longer relevant when the population can no longer safely breathe the air or drink the water (Cervone, 2018, p. 67).

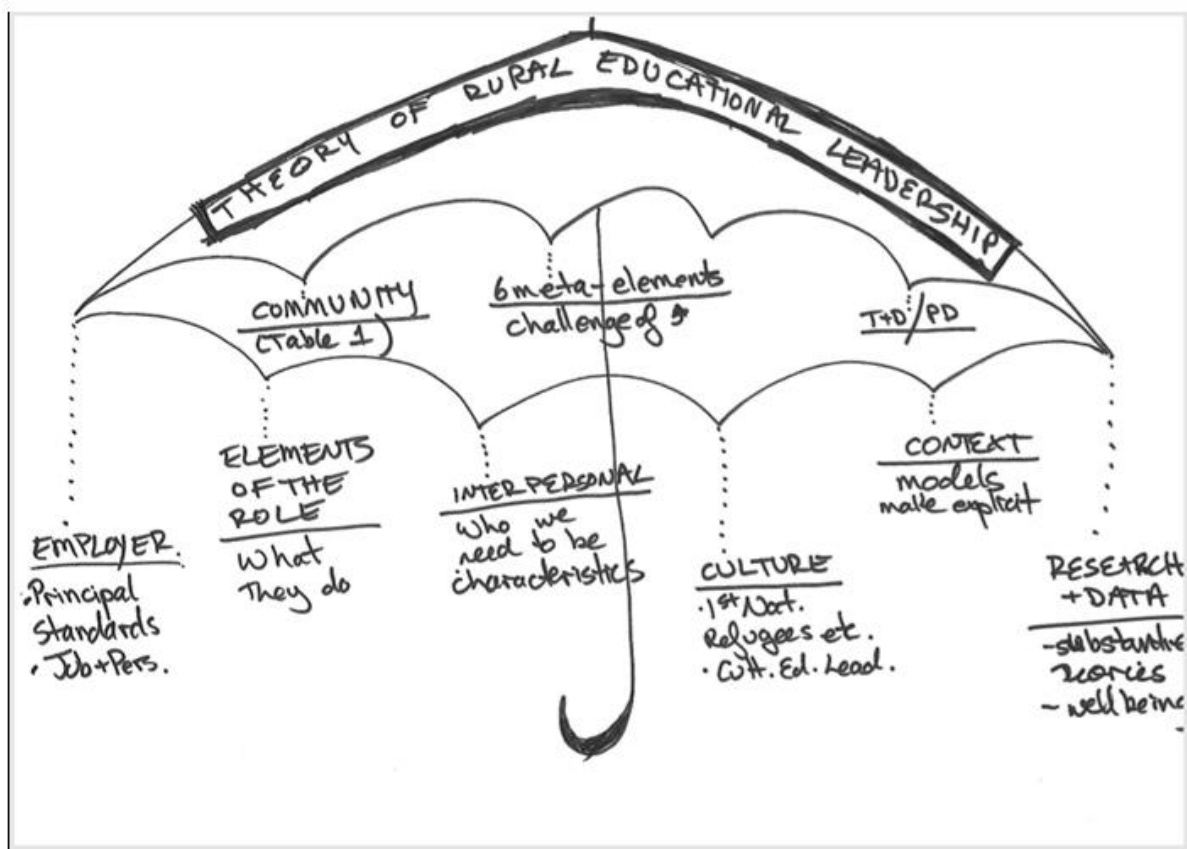
Beach et al. (2019) showed how nature is presented as materially, culturally, and socially important. But the economic and social values are also intertwined. Cafer (2018) showed the link between community resilience, international development and sustainable development. The advent of the increasing number of climate change movements, challenge the dominant ideologies that have preferenced non-rural contexts. Challenged because in 2019, the arctic was on fire, the Amazon was on fire, 2019 was the hottest northern hemisphere summer on record, there were unprecedented glacial- and ice-melts and importantly, non-rural people saw the damage to rural systems which they understood impacted their own future and that of life on earth, as we know it. This thesis advocates revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership through the lens of a world that is post-narrow-knowledge-systems, post-neoliberal-capitalism, post-multinational oligarchy, post-carbon, post-border controls and post-war.

Theory of rural educational leadership

One of the outcomes of this thesis is the theory of rural educational leadership (Section Two). It identifies nine tools that interact and inform the theorising rural educational leadership (see Figure 6). The nine considerations are not hierarchical and include in alphabetic order, the nature of the rural **community** and the nature of the **context** in which the rural principal lives and works. Another tool to consider is the ways in which **culture** impacts the role. Other tools that require consideration include the **elements of the role** that are undertaken by a rural principal, the impact the **employer** has on the role and the **interpersonal** skills required to enact the role. Consideration must also be given to **research and data**, both the ways the principal use them in the role, and the ways in which the research and data about the role is undertaken. The **professional development, training and development (professional development)** requires

consideration, the professional development offered to principals, and the training principals choose, as well as the ways in which the professional development is created and delivered. Results of the **6-meta-impacts** also inform the investigation of the role of rural school principal. The inclusion of the 6-meta-impacts is unsurprising, as it is the result of my revisioning rurality. This thesis investigates the intersection between the revisioning theories of rurality and rural educational leadership.

Figure 6 Theory of Rural Educational Leadership



Conclusion

My thesis makes an original contribution to knowledge by revisioning theories of rurality and offering a model through which to revision theories of rurality. I also offer a theory of rural educational leadership. Finally, I offer results of my analysis of interviews with rural principals in EPSA, with respect to theories of rurality and rural educational leadership. The conclusion shows ways in which revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership impact each other.

The thesis concludes, by offering recommendations to revision rurality and theorise rural educational leadership with purpose. Firstly, to support development of understandings about the ways in which theories of rural contexts are changing, due to the results of the 6-meta-impacts. But also, to theorise the ways in which rural contexts need to accommodate the results of the 6-meta-impacts. Secondly, to support development and understanding about the ways to theorise rural educational leadership, in order to support rural leaders, such as rural principals. Rural principals require knowledge about rurality and rural educational leadership, to empower them to support their teaching staff, students and communities through the contemporary changes that impact rural contexts. Theorising rural educational leadership is key to addressing, mitigating, adapting and offering education about the intersections of rurality (underscored with reference to narrow knowledge systems, neoliberal capitalism, multinational oligarchy, climate change, movement of people and war) and rural educational leadership.

SECTION ONE

Revisioning theories of rurality

In Section One, I examine past and current theories of rurality, for understanding current theories and where they have come from is important, as they lay the foundation from which contemporary knowledge can continue to develop in ways that are helpful for the future. My current revisioning rurality, can inform ways in which future research continues to develop theories of rurality. It remains important to consider, critique, challenge, create and revision theories. Theories inform our thinking about rurality, inform our data collection, our research, inform what is- and is not- valued about rurality. They inform policy positions and funding of rurality. Theories of rurality have power. They can be used to empower people and can be used to hold power over people. Revisioning rurality requires awareness of the power of the theories of rurality - the power held by those who create and use the theories. Theories of rurality will continue to be spaces for contestation. This is what makes the need for revisioning rurality an important piece of ongoing work. Theories need to move, as we seek to improve current understanding about rurality in ways that are reflective of contemporary knowledge. In Section One, I explore a range of substantive theories of rurality, that when considered simultaneously, inform my revisioning rurality. Table 5 offers examples of different ways in which scholars theorise rurality.

Table 5 Theories of ruralities

Theory of rurality	Scholar
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Demonstrate through landscape how different actors, advocating for different models of development, produce different ruralities. - Three theories of rurality can be defined in relation to rurality in Brazil: latifundia, Agribusiness and peasantry - ‘Three distinct themes’ emerged in the relationship between landscape and conflict. They involved disputes over <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) access to resources (2) cultural identity, heritage, and place within landscapes (3) the impact of military conflict upon landscape 	Fernandes & Welch, 2019
Arguments in the literature that centre around whether ‘rurality’ can be defined as more than ‘symbolic’ and, if that was the case, how could ‘rurality’ be measured	Satsangi & Dunmore, 2003, p. 203
Subordination of the rural has been termed urbanormativity, or the establishment of urban ways of life as the norm	Cervone, 2018, p. 25-26
Patterns of rural places are difficult to generalise	Rosvall et al., 2018, p. 47
Theories of rural development can emphasize the role of social and cultural capital	Berdegué et al., 2015
Rural can be defined by distance that determines the ability of individuals to access services.	Bollman & Reimer, 2018
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Drive time to a city of 50,000 is an index of remoteness - A region being classified as remote if more than 50% of the people in the region were more than 45 minutes driving time from the centre of a city of 50,000 or more 	Dijkstra & Poelman, 2008
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The role of distance within and between territories invites a discussion of territorial justice, territorial equality and territorial cohesion. - Statistical indicators should include both the (in)equality of opportunity of individuals and the (in)equality of outcomes of individuals. 	Laurent, 2013

- Territorial units are institutions in the sense that they are social constructed and are re-constructed as the constraints / advantages of a territorial unit are changed over time by political, economic, and social interventions.	
- In Canada, when providing a geographic (or spatial) index of remoteness / accessibility / availability there requires consideration of other factors such as: - Affordability of travel, social, cultural, language, and factors that might prevent 'access' - In Canada "remoteness" is used in broader and more general terms to identify isolation in physical terms - "Accessibility" has been used predominantly in social research to assess availability of services and the barriers to access services, often at the individual level where accessibility is used to capture the possibility of access as determined by geographic proximity. (p. 6)	Alasia et al., 2017
- There was a common language for expressing aspects of rural living such as peace, quiet, and freedom.	Stenbacka, 2012, p. 70
Inequalities and problems of democracy in rural areas will remain unacknowledged if they continue to be ignored, and research will both slant and hamper theoretical developments by twisting problems of educational equity, justice, participation and democracy towards urban geographies and their demographics.	Öhrn & Weiner, 2017
We view places and their politics as articulations of spatial relations that reflect place differentials of power through differences concerning access, equity, representation and regulation.	Beach et al., 2018

Theorising rurality: nation-states

Different nation-states² theorise rurality differently. Examples of this diversity are explored throughout my thesis. That rurality is theorised differently by different nation-states impacts on the ability of research to offer cross-country comparisons for it is difficult to compare theories of rurality with one another, where the ontological and epistemological positions taken by different nation-states to theories rurality are different from one another. It is also difficult to compare theories of rurality across the globe when referencing data, for it is difficult to find global data-sets that offer a like-for-like reference point. This is evidenced for example in relation to global data-sets related to labour in rural and non-rural contexts. In 2018, Ms M. Castillo, the Secretary-General of the International Labour Organisations (ILO) (ILO, 2018, p. 6), stated

a scarcity of labour statistics disaggregated by geographic region poses challenges for monitoring labour markets comprehensively ... the lack of international statistical standards defining urban or rural areas and on rural–urban labour statistics ... has important consequences for international data comparability.

Outside statistics about the labour force, revisioning rurality requires nation-states to collect and share a greater quantity of quality data where the data has accuracy, disaggregated for a broad range of rural

² I use the term nation-state in this thesis, to differentiate from the term 'country' which is a word used in the literature as a synonym for 'rural'.

contexts. There is a need to collect data reflective of a broader range of commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, the human assets and human systems. There is also a need to collect data-sets from a broader range of disciplines that research and theorise rurality. As the amount of data relating to rurality increases in quantity and improves in quality revisioning rurality will be able to occur with more accuracy and be more useful. Theories of rurality can then develop, that offer increasing clarity about rurality.

The nation-state is defined by the United Nations (UN) as an area defined by the intersection of cultural and political boundaries, which the UN notes is becoming problematic with the advent of multiculturalism (UNESCO, 2019). The notion of the nation-state is particularly problematic for countries in which citizens become uncomfortable when they perceive the level of consideration given to multiculturalism, Indigenous peoples, refugees, asylum seekers and migrants, impact the identity of the nation-state. The impact of acceleration of the numbers of people moving across nation-states, informs the revisioning ruralities. For as ruralities across the world become uninhabitable, due to the impacts brought about by results of the 6-meta-impacts, people leave ancestral lands. They will continue to leave their land, in order to access the basics – water, food and shelter – in order to stay alive, impacting places to which they move.

Nation-states theorise rurality differently from one another. Further, within nation-states, rurality can be defined differently within- and across- the jurisdictions of a nation-state. Also, different scholarly disciplines theorise rurality differently; for example, those working in the area of health theorise rural-health differently from the ways in which those working in the area of education theorise rural-education. This created difficulties for me, as I attempted to revision rurality incorporating perspectives from across the globe. Revisioning rurality transcends theories of rurality suggested by any one nation-state, organisation, scholar or scholarly discipline. Instead, I have sought to theorise rurality in ways that can be applied globally, with reference to global research about ruralities. No mean feat. And certainly contestable. And in part, why I advocate, for ongoing co-creation regarding the revisioning rurality by scholars and organisations.

The lack of disaggregated data and analysis has a strong influence on national resource allocation processes, leading to a neglect of rural populations in the policy processes of many countries. The absence of data on rural populations at both global and national levels has contributed to the creation and reinforcement of “urban biases” in many countries. National data do not reveal the discrimination affecting the rural poor and are thus not adequate to give policy-makers the necessary guidance on how to tackle rural/urban inequities and share resources more evenly. Without meaningful data, resources will continue to be inequitably allocated and rural/urban inequities will persist...there is a strong need to increase the availability and quality of disaggregated data to ... estimate the magnitude of rural/urban inequities, and to eventually make the need for action visible to policy-makers (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. 2).

It is timely to revision rurality, for where, ‘dominant ideologies become self-identities even if they are not being fully acknowledged or understood by the population’ (Cervone, 2018), people are now questioning the theorising of rurality. I show dominant ideologies are cracked and cracking.

Theorising rural: domains of knowledge

Revisioning rurality requires consideration of the different ways in which different domains of knowledge theorise rurality. Domains include rural education, rural health, rural sociology, anthropology, environmental sciences, economics, law and politics. Throughout Section One, I offer case studies that support the need for the revisioning rurality and also show the ways in which it is possible to revision theories of rurality. Case study after case study, the work of revisioning theories of rurality links damage to the natural rural assets, human assets and human systems brought about by the neoliberal economic systems that favour narrow knowledge systems and multinational oligarchy that value profit over people and environment that negatively impact Indigenous and rural people.

Theorising rurality: global non-government organisations

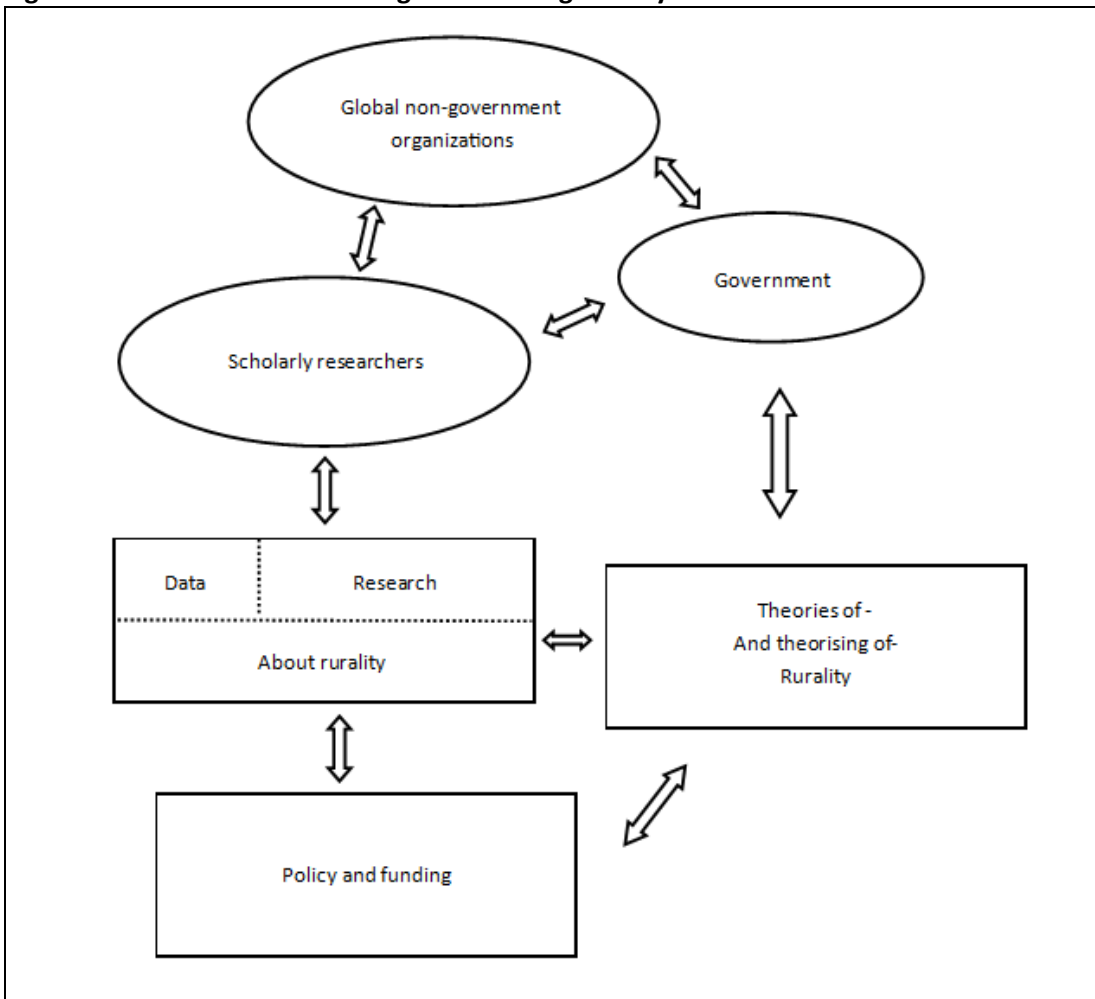
Global NGOs theorise rurality. In this thesis I delimit global-NGOs to the United Nations (UN), the World Bank, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and the International Labour Organisation (ILO). The work of each NGO is informed by the work of their nation-state members and other global-NGOs. The global-NGOs theorise rurality differently from one another. The UN theorises rurality differently from the World Bank, which theorises rurality different from the OECD and different again from the ILO. Complicating this is that as the work of each of these global-NGOs necessarily evolves, as knowledge about rurality develops, the ways in which these NGOs theorise rurality, changes. Further complication occurs because within each of these NGOs, rurality is theorised differently between different sections of each organisation. For example, within the OECD, research conducted about global health and particularly rural health from a global perspective, theorises rurality differently from research conducted about global education and rural education from a global perspective. The different theories of rurality used across the four NGOs and within each NGO, makes it difficult to compare data, research findings, publications and the ways in which the NGOs theorise ruralities. Comparing ways in which these organisations theorise ruralities and theorise about rurality, is particularly important to my research for I am revisioning rurality to account for a global perspective. That these NGOs theorise rurality differently from one another, informs my revisiting theories of rurality. I advocate, that ongoing co-creation of the revisioning theories of rurality, requires working towards agreement about theories of rurality, and agreement about the ways in which to theorise ruralities both across- and within- organisations that work at the global level.

Noting that the NGOs theorise rurality different from one another, and differently within each NGO, nonetheless, the data they collect, the research they undertake, the resultant publications and theorising of rurality undertaken by these NGOs informs the research conducted for this thesis in a number of ways. Research conducted about rurality is different from theorising rurality; these organisations enact both. The research about rurality and the theorising rurality enacted by these NGOs impacts on and influences the work of other NGOs. Their work also influences the work of nation-states. Further, research about rurality

and the theorising rurality enacted by NGOs impacts on and influences the research scholars' conduct about rurality and the ways in which scholars theorise rurality. Scholars embed the data and research about rurality published by NGOs into their own work. Scholars also embed the theories of rurality created by NGOs into their scholarly research and publications. The data and research about rurality conducted by the NGOs and the theorising about rurality they enact, informs research undertaken by- and published by- scholars. And visa-versa.

The collection of data, the research, the publications, theories of rurality, and theorising of rurality by scholars, inform the data, research, publications and theorising about rurality that is conducted by NGOs. In addition, policy documents and the funding implications, enacted by nation-states are informed by the data, research and theorising of both NGOs and scholarly research. In turn, the policy documents created by governments are referenced in the research of NGOs and scholars. Revisioning ruralities requires reconciling the notion that the NGOs, scholars and nation-state-governments look to each other for information to guide their own data collection, research, publications, theories of- and theorising of- rurality. Of note, they each embed and reference each other's data, research, publications, theories and theorising in their own work, policy positioning and funding (see Figure 7). In revisioning theories of rurality, I investigate these intersections for the combined work contributes to revisioning rurality.

Figure 7 Information contributing to theorising rurality



It is important to critique the ways in which NGOs collect, hold, manage, examine and critique international data-sets about rurality, and the ways in which they enact research about, publish and theorise rurality with reference to their own data and the data provided to them by nation-state members. It is also important to critique the research these NGOs publish, for it is influential, as it impacts on the work of other NGOs, nation-state-governments and scholars. Important to critique is the work of west-centric institutions such as World Bank, International Monetary Fund, World Trade Organization, and Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) as they play pivotal roles in the globally corporatist, biotechnology-driven model of agriculture (Shiva, 2008). It remains important to critique ways in which the narrow knowledge systems of west-centric NGOs impact rurality across the globe. The contemporary (2019) case studies I offer through Section One, critique the results of west-centric notions I describe as the 6-meta-impacts, to highlight the continual and increasingly devastating impact on the natural rural elements, human assets

and human systems, due to commercialisation of rurality. Global-NGOs must be continually challenged about the west-centric ontological and epistemological notions they bring to theories of rurality and theorising rurality. Revisioning rurality requires critique and scrutiny of the ways in which NGOs collect data, enact research, analyse information, their resultant publications and their theorising rurality, inclusive of undue influence imposed upon them by member-nation-states that fund the NGOs. The work of these four global-NGOs informs revisioning rurality. I now analyse how these NGOs theorise rurality.

United Nations - defining rural

The UN has 193 member states (UN, 2019a). The UN is currently working on twenty-five issues or campaigns, all of which are linked to ruralities across the globe. An example of one campaign that started in 2015, saw 193 member states of the UN General Assembly unanimously agreed to the *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, thereby introducing 'the most ambitious global development goals in history'. The seventeen Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) commit member states to end poverty, shift the world onto a sustainable path, and ensure greater inclusion (Kamau, Chasek, & O'Connor, 2018, p. 1–5). My support for and commitment to the SDGs is highlighted in a recent journal article (Hardwick-Franco, 2018a) in which I show how rural education in South Australia addressed the SDGs. The UN noted

the distinction between the urban and the rural population is not yet amenable to a single definition that would be applicable to all countries or, for the most part, even to the countries within a region. Where there are no regional recommendations on the matter, countries must establish their own definitions in accordance with their own needs (UN, 2017).

The UN recognised there is no universal theorising of rurality, but recommended distinctions be made. The UN (2017) recommended defining locality with reference to eleven distinct 'population clusters' (see Table 6) in which the inhabitants live in neighbouring sets of living quarters and which has a name or a locally

Table 6 UN population clusters

Number of inhabitants
500,000 or more
100,000 – 499,000
50,000 – 99,999
20,000 – 49,999
10,000- 19,999
5,000 – 9,999
2,000 – 4,999
1,000 – 1,999
500 – 999
200 – 499
Less than 200

recognised status. It is clear when reading research, when scholars, organisations and nation-states reference rurality, through this positivist epistemological perspective set by the UN. In revisioning rurality, I recommend that research that contributes to theorising rurality, overtly reference the philosophical underpinnings of the sources referenced.

The World Bank - a critique

Mkodzongi and Lawrence (2019) questioned the independence of the World Bank. The authors shared

[an] Exposé of Rwanda’s poverty statistics ... has revealed the methodical faking of statistical evidence (Roape.net 2018) [Anonymous, 2018] ... [where] the World Bank come to the defence of the Rwandan government. The impact of the debate on questions of development, poverty and international donor support for African governments has been enormous (Ansoms, 2019, p. 11).

Critique of the work of the World Bank stimulates questions. Is the data the Rwanda government shared with the World Bank an accurate reflection of the levels of poverty in Rwanda? Is the World Bank protecting the nation-state member, or is the World Bank enacting work to ensure the data from the Rwanda government is accurate? The work of the World Bank is referenced throughout this thesis, with reference to the wage disparity between rural and non-rural contexts.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

The OECD preference a philosophical view of the world, that values 'economic co-operation and development', through the capitalist framework. In 2019, the OECD consisted of only thirty-six member countries (OECD, 2019b) (see Table 7). While the OECD does not represent the majority of nation-states, the OECD declared that their members and key partners represented about 80% of world trade and investment. Important to note is the lack of membership of any African nation and the low representation from American countries, Asian countries, Scandinavian countries and countries from the Middle East. I separately list four invader / colonial / settler countries. These four countries have very low populations of Indigenous peoples (see Table 31) as such these countries could well be considered 'European' due to the degree to which the political leadership of these four nation-states maintains connections with- and preferences- their European cultural heritage. It could therefore be argued, this makes twenty-eight of the thirty-six OECD countries Anglo-Euro-centric. What is the epistemological positioning of the OECD when it theorises rurality? I critique the validity of the theories of rurality that underpin the work enacted by the OECD where the OECD reference notions of rurality that are not reflective of epistemologies of rurality reflective of a broader global perspective. The work and research enacted by the OECD falls short of supporting the development of theories of rurality that are of interest and relevance to people from around the globe. Notwithstanding this, the work of the OECD remains significant and worthy of consideration to my thesis, if for no other reason, that scholars, government and NGOs reference the work of the OECD where that combined work, informs the revisioning of rurality.

Table 7 List of the 36 OECD member countries in 2018

African	American	Asian	European	Invader / colonial / settler nation	Middle East	Scandinavian
	Chile	Japan	Austria	Australia	Israel	Denmark
	Mexico	Korea	Belgium	Canada	Turkey	Finland
			Czech Republic	New Zealand		
			Estonia	United States		
			France			
			Germany			
			Greece			
			Hungary			
			Iceland			
			Ireland			
			Italy			
			Latvia			
			Lithuania			
			Luxembourg			
			Netherlands			
			Norway			
			Poland			
			Portugal			
			Slovak Republic			
			Slovenian			
			Spain			
			Sweden			
			Switzerland			
			United Kingdom			

In 2017, the OECD offered a distinction between three paradigms it used to theorise rural development, the *Old Rural Paradigm*, the *New Rural Paradigm* (OECD, 2006a; OECD, 2006b) and the more recent, *Rural Policy 3.0 – Implementing the New Rural Paradigm* (OECD, 2017a; OECD 2017b) (see Figure 8). I highlight that the theories of rurality within this NGO altered through time. This is appropriate. As knowledge develops, so too do theories about ruralities. However, this highlighted to me, that it is important that scholars who reference work of the OECD, articulate the historical time in which the work they reference, was published, for the OECD theorised rurality differently across time. For example, when Brezzi et al. suggested, ‘The regions delineated as predominantly rural regions by the OECD are classified into two groups – predominantly rural regions close to a city and predominantly rural remote regions’ (see Brezzi et al., 2011), it is important Brezzi and colleagues note their claim is made at a time the OECD theorised about rurality in relation to the *New Rural Paradigm – 2006*, for it was not claimed under the current (2020) *Rural Policy 3.0 – Implementing the New Rural Paradigm*. Revisioning rurality with reference to the work of global organisations such as the OECD requires reference to the paradigm in which the information supporting the revision was created. While doing so, revisioning rurality requires critique of the ontological

and epistemological assumptions adopted by the global NGOs when it enacts data collection, research, publication, policy, funding and theorising of rurality.

Figure 8 OECD paradigms of rurality

Changing paradigms of rural development policy since the mid-1900s			
	Old Paradigm	New Rural Paradigm - 2006	Rural Policy 3.0 –Implementing the New Rural Paradigm
Objectives	Equalisation	Competitiveness	Well-being considering multiple dimensions of: i) the economy; ii) society; and iii) the environment
Policy focus	Support for a single dominant resource sector	Support for multiple sectors based on their competitiveness	Low-density economies differentiated by type of rural area
Key actors & stakeholders	Farm organisations and national governments	All levels of government and all relevant departments plus local stakeholders	Involvement of: i) public sector – multi-level governance; ii) private sector – for-profit firms and social enterprise; and iii) third sector – non-governmental organisations and civil society
Policy approach	Uniformly applied top down policy	Bottom-up policy, local strategies	Integrated approach with multiple policy domains
Rural definition	Not urban	Rural as a variety of distinct types of place	Three types of rural: i) within a functional urban area; ii) close to a functional urban area; and iii) far from a functional urban area

(Source: OECD, 2017a; OECD, 2017b)

International Labour Organisation

The ILO is an agency of the UN and as recently as 2018, the ILO (ILO, 2018) was still discussing the need to move on from the urban-rural dichotomy. The need for revisioning ruralities, away from the rural-urban dichotomy continues to be an important piece of work for even the largest of global organisations. Of interest to my research is that the ILO theorises rurality through a ‘residence location approach’ and a ‘workplace location approach’ (ILO, 2018, p. 7), seemingly enacting a ‘place-based’ and ‘rural by vocation’ approach. Theorising rurality through reference to geographic space, claiming rural is a spatial concept (Reimer & Bollman, 2010) challenges the notion of the generic ‘rural’. Instead, each rural place is reported on as unique in and of itself, where rurality is contextualised. I show no dominant ideology theorising rurality can suffice. I show theories of rurality that have existed, are currently being challenged and do not survive contemporary scrutiny. The paradigms through which rurality has been theorised are shifting, theories of rurality are similarly shifting.

Theorising rurality: by vocations

Revising ruralities requires consideration of the work in which people engage in rural contexts. Rurality can be theorised through reference to vocation. ‘Rural’ work can be theorised as ‘primary vocations’ examples of which are listed in Table 8. The FAO defines decent rural employment as any activity, occupation, work, business or service performed by women and men, adults and youth, in rural areas (2014, p. 1). ‘Secondary vocations’ could be the roles that support those in primary vocations such as those working in government agencies, non-government agencies, locally-owned, private- and multinational-businesses and industries, those employed in the processing of raw materials, manufacturing and services industry roles. Important also are those working unpaid volunteer roles. Important to rural contexts, are those employed in the agricultural sector, for they account for ‘over a billion people, nearly a third of the world’s workforce’ (ILO, 2019, p. 3). However, there is evidence to show that rurality can no longer be theorised by vocation. In many instances, vocations that have historically considered ‘rural’ no longer exist, or are no longer enacted exclusively by those who live in rural contexts (see Table 9). Work to be achieved in rural contexts does not require people to live in rural contexts. The work achieved in rural contexts links rural and non-rural contexts, and benefits rural and non-rural people alike for the activities that occur in the rural contexts support the life of people living in rural and non-rural contexts.

Table 8 Theorising rurality by primary vocation

Primary Vocations
Agricultural pursuits (food production)
Aquacultural pursuits (ocean and fresh water: wild catch and aqua-farming)
Energy production (fossil fuel and renewable)
Environmental work (protection of biodiversity and ecosystems & removal of feral flora and fauna)
Forestry (harvesting and caring for)
Infrastructure (building and maintenance)
Mining (minerals and fossil fuels)
Remediation (air, soil, water)
Spiritual pursuits (Indigenous people)
Water and sanitation care

Table 9 Cracking theories of rurality by vocation

Examples that support the notion theorising rurality by vocation is cracking
Workers 'fly-in-fly-out' (FIFO)
People who manage the finances for the commercial activity are not living in local rural contexts
People who own rural land and business / industry do not live in the local rural contexts – indeed they can be international investors who do not even live in the same country
Profits from the work in rural contexts are not shared in local rural contexts but instead profit investors who do not live in the local rural contexts
Commodified rural assets sourced in rural contexts are harvested, processed and transported out of rural contexts by people who are not local to the rural contexts.
Financial work that determines the price for the commodified rural asset is enacted by people who do not live in local rural contexts.
The training of people who work the highly skilled roles required in rural contexts does not occur in local rural contexts so non-local non-rural people FIFO to work these highly skilled roles.

Revising rurality through 'rural vocations', is a theory of rurality that is cracking, highlighting that theories of rurality require revising. In rural areas in Europe, employment in agricultural and other conventional land-based activities has weakened, while tertiary sector employment has risen (Shucksmith, 2004; Thissen et al., 2010). In rural areas the prominence of the agricultural industry is deteriorating due to the use of advancing 'technology' and development of other industries (Bryden & Bollman, 2000, p. 186). Referring to the experience of youth migration in Icelandic fishing and farming communities, Bjarnason and Thorlindsson (2006, p. 290) considered the evolution of the rural employment market. With the progression of the technology industry, the number of jobs required in sectors such as fishing, farming, logging, and mining reduced and manufacturing productions progressively became internationalised and seasonal. Also, the development of technology and the change 'from a manufacturing-based economy to a service-based one' has altered traditional working patterns (McOrmond, 2004, p. 25). While tourism has become a key sector in some rural areas, it is linked to low pay, long hours and seasonal work (McGrath, 2001). Theorising rurality through reference to 'rural' employment is no longer reflective of contemporary life in rural contexts.

Theorising rurality: through rural planning

Revising theories of rurality accept there is diversity when theorising rurality. In *The Routledge Companion to Rural Planning* (Scott, Gallent & Gkartzios, 2019), the editor's note they encouraged contributing authors to share their approaches to 'rural' with the view to providing a richer and more

diverse account of rural studies. It is this diversity in approach to theorising rurality that allows the reader to understand, not only that the conception of rural is nuanced, but that there are different ways to conceptualise rurality. For rural can be thought of as having multiple rural contexts, where each rural context is distinct from another rural context; where each 'rural' context is unique from the next. Throughout this thesis, rurality is defined differently by different scholars, organisations and nation-states. Different theories of rurality emerge and are used for different purposes. In one example, in the companion, Gallent and Scott (2017), offered eight different epistemologies to theorise rurality. Contemporary theories of rurality support the notion that there is no one way to conceptualize rurality.

Theorising rurality: through infrastructure

In many rural areas of the world, there is a lack of suitable and safe infrastructure including affordable housing, transportation and capitalist infrastructure. Results of my research highlighted ways in which housing affordability impacts rural people and rural communities. There are inequities between the ways in which people of different classes are accommodated in rural Brazil, (Fernandes & Welch, 2019), there are difficulties faced by single older women (Hartman & Darab, 2017), and young people (McKee et al., 2017). There is an impact from out-migration of young people (Hall, 2007; Stockdale, 2002; Thissen et al., 2010; Crow, 2010; Glendinning et al., 2003) and the in-migration of tourists and retirees (Campbell, 2017). There is also the hidden homelessness (Cloke, Milbourne, Widdowfield, 2001; Cloke, Widdowfield & Milbourne, 2000; Fitzpatrick, 2000) and hidden poverty (Commins, 2004).

Research showed that good roads and the access to transportation are important in rural contexts (Hoolachan et al., 2016; Culliney, 2014). Culliney (2014) revealed there is more of a dependence on- and need for- private transport in rural localities due to lack of provision of - and the expense of - public transport, showing how the lack of public transport hinders young peoples' employment opportunities. It was shown that improved road networks are helping many students access higher education, and this education in turn is expanding opportunities for entrepreneurship and family businesses (Hoolachan et al., 2016; Culliney, 2014). The World Bank updated its methodology for determining the accessibility of the

rural population to 'good' roads (Transport & ICT, 2016) by adopting the strategy of Roberts, Shyam and Rastogi (2006). The strategy determined the accessibility a population has to road transportation by

- a) determining the proportion of the rural population that lives within an approximate walking distance of two kilometres to a road in 'good' condition
- and b) determining whether the road is in 'good' condition. Where 'good' condition includes paved roads in good or fair condition and unpaved roads in good condition.

My critique of this methodology considers the World Bank to be using a colonialist theorising, employing a non-rural centric epistemology to theorise rurality. Many countries lack access to funding, lack access to people with skills and knowledge required to build 'good' roads and lack access to equipment to build 'good' roads. When theorising rurality is connected to infrastructure some countries cannot build, I wonder, is it the theory of rurality and the power of the organisation enacting the theorising (in this case the World Bank - and by proxy its' member-nation-states), enacting systematic colonialist epistemologies when theorising rurality? For where theorising rurality is related to the access a population has to 'good' roads, many countries are defined, by default, due to the definition being used by the World Bank, as 'remote'. The ways in which organisations, such as the World Bank theorise rurality is important, for as this example shows, the theory creates a self-fulfilling prophecy when it comes to defining a nation-state. A critique of the definition used by the World Bank, can suggest that the definition is created to attribute states to 'remote' status, thereby setting up a self-fulfilling prophecy that reinforces to the 'wealthy' nations that the 'poorer' nations are 'remote' and thereby deficit. Revisioning rurality facilitate and encourage organisations such as the World Bank to develop theories of 'rural' and 'remote' with reference to research enacted by people living and working in rural and remote contexts. Importantly, referencing views of Indigenous peoples for when it comes to access to good roads that link rural and non-rural, it needs to be remembered that for Indigenous peoples, their 'centres' can be spiritual areas in great tracts of natural environments, that would be considered 'remote' by non-rural centric people. That is, for the Indigenous, what the World Bank defines as 'very remote' is indeed the 'centre'.

Case study: Russian permafrost

Revising rurality accounts for the ways in which climate change impacts failing infrastructure in rural contexts, and in turn, impacts nature, the commercialised rural assets, and rural people. Research (Streletskiy et al., 2019) showed links between climate change, the Russian permafrost, and economics. The authors showed how the permafrost regions hosted less than 4% of the Russian population but accounted for 17% of the total Russian cost of fixed assets. It was estimated the fixed assets directly affected by changes in the permafrost to be around \$USD250 billion, or 7.5% of Russian GDP. The authors showed that as the climate changes, the temperature rises and the permafrost became more unstable putting infrastructure at risk. The estimate is that 54% of residential buildings worth \$USD20.7 billion and 20% of commercial and industrial structures and 19% in critical infrastructure worth \$USD84.4 billion will be negatively affected by permafrost made unstable by climactic change. The authors noted they are not accounting for direct and indirect linkages and feedbacks between climate, permafrost, and socio-economic systems which can amplify negative economic impacts (Streletskiy et al., 2019, p. 14). Theorising rurality through infrastructure highlights the negative results of the 6-meta-impacts on rurality. As I finalised the editing of this thesis, the infrastructure did indeed fail, spilling 20,000 litres of fuel into a pristine arctic environment (BBC, 2020, June 4). Research highlights the devastating impact of oil spill in the Arctic (Rixey, 2020), for it is 'almost impossible to clean up' (p. 446), contaminates 'one of the largest freshwater supplies of water on earth' (p. 446), where oil on the surface of the ice could cause an ice melt up to ten times the size of the actual spill as the dark oil absorbs more heat (p. 446).

Theorising rurality: through positivist quantitative data-sets

Empirical research has value in the investigation of rurality through referencing population, geopolitic mapping of nation-states, distance between rural and non-rural contexts, poverty, and land ownership. Revising rurality requires accommodation for the different ways in which different nation-states theorise rural population. Different nation-states use different population-numbers/population-densities to theorise rurality, resulting in data-sets and statistical percentages that claim to show the percentage of people who live within spaces defined as 'rural', examples of which are offered in Table 10. However, the

Northern Sparsely Populations Areas (NSPA) consists of Finland, Norway and Sweden where the theorising of rurality for the NSPA is not linked to the borders of a nation-state. Different again, in Brazil, theorising rurality occurs with reference to sociological concepts (Fernandes & Welch, 2019).

Table 10 Nation-states and rural population

Country	Theory of rurality
Africa	35% of Africa is rural (Couper, 2018)
Brazil	The meaning of 'rural' provokes considerable debate: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The latest official proposal defines rural and urban spaces according to population density (IBGE, 2017) 2. Another is based on changes in social relations in a conservative interpretation of the agrarian capitalism paradigm 3. The concept 'rural' is also used to refer to development, land use, labour relations, and productivity (Buainain, Romeiro, & Guanziroli, 2003; Graziano Da Silva, 1997) and public policies, inequalities, and conflicts (Fernandes, 2008) which trend towards the concentration of land in ever larger farms (Abramovay, 1992). (Fernandes & Welch, 2019)
Ethiopia	81% are classified as rural (IFAD, 2017).
Liberia	'rural' is defined as a location with population less than 2000
Northern Sparsely Populations Areas (NSPA) (Finland, Norway and Sweden)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The NSPA are considered to be very remote with low population density: 5 people every square kilometre represented by 2.6 million people across 532, 000 km². 2. Theorising of rurality that is not linked to a nation-state.
USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In the 2010 census, 19% of the population is rural: about 59 million people (Lu, 2018). - Rural peoples inhabit about 80% of the American landscape, so for that reason alone they will absorb the brunt of the direct impacts from climate change (Morton & Rudel, 2015). - Frontier and Remote categories designated by the USDA/ERS (2012)
Zambia	About 60% of population reside in rural areas, and the agricultural sector accounts for most of the country's employment (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. 26)
Zimbabwe	In 2015, 32.4% of the population was considered urban, the rest of the population, some 67.6% of the population was considered non-urban, or rural (OECD, 2016b).

Case study: Australian government theorising rurality through mapping

Revising rurality requires careful consideration of the tools – and the creation of the tools - used to demarcate rurality, with deep consideration given to the philosophical underpinnings used by those whose voice inform the construction of and use of the tools that define rurality. In Australia revising rurality requires accommodation of the use of land mass as a tool. The Australia Federal Health department understands rurality with reference to the *Australian standard geographical classification remoteness area map* (ABS [Data by region], 2019) that shows the 'major cities' of Australia as dots. It shows Australia as composed of four other areas, distinct from the major cities, considered to be 'rural'. These four areas are named 'inner regional', 'outer regional', 'remote' and 'very remote'. The latest Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Data by Region summary shows the total area of Australia to be 768,848,540 hectares (Ha)

and the 'greater area' of each of the major cities in Australia as 5,507,699 Ha (see Table 11, Column 2). The remaining 763,340,841 Ha, is considered to be rural and represents over 99% of the Australian continent.

Table 11 Geographic area of major Australian cities (Ha)

Column 1	Column 2
Major Cities / Country	Geographic Area in Ha (2011)
Greater Adelaide, South Australia	325,765
Greater Canberra, Australian Capital Territory	235,794
Greater Brisbane, Queensland	1,582,593
Greater Darwin, Northern Territory	316,390
Greater Hobart, Tasmania	169,546
Greater Melbourne, Victoria	999,052
Greater Sydney, New South Wales	1,236,773
Greater Perth, Western Australia	641,786
Total	5,507,699
Australia	768,848,540

Source (ABS [Data by region], 2019)

The Australian government use a map to distinguish between rural and non-rural contexts. The map is also used to inform creation of- and implementation of- policy, programs, and allocation of funding and resourcing. The map theorises 'rurality'. The map has power. Power over where health funding and resourcing is allocated across different areas of Australia where the allocation is based on what the map indicates to be areas that are more- or less- rural. Whose voice decides that the use of ABS data, a positivist epistemological positioning, be used to theorise geographic areas as more- or less- rural? Whose voice determines the appropriate level of funding required to meet the needs of those living in the different types of rural contexts? Of particular note there is a higher representation of Indigenous people, the more remote one is from a capital city. In Australia, 37% of Indigenous Australians live in one of eight capital cities (ABS, 2018). That is, 63% of Indigenous Australians live in rural contexts. Where lines drawn on a map are used to theorise rurality, does the theorising by the Australian government health department offer an example of institutionalised racism?

Case study: Scotland theorising rurality using population and distance

Revising rurality requires consideration of the perspectives and voices of those living rural. For no matter where someone lives, there are always people who can be considered to be living and working in contexts – that by comparison – are more- or less- rural. The Scotland government theorising of rurality is underpinned by an epistemology that uses positivist notions of *population numbers* and the *time* it takes to drive the *distance* to a place that is less rural, where there are a *greater number* and diversity of services (Scottish Government, 2014). This theorising referred to settlements of 125,000 people and over, as large urban areas. As a point of comparison, in South Australia, an area of some 983,482km², the only settlement with a population over 125,000 is the capital city of Adelaide. This comparison highlights, that using raw population figures to delineate rural from non-rural contexts is not a system that can always offer cross-nation-state comparison. The theorising also used drive time to a larger, less-rural settlement, of a set population (see Table 12). This relied on an assumption it is the large-urban-areas that are the point from which rurality is determined.

Revising rurality requires intellectual agility and flexibility in order to account for the different ways in which different nation-states theorise rurality and account for theorising of differences within and across rural contexts. The assumption that drive time can be used to theorise rurality is a notion that requires critique. The epistemology underpinning this theory, presumed rural people have wealth that affords them ownership of a vehicle reliable enough to drive the distance between settlements. It also presumed those living in rural contexts theorised rurality with reference to the time it takes to drive the distance to move to [escape to?] a 'less rural' context, where the non-rural is the place from which to theorise rurality. A further critique related to Indigenous people, for their spiritual centre can be the very remote rural contexts, whereas the non-rural contexts are remote from their 'centre'.

Table 12 Scottish Government Urban Rural Classification, 8-fold

Class	Class Name	Description
1	Large urban areas	Settlements of 125,000 people and over
2	Other urban areas	Settlements of 10,000 to 124, 999 people
3	Accessible small towns	Settlements of 3,000 to 9, 999 people, and within a 30-minute drive time of a Settlement of 10,000 or more
4	Remote small towns	Settlements of 3,000 to 9, 999 people, and with a drive time of over 30 minutes but less than or equal to 60 minutes to a Settlement of 10,000 or more
5	Very remote small towns	Settlements of 3,000 to 9, 999 people, and with a drive time of a over 60 minutes to a Settlement of 10,000 or more
6	Accessible rural areas	Areas with a population of less than 3,000 people, and within a drive time of 30 minutes to a Settlement of 10,000 or more
7	Remote rural areas	Areas with a population of less than 3,000 people, and with a drive time of over 30 minutes but less than or equal to 60 minutes to a Settlement of 10,000 or more
8	Very remote rural areas	Areas with a population of less than 3,000, and with a drive time of over 60 minutes to a Settlement of 10,000 or more

Source (Scottish Government, 2014, p. 5).

Revising rurality requires acknowledgement that theorising rurality cannot always translate across nation-states and that there is work to do to create theories of rurality that can translate across nation-states. The epistemology underpinning theorising rurality that presupposes routes between settlements are driveable requires critique. While it may be the case in Scotland, in many parts of the world, transport routes instead are only traversable by foot or boat. It can be argued Scotland is theorising rurality in ways that favour the epistemological views of those from countries with wealth to pave the roads, not for example, with epistemologies that favour the experience of people from countries in which infrastructure has been disrupted through inter-generational war, famine and the resulting extreme poverty, where it could be claimed, much of the disruption has been caused by decisions of wealthier countries. The epistemological underpinnings used in the Scotland example, privileges nation-states in which there is funding, knowledge, equipment to build paved transport systems. In much of rural South Australia, Indigenous people living in Aboriginal lands resident in the far north western corner of the state must have a reliable four-wheel-drive that can traverse 'roads' that are much less than simple dirt tracks, where the vehicle must have a long range petrol tank in order to travel the distances required to arrive at the next petrol station.

I suggest revisioning rurality can occur through positioning rural at the centre. I offer an example of revisioning rurality through an epistemological assumption that assumes ‘very remote rural’ is the reference point from which place is defined. I show it is possible (see Table 13) to invert the Scottish model, and theorise rural, through deliberately placing the most remote areas at the centre of the theorising. This inversion, relates to my deliberate use in this thesis of the phrase ‘non-rural’ in place of ‘urban’ for I theorise from the perspective that ‘rural’ is at the centre. Rennie and Billings (2016) explored this concept in relation to rural resilience in Scotland.

Table 13 Alternate to Table 12 Scottish Government Rural Non-Rural Classification 8-fold

Class	Class Name	Description
1	Very remote rural area	Areas with a population of less than 3,000
2	Remote rural areas	Areas with a population of less than 3,000 people, and with a drive time of less than 30 minutes to a Settlement of less than 3,000
3	Accessible rural areas	Areas with a population of less than 3,000 people, and within a drive time of over 30 minutes but less than or equal to 60 minutes to a Settlement of less than 3,000
4	Very remote small towns	Settlements of 3,000 to 9, 999 people, and with a drive time of less than 30 minutes to a Settlement of less than 3,000
5	Remote small towns	Settlements of 3,000 to 9, 999 people, and with a drive time of over 30 minutes but less than or equal to 60 minutes to a Settlement of less than 3,000
6	Accessible small towns	Settlement of 3,000 to 9,000 people, and with a drive time of over 60 minutes to a Settlement of less than 3,000
7	Other urban areas	Settlements of 10,000 to 124,999 people with a drive time of over 30 minutes but less than or equal to 60 minutes to a Settlement of less than 3,000
8	Large urban areas	Settlement of 125,000 people and over with a drive time of over 60 minutes to a Settlement of less than 3,000

Source: I created this with reference to the Scottish Government Urban Rural Classification, 8-fold (Scottish Government, 2014, p. 5).

Case study: OECD theorising rurality through population distribution

Revisioning rurality required acknowledgement that across the OECD, the majority of people and land exists in rural contexts. The OECD determined that 25% of the population across the OECD countries is living in rural regions, where the OECD define rural in relation to low population density and the absence of urban centres (OECD, 2018b). A further 26% of the OECD population lived in intermediate regions, characterised as near-urban rural areas or the rural-urban fringe. The majority of the population of the OECD, 51%, live in rural contexts. Also, 83% of land across the OECD countries is considered rural (OECD, 2018b). In the OECD the vast majority of land across the OECD is rural (OECD, 2019a) and the majority of people reside in rural contexts. Revisioning rurality highlights that policy and funding require decisions from

the OECD member-nation-states to reflect that the majority of their citizens live in rural contexts, therefore policy and funding allocation must preference rural people and rural contexts. This data offered a challenge and counter argument to the notion of authors who recommended ‘Re-harmonizing humans with the rest of the biotic community is a lofty goal, but may be attainable through a fundamental and radical shift in our thinking and ways of being together in an urbanizing world’ (Marshman, Blay-Palmer & Landman, 2019, p. 10). Can this claim be continued, is it accurate to suggest our world is urbanising, where current data (OECD, 2018b) shows it is not? Further, the OECD determined data regarding the distribution of citizens of its member-nation-states as defined as living in ‘rural’, ‘intermediate’ and ‘urban’ contexts (see Table 14). Theorising rurality by population distribution showed significant disparity between members. Ireland is the most ‘rural’ with 72.5% of the population residing rural, and the Netherlands is the most ‘urban[non-rural]’ with 85.1% of the population living in urban [non-rural] contexts. The difference in the percentage of the population across the OECD, who live rural and urban [non-rural] highlighted, theorising rurality must account for difference inherent in different ways in which rural contexts are theorised. Revisioning rurality shows that it is not possible to theorise rurality as if rurality is a generic notion.

Table 14 OECD nations' population distribution types

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
National population distribution most ‘rural’ OECD members	National population distribution most ‘intermediate’ OECD member	National population distribution most ‘urban’ OECD members
Ireland - 72.5%	Luxembourg - 100%	Netherlands - 85.1%
Finland - 59.1%	Czech Republic - 83%	Belgium - 83.4%
Slovenia - 56.2%	Estonia - 79%	United Kingdom - 70%
OECD average - 25.1%	OECD average - 26%	OECD average - 48.2%

Data taken from OECD. (2018b). *National Area Distribution (Indicator)*. Paris: OECD Publishing. Retrieved from https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/urban-rural-and-regional-development/national-population-distribution/indicator/english_7314f74f-en

Theorising rurality: through poverty

Revisioning rurality requires acknowledgement of the deficit: extreme rural poverty with the view to addressing institutionalised, endorsed and deliberate systematic practices that trap the extreme poor into extreme poverty. The paper presented to the UN entitled *UN Expert Group Meeting on Eradication Rural Poverty to implement the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in 2019* (UN, 2019b) offered sobering

information regarding the links between rurality and poverty (see Table 15). This followed 2018, the first year in which billionaires in the USA paid a lower tax rate than the lowest wages earners in the USA (Kelly, 2019, October 11). The 2019 UN report noted that reliance on agriculture makes the rural ‘extreme poor’ highly vulnerable to climatic shocks and weather events. The rural ‘extreme poor’ are often landless, operate small plots and have poor quality land. This creates a system that locked the extreme poor into cycles of extreme poverty. It was found that conflict and climate change constituted key challenges to the eradication of rural poverty. Climate change related events, such as drought, flooding, and severe storms, fire, disproportionately affected rural communities living in extreme poverty who lacked resources and had low adaptive capacity to cope with the impacts of climate stresses and shocks. As the world increasingly notes the impact of climate change and conflict on economic systems, such events could push an additional 100 million into poverty if no adequate action is taken (FAO, 2018).

Table 15 UN eradication on rural poverty

Most of the extreme poor – about 80 % – live in rural areas	Castaneda et al., 2018
Almost half of the extreme poor, about 45%, are children younger than 15 years old	Castaneda et al., 2018
About one-third of the rural extreme poor is made up of Indigenous, tribal and caste groups	Hall & Patrinos, 2014
The rural extreme poor (like the urban poor) are ‘hidden’ in non-poor families due to intra-household dynamics and inequality which is the case for many rural women and children.	UN, 2019b, p. 4

Case study: the World Bank

By definition and existence, the World Bank is a capitalist enterprise. The positivist epistemology that values quantifiable amounts of money, informs the work of the World Bank and informs the work of those who engage with the data, research, publications and theories that references the Word Bank. The World Bank theorises rurality through poverty. It showed rurality and poverty are integrally linked.

Poor households are overwhelmingly located in rural areas, have a large number of children, and suffer from a lack of education. They are ill-served in essential elements of well-being such as health care and sanitation, and often are exposed to natural hazards and physical insecurity (World Bank, 2018b, p. 1).

In the 2016 fiscal year, the World Bank classified developing countries as middle-high, middle-low, and low-income countries based on income in dollars, separated by Gross National Income (GNI) per capita, as illustrated in Table 16 (World Bank, 2016).

Table 16 2016 World Bank defining poverty

Level of income	Gross National Income (GNI) per capita
Low-income economies	GNI per capita, lower than \$1045
Middle-income economies	GNI per capita between \$1045 and \$12,736
High-income economies	GNI per capita of \$12,736 or more

Source (World Bank, 2016).

In 2018, the World Bank theorising of rurality and ways of measuring poverty changed, to encompass more than money, theorising not only by low income, but also low consumption, low educational achievement, poor health and nutritional outcomes, lack of access to basic services and a hazardous living environment. With reference to the updated modelling (see Table 17), findings showed that in 2018, 46% of the world's population were classified in the 'upper-middle-income' band and lived on less than \$USD5.50 / day (World Bank, 2018b, p. 7), whereas 25% of the world's population were classified in the 'lower-income' band and lived on less than \$USD3.20 / day (World Bank, 2018a, p. 7). It was noted that regions of the Middle East and North Africa, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa, despite progress in reducing their poverty rates, saw more people were living on less than US\$5.50 in 2015 when compared with 1990 due to the growth of populations (World Bank, 2018b, p. 7). In 2019 the World Bank had 189 member countries (World Bank, 2019) and classified countries into one of four income groups, high, upper-middle, lower-middle and low (World Bank, 2018a) by assigning a GNI per capita amount calculated using the Atlas Method for the measure and listed the threshold in \$USD (see Table 18). The three tables (Table 16, Table 17 and Table 18) showed that the ways in which the World Bank theorised rural poverty has changed over time. When citing research that references the work of the World Bank, it is important authors connect the work they are citing, to the theorising of rurality and rural poverty through which the World Bank was operating at the time the World Bank published the findings that authors are citing.

Table 17 2018 World Bank defining poverty

Level of poverty	Peoples' earnings \$USD/day
Extreme-poverty	people earn below \$USD1.90 / day
Lower-income-country	people earn below \$USD3.20 / day
Upper-middle-income country	people earn below \$USD5.50 / day

Source (World Bank, 2018a)

Table 18 World Bank GNI incomes 2019

Threshold	GNI/Capita (current \$USD)
Low-income	<996
Lower-middle income	996 – 3,895
Upper-middle income	3,896 – 12,055
High-income	>12,055

Source (World Bank, 2018a).

Revising rurality requires articulation of the link between rurality and poverty – not to forward a deficit view of the rural – but to account for data that shows people who live in rural contexts live in poverty when compared to those living in non-rural contexts. Of significance, globally, extreme poverty continues to be disproportionately and overwhelmingly rural. The poverty rate in rural areas is 17.2% which the World Bank noted is more than three times as high as that in urban areas which is only 5.3%. Approximately 54% of the world's population live in rural contexts the rural areas account for 79% of the total numbers of people living in poverty (World Bank, 2018b, p. 38). When talking about the 'monetary poor', rates are as high as 81.3% of the 'monetary poor' are living in rural areas (World Bank, 2018b, p. 102). The World Bank noted that most of the world's poor live in middle-income countries. That in 2019, 10% of adults around the world hold 85% of the wealth (Shorrocks, Davies & Lluberas, 2018, p.8) requires deep and immediate critique and correction. Particularly poignant when later data highlights it is the rural poor who are producing the food that will keep alive the 10% who are holding 85% of the wealth.

Case study: Liberia, Ebola, Uganda, Climate Change and food security

Revising rurality requires agility to account for unexpected activity, due to unforeseen events. A case study from Liberia highlights that revising rurality requires acknowledgement of disruption to the natural rural elements due to impacts from the likes of climate change, outbreak of disease, and war. Research showed that in Liberia, 72% of the rural population is 'poor' (De La Fuente, Jacoby & Lawin, 2019, p. 2), compared with 32% in urban areas and that during the Ebola crisis of 2014–2016, rural poverty increased from 70% to 82%. The authors showed that the mechanism for the increase in poverty was 'novel' - a fear of congregating in groups and contracting Ebola, which disrupted worker mobilisation and led to severe labour shortages, depressing rice production (resulting in lower levels of food impacting on economics) and ultimately negatively impacting on rural welfare (De La Fuente, Jacoby & Lawin, 2019, p. 20). The outbreak of disease is not novel, the notion that people reacted to the disease by not congregating, leading to lower food production and lower incomes is noteworthy.

De La Fuente, Jacoby and Lawin (2019) investigated the impact of Ebola on Liberian people and agricultural production of food. Agriculture makes up 38.8% of Liberia's GDP and employs more than 70% of the population (De La Fuente, Jacoby & Lawin, 2019, p. 8). In 2016 rice yields were significantly lower in areas impacted by Ebola. Interruptions to food production meant that three-quarters of the rural population had no food and no income. De La Fuente and colleagues called for a focus on the availability of agricultural labour for critical and time-sensitive tasks such as planting and harvesting, which normally required a degree of worker coordination and mobilization (2019, p. 3). De La Fuente, Jacoby and Lawin noted that in times of crisis, such as the outbreak of Ebola, people do not move to produce the food. They noted this needs to be addressed, to ensure in future, people can access food to stay alive.

Revising rurality involves incorporation of knowledge about the ways in which the world responds to rising levels of poverty in rural contexts impacted by the effects of health pandemics and climate change. The World Bank (2018b) showed that in many low-income countries, the bottom 40% of the population live on less than \$USD1.90 a day and disproportionately lived in rural areas, making them vulnerable to

disruptions caused by pandemics and climate change. Uganda, for example, suffered significant setbacks in poverty reduction and shared prosperity largely due to droughts and pests that affected harvests starting in 2016. Uganda's poverty rate rose from 35.9 % in 2012 to 41.6 % in 2016 (World Bank, 2018b, p. 5). The extreme poverty rate is higher among agricultural workers, and they constitute almost two-thirds of the extreme poor.

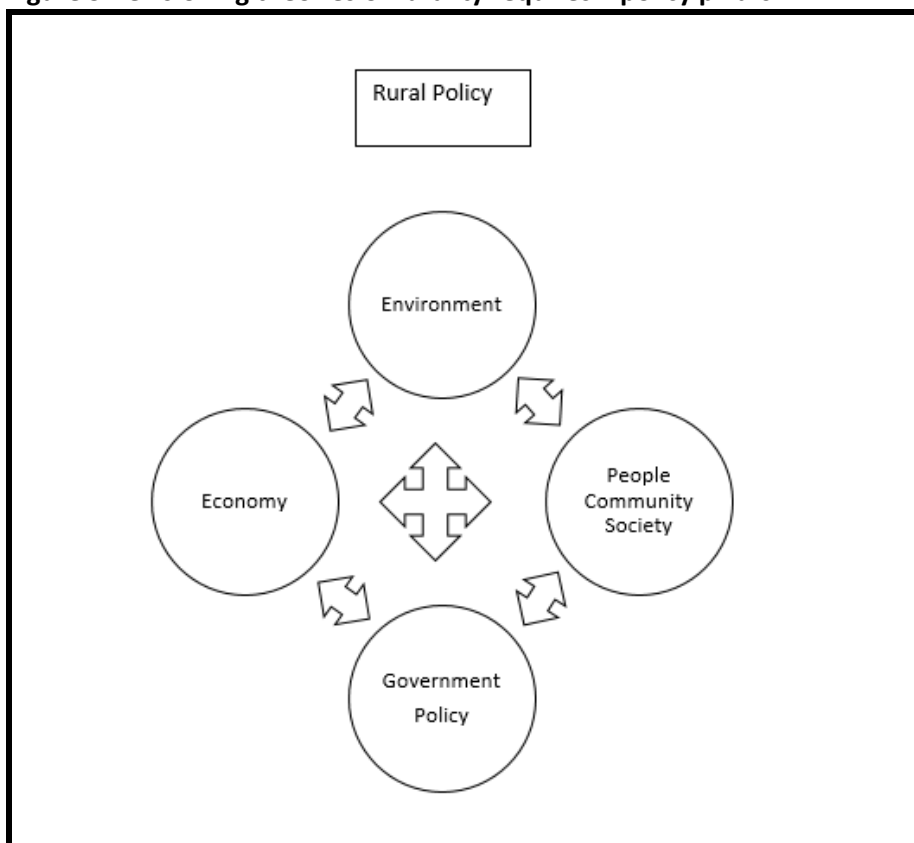
Disruptions to rurality suggests revisioning is required, particularly through the changes to national borders. In 2018, 17.2 million people were forced to flee due to extreme weather events such as cyclones, droughts, bushfires and floods (UNHCR, NDa). In 2019 we saw half of India without water in their homes. Parts of Pakistan and the pacific islands became uninhabitable because the fresh water was contaminated with salt water due to rising sea levels. Humanity needs to find place for these people to live. Ironically, mobility transnational discourses and discourses of globalisation place inability to migrate as an individualised failure according to standards of success that emphasise the importance of mobility (Farrugia, 2014; Tse & Waters, 2013). The nations enacting narrow knowledge systems, to increase wealth, without regard for climate change, now need to account for their systems and create policies in which they accommodate those who now must move in order to stay alive, because the earths' climate has rendered the lands to which they are indigenous, unliveable.

Theorising rurality: through policy

Revisioning rurality requires four pillars (see Figure 9) with articulation of the importance of the inclusion of government policy. Good governance plays an important role in policy processes because it can facilitate and enable joint decision making and enhancing the legitimacy and credibility of the policies (IRC, 2011). The current (OECD, 2017b) *OECD Rural Policy 3.0 – Implementing the New Rural Paradigm*, theorised rurality with reference to 'Wellbeing considering multiple dimensions of i) the economy; ii) the society; and iii) the environment'. The use of this model is supported by Tomaney, Krawchenko and McDoland (2019) when planning for rural contexts in the context of multi-level government systems. I argue the OECD add a fourth element 'iv) government policy'. Evidence confirms a growing consensus developing in the literature

that 'rural consciousness' is a predominant way in which many Americans recognize and make sense of politics (Cramer, 2016). Policy decisions impact on rurality. Rurality impacts on politics. Revisioning rurality must highlight how government response through policy development - and lack of policy development - impact rurality. For as nation-states step back from the problems that appear too big for nation-state governments to address, business, industry, innovation, and individuals exploit the natural rural elements, humans and human systems for commercial profit benefiting a few. Work that traditionally, has been the work of government to address these matters has been privatised.

Figure 9 Revisioning theories of rurality requires 4 policy pillars



Revisioning theories of rurality require moving to a system in which exogenous policy and endogenous policy - a bottom-up - top-down approach - occurs to create policy for rurality. In revisioning rurality, I offer case studies that highlight how (lack of) government policy across the world is to the detriment of rurality. The case studies highlight the *modus operandi* of multinational agribusiness, mining and energy oligarchies that operate in rural contexts where government policy inaction, facilitates the systematic destruction of rurality. Multinationals (not local rural companies) extract commercial rural assets for the purpose of

distributing profit amongst shareholders (not local rural people), with little regard for the health and sustainability of natural rural elements, rural people and human systems. When prices for commodities extracted from rural contexts drop below profit margins acceptable to shareholders, multinationals exit rural communities, leaving the responsibility and the cost of social and environmental remediation, to the rural communities. Local rural people lose the rural asset, do not gain from the sale of the commodified rural asset and bear the cost of remediation of the natural rural elements. A triple cost to those in rural contexts. It is time for rurality to be included in the creation of policy that relates to their rurality.

Revisiting rurality through policy shows people in rural contexts are required in the development of policies that impact rurality. Research has shown that rural communities faced different barriers and concerns related to implementing policy and that rural people were often excluded from or forgotten when forming public policy (Lynch, Logan & Jackson, 2018). Ng'ombe, Keivani, Stubbs and Mattingly (2012) showed that in Zambia, social and cultural norms that subordinate the views of rural communities to those of traditional leaders lowered the interest of rural communities in participating in policy processes in Zambia. Research recommended policy makers be cognizant of the differences between rural and urban (Lynch et al., 2018). Yami et al. (2019) showed that where policy is co-designed and co-owned by the entire sector, it will function like a road map to which all agree. Research has shown that regional communities are best placed to identify and plan for their priorities, future challenges and opportunities (McDonald, 2014) for 'people still solve the challenges of everyday life in geographically bounded communities' (Shucksmith & Brown, 2016, p. 664). For decades, the number of facilities in many western European rural areas has been steadily declining (Woods, 2011). Some argue place-based policy development generally be understood as bottom-up community development approaches, based on inputs from local actors and other community capital assets (Sørensen, 2018). Lanker et al. (2019) noted societal pressure (p. 384) on the work of the European Common Agricultural Policy through the public demanding the policy provide food and environmental services including clean water, pollination, pest-control, aesthetic value and cultural services (p. 384). People in rural contexts are well placed to create policy for rural contexts.

Revisioning rurality requires recognition of the intersection of rural and non-rural contexts. Pratt and Warner (2019) have taken Bronfenbrenner's human ecological framework (1979), and connected it with the concept of the torus, to illustrate ways in which the micro-scale (family), the meso-scale (community and regional), and the macro-scale (national and global) are connected. In doing so, Pratt and Warner, importantly, illustrated how the three systems work together, are interdependent on one another and are linked to partner concepts of community well-being and active citizenship. They used the torus to illustrate there are 'alternatives to neoliberalism that build community well-being and a sense of place' (Pratt & Warner, 2019, p. 284) in rural highland Ecuador. The torus illustrated that rural and non-rural contexts are interlinked, interdependent and interconnected.

Theorising rurality: through land ownership and rural planning

Rurality is a valuable commodity. And as the OECD data showed us, much of the land in any nation-state sits in rurality. Further, it is the rural assets that can be commercialised, are valuable and monetised. The natural rural elements, people and human systems are also valuable, but to which it is more difficult to attach a monetary value. Indeed, can natural rural elements, humans and human systems be commodified for sale; can social, cultural or spiritual human systems be traded? Can the value of soil health be calculated and traded? The range of commercial rural assets and natural rural elements across rural contexts are valuable for different reasons to different people and different organisations. Revisioning rurality requires work that can place monetary value on natural rural assets, rural people and rural human systems. I advocate, it is only when all four aspects are valued through the same epistemological framework (at the moment neoliberal capitalism) that they can be traded like-for-like. There is work regarding a global price on carbon and there are those that advocate for the costing of the green economy (Brabazon, 2019, July 21) and blue economy (Brabazon, 2019, May 31). It is time to calculate the value of nature with parity to a stock-exchange.

Revisoning rurality requires the exposure of systemic practices that lock people into- and lock people out of- rural land ownership. Revisoning rurality requires advocating to governments for policy and planning to ensure equity of access to rural land and the assets connected to that land. At the heart of the commercial rural asset, arguably the most valuable rural commodity is 'land'. Land represents a connection to place, a source of security, both a source and repository of wealth, and—when ownership is highly concentrated—a source of considerable power (Gunnoe, Bailey & Ameyaw, 2018). Rennie offered the concept of *Buntanas* as a way of exploring this notion,

Buntanas expresses sense of belonging, now simply in the present, but the concept of a person or community of people belonging to a certain area of land, a communal sense of embeddedness, and rootedness through family lineage and history of a community who belong to a certain place. This is contradistinction to the more usual Western concept of the land belonging to an individual person, of people owning the land in its entirety (Rennie, 2018, p. 1).

Some own land. Some do not, cannot and will never be able to afford land. Across the globe, the value of- and ownership of- land is contested. A case study from the USA shows those with land, systematically perpetuate a framework of inequity, wherein the land is locked into intergenerational family ownership, thereby denying others access to land, in perpetuity. Individuals identifying as white own 98% of all USA farmland (Calo, 2016, October 28) with 79% planning to lock the land into family trusts, thereby ensuring ownership remains with white families. A case study from Scotland, shows land ownership has the most concentrated pattern of private land ownership in Europe (McKenna, 2013). In 2014, the population of Scotland was 5,347,600 (Crown, 2020) so when their research was published, (Hunter et al., 2014) it showed that 50% of Scotland's privately-owned land was in the possession of a mere 432 landowners which illustrated a very small percentage of 0.008% of Scottish citizens owned a very large 50% of Scotland's privately-owned land; land rich in rural assets. Work by Rennie and Billing (2015) investigated ways in which land re-distribution can occur. A case study of Brazil, showed foreign investment in land of 'emerging market' countries like Brazil can be critiqued as 'land grabbing' and a threat to national sovereignty (Fernandes & Welch, 2019, p. 893). In the USA, a recent USDA report (USDA, 2016) on real estate prices showed that as urbanization spread into rural areas, since 1992, rural developers have steadily

increased farm real estate values (Flachs & Abel, 2019; Nickerson et al., 2012). Revisioning rurality requires accounting for ways in which rural land is owned.

Revisioning rurality must account for systems set up to empower and redress inequities for those in rural contexts wherein those same systems fail the people they were intended to support. A case study from Zimbabwe (Mkodzongi & Lawrence, 2019) showed attempts to redistribute land in Zimbabwe did not work to the benefit of the people Indigenous to the land. The land redistribution enlarged the peasantry and expanded the number of mid-sized farms, while downsizing the number, farm size and area of large-scale capitalist farms, as well as the agro-industrial estates (Moyo, 2011, p. 944). However, the study showed land tenure security became a major issue, with those offered land wanting creditworthy tenures. The inability of the new farmers to leverage loans from the banks affected agricultural investment while the government failed to provide financial support to farmers. This saw the white farmers return, albeit indirectly, through contract farming arrangements. The policy failed its aim.

Rural cracking and rural revisioning

As I researched theories of ruralities, it became clear that theories of rurality were cracking. The following explores examples of ways in which rurality has been theorised wherein the exploration shows how current rurality exposes cracks in the theories offering evidence that it is timely to revision rurality.

Rural gentrification

Revisioning rurality requires consideration of the disruption rural gentrification causes rurality. Stockdale (2010) suggested Glass coined the term 'gentrification' in 1964. It has been claimed rural gentrification makes up only a small portion of the current literature about the topic (González, 2017; Mamonova & Sutherland, 2015). That is, how gentrification occurred in rural contexts has not been as deeply examined as gentrification in non-rural contexts. Inner cities are recognized in urban gentrification literature, for becoming desirable for their locations and housing conditions, whereas the countryside attracts newcomers with its promise of rural idyll (see also Ghose, 2004; Mamonova & Sutherland, 2015; Solana-

Solana, 2010). Stockdale shared how other forms of gentrification that expand beyond the rural-urban dichotomy have emerged, such as super-gentrification (Butler & Lees, 2006), studentification (Qian, He & Liu, 2013; Smith & Holt, 2007) and tourism gentrification (Chan et al., 2016). Clark (2005) theorised gentrification as 'a change in the population of land-users such that the new users are of a higher socio-economic status than the previous users, together with an associated change in the built environment through a reinvestment in fixed capital' (p. 263). We see this in rural contexts where people bring their money into rural communities and disrupt status quo. Shin et al. (2016) described gentrification as 'the commodification of space accompanying land use changes in such a way that it produces indirect / direct / physical / symbolic displacement of existing users and owners by more affluent groups' (p. 458). Zhao (2019) showed how gentrification emphasised movement of capital rather than people (Darling, 2005; Philips, 2005) while others explored the making of gentrifiers, arguing that lifestyle and consumption practices are the impetus of gentrification (Hamnett, 1991; Philips, 1993). In a case study from China, Zhao's (2019) grounded research highlighted how gentrification of the rural village changed socio-cultural-economic elements of the rural community. The work showed the success of the gentrification of rurality relied on those who currently live rural being willing and able to move into spaces more rural, to accommodate those gentry who are moving into rural contexts. The process of gentrification assumed those who are gentrifying rural contexts either move their money, themselves or both into rural contexts to enjoy rural life. The gentrifiers expected and assumed rural people will accommodate the changes they bring to the rural contexts. Theorising rurality through rural gentrification brings into play other theories of rurality including out-migration of rural people, affordable rural housing, loss of rural employment and the disruption to growing food.

Rural idyllic

Revising rurality requires acknowledgement that theorising rurality as idyll, no longer represents rural contexts. Research highlighted the mythology associated with theorising rurality as 'idyllic' occurred through notions of idyllic rurality that no longer exist. The reality of rurality, as shown throughout this thesis, is that rural life is tough - and tough across the entire world. Bakhtin traced the theory of the rural

idyll through literary history and distinguished four genres that contribute to the theory, the love idyll (whose basic form is the pastoral), the idyll with a focus on agricultural labour, the idyll dealing with craft-work and the family idyll (Bakhtin, 1996, p. 224). While the theory has altered through time, Bakhtin showed a core notion of idyllic remains, that being a 'small but secure and stable little world of the family, where nothing is foreign, or accidental or incomprehensible' (Bakhtin, 1996, p. 232) with a 'special emphasis on the unmechanised nature of idyllic labor' (Bakhtin, 1996, p. 227, p. 233). Bakhtin associated older forms of the idyll with the 'unity of the life of generations' (1996, p. 225) and patriarchy (1996, p. 231). Little and Austin (1996, p. 106) showed how the theory supported the notion that the 'woman of the rural idyll are the wife and mother, not the high-flying professional'. Other scholars showed how the rural idyll functions as a 'receptacle for national identity' (Bell, 2006, p. 151; DuPuis, 2006). Other elements included the close-knit family unit, close-knit wider community, the healthy rural environment, economic stability and secure jobs, living in one's own property, living in an area thought of as rural, having a partner, or being retired and being a homemaker (Vávra et al., 2018).

A case study from the Netherlands (Peeren & Souch, 2019), showed ways in which the 'reality' television show, *Farmer wants a wife* reinforced the theory through the use of iconography depicting images associated with idyllic rural contexts. Peeren and Souch (2019) noted theorising rural as 'idyllic' presented as a 'mystification' of rural that aimed to naturalise and legitimatise particular social relations, rendering it a 'cultural fantasy' (Short, 2006, p. 144) or 'myth' (Haigron, 2017). Important to recognise, current rural life does not marry with the theory of the rural idyllic, for it must account for the high levels of rural unemployment, crime, and poverty (Somerville et al., 2015; Key, 2013). It was shown that reinforcing the mythology of 'rural idyllic', negatively impacted the health and wellbeing of rural people, which was attributed to the gap between the expectations reinforced by the rural idyll and the realities of rural life (Watkins & Jacoby, 2007; Matthews et al., 2000). Theorising rurality through the romantic mythology of the rural idyll has harmful effects on the health of people. This may be lost on the viewing audience for as Beach and colleagues showed, urban estrangement from rurality is coupled to an urban romanticizing of nature (Beach et al., 2019).

Agrarian citizenship

As nations across the world engage in Treaties and land use agreements, revisioning rural agrarianism requires consideration of notions of power concerning the ways in which land is handed back, the management of the handing back of the land, and the health of the land that is handed back. An examination of scholarship highlighted how diverse are research findings about the success, and not, regarding the reality of agrarian rurality (see Table 19).

Table 19 Theorising agrarian rurality

Local networks advocate 'buying local', facilitating new modes of labour, mobilization and markets (Van der Ploeg, Jingzhong & Schneider, 2012)
Communities leave urbanizing areas for rural land (Brock & Barham, 2015)
People develop 'rural identity' (Lockyer & Benson 2011; Weiss 2016)
There is an emerging agrarian bourgeoisie in Zimbabwe (Mkodzongi & Lawrence, 2019)
Vietnam's Post-1975 Agrarian Reforms highlight one size does not fit all when it comes to socialist agricultural reform (Azizuddin, 2019)
In South America, research shows how rural people turn the Fazenda da Barra from a green desert to a thriving, innovative farm community (Cubas, 2017).
Agrarian farmers spoke in the collective voice (Kohl & Farthing, 2013)
Agrarian citizenship can be difficult where farmers' suicide over agrarian debt (Stone, 2011)
The <i>latifundia</i> concept defines the worst characteristics of agrarian capitalism, in which private property rights are more valuable than human rights and productivity more highly valued than sustainability. In Brazil, <i>latifundia</i> might be economically active, as in the case of cattle grazing, but serve little societal utility other than to enrich its owners (Fernandes & Welch, 2019)
Social capital components (social networks, interpersonal trust, social reciprocity, and social participation) impact on the willingness of farmers to cooperate in collective small-scale irrigation in Guangling County, Shanxi Province of China (Miao, Heijman, Zhu, Qiao & Lu, 2018, p. 882).
Impacts from the Agrarian Reform Social Movement in the state of São Paulo, Brazil (Fernandes & Welch, 2019).
Contributed to valorising rural places, tarnishing the brilliance of big city life as a universal goal
Were accompanied by a greater demand for the consumption of cleaner, healthier and less wasteful food production
Saw an increasing number of consumers who sought to reduce their consumption of toxic pesticides, hormones, antibiotics, and impact on other technological and chemical interventions in food production
Saw demand for locally produced, seasonal foods grow with changes to the agrarian movement
Saw the food sovereignty movement respond to the demand, by broadening criticism of industrial and corporate agriculture, in an attempt to diminish its capacity to territorialise geographical and political 'space'

Revisioning rurality through agrarianism requires acknowledgement of the empowerment of the people once the invaders / colonisers hand back the land. A case study noted that South Africa's theorising of agrarianism is oriented towards an agrarian socialism, with farming offering marginalized communities and households a means to becoming self-sufficient (Cardno Agrisystems Limited, 2008; Hall, 2010). Agrarian transformation has been linked to improved land reform programme and strategic investments in economic and social infrastructure that benefit entire rural communities (FAO, 2010). Chikozho, Makombe and Milondzo, 2019 concluded that discourses on land reform and agrarian transformation are located within a broader theoretical space that is directly related to the need to improve the livelihoods of emerging black small-scale commercial farmers in poor rural area contexts wherein land reform in South Africa will only be effective if embedded within a broader programme of systematically restructuring the

agrarian rural economy. That is, agrarian theorising rurality must now be linked with other theories of rurality.

Rural colonialism

Revising rurality requires careful consideration of contemporary forms of colonial activity that re-establish inequities of land sales, land acquisition and land use. A case study from the USA offers an example of colonialism through cultural bias, exposed by research that showed the impact on Vietnamese who migrated to the USA. The families worked in the fields in the USA as they would in Vietnam. The USA justice department was called to the farms, and spoke only English, to explain to the family members they were breaking the law, because they had unpaid workers in their fields – their children (Carolan, 2018). This offers an example of what Fernandes and Welch (2019) describe as conflicts between capitalist and non-capitalist social relations of production, such as the use of family labour in peasant agriculture.

Community wellbeing

Revising rurality requires intellectual investment into the ways in which to apply a value, perhaps monetary, to the wellbeing of rural communities; where the valuable elements of rural wellbeing are decided upon in co-creation with the people living and working in each unique rural context. Theories of rurality relating to community wellbeing abound. Community wellbeing is understood internationally as moving beyond a simple measure of employment and material living standards to include access to health, education, political voice, and governance, as well as social connections, environmental protection, and economic and physical security (Stiglitz, Sen & Fitoussi, 2010). Infrastructural investment, as the basis for growth, has been a central tenet of rural development theory, but has been criticised for giving insufficient attention to social, political, cultural, and spatial factors (World Bank, 2009a). Recent work on rurality emphasized the importance of five factors, shared ownership of the means of production, access to regional markets, city investments in the rural hinterland, local connections and intersectoral diversification, and public investment in infrastructure (Berdegué et al., 2015). Shucksmith (2018) argued

that the 'good countryside' involved networked rural development that included active citizens and an engaged state.

Rural community attachment

Revising ruralities require theories that reflect the current state of play contextualised to the rural contexts being researched. Revising rurality requires cognizance of attachment to place and requires critique of romanticised myths about the nature of the rural community. In the 2000's, it was found there was a sense of feeling grounded in a community (Brown, 2003; Theodori & Luloff, 2000). It has been found that living in small towns generated greater knowledge about and trust of community members, through overlapping social connections and similarity in background and personal characteristics that deepen both creation of and maintenance of attachment (Besser, 2009). Most recently (2019) community attachment has been defined as the sense of being connected to community life (Flagg & Painter, 2019, p. 226). Research showed, the social orientation of residents living in remote areas is more inwardly oriented (Gieling, Haartsen & Vermeij, 2019). A case study from Finland, showed that in the main, younger respondents with no family, employment or education were drawn to the prospects of the non-rural environment, whereas rural areas appealed to older people who had families and an education (Kuhmonen et al., 2016) who valued 'the safety, the appropriate balance between privacy and communality, the nature connection and their own property for various activities and for the spacious rural lifestyle' (Kuhmonen et al., 2016, p. 97).

Cervone showed how the selfishness of the neoliberal ideology takes away from the shared responsibility for the community at large (Cervone, 2018, p. 30). As ownership of land, the use of land, and the rural assets are internationally commercialised, becoming the property of the multinational, there is a disconnect between rural people and their land. This attachment to place and community can be broken. The advent of the Fly-In-Fly-Out (FIFO) workers, who provide specialist knowledge and skills to particular business and industry, disrupt the notion that everyone living and working in the rural town know each other. Geographic connection and social connection with- and disconnect from- community no longer

needs to be a defining element of rurality, because, rurality through the lens of attachment to rural community is cracking. Rural community members have virtual communities to which they belong. Rural people can now connect online through social media, around the world, in real time. People from different rural and non-rural contexts can be linked through the imagined community (Anderson, 2006).

Revisoning rurality through online- and social- media

In 2019, people scrolled through social media and saw pictures of rural contexts devastated by unprecedented results of climate change. Rurality was connected at once to those living in rural and non-rural contexts, through the online global imagined community. The northern hemisphere summer of 2019, saw unprecedented amounts of water melting from Greenland ice; the forests in Russia, the arctic and Australia were burning in ways that were too great to control. Reindeer and polar bear were starving in the arctic, and a deadly heat wave swept through European countries. The impacts of climate change were made immediate to those living non-rural as 600 million people in Chennai, India ran out of water and rural Australian bushfires smoke made breathing difficult in Sydney. The call to 'Strike for the climate' by Greta Thunberg linked young people around the world from rural and non-rural contexts, to one another. Their concern for rural environments brought them together as members of a global movement. They understood their very survival, their air, food and water, depend on healthy rural environments.

Movement of people

Revisoning ruralities requires consideration of the movement of people. Reasons for in-migration include desire to return to the rural environment and can be evident in the later stages of life (Kuhmonen et al., 2016). Some return after exploring other work opportunities in urban areas (Mkodzongi & Lawrence, 2019, p. 10). Rurality is theorised as being impacted by the aging population. Research showed that Germany, Italy, Poland, Russia, and Japan are experiencing natural decreases in their populations through more deaths occurring than births (Doteuchi, 2006; Haub & Kaneda, 2014; Münz, 2006; Nikitina, 2000). In rural Japan, population is aging, declining and fertility rates are declining (Kimiko & Iwasawa, 2010). South Korea

is soon set to join (Heo & Poston, 2018). Europe and the USA saw a decrease in rural citizens between 2000 and 2010 of 58% and 28% respectively (Johnson & Winkler, 2015).

People move into- and out of- rural contexts. This is linked to other theories of rurality, including rural poverty, lack of access to services, including education, health and transport. Increasingly, there is an acceleration of people who need to move to ensure they have adequate access to a healthy air, employment, energy, food, health care, ocean, shelter, safety, soil, spiritual support networks and water. Others move to rurality for tourism, retirement and as members of the FIFO workforce. Papadopoulos (2019) found that in rural areas, and more particularly, remote areas, the global financial crisis (GFC) increased depopulation due to the increased out-migration of youth and especially women. Research illustrated factors for youth out-migration such as social or cultural factors including the 'desire to achieve independence or experience an alternative environment' (Campbell, 2017, p. 48), some of which I share below (see Table 20). Reasons for out-migration in Europe include low profitability and competitiveness of agricultural enterprises (Lasanta et al., 2017) and in Brazil, mechanisation has lowered the number of people required facilitating exploitation of seasonal and migrant workers (Fernandes & Welch, 2019).

Table 20 Reasons for out-migration of rural youth

Kloep notes, the question about whether ‘to stay or to go’ is closely intertwined with, and crucial to, personal constructs, identity formation and social relationships, as well as educational and occupational considerations, as young people view the challenges and risks of social change	Kloep et al., 2003, p. 107
Graduates whose parents have lower-level positions have a higher tendency to return to their rural residences	Rye, 2011
Out-migration is highly selective of young adults, leaving behind an aging-in-place older population that is increasingly unable to replace itself	Johnson & Winkler, 2015
Postgraduate students have chosen not to work in agriculture-related jobs not because they are well suited to other jobs, but because they believe that a higher quality of life and higher earnings are available only in careers outside rural regions	Bednařková, Bavorová & Ponkina, 2016 Kashnitsky, Mkrtchyan & Leshokov, 2016
Out-migration of young people from rural areas is evident in a Scottish context	Hall, 2007 Stockdale, 2002
Out-migration of young people from rural areas is evident in a North-West European context	Thissen et al., 2010
The main reason for the out-migration of young people tended to be for education purposes and this was followed by the need to move for employment opportunities	Stockdale, 2002
Sweden young people from rural areas who would like to continue their studies beyond mandatory education, which is the majority, tend to have to move to more centralised areas	Rosvall et al., 2018
Labour market is also seen to be more limited in rural locations	Rosvall et al., 2018
Rural students are less likely to leave town to go to university and get a degree	Zarifa, Hango & Milian, 2018
Seeking suitable employment is an important push-factor. In Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland, those with high levels of education are encouraged to find employment <i>not</i> with family members on a farm	Chaplin, Davidova, & Gorton, 2004

Revising rurality requires decentralised approaches to tertiary education, with the movement of tertiary institutions into rural contexts. Chambers (2020) explores reasons rural students in the USA are less likely than non-urban students to go on to post-secondary education. Two significant reasons young people out-migrate are for employment and to pursue education (Rosvall et al., 2018), both of which are underpinned by notions associated with the 6-meta-impacts. Young people need to develop understandings within the narrow knowledge system, and need to find employment and earn money. Rural contexts benefit when young people stay in rural contexts, for when young people leave rural contexts, the rural communities lose the contribution those young people might have made to build the capacity and the population. However, rural contexts also benefit from young people with formal education, skills and capacities gained from post-compulsory education. Research showed that living rural impacted the decision young people made about accessing tertiary education (Zarifa, Hango & Milian, 2018; Spiess & Wrohlich, 2010; Looker & Naylor, 2009). Research also highlighted the role teachers’ play with respect to inspiring rural students to engage in postsecondary education (Chambers, Crumb & Harris, 2019). In 2019, the Australian Government Department of Education conducted a review into *National Regional, Rural and Remote Education Strategy*

(Commonwealth of Australia, 2019). There were seventy-six submissions, one of which was mine, in which I advocated for a tertiary institution in my local rural community. Research showed, access to tertiary education is a main factor regarding the out-migration of young people from rural contexts (see Table 21). Providing quality tertiary education in rural contexts may stem this out-flow, indeed may pull young people to rural areas in which there is a university.

Table 21 Impacts on rural students’ decisions to connect with tertiary study

When accounting for distance, students in large urban areas remained 50% more likely to attend university than their rural counterparts.	Zarifa, Hango & Milian, 2018
Canada’s Youth in Transition Survey data, found that the distance to the nearest university had a negative relationship with university enrolment. For every log point increase in distance (36 kilometres), students were 1.7 percentage points less likely to enrol	Zarifa, Hango & Milian, 2018 Newbold & Brown, 2015
In Germany, proximity to a university at the time of high school graduation influenced post-secondary education enrolment, even after controlling for socioeconomic and regional variables	Spiess & Wrohlich, 2010
A longitudinal survey to examine the life-course transitions of youth in rural areas of Ontario and Nova Scotia. Females were less likely to leave rural areas than males. Individuals whose parents did not possess a university education were also less likely to leave than their counterparts.	Looker & Naylor, 2009

Case study: USA

In 2010, for the first time, the USA experienced higher rates of migration out of- than into- rural counties (Carolan, 2018; Johnson & Lichter, 2019). It has been noted that rural people and places have often been ‘left behind’ in the USA urban settlement system (Lichter & Ziliak, 2017; Wuthnow, 2018). In 2016, the USA rural population was only 46.1 million, a new low of only 14% of the population (Economic Research Service, 2018). In 2016, rural USA took centre stage politically (due to the result of the 2016 presidential election) with rurality theorised as the new ‘geography of despair,’ marked by declining life expectancy, opioid and drug abuse, and chronic poverty and unemployment (Lichter & Ziliak, 2017; Monnat & Brown, 2017; Wuthnow, 2018).

Case Study: Fly-In-Fly-Out

Revising rurality requires advocacy for the placement of tertiary institutions in rural contexts in which the local rural people can engage in learning, in order to secure knowledge and qualifications to work in the more highly skilled work and participate in the higher earning jobs thereby displacing the need for FIFO workers. Revising rurality requires addressing the deficit theorising of rurality, that empower the non-

rural to perpetuate the mythology that rurality is a place that is expendable, whereby the non-rural can continue to exploit rurality. The case study of the FIFO workers informs the revisioning rurality through highlighting the ways in which the *modus operandi* of multinational corporations (mining, energy, food, fossil fuel) negatively impact the rural communities from which they earn enormous amounts of money and give back so little. Research showed that mining companies promise jobs to local rural people (Schafft et al., 2018) but the promise is usurped by the FIFO phenomenon because the 'outsiders' who FIFO, have the qualifications and relationship with multinationals and win the contracted work. It was found, FIFO workers changed the nature of the rural communities in which they entered, worked and exited. Their presence raised the prices of homes and other commodities such as dining out. The rural contexts did not financially benefit (Schafft et al., 2018). In a recent study (Mayer et al., 2018) it was found that based upon the between-county effects, countries specializing in oil extraction tend to have higher poverty rates and lower earnings per job, median income, and employment. For

the neoliberal logics of a globally integrated world economy that views rural and economically marginal areas as largely expendable peripheries whose role is to provide human and material resources to an increasingly urbanized core (Finewood & Stroup, 2012; Perry 2012).

Notions of attachment to community are disrupted because the activity occurring in rural contexts is local, but the decisions about the work being done, who does the work, the management of the environment and the dispersion of profits, are all managed by people from outside the local rural contexts in which the work is occurring.

Economic

When theorising rurality by referencing positive epistemologies that rely on raw population numbers, one result of out-migration is a decrease in the allocation of funding and services to rural contexts. In turn, as funding and services decrease, people leave rural contexts. Thereafter business and industry leave rural contexts, inevitably demonstrating what becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy – the theorising of rurality as a context that is dying. Evidenced by research that showed differences in quality of life faced by European populations are not due to nation-states borders, but instead between regions within countries, between

rural localities and urban centres and/or between rich and poor neighbourhoods in cities and towns (Ballas et al., 2017). Financialization refers to the increase in financial forms of accumulation in the global economy, and a concomitant increase in the power and control of financial interests in the capitalist world system (Foster & Magdoff, 2009). The opacity of financialization results in rural residents not always aware of the changes that resulted in declining wages, economic instability, failing crops, poor health, climate change, loss of local rural services. Lack of investment by the nation-state left rural communities responsible for the quality and development of local society which resulted in social attachment being an important resource for citizen activity (Gielsing & Haartsen, 2017).

Case study: the loss of rural banks

Research has shown, that in rural contexts, a rural based loan-officer has extensive personal and professional relationships in the community to create networks. Empirical research indicated that communities with a bank have better physical health (Blanchard, Li, Mencken & Tolbert, 2012; Blanchard, Tolbert & Mencken, 2013), experience less net out-migration (Irwin, Tolbert & Lyson, 1999), and have lower crime rates (Lee & Berthelot, 2010; Lee & Thomas, 2010). It has been shown, that access to local capital is important for local business birth and expansion since 2000 (Mencken & Tolbert, 2018). Cracking this theory in Australia, has been the *Bendigo Bank*, a bank originating in the rural town of Bendigo. The model of local rural community ownership of the bank has spread across Australian rural contexts. As the banks withdrew, the community owned banks have filled the gap. Rural contexts do not need to rely on the multinational oligarchy financial industry.

Neoliberalism destroying profitability of rurality

Revisiting rurality requires movement to a globe post-neoliberal capitalism and post-nation-state borders. Neoliberal capitalism is supported by the nation-state or perhaps neoliberalism has usurped the nation-state for the open market economy transcends the nation-states. Neoliberalism advocates 'private property rights, individual liberty, unencumbered markets, and free trade' be free from nation-state intervention (Harvey, 2007, p. 22). But the deregulation that enables neoliberalism requires bureaucratic

apparatuses to achieve privatization (Bartley, 2007; Castree, 2008; Graeber, 2015; Robbins & Luginbuhl, 2007). This occurs when nation-states privatise public utilities and services, and uses public tax dollars to subsidise private multinational oligarchy. For example, International Monetary fund data shows fossil fuel subsidies amounts to \$5.2 trillion in 2017 (Coady et al., 2019) because the fossil fuel industry is not profitable without the public subsidy. Yet the industry polluted the world to the value of 8.9 million deaths from outdoor air pollution in 2015 (Burnett et al., 2018), a cost the public have to bear. If neoliberal free markets can freely move money across nation-states I argue, the movement of an even more valuable resource – people – similarly be allowed to freely move across nation-states. I advocate that the movement of migrants, refugees and asylum seekers can similarly occur without reference to nation-state borders.

Revisioning rurality requires addressing the neoliberal capitalist economic systems through which public funds support privately owned multinational agribusiness, energy, finance fossil fuel, mining and transport oligarchy, at the expense of natural rural assets and humans. A case study is the nation-state subsidy gifting public tax payers' money to subsidise private benefactors in the multinational agribusiness. India subsidised fertiliser supplies to the amount of \$USD11, 470 million in 2016 (OECD, 2018a). Fertilisers that Dutta and Tanker (2019) noted cause harm to peoples' health and locked farmers into a cycle of debt. In 2014, China subsidies were tracked at \$USD16, 590 million (OECD, 2018a). The subsidies supported farmers to engage in farming practices that poison the air, animals, food, biodiversity, ecosystems, humans, ocean, people, soil and water. However, there are ways to reform agricultural subsidies for improved environmental outcomes (Mamun, Martin & Tokgoz, 2019). An impact from neoliberal models that currently control food production is the \$2 trillion cost of providing food. It is estimated that the cost to the world to produce food is \$12 trillion dollar a year but the value of the current market-based value of the world's food and land use systems (FOLU, 2019, p. 37) is only \$10 trillion. This leaves a \$2 trillion cost to provide food. Contributing to the loss is the estimated \$6 trillion lost to unhealthy diets and harmful farming practices, \$1.7 trillion from loss in output and biodiversity, \$0.7 trillion lost to vulnerable people who do not receive a decent return and \$1.3 trillion wasted in food chains (FOLU, 2019, p. 38).

Revising rurality requires accommodation of the impact of neoliberal free-market capitalist economic systems that encourage farmers to stop producing food. A case study of rural Ghana, shows that about 60% of the population was engaged in agriculture as their main source of livelihood, typical of most agrarian communities (IFAD, 2012). When farmers considered factors including unsustainable farming practices, costs of production and transport, youth out-migration, and the hard labour of producing food, it was easier to earn income from their land by converting arable farming land into use for residential, commercial and recreational purposes. This was supported by business in-migrants who were looking to rent land that was cheaper in the peri-urban contexts. The changing land practices resulted in less food being produced. There is irony in the notion that the free-market, user-pays, individualistic neoliberal capitalist systems, supports farmers to choose to not produce food to sustain life. Other results to rurality from neoliberalism are offered in Table 22.

Table 22 Results of neoliberalism

Results of neoliberalism	Author
Neoliberalism leads to environmental degradation and further industrialization and corporatization of agriculture	Stock et al., 2014
Corporate reconstruction of agriculture replaces farmers with investors, and local responsibility with regulatory frameworks that enforce the market economy	Ashwood et al., 2014
In terms of water pollution, there's phosphorus, nitrogen, fecal, and even arsenic by-products from industrial animal facilities	Bullers, 2005 Cole, Todd & Wing 2000 Graham et al., 2009 Merchant et al., 2005
Research shows "water grabbing"	Mehta, Veldwisch & Franco 2012 Woodhouse & Ganho, 2011
And "green grabbing"	Fairhead, Leach & Scoones, 2012
Biofuels expansion	Borras, Franco & Wang, 2013 Holleman, 2012 Mol, 2007
Commodification or financialization of land	Gunnoe, 2014 Makki, 2014 Verma, 2014
Corporate accumulation	Geisler & Makki, 2014 White et al., 2012
Negative implications for governance	Margulis, Mckee & Borras 2013 Wolford et al., 2013
Negative implications for food security	McMichael, 2014 Sage, 2013
Negative implications for gender relations	Doss, Summerfield & Tsikata, 2014 Millar, 2015 Ryan, 2017
Negative implications and for peace and social stability	Millar, 2016

Revising rurality shows systematic structures create inequities. In 2018, research showed, the top 10% of adults across the globe owned 85% of the wealth (Shorrocks, Davies & Lluberas, 2018, p. 8); the impact of this neoliberal economic system, is to increase inequity. In the USA, 2018 was the first year in which the wealthiest, the billionaires, those earning the highest income, paid the lowest tax rate (Kelly, 2019); the systems are set up to ensure there is a lack of public money that government can access and then invest in services for people. This includes education. Children were not accounted for in this data-set. It has to be expected that the 90% of people attempting to share 15% of the globes' wealth will not continue to allow corporate greed to dominate and destroy the systems that maintain sustainable human and ecological life on earth. I recommend consideration be given to research that finds ways to place value on the rural assets, on nature, and the people who reside in rural contexts in order to redress the inequity.

Revising rural innovation

Attention is required on assumptions of rurality as lolling in deficit. Research identified that rural businesses are more innovative than non-rural businesses when it comes to the development of new products (Phillipson et al., 2017). The very characteristics that can be viewed as deficit in the rural contexts are the very same characteristics that empower the rural people to be innovators, entrepreneurs and overcome barriers to growth. Barriers in rural contexts included limited local markets, lower density and distance to major markets and it is these deficits that supported rural people to innovate (Hubbard & Atterton, 2014). Inhibitors to innovation in rural contexts were found to include limited local labour force, access to markets, access to finance and access to reliable IT (Scott, Gallent & Gkartzios, 2019). However, despite limitations, innovation is increasingly acknowledged as important to the growth and competitiveness of rural areas (OECD, 2014).

Case study: innovation in rural Portugal

Revising rurality requires government policy and funding of innovative rural people who own small rural businesses and organisations. Research concluded (Gamito & Madureira, 2019) that rural innovation grows regions, grows sales, jobs and internal business development. In rural Portugal, 'innovation is developed

across all organisations, regardless of their legal nature or dimension and that all the types and sizes of rural organization are important to foster rural economies' (p. 262). Gamito and Madureira showed that in Portugal, innovation is developed by a large percentage of small-scale and low-tech organisations.

Theorising rurality through rural activity

Results of my research showed, that researcher after researcher, theories of rurality are cracking, because they no longer reflect reality of rurality in 2020. These theories thereby offered example after example of the need to revision rurality, where revisioned theories be reflective of the rurality in 2020. Key issues that informed the revisioning rurality were the results of the 6-meta-impacts and the ways in which these issues negatively impacted on rural activities. For rural and non-rural, the neoliberal, capitalist model has come to be accepted as the 'natural' way of 'doing business'. In rural contexts it is the work of multinational agribusiness, mining, fossil fuel and energy companies that dominate this economic model and simultaneously contribute to the climate destruction, destruction of equitable economic systems and the advent of war. Multinationals have set up systems that have created self-fulfilling prophecy wherein rural spaces are created that require the multinationals. However, once the commercialised rural assets have been extracted, the multinational exit rural contexts, leaving those left in the rural communities to remediate the social, spiritual, economic and environmental damage left behind. Rurality can be theorised with reference to theories that historically, have been considered rurality. Revisioning these theories highlighted that rurality connects rural and non-rural contexts, that rurality is at once the same as- and different from- non-rurality.

Agriculture

Revisioning rurality requires theorising rurality with reference to non-rurality. While reading the current *Routledge Companion to Rural Planning* (Scott, Gallent, & Gkartzios, 2019) I was disappointed because the work focused on planning rural contexts with reference to agriculture, particularly farming of food. Yet as my thesis shows, rurality requires a broader understanding than reference to simply agriculture and food production. This is particularly obvious where we see urban agriculture is increasingly recognized as an

important strategy for climate change adaptation (Dubbeling & De Zeeuw, 2011) for food production is important for everyone. Theorising rurality through agricultural production is a theory that is cracking as we increasingly see non-rural contexts growing and exchanging produce.

Case study: Food scarcity

Revising rurality requires attention to food security, food ownership, food distribution, and access to safe healthy food. Revising rurality requires acknowledgement of the ways in which lack of food security is causing people to migrate and seek asylum and refuge. Revising rurality requires the world accommodate people who need to leave their nation-state as they seek water and food. The World Bank theorises rural agriculture in relation to positivist notions of economics, finances and the percentage of GDP agricultural activities bring to a country. The World Bank reported (2014) on the financial contribution that agriculture had for different country types (see Table 23). Fascinating is that agricultural activity is a high percentage of GDP for low-income countries and a low percentage of GDP for upper-middle income countries. As the upper-middle income countries divest from food growing activities, how will they access food? As climate change continues to impact food production, will the countries currently labelled low-income share the food they are producing? This includes food production to feed animals. And as the elements that impact on the success of agricultural activities (see Table 24) continues to impact harvest, will those who successfully grow food be able to feed the numbers of people who require food?

Table 23 World Bank figures 2014: GDP% from agriculture for countries

Type of country	% of GDP
Low-income countries	33% of GDP
Lower-middle income countries	17% of GDP
Upper-middle income countries	7.4% of GDP

Source (World Bank, 2014)

Table 24 Elements that impact on the agricultural activities that effect food production

Chemicals	Bees and insects
Climate change	
Corruption (business, industry, government, land owners)	Diseases – humans, crops and animals
Energy	Famine
Flood	Fossil fuels
Loss of biodiversity	Loss of insects
Pollution	Soil
War	Water

Aquaculture

Revising rurality requires consideration of a range of approaches and policies for rural aquaculture.

Theorising rurality through aquaculture highlighted the links between rural and non-rural contexts for aquaculture is an activity that occurs in rural contexts because the food grows and is sourced in rural contexts. But the food is consumed in rural and non-rural contexts. The FAO noted in 2016 ‘Aquaculture is the fastest-growing food production sector’ (FAO, 2016, p. 149). The nature of the aquacultural industry is changing. Employment in capture fisheries decreased from 83% in 1990 to 67% in 2014, employment in fish-farming increased from 17% in 1990 to 33% in 2014 (FAO, 2016, p. 32). That is, the nature of aquaculture is changing from practices reliant on nature (wild capture fisheries) to practices that are controlled by humans (fish-farming). Aquacultural practices are altering as wild fish stocks decline because the natural rural asset – the ocean – is impacted by climate collapse and multinational agribusiness, fossil fuel, energy and mining dumping toxic waste into the oceans and air contributing to acidification, warming of the ocean, and decimation of aquacultural food stocks. The FAO report theorised rural aquaculture through tonnage of raw produce, economic value of aquaculture, referencing the natural rural asset and the source of the assets, the nature of aquacultural employment, safety, gender, capture techniques and environmental damage (see Table 25).

Table 25 Theorising rural aquaculture

Theorisation of rural aquaculture	
Tonnes and economic value	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In 2014, the FAO noted that production of aquatic animals from aquaculture amounted to 73.8 million tonnes, with an estimated first-sale value of \$USD160.2 billion (p. 5) - Catches in inland waters accounted for some 11.9 million tonnes, a 37% increase in the decade previous, with 80% of the catch occurring in [only] 16 countries (p. 18)
Nature of the natural rural aquacultural assets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Finfish - Molluscs - Crustaceans - Frogs - Millions of other species (FAO, p. 18)
Source of the natural rural aquacultural assets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - salt water oceans - coastal areas - inland fresh water environments
Employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The sector supports 12% of the world’s population (FAO, 2016, p. 126) - Small-scale fisheries employ 90% of the employees of the capture fisheries industries (p. iii) - A large number of employees live in developing countries characterised by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . very low incomes . high seasonality . low productivity . poor access to training . poor infrastructure (p. 127)

Employment and gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Women account for 15% of those engaged in fishing - Women account for 90% of those engaged in processing the fish
Fisheries and aquaculture sector wild catch employment by region	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 84% work in Asia - 10% in Africa - 4% in Latin America and the Caribbean - The FAO report shows the employment of people from G20 and OECD countries in the aquaculture industries is declining
Fish farming employment by region	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 94% employment in Asia - 1.9% in Latin American and the Caribbean - 1.4% occurring in Africa (p. 32)
Employment and safety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The FAO raise concerns about workers in the industry noting exploitation of migrant workers, insufficient income, hazardous conditions, child and forced labour (p. 126)
Capture techniques	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Farmers based in rural areas throw nets to catch ever decreasing amounts of foods as they compete with multi-nationals, super-trawlers
Environmental damage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fish stocks are damaged and decimated from pollution, including from sewerage (Yesil & Tugtas, 2019)

Source: FAO. (2016). *The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2016: Contributing to Food Security and Nutrition for All*. Rome, Italy: FAO. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i5555e.pdf>

Revising rurality through aquaculture demands consideration of the impacts of climate change on the aquacultural industry. The FAO noted it is the poorer small island developing nation-states that suffer from climate change induced natural disasters because of the dependence of the nation-states' economies on the fisheries sector as well as the role the sector plays in food security and employment (FAO, 2016, p. 157). The FAO found the 2004 tsunami had the greatest economic impact on fisheries and aquaculture, at more than \$USD500 million, in India and Indonesia (FAO, 2016, p. 157). And it is not just the fishery that is impacted. In the Maldives, the 2004 tsunami, caused extensive infrastructure damage to fishing harbours, boatsheds, fishing vessels and equipment, ocean cages, fish processors and equipment, fishery institutes with other assets lost or seriously damaged (FAO, 2016, p. 157).

Water

Revising rurality requires acknowledgement of the integral links between rural and non-rural through water, water quality and water distribution. Revising rurality must be inclusive of non-rural, to facilitate advocacy for greater care of natural rural elements in rural contexts because those in non-rural contexts benefit from this natural asset that originates in rural contexts.

Case study: UN, WHO, UNICEF and Water

The UN Sustainability Goal 6 addressed the need to ensure the availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all (UN, 2018c). Research showed water contamination is widespread and it is the rural areas, particularly in Africa and Southeast Asia that face the highest risk (Bain et al., 2014, p. 917). The Joint Managing Program (JMP) is administered by WHO and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). JMP showed piped water figures for the urban population is close to 80% while for rural populations is only 33% (UNICEF/WHO, 2015, p. 9). It highlighted that 82% of the global urban population used 'improved' sanitation facilities by 2015, compared with only 51% of the rural population (UNICEF/WHO, 2015, p. 5) and that 96% of the global urban population could access water from an improved source in 2015, compared with only 84% of the rural population (UNICEF/WHO, 2015, p. 4). Research showed governments are often not aware of the state of existing infrastructure and service quality, especially in rural areas (Nelson-Nuñez & Pizzi, 2018). And when the state is fully absent or fails to properly regulate water provision, rural communities may struggle with water contamination as was the case in Rajasthan, India (O'Reilly & Dhanju, 2012). Revisioning rurality requires involvement of women and involvement of people from middle- and low- income countries, for they are most impacted by the destruction occurring in rurality. Contaminated drinking water is one of the most common causes of disease and death in developing countries. Inadequate drinking-water is estimated to cause 502,000 diarrheal deaths per year in low- and middle-income countries and for children younger than five years of age it leads to 361,000 deaths a year (WHO, 2018). In 2015, approximately 844 million people worldwide lacked access to safe water (WHO & UNICEF, 2017). Gomez, Perdiguero and Sanz showed (2019) that the richer the nation-state, the greater the access to piped water sources, and that female education had a positive impact on improved access to piped water sources for middle- and low-income countries.

Revisioning rurality requires acknowledgement of the value of water inclusive of the cost of remediation of water and distribution. Managing water will be one of the greatest environmental challenges of the future (Ternes, 2018, p. 369). Professor Grafton, current Chairholder, UNESCO Chair in water Economics and Transboundary Water Governance as well as Convener Geneva Actions on Human Water Security, noted,

globally, irrigation accounts for 70% of water extraction (Grafton, 2019, p. 117). While water is extracted to support multinational business and industry increase profits, simultaneously, local rural people in towns and cities are without safe healthy life preserving water. In 2019, for the first time in modern history, it was reported that major cities with millions of people were without water in cities such as Chennai in India (Amit & Sasidharan, 2019). Miao et al. (2018) showed that 'due to agricultural structural adjustment, industrialization, and urbanization in northern China, an increasing demand for water and consequently an increasingly severe water shortage has occurred in recent years' (p. 883). In Australia, public funds are being gifted to private companies to dam water upstream to be used to increase profits for multinationals (Slattery, Campbell and Quicke, 2019) while downstream local Australian rural farmers launched a \$AUD750 million class action against the Murray-Darling Basin Authority (Seccombe, 2019, September 28 – October 4) for they lacked access to water.

Cases study: Australian Murray Darling Basin

Revisiting rurality requires determining who decides who owns fresh water. The Murray-Darling-Basin (MDB) is important to Australia reportedly producing about one third of Australia's food (Sullivan, 2019, July 13). To grow the food, industry relies on water; a rural asset that can now be bought and sold. There were concerns about government corruption related to the price of the sale and the price of the buyback of water allocation (Davies, 2019, April 17). Australian taxpayers gifted more than \$AUD4 billion to irrigators, some of whom are partly foreign-owned companies, where these corporations are planting crops of cotton and nut trees that required a lot of water (Rubinsztein-Dunlop, Fallon, Carter & Slezak, 2019, July 8). At the same time Australian farmers are leaving the land due to lack of water (Sullivan, 2019, July 13). People were accused of fraudulent conduct in relation to water funding (Hamilton-Smith, 2019, January 9). There are accusations that billions of litres of water are missing from the MDB (Carbonell, Iggulden & Davies, 2019, March 6). In 2019, fifty-five rural towns were at risk of running out of water (Barbour, Gribbin & Machan, 2020, January 27). Water has become a tradable commodity that no doubt will only increase in value as droughts hit harder, last for longer and climate change creates longer and more intense heat events. No matter the price of the water, if it does not exist, people cannot live in their rural communities.

Rural communities now need to purchase their own country's water back from foreign investors, water that is increasingly poisoned with high levels of contaminants.

Case study: Water as poison in Brazil

Revisioning rurality, requires preferencing the knowledge of those Indigenous to the land for they understand methods to farm the land that support sustainable use of the land and water. Revisioning rurality, requires acknowledgement of the exploitation of natural rural assets and local rural people by faceless multinationals, whose leaders, mostly, reside in non-rural contexts whose decisions result in exploitation of rural assets that are left unhealthy in the search for profit for shareholders. Fernandes and Welch (2019) showed how for centuries people in Brazil managed the production of sugar and showed the essential differences between peasant and agribusiness territories. However, with the shift to industrialised process, Fernandes and Welch showed huge quantities of toxic agrochemicals polluted streams and aquifers, including the Guarani Aquifer, one of the world's largest sources of subterranean water, upon which an extensive region of South America depends on its freshwater.

Case study: water and conflict

Revisioning rurality requires acknowledgement of the impacts of commercialisation of natural rural elements that cross nation-states. The invasion of Palestine by Israel can be theorised as a conflict about access to water, evidenced by British Unions voting to boycott Israel due to control of water over the Palestinians (Davies, 2019, October 9). Lonergan and Brooks (1994) investigated the role of fresh water in the Palestinian-Israeli conflict in 1994. Research by Zeitoun et al. (2019) noted transboundary water arrangements between Palestine and Israel have drawn in third parties (p. 4) and that the World Bank (2009b) noted the Joint Water Committee was an institution that 'very effectively restricted the development of the Palestinian statehood' (p. 4). Water connects nation-states through river systems, lake systems, underground water systems and ocean systems, where nation-states rely on each other to manage the health of water. Further, multinationals that work across nation-state boundaries and access

water to achieve their business aims, distribute the profits to the shareholders, without being compelled by government policy to care for the long-term health of the water source.

Case study: USA

Around 45 million people in the USA relied on private wells for household and drinking water (WSC, 2012). The USA Safe Drinking Water Act does not protect self-supplied sources, leaving well stewardship and inspection of water, an impost on the owner of the well (Kreutzwiser et al., 2011), shifting the responsibility and cost of water quality, from government, to the land owner. Agricultural runoff is the single biggest source of water pollution in the USA, so farmers self-police neighbours' land use decisions in order to protect their own groundwater supplies (Prud'Homme, 2011). Research showed one of the world's largest aquifer systems, the High Plains aquifer, has undergone particularly severe declines (Powell, 2011; Steward et al., 2013) leaving Kansas 'extremely vulnerable to the occurrence of drought' (Logan et al., 2010, p. 255).

Food

Revisiting rurality through food, connects rural and non-rural contexts. Food creates an interdependence between rural and non-rural contexts. It is important to determine who owns the natural rural elements that produce commercial food, who owns the food, the nutritional value of the food and the right to distribute the food? Who has the right to determine the extent to which the food is genetically modified and poisoned by multinational oligarchy, for the purpose of profit? Is there equity and justice for the rural contexts in which the food originates? In 2019, The Food and Land Use Coalition (FOLU) noted that 'Urgent changes to food and land use systems are ... essential' (FOLU, 2019, p. 24). The UN Food and Agricultural Organization's *State of Food Insecurity* report (FAO, 2011) stated food security encompasses four elements, food availability, food accessibility, food utilization and food system stability. The OECD noted, without subsidies, agricultural activity in parts of the OECD would most likely become unprofitable and land use for food production would decline (Renwick et al., 2013). In other parts of the world, scholars investigated 'stories represent[ing] colonizing, dominating, hegemonic propensities of white, patriarchal systems of

power and privilege within the food justice movement and research about it' (Bradley & Herrera, 2016, p. 99).

Revising rurality highlights issues related to food security that are linked to geo-politic-economic-health-security risks. Revising rurality requires accommodation of the ways in which rurality be managed to ensure food production and food security for all. Food insecurity continues to escalate, and it is the poorest nations at most risk of hunger and starvation (Wood, 2019c, August 13). The work of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (iPCC) continues to encourage questioning of current systems that create inequity, inclusive of the need to address climate change in relation to water and food security (iPCC, ND). The Climate and Food Vulnerability Index Rank shows that countries most vulnerable to food shortages have some of the lowest carbon dioxide emissions per capita (tonnes). Swinburn, Kraak, and Allender (2019) explored food insecurity referencing crop failures, reduced food production, extreme weather events that produce droughts and flooding, increased food-borne and other infections disease and civil unrest (p. 793). The Lancet Commission offered links between obesity, under-nutrition and climate change. Research conducted by Zhu et al. (2018) showed increases in levels of carbon dioxide alters the protein micronutrients and vitamin content of rice grains. This posed potential health consequences for the poorest nation-states that depend on rice to feed their citizens. In addition, land use patterns are changing. It is claimed that Poland has one of the highest rates of agricultural land conversion in Europe. Between 2004 and 2011, 545,000 hectares of agricultural land were converted to non-agricultural use (English translation of Kowalewski et al., 2013). Research found that food production can be unstable because of peri-urbanization, unreliability in rainfall patterns, and a lack of motivation in farming as an occupation where youth are not encouraged to engage in food crop production because they can earn higher wages in mining and industry (Appiah, Asante & Nketiah, 2019). Warmer growing seasons are expected to make food production more challenging in the midwest of the USA (Mazdiyasnı & Kouchack, 2015; Wang et al., 2015). Research has shown that a recent (re)emergence of food security as a policy objective in industrialized countries such as the United Kingdom (UK) has ameliorated negativity and even roused interest among next-generation farmers (Carruthers, Winter & Evans, 2013; Whitehead, Lobley & Baker, 2012).

Case study – oligarchy Monsanto-Bayer and women's health

In India Dutta and Thaker (2019) showed how farmers are locked into mono-cultural agricultural practices wherein the farmer buys seeds, fertiliser, and pesticides from a multinational oligarchy, Monsanto-Bayer, and when the crop fails, the farmers must buy more seeds. When the crop does grow, the price is artificially altered to ensure the farmers remain in debt to Monsanto. The farmers sell the food to pay their debt but have no food for themselves. The burden is borne by the individual and when farmers see no way out of debt, sadly, they suicide. Multinational agribusiness oligarchies have achieved vertical integration in the agri-food supply chain from the sale of seeds to farmers through the stocking of shelves in supermarkets (Constance et al., 2014). The decline in public expenditure on state-funded agriculture extensions is marked by the rise of global agriculture businesses such as Monsanto that have usurped control over key seed markets (Scoones, 2006; Shiva, 2008). However, participants in Dutta's study noted neoliberalism begins with an extreme focus on the individual, and thus disrupted the interwoven network of agrarian community life (Dutta & Thaker, 2019). Research by Dutta and Thaker (2019) engaged in work that valued the epistemologies of women. Dutta and Thaker noted that where farmers in India have moved to neoliberal capitalist individualistic farming practices, farmers no longer grew traditional medicinal plants, and became dependent on western seeds. The move away from indigenous crops impacted upon the health of people and made farmers also dependent on western health systems. The women shared that the use of pesticides altered menstrual systems. I argue this is a form of genocide because the endocrine systems of these India women are disrupted. Instead, the women enacted their Indigenous knowledge of crops which allowed the women to store seeds, exchanges seeds, grow a variety of plants, thereby ensuring food security for themselves and neighbours. There is a push-back.

Case study: oligarchy Monsanto / Bayer

I owe it to the women dying from cancer in my local rural community to highlight the links between breast cancer and glyphosate and thank Duforestel and colleagues (2019) for publishing the results of their research.

I also thank those who share their experiences, highlighting how agribusiness giant Monsanto run campaigns to undermine critics (Democracy Now, 2020, October 12). The products from Monsanto continue to disrupt rurality and non-rurality.

Case study: bees and insects

Revising rurality requires costing the services, of the natural rural elements, such as that provided by bees. Goulson (2019) alerted us to the devastating impacts from the 'insect apocalypse', noted 87% of all plant species require pollination from insects (Ollerton, Winfree & Tarrant, 2011, p. 321) and 75% of agricultural crops require pollination, which is worth between \$235 and \$577 billion per year worldwide (Noriega et al., 2018). Powney and colleagues (2019) identified key threats to pollinators as agricultural intensification (habitat loss, pesticide use), climate change, and spread of feral species (p. 1). Results of a thirty-four-year longitudinal study, found up to a 55% decline in species in uplands UK. Without insects, billions of people will starve (Goulson, 2019). Marshman, Blay-Palmer and Landman showed how a whole-of-community approach can address the 'dualistic and dysfunctional human/nature relationship' (2019, p. 1) with the view to improving the link between people and their understanding that nature – rurality – matters to them and their survival.

Case study: soil security

Revising rurality requires support for research into ways in which to measure the value of soil quality. A recent review of research on soil quality (Bünemann et al., 2018) concluded that research had rarely involved farmer and stakeholders such as consultants and agricultural advisors. As yet, there was still no widely accepted, operational soil quality indicator, which is in contrast to quality indicators for water and air which are formalized and even have specific laws (e.g. EU Water Framework Directive). Yet research in India showed pesticide use is linked to worms dying in the poisoned soil (Dutta & Thaker, 2019). It is in these soils that we grow food.

Forestry

Revising rurality requires monetary attributions to commercial value of rural assets. The case study of forestry asks, are there ways in which it is possible to economically value a forest? Agriculture forestry and rural tourism can be at the core of rural economies Gamito and Madureira (2019, p. 251). Fernandes and Welch (2019) suggested one of the most sustainable development models for forestry is agro-forestry.

Forests can be seen as critical environmental infrastructure. The Fernandes and Welch English translation of work by Cubas (2017) showed woods attract and retain more water, moderate temperatures, refresh the air, provide fuel as well as windbreaks to slow topsoil erosion, and, depending on the variety of trees, offer income through harvesting fruits and nuts (Cubas, 2017). Despite their value, devastatingly, by the end of July, 2019, the wildfires in Russian forests, had reached 2.6 million hectares (6.4 million acres) and the Russian government declared the cost of putting out the fires outweighed the damage they were causing (Jenner, 2019, August 17). Simultaneously forests in Germany were dying because of drought and beetle infestations (Connolly, 2019, August 7). At the same time, it was highlighted the devastation of the mighty Amazon forest where between 2013 and 2018, deforestation rose by over 70% (Barreto & Muggah, 2019, August 23) yet more than 96% of Brazilian people believed the forest should be conserved and the rights of the Indigenous people protected (Barreto & Muggah, 2019, August 23). The Brazilian government, continued to allow the trade of cattle to destroy the Amazon, with roughly 60% of all deforested lands in the Brazilian Amazon covered with pastures, cattle raising is evidence of a major driver of deforestation and also of forests' regrowth (Carvalho, Aguiar & Amaral, 2020, p. 43). As the Amazon teeters near the tipping point of no return (Barreto & Muggah, 2019, August 23), Indigenous women speaking up about the issue have gone missing, presumed murdered. By contrast, Costa Rica has doubled its tropical rainforests in just a few decades (Wood, 2019a, June 13). Taylor et al. (2019) noted that regeneration of tropical forests has an immense capacity to capture carbon and harbor biodiversity (p. 1) and the Coast Rican farmers work with the forest, to farm food (Myers, 2019, August 16). In Europe around 60% of the European Union's (EUs) forests are owned by about 16 million non-industrial private forest owners (Lazdinis, Angelstam & Pülzl, 2019; European Commission, 2013, p. 2). It has been noted that policy implementation is needed to better account for the multi-functionality of forests by integrating social, economic and ecological objectives through collaborative spatial planning (Primdahl et al., 2018). Elbakidze et al. (2017) and Naumov et al. (2018) showed management approaches for forest and wooded land developed in one region may not be directly transferable to other biophysical, socio-economic and cultural and political contexts. This showed revisioning rurality requires theorising to be able to adapt to unique rural contexts. Forests exist in rural contexts, but offer amenities for rural and non-rural alike. Revisioning rurality must be achieved through

the lens that assumes the rural contexts hold valuable natural assets that can remediate the planet, work that benefits rural and non-rural people, work that references the knowledge systems of the Indigenous people who understand these rural contexts, work that benefits all humanity. For example, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP, 2013) shows success is occurring Morocco where knowledge systems of people indigenous to the rural contexts are preferred.

Mining

Revisiting rurality through mining revealed strategies to reconfigure the value of and from air, land, water and soil but also on the impact of the mining activities on rural and non-rural people alike, including Indigenous peoples. Mining of resources occurs in rural contexts but the impacts from mining are felt by those living in rural and non-rural contexts. Ryser, Halseth, Markey, Gunton and Argent (2019) used a place-based approach and investigated managing mining in rural contexts. In their work they identified the changes that are managed by local governments, when mining companies move in to the area (p. 29-42) (see Table 26). They also shared the costs to local rural communities when mining activities occur in the local rural areas (see Table 27).

Table 26 When mining companies come to town

At the commencement of the resource development cycle, there are often urgent and growing demands for housing and hotel services	Headwaters Economics, 2011
There are also increased pressures on social services, physical and mental health services, food banks, and recreational facilities and programs	Newell & Raimi, 2015b Tonts, 2010
Rising drug offence and crime rates increase costs for emergency personnel and law enforcement officers, while there are also costs associated with the training and equipment needed to respond to emergencies on work sites	Newell & Raimi, 2015b
There are increased industrial demands on roads, waste disposal, fresh water use, and energy	Markey & Heisler, 2010
The sewer and water infrastructure must be upgraded and expanded to meet the increased demand from industry and work camps	Raimi & Newell, 2015b

Table 27 Costs to local rural mining communities

Examination of the relationship between resource revenues and local governments occurs	Haslam McKenzie, 2013
In Western Australia the state invests [only] 25% of annual royalty payments received from industry into community through competitive grants	Argent, 2013 Plummer et al., 2017
USA oil and gas revenues have been reinvested into local governments at the amount of [only] 1% to 10% of the total production value across various states	Newell & Raimi, 2015a
Resource royalty revenues are being isolated from the costs associated with resource development, where government acquire significant revenues from extraction activities while local governments must bear the costs associated with the rapid growth of their rural communities when the mining occurs	Drew et al., 2017
Local governments confront rising human resource costs due to difficulties retaining government staff who may be attracted to high paying industry jobs or impacted by rising housing costs	Ryser et al., 2019
Local governments are forced to pay higher salaries, housing stipends, and even purchase real estate to provide affordable housing	Province of Alberta, 2006
Local governments often develop new departments to monitor resource activities for environmental, engineering, or other regulatory issues, while expanding staff resources for road and bridge crews	Newell & Raimi, 2015b
Infrastructure investments have been required to expand fire stations and public works buildings. However, the costs of such infrastructure and services often exceed municipal tax revenues, resulting in deteriorating infrastructure and declining service levels	Headwaters Economics, 2012
In rural settings and in some peri-urban communities, settings where it may be difficult to pay competitive salaries for skilled managers and engineers	Herrera, 2019

A case study from Western Australia, showed the state government only invested 25% of annual mining royalties back into the rural communities in which the mining occurred (Argent, 2013; Plummer, Tonts & Argent, 2018). Why is the investment back into those communities so low? And why do local grant applicants have to compete with one another for only 25% of the royalties gained from the mining of the non-renewable natural assets in their rural community? Why does the revenue generated by mining activity that occurs in rural communities not stay in those local rural contexts from which the commodities are sourced? Why do the rural communities not gain financial benefit of the extraction and sale of the rural asset that exists in their rural community?

Manufacturing

Revisioning rurality requires accommodation of the notion that neoliberal capitalist economic systems have failed rural contexts. Curtis, Lee, O'Connell and Zhu (2019) explored the global financial crisis, and saw a downturn in manufacturing across wealthy OECD countries, in both rural and non-rural contexts. Curtis and colleagues found as an industry lost economic vitality; it lost its protective power against poverty and, instead, became a poverty-promoting force. Jensen linked 'white rural poverty' with rural areas in which levels of poverty are high with the areas in which 'the opioid abuse epidemic is wreaking havoc' (Jensen, 2018, p. 240).

Case study: pharmaceuticals

Revisioning rurality required a close examination of the power and control the multinational oligarchy have in rural contexts including that of the pharmaceutical industry. The ILO showed that inefficient purchase of overpriced drugs is estimated to cost 20% – 40% of global health expenditure (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. xiv). In 2019, those living in rural contexts in the USA questioned multinational neoliberal capitalist activity and successfully sued pharmaceutical oligarchy Purdue Pharma, the drug company trading the opioid OxyTontin (BBC, 2019, September 12), demonstrating people in rural contexts were empowered to challenge these multinationals. Similarly, in 2019, rural people successfully prosecuted Bayer (previously Monsanto). This multinational oligarchy trades in the cacogenic glyphosate, which has been found to cause non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (Bellon, 2019, August 22). With the merger, Bayer-Monsanto now trade in the pharmaceutical products that both sell the product that causes non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and the product to treat the cancer. Bayer have the market sewn up, from the poisoning of humans, through to the 'care' of the dying human. It appears, the health of humans in rural contexts is a tradable commodity.

Health

Revisiting rurality accounts for unequal and inequitable policy and funding decisions that account for distribution of resources that preference non-rural contexts over rural contexts when it comes to funding health. As late as 2015, the ILO offered research about rural health that for the first time presented and analysed global, regional and national data (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. v). The paper concluded,

given the evidence provided, this report leaves no room for doubt about the urban/rural gap in access to health care; the question is more about the size of the deficits than about whether or not they exist (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. 43).

The ILO reported that 56% of the global rural population lacked health coverage, while only 22% of the urban population is not covered...as a result, the place of residence determines whether people live or die (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. xiii). The ILO aimed for quality health services to be adequate (or at least meeting essential needs) so as to avoid impoverishment (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p.43). The ILO estimated only 23% of health workers in the world today were deployed in rural areas, while 50% of the world's population lived in these areas and needed to be served (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. 9). I have to ask, is providing health care 'to avoid impoverishment' an adequate aim for rurality? Is this as good as it gets when it comes to the health of rural people? Can policy not aim for parity of health care between rural and non-rural contexts? The ILO noted there is an acute shortage of suitably qualified health workers in rural contexts and that this has been identified as a key issue preventing many countries from achieving equitable access to health care for rural populations. The ILO suggested improving equity in access in rurality involved providing decent jobs and working conditions for health workers in rural areas and reviewing the distribution of funds to rural areas (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. 45). Importantly, without health care rural populations cannot contribute to economic growth, wealth and development (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. xiii). Of note, the ILO report determined root causes for poor health outcomes are found beyond the health sector and included poverty, discrimination and lack of voice and power. The ILO recommend that there be coordination with other policy sectors with a view to improve policy, enhance income generation, create employment opportunities and promote decent working conditions for rural populations, including rural health workers (Scheil-Adlung, 2015, p. xiv).

Revisioning rurality requires research to develop theories with reference to the best available data, arguing for the collection of a greater quantity and quality of rural data. Research published by Scheil-Adlung (2015) is the first paper to present and analyse global, regional and national data that investigated the extent and major causes of inequities between rural and non-rural health across 174 different countries. Scheil-Adlung noted that, 'given the lack of available global databases, nearly all options to disaggregate data involve the use of proxies' (p. 4). Scheil-Adlung argued that disaggregation, based on proxies, were the 'best balance between the precision of estimates and scarce data availability'. Scheil-Adlung showed how using proxies can be considered to be appropriate through cross-checking with available data from 174 countries, where the results were adjusted where necessary. Scheil-Adlung determined that 56% of the global rural population lacked health coverage whereas only 22% of the non-rural population was not covered. Not only do people in rural contexts have less access to health care, there is little effort to collect data about the lack of health care.

Gender

Revisioning rurality required consideration of the theorising of rurality through gender. Research shows, traditionally, rurality has been theorised as that through which men identify. Research also showed, women theorise rurality differently from men. Further, revisioning rurality required accommodation of the knowledge of women indigenous to the rural contexts. Results of research by Laoire (2005) showed that farmers have traditionally based their identities upon agriculture and that when agriculture processes changed some men struggled to adjust. Hiebert et al. (2016) offered an extensive review of the literature detailing health outcomes among rural men that were linked to masculine identities. In Eastern and Western countries, it is usual that men inherit farms, increasing their likelihood of participating in agricultural education and vocational training (Unay-Gailhard et al., 2019, p. 322). A study of rural and small-town Texans' views of rurality showed that older residents and males held significantly more positive images of rurality than did younger persons and females (Theodori & Willits, 2019). Women's perception of their gender relating to working on ranches (Smyth, Swendener & Kazayak, 2019) showed that the work impacted their perception of their femininity. According to translation by Unay-Gailhard et al. (2019)

Kalugina (2000) notes, the reluctance of females to seek employment in agricultural enterprises had less to do with the unattractiveness of the profession than with the unattractiveness of rural life. Women reported slightly more concern about climate change than men and are more aligned with scientific consensus on climate change (McCright, Dunlap & Xiao, 2013).

Case Study – women farmers in Zimbabwe

Research showed, in Zimbabwe, although the fast-tracked land reform allowed women to gain direct access to land, instead of, as previously, through largely patriarchal structures (village heads, chiefs and male relatives), women continued to face challenges in exercising their *de jure* rights over land. Although the rights were entrenched in the constitution, the persistence of patriarchal structures in the countryside undermined the ability of women to exercise their rights (Mkodzongi & Lawrence, 2019).

Conclusion

It is timely to revision theories of rurality. The theories are invested in history, but for them to remain contemporary, they require revisioning. My revisioning was informed by the advent of a series of challenges the earth and humanity faced as we settled into the 21st century. I suggest that at this junction, it is time to critique current theorising of rurality. Above, I offered examples of ways to critique theories of rurality, for critique offers an opportunity to revision the theorising. I showed ways to critique current substantive theories of rurality, while creating knowledge that revisioned rurality through the ontological position of constructivism and epistemological position of constructionism. I argued, theories of rurality be thought of as having derived through social and culturally constructed notions of rurality. From this epistemological perspective, rural is symbolic, and constructed, able to represent any number of ruralities. The power of the voice determining the theory of rurality becomes important; theories are contestable and, the theorising the theories of rurality become contestable. I recognised the importance of taking into account a variety of scholarly and grey literature that was informed by a range of philosophical positions, to demonstrate how it is possible to cite work from a range of philosophical positions in order to inform revisioning rurality. These perspectives included that of Indigenous peoples, people from rural and non-

rural contexts, the neoliberal, farmers, fishers, the workers, the educators, the economists, health workers and environmentalists. I embedded throughout Section One, case studies to illustrate a paradigm shift is occurring, that there is growing critique and reinterpreting, when it comes to theories of rurality and theorising rurality, reinforcing the need to revision the theories. I examined a broad range of theorising, working towards the ongoing co-creation of knowledge that will continue to revision rurality. Wherein the ongoing revisioning be as fully informed as possible. As I revisioned theories of rurality, the model I developed that is the 6-meta-impacts, developed, and as the model developed, it in turn, informed my revisioning rurality. In future, it may be possible to theorise rurality with reference only to research that engages in philosophical knowledge produced through the ontological position of constructivism and epistemological position of constructionism. As part of the conclusion, I offer an array of substantive theories of rurality (See Table 28) that incorporate a diversity of theories, and incorporate a broad range of ways to theorise rurality. In the revisioning rurality, there needs to be accounting for different ruralities, different ways of theorising rurality and the range of substantive theories of rurality. There also needs to be an accounting for the ways in which the substantive theories impact each other. For example, as the vocational infrastructure declines in rurality, so does the financial and social infrastructure, and in turn, the rural community. There needs to be accommodation of the inter-section-ality of substantive theories of rurality, for different theories are interdependent upon one another. Ongoing co-creation of theories of rurality, no doubt will continue to build on and expand the substantive theories of rurality (Table 28).

Table 28 Examples of substantive theories of rurality

Agricultural	Economic	Education	'Rural' jobs	Biodiversity	Landownership
Agrarian	Spiritual	Forestry	Sales	Ecosystems	People
Water	Economy	Environment	GDP	Oceans	Flora
Soil	Energy	Spiritual	Taxes	Animals	Fauna
Industrial procession	Colonised / invaded	Political structures	Production of commodities	Wild and dangerous	Lore (legal system)
Gentrified	Agrarian	idyllic	Manufacturing	Health	Education
Air	Space	Aquaculture	Social	Pollution	Mining
Food (agriculture / aquaculture)	Recreation (national parks, tourism)	Community centred (volunteering, networks)			

It is important that the ongoing co-construction of the revisioning of rurality honour the range of ontological and epistemological philosophical assumptions that contribute to not just theorising rurality but also to deciding who has power to decide the philosophical underpinnings used to theorise rurality. I have shown there are different ways to theorise rurality. I have shown, nation-states, global NGOs and scholars use different knowledge systems, different philosophical positioning, to create different theories of rurality and do so differently from one another. Revisioning rurality requires researchers to articulate their philosophical positioning when theorising rurality, and, to reference the philosophical positioning that underpins the sources of knowledge scholars' reference when revisioning rurality. In doing so, scholars can articulate the bias in the philosophical assumptions of the organisation that create information about rurality. In turn, this supports scholarly work articulate the power the authors have in the relationship between themselves and the rurality about which they theorise. I recommend revisioning rurality requires a movement to the referencing of the ways in which rurality theorises rurality, rural people and their human systems. Can we theorise rurality from the perspective of nature, rural people and rural human systems?

Section One showed revisioning rurality requires reference to the data and research that highlights deficit theories of rurality, with commentary to contextualise the deficit. There are those who critique using a deficit model to theorise rurality. I object. There is a deep need to theorise rurality with reference to data that highlights deficits and inequities in rurality when compared with non-rurality. For highlighting the deficits allows for advocacy that there be a response to remediate the deficits. I conclude with a tentative list of deficit theories of rurality (see Table 29) many of which are determined through positivist epistemological approaches. It is the positivist approach, the reference to data, that decision makers enact, when creating policies and determining allocation of funding. The reference to deficit data, to inform policy making and funding allocation that perpetuates systems, which in turn manifest as deficits in rural data-sets that in turn enable deficit theorising of rurality. This circularity of reasoning creates self-fulfilling prophecies that reinforce deficit theorising of rurality. Revisioning rurality requires advocacy for the data that informs deficit theorising of rurality to be shared back to the nation-states, global-NGOs and multinational

oligarchy, where the data is used to challenge these organisations to work in ways that support rural communities, wherein they enact policy and funding decisions that redress the deficits in the data-sets thereby improving rurality. I recommend finding positivist ways to improve ways in which to firstly, calculate the commercial value of the rural assets that accounts for the health of the natural rural elements, secondly calculate the support to rural people and thirdly to calculate the human systems that support rural people, for this will go some way to addressing the deficit theorising of rurality.

Table 29 Deficit theories of rurality

Deficit theories of rurality	
Not receiving an equitable share of the government funding when compared to non-rural contexts	
People have to be self-reliant and self-employed	
Rural receives low public investment in services such as health, education, infrastructure such as transport, roads, internet and communication	
People are socially excluded	
Not receiving equitable access to services when compared to non-rural contexts	
Access to services requires out-of-pocket expenses due to cost of travel and living away from home that those living in non-rural contexts do not bear	
Systems biased towards non-rural contexts	
Due to a lack of quality data, policies do not take into account either differences between different rural contexts or differences between rural and non-rural contexts	
Rural people discriminate against community members due to: age, gender, minority, Indigenous, informal people (backpackers), religion, income, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants	
Rurality have old equipment; poor access to equipment; it is expensive to transport equipment to rural	
Lower levels of	Health outcomes
	Education levels
	Life expectancy
	Wages (Carolan, 2018)
	Mortality (Singh & Siahpush, 2014)
Lack of access to	Health care (Aboagye, Kaiser & Hayanga, 2014; Hall, Dalton & Johnson, 2014)
	Adequate safe affordable housing
	Employment
Higher levels of	Mental health concerns
	Rural youth suicide rates (Fontanella et al., 2015)
	Rural poverty (Carolan, 2018)
	Rural child poverty (Carolan, 2018)
	Rural deep poverty (Farrigan, 2014)

Section One investigated ways in which it is possible to theorise rurality with reference to contemporary activities that occur in rural contexts. I theorised rurality to include the commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, humans and human systems wherein they impact on- and are impacted by- one another and inform revisioning rurality. The investigation showed assumptions about the ‘rural’ nature of activities are no longer currently valid theories. Instead, I have shown that activities occurring in rural contexts, impact on rural and non-rural contexts, and increasingly simultaneously connect rural and non-rural contexts. The investigation showed activities occurring in rural contexts are integrally linked to non-rural

contexts. Rurality is at once the same as- and different from- other rurality and non-rurality while interlinked and connected to a range of rural and non-rural contexts. Theorising through the binary model of rurality and non-rurality is no longer relevant because the theories are blurred. I showed how theories of rurality are cracking, because they are not reflective of contemporary rurality because what happens in rurality does not stay in rurality. I have shown how my meta-theory, the 6-meta-impacts, plays out across the substantive theories of rurality. I offer a tentative list of theories that are cracking (see Table 30) as a point of departure, from which ongoing co-creation of the revisioning rurality can launch, wherein I advocate the ongoing co creation of the revisioning theories of rurality be informed by the 6-meta-impacts.

Table 30 Why rurality is cracking

People do not have equitable access to safe, quality air that is protected (from coal dust, grain dust, wood dust, noise)	People do not have equitable access to an adequate quantity of safe, affordable, accessible energy	People do not have equitable access to an adequate quantity of safe, affordable, accessible, quality food that is protected	People do not have equitable access to quality, safe, affordable, quality land assets that are protected	People do not have equitable access to quality, safe, accessible, quality ocean assets that are protected
People do not have equitable access to quality, safe, soil that is protected	People do not have equitable access to an adequate quantity of safe, affordable, accessible, quality water that is protected			
Rural contexts negotiate economic developments that impact the people and environment	People do not have equitable access to economic systems that support rural contexts	People do not have equitable access to an adequate quantity of safe, quality, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive employment	People do not have equitable access to an adequate quantity of safe, affordable, accessible, culturally responsive, quality, reliable housing / shelter	People do not have equitable access to an adequate quantity of safe, affordable, accessible, culturally responsive, quality, reliable sanitation
People do not have reliable and equitable, safe access to spiritual lands	People do not have equitable access to an adequate quantity of safe, affordable, accessible, quality, reliable, transport (bus, train, taxi)	Rural people have low incomes high poverty rates high unemployment	Rural contexts navigate immigrant workers (legal and illegal)	Rural people lack the benefits of the profits made from rurality
Rural environments are degrading: bio-diversity, eco-systems, landscapes, vistas	Climate change impacts on equitable access to adequate quantity of quality air, food, land, ocean assets, soil, and water; impacts also on energy sources, mining increases disease	In rural contexts there are dangerous plants, animals, pathogens	Rural contexts are impacted by invasive, non-endemic flora, fauna and disease	Climate change displaces rural people

People do not have equitable access to quality, affordable, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive health services	People do not have equitable access to quality, affordable, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive, service provision to support with social matters (aged care, alcohol, disability, domestic violence, drugs, homelessness, hunger, justice, poverty, unemployment, welfare)	Health of rural people is poor Wellbeing of rural people is poor Mortality rates of rural people are high	Quality of life in rurality is decreasing	Chemicals impact people and environment in rurality
People do not have equitable access to quality, affordable, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive education	Low education rates	Lack of access to education / schooling / tertiary / adult re/education		
People do not have equitable access to quality, affordable, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive government agencies (health, education, justice, transport, infrastructure)	People do not have equitable access to quality, affordable, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive utilities (energy, water, communications)	People do not have equitable access to quality, affordable, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive services (banks, shops)	People do not have equitable access to quality, affordable, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive recreation (sport / tourism)	People do not have equitable access to quality, affordable, accessible, reliable, culturally responsive lore / law / legal representation
Rural contexts and recreation	Rural contexts and tourism	Rural contexts and retirement	Rural contexts and lifestyle change	Rural contexts and spiritual connections
Mythologies that are perpetuated about rurality	Deficit theories of rurality	Rurality is a place where there is bigotry (ageism, sexism, racism)	Rurality is a place where there are positive social connections (peaceful, caring, close knit communities)	First Nations Indigenous are (valued / disregarded / killed)
Conflict over access to adequate supplies of safe air, food, land, oceans, soil, and water	Conflict over use of- access to- and poisoning of- air, food, oceans, soil, and water	Conflict over importation of food, water, and energy	Conflict over access to historical and cultural spaces	
Rural contexts are connected (global, local, translocal)	Physical infrastructure is at risk; infrastructure is failing (bridges, energy production, housing, ports, public buildings, roads, telecommunications, transportation)	Lack of safe extraction and processing of resources	Government (local, regional, state, national, international) and lack of support of rurality (policy and funding)	
FIFO	Out-migration / In-migration	Border control	In- and Out- migration of refugees / migrants / asylum seekers / skilled workers / youth / tourists / aged / Indigenous	People are not safe from war

I posit that revisioning rurality requires accounting for the deregulated and under regulated neoliberal led and capitalist privatised user-pays systems, endorsed by policy and funding of the nation-state, which has resulted in sales of public assets that led to services across rurality being de-funded, under-funded, and centralised. The centralisation of government service delivery, has seen policy, investment and delivery of services that underpin human systems (e.g. education, financial, governance, health, law) shift to non-rural contexts. This has created outmigration from rurality, and rurality deficit of essential services for rural people. The greed of wealthy who supported this is underscored by heteronormative, individualistic, industrialised Anglo-European-American old white Christian men with power, privilege and wealth, preferencing profits, and fossil fuels. Preferencing industrial processes of food production, and mining and energy production that created profits from globalisation of economic systems that lock people into patterns of 'modern slavery'. Thereby, substantiating contemporary forms of colonialism, invasion and genocide enacted by non-indigenous people in order to sacrifice the rural environments, rural people and their human systems in order to grow wealth for the few. These people have placed profit before humans and the planet.

National governments have supported multinational oligarchy in agribusinesses, mining, fossil fuels and energy to extract, process and manufacture, supporting the growth of wealth for those who reside non-rural, at the expense of those who live rural. I have offered case studies that showed colonial, invading, imperial forces entered rural contexts with systems of farming and mining that displaced people Indigenous to rural contexts and also displaced their knowledge systems. I have showed how the imported systems have locked rural people into cycles of dependence and debt, rendering them modern-day slaves. The local rural people are at once local and international. They are engaged to work in systems that value growth and financial return for people around the world based on the labouring of those living in local ruralities. The rural economy is owned by non-rural people with economic interests, not interests in environment, humans and the human systems that support them. Profits are divested from the rural contexts from which the profits are made. Revisioning rurality has shown, systems favour multinational oligarchy to ensure their ownership and control of the rural assets they commercialise. The profit from the large tracts of land in

rurality serve to favour only those few who accrue the bulk of the world's wealth. The results of the 6-meta-impacts have seen clean healthy life sustaining air, food and water become commodities that are expendable in order to ensure increasing profits for the few. Revisioning rurality has shown the multinationals leave rural contexts when it is no longer profitable enough for investors, without remediating rural people or environments.

There is growing contestation about who decides who owns and benefits from commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, humans who live rural and rural human systems. The contestation is evidenced by the struggle on one hand between prioritization of the corporate agendas of multinational oligarchy business and industry profiting from commercialising rural assets and on the other hand, the need to address the devastation to the natural rural environments, rural people and their human systems. In a world in which the activity in rural contexts is at once impacting on rural and non-rural contexts alike it is critical to determine theories that help us answer questions like who owns nature, how much is it worth, how much can the multinationals take and poison, how much should be given back to rurality, and how can there be assurance that rural contexts are remediated? As well as questions such as who owns humans who live rural, how much are they worth, how much can the multinationals take, poison, and kill humans, how much should be given back to humans living in rurality, and how can there be assurance that humans living in rural contexts are remediated? And, who owns human systems, how much are they worth, how much can the multinationals destroy, how much should be given back to sustain human systems, and how can there be assurance that human systems are remediated. That revisioning rurality has led to asking these questions beggars' belief.

Revisioning rurality has exposed an irony. The multinational oligarchy, supported by nation-states' policy and funding, accompanied by government, business and industry, commercialised rural elements, profited from the sale of the commercialised rural assets, and divested responsibility from rurality, destroyed the rural environment, destroyed rural people and destroyed the human systems that support rural people. Multinationals put their profits ahead of the health of the local natural rural elements, local rural people

and local human systems. The cost of remediation of the rurality are not born by those who profit from the commercial rural assets, but instead, are born by the natural rural elements, the rural people and their human systems. The ability of the oligarchy to continue to accrue increasing amounts of wealth from the exploitation of commercial rural assets through exploitation of natural rural elements through use of humans in rurality as if they were expendable, with scant regard for the human systems that support humanity, is now coming to a close. The multinational oligarchy and nation-states enacted colonialism, imperialism, ecocide and genocide towards the rural environment, rural people and the rural human systems. They used the rural contexts without regard for disposal of their waste and have poisoned rurality. The actions of the multinationals are now bringing about changes to climate and human systems that are extreme and irreversible. The elements of rurality they have exploited have been commercialised to the degree many of them are no longer viable investments. I write this sentence the week the price of oil dropped to minus (-) \$37.63 per barrel (Ngai, Raimonde & Longley, 2020, April 20). Revisioning rurality requires addressing impacts of climate change. As the world edges towards climate breakdown, the destruction caused by commercial activities that impact natural rural elements, rural humans and human systems equally impacts rurality and non-rural alike. The activity impacts access rural and non-rural have to quantity and quality of commodities such as air, animals, energy, food, fossil fuel, minerals, oceans, people, shelter, soil, and water. The increasing scarcity of these commodities and the acceleration of the scarcity of access to these commodities impacts rurality and non-rurality alike. Theories of rurality are simultaneously theories of non-rurality. The survival of humanity depends on the successful intersection of rurality and non-rurality.

An assumption of the current system represented in the meta-6-impacts is that rural community will use their time, money and knowledge to remediate and care for the most fundamental asset that keeps humans alive. However, environmental factors due to climate change are creating floods, tornadoes, droughts, heat, fires and rising sea levels that impact on the ability of rurality to offer commodities and remediate systems to ensure the commodities continue to sustain life. As the environments are poisoned and people unable to work the natural rural elements for profit, there is less rural asset to exploit,

commodify and from which to profit. The damage to the environment, humans and human systems is occurring at a rate from which there is no return to a world in which there are self-sustaining natural rural elements. The best we hope for now is a slowing down of the changes to the earth's atmosphere due to the breakdown of climatic systems. It is anticipated that the natural rural elements such as the seafood in the ocean, the ice in the arctic and Antarctic, the melting of glaciers, the biodiversity in the Amazonian Rainforest, the arctic peat, will never recover. Continuing to grow the commercial value of rural assets is unsustainable at this junction, for the natural rural assets are disappearing. The rural contexts are no longer able to support the multinational...the deregulated neoliberal capitalist framework have destroyed the systems that supported their growth. The model perpetuates itself, rurality continues its downward spiral of demise, the narrow knowledge systems and deregulated neoliberal capitalist economic frameworks, feeding the multinational oligarchy continue to spiral downwards along with the rural communities. The acceleration of the end of neoliberal capitalism is leading towards the creation of a theory of rurality that is post-capitalist. For the neoliberal system is imploding on itself. Worthy of consideration is theorising rurality as not *rural for production*, but instead, *rural for post-production*. Perhaps what I have been advocating as theorises of rurality can now to be considered theories of humanity. For the demise of systems in rurality, impact rural and non-rural contexts and people. The rural and urban and at once linked and impact on one another. In response, to failings in ruralities, people are migrating, seeking refuge and asylum.

Revisioning rurality requires accounting for and managing the impacts in rural contexts that result in the movement of- and support for- Indigenous, refugees, asylum seeker, migrants who are displaced by the results of the 6-meta-impacts. These people seek to move in order to stay alive. Revisioning rurality requires examination of the ways in which the results of the 6-meta-impacts destroy community and cultural frameworks, leaving people who cannot move across nation-states to die – genocide through neoliberal ecocide. The revisioning must also account for the knowledge systems of the rural people Indigenous, refugees, asylum seeker, and migrants for they understand what is required to remediate rural contexts.

The philosophical underpinnings used to revision theories of rurality have power. I recommend determining and articulating the philosophical underpinnings, used to create substantive theories of rurality, of the organisation creating theories, of the data itself, and the ways in it which the data was collected, of the research and the ways in which the research was conducted, of the policy positioning informing the theorising and the impact of funding allocation. I recommend preferencing the philosophies of the Indigenous people and those living in rurality.

The process of revisioning rurality requires organisations to support policy and funding that involves an immediate shift to valuing rurality and valuing those living and working in rural contexts. I recommend the determination of the true costs to all of rurality (commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, humans and human systems) when costing policy positions. Future work requires that value be attached to the natural rural elements, the value of humans in rurality, and the value of the human systems that sustain and support people living in rural contexts. I recommend a move to the attribution of a cost to goods, products and services that are purchased, that include the cost to the natural rural assets inclusive of the cost of disposal of the commodities.

All people across all rural and non-rural contexts require people living and working in rural contexts for the survival of humanity. As the world navigates the impact of the climate, economic, education, health, legal, political and spiritual crises, it will only become clearer that people in rural contexts support life of those living rural and non-rural. For the rural contexts are where the biodiversity, ecosystems, energy, food, resources and water exist, commodities that support rurality and non-rurality. Rurality will necessarily, increase in priority. The survival of our planet and humanity requires people to live and work in rural contexts to do the work required to nurture the natural rural elements that facilitate the commercialisation of rural assets. The work of the rural people ensures all humanity is fed, watered, sheltered, protected, educated, and healthy, has access to reliable energy and resources that support governance and spirituality - human systems that support our survival.

Revisoning rurality revealed that a lack of integrated governmental policy positioning, funding and support for rurality now requires the populace to demand nation-states challenge the multinational oligarchy. Nation-states cannot assume farmers will continue to subsidise the cost of producing food for the citizens of a nation-state particularly when the generation to which the farm may pass has other vocational options that do pay an income. The nation-states must insist the multinational agricultural oligarchy pay famers for food in ways that does not lock the farmer into cycles of ongoing debt. Nations-states cannot assume citizens will fund the clean-up of the environment left poisoned by multinational oligarchy energy, mining, fossil fuel, manufacturing and pharmaceutical companies. Nation-states must redress out-migration of people from rural communities for without people living in rural contexts, the management of natural rural elements and commercial rural assets are at risk. Due to increasing impacts of climate change, nation-states must plan to manage for an acceleration of an increasing scarcity of resources including food. This scarcity exposes national and international security, wherein the security risk impacts rural and non-rural alike.

Nation-states must address inequities that pertain to land ownership with respect to multinational and nation-state investment in rurality, policy related to landownership and land use and management of the natural rural assets. Nation-states cannot have it both ways. They cannot provide food security without policy, funding and resourcing of rural communities that produce the food. This includes policy positions that address multinationals and nation-states owning, using, exploiting and poisoning the land and natural rural assets of the land.

I offered the model of the 6-meta-impacts as a way to support ongoing revisoning rurality. It is a model I recommend can be used to critique and challenge substantive theories of rurality and theorising of rurality.

I recommend that:

- The world looks to value the knowledge systems of Indigenous, First Nations peoples, asylum seekers, refugees, migrants and displaced people for these people have managed to maintain societies in rural contexts for thousands of years. I advocate it is their knowledge systems may be

what we rely on in order to support the current world recover and sustain life on the planet. It is time to challenge the pervasiveness of the dominance of the hegemony of *narrow knowledge systems*. Revisioning rurality can lead the movement towards a world post reliance on narrow knowledge systems and instead towards reliance on knowledge systems of Indigenous, First Nations peoples, asylum seekers, refugees, migrants and displaced people.

- The world looks to acknowledge the failed deregulated neoliberal capitalist economic models and that they be decommissioned. For not only has this system impacted rurality, but has also impacted non-rural contexts, and is now starting to fail the very neoliberal capitalists who have relied on the system to increase their wealth. Revisioning rurality can lead the movement towards a world post deregulated neoliberal capitalist economic model.
- The world looks to undo the multinational oligarchy that it was claimed were 'too big to fail', for indeed not only have they failed, they have left in their wake, untold destruction to the environment, people and human systems. Revisioning rurality can lead the movement towards a post-capitalist structure.
- The world must now look to urgently, immediately and completely divest from fossil fuels in order to start to address the destruction of the climactic systems. For predications are clear, earth cannot sustain life on the planet as we know it for many more years, let alone decades. Revisioning rurality can lead to a world post-fossil fuel.
- The world must now look to urgently manage the *movement of people* who will continue to move across nation-state borders in increasing numbers as they seek clean healthy water and food. Revisioning rurality can lead to a world post-nation-state border.
- The world must also look to navigate ways to manage increases in war and conflict. It may be that no theory can lead to a world post-war and conflict.

The international systems of power, currently, preference numbers on a screen they believe represent monetary wealth over clear air, healthy food, water, soils and oceans. As prophetic as Dr Seuss seems to

have been with *The Lorax*, and even with the wise adage of the ancient Indigenous peoples such as the words that begin my thesis, words that were pinned up in the kitchen of my childhood home all my life:

When the Last Tree Is Cut Down, the Last Fish Eaten, and the Last Stream Poisoned,

You Will Realize You Cannot Eat Money (Native American Wisdom)

Revisioning rurality exposes the demise of systems in ruralities that parallel the demise of non-ruralities.

Revisioning rurality argues that it may be rural that is at the centre, that at once we are all connected, rural and non-rural alike. What is required, to address the current situation is strong leadership. Leadership that is bespoke for rurality.

SECTION TWO

Theorising rural educational leadership

Current research about educational leadership is informed and configured through an array of substantive theories. However, there is not a similar quantity of research in relation to substantive theories about *rural* educational leadership. This is due, in part, to a lack of breadth and depth about rural educational leadership in the scholarship. While research about rural educational leadership continues to grow, it remains reliant on results of research about educational leadership more broadly. Over time, as scholars choose to focus their research *only* on *rural* educational leadership, theorising rural educational leadership with reference to *only* investigations about *rural* educational leadership, similarly, will continue to grow. The original contribution to knowledge offered in Section Two is the moving of scholarship towards theorising rural educational leadership with reference to scholarship *only* about *rural* educational leadership.

It is claimed that the context in which rural school leadership operates demands differentiated attention and there is a 'paucity of research on this specialized focus' (Preston & Barnes, 2017, p. 6). This is not a new claim. In 2013, scholars highlighted there is little research that supports leaders in non-urban schools (Clayton, Sanzo & Myran, 2013). The claim remains current, for the OECD noted in 2019, comparative research on rural education is still 'rare' believing the OECD publication to be 'one of the first papers looking at the factors shaping students' learning experience in rural communities from an international perspective' (Echazarra & Radinger, 2019, p. 9). In this seventy-seven-page OECD report, less than one page, focused on rural educational leadership (p. 41). The need for greater research about rural educational leadership is supported by Klar et al. (2019) who recently stated, 'more research is required to understand better how to support leadership development in all schools but particularly in high-needs, rural schools that have difficulty attracting and retaining effective school leaders' (p. 2). The research undertaken for this thesis, addresses the lack of research about rural education more broadly and rural educational leadership specifically.

The importance of the role of educational leader has long been consistently validated in research (McNeff, 2014; Sibbet, 2013; Dimmock, 2012; Stoll 2009; Mulford, 2004). The role of the school principal and educational leadership has been shown to be a 'powerful driver of improved educational outcomes' (Herman et al., 2017, p. 1). For example, Barber and Mourshed (2009) show how outstanding principals can be expected to increase student achievement by twenty percentile points. Educational leadership preparation has been shown to be a critical reform strategy (Tucker, Young & Koschoreck, 2012; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Bottoms & O'Neil, 2001; Farkas, Johnson, Duffett, Foleno & Foley, 2001). This doctoral project is limited to the role of the school principal, because research shows the role of the principal is significant to a myriad of elements related to schooling, including, for example, the impact principals have on student learning (Hattie, 2015; Eacott, 2013; Hattie, 2012; Germeten, 2011; Reeves, 2010; Macbeth & Dempster, 2009; Robinson, Hohepa & Lloyd, 2009; Winn et al., 2009a & 2009b; Lewis & Murphy, 2008; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Caldwell, 2006; Marzano et al., 2004; Fullan, 2002; Lessote, 1992; Lezotte, 1991) which research has demonstrated for decades (Day, Sammons, Hopkins, Harris, Leithwood, Gu & Brown, 2010; Heck & Hallinger, 2009; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2004; Winn et al., 2009a & 2009b; Lessote, 1992; Lezotte, 1991). Indeed, Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004) noted 'leadership not only matters: it is second only to teaching among school-related factors in its impact on student learning' (p. 7). And, 'after six additional years of research, we are even more confident about this claim' (Louis et al., 2010, p. 9). The research for this thesis focused on *rural* educational leadership to address the 'paucity' of research in the important area of *rural* educational leadership.

Revisoning rurality in Section One confirmed that context is important. Results of Section One showed that at once, rural and non-rural contexts are similar to-, different from-, and interdependent upon one another. Section One demonstrated that revisoning rurality required differentiation for the different rural contexts in which research about rurality was being conducted. The OECD (Echazarra & Radinger, 2019, p. 7) recommended research

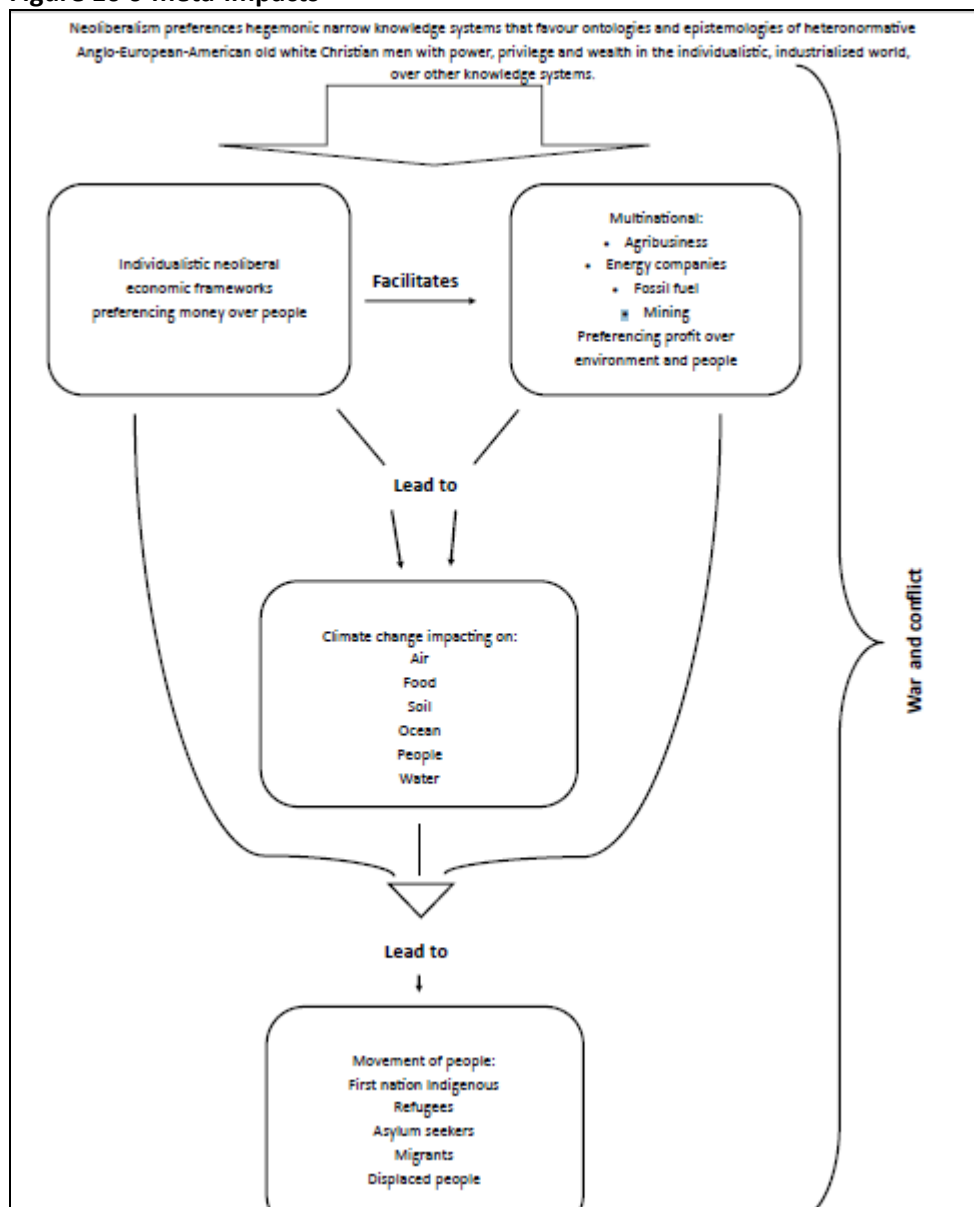
consider the similarities and differences in social, economic and other contextual factors and the way they interact with educational processes and outcomes in different places beyond an “urban-rural” dichotomy (Biddle & Azano, 2016; Burdick-Will & Logan, 2017).

Results from Section One supported the notion that rural / non-rural binary models are neither useful nor relevant and cannot account for the complexities of rural contexts when revisioning rurality. Results from Section Two reinforce this notion, showing that theorising rural educational leadership through dichotomous frameworks is not useful. To replace binary modelling, I show the importance of exploring the ways in which ‘contextual factors’ (Echazarra & Radinger, 2019, p. 7) impact rurality and rural educational leadership. Indeed, this thesis theorises rural educational leadership through developing a theory that accounts for the complexities inherent in rural contexts, rural education and rural educational leadership. Such a theory requires flexibility to account for the specificities of ruralities, the bespoke nature of each rural context in which the rural principals live and work, and the complexities inherent to the role of principal as it relates to each different rural context.

Section One developed a theorising of rurality with respect to 6-meta-impacts (see Figure 10) in which the work showed rural contexts are negatively impacted by neoliberalism. It also showed the ways in which people in rural contexts have skills, knowledge and knowledge systems to address the negative impacts. Important to understand when theorising education is that theories in education are historically linked to theories from business and management (Dimmock & Walker, 2005). This has resulted in individualistic neoliberal economic frameworks impacting educational research. Neoliberalism preferences hegemonic *narrow knowledge systems* that favour ontologies and epistemologies of heteronormative Anglo-European-American old white Christian men with power, privilege and wealth in the individualistic, industrialised world, over other knowledge systems. The neoliberal frameworks value money, over people and the environment. Neoliberal theories in education, favour reliance on- and preference for- positivist epistemologies that value quantitative data. This data is test results from students assessed through the use of commercialised standardised testing regimes that test for student expertise about *narrow knowledge systems*. This has resulted in knowledge of rural people and knowledge systems valuable in rural

contexts being usurped, because testing regimes are dominated by narrow knowledge systems of those living in non-rural-centric contexts. This thesis argues the reliance on *narrow knowledge systems* is adversative to rural education.

Figure 10 6-meta-impacts



A lack of understanding about rurality and a lack of valuing of rurality has led to governmental policy positioning preferencing neoliberal capitalist *multinational interests* to dominate decision making, policy creation and funding decisions. This has resulted, as shown in Section One, in the destruction of the systems in rurality that sustain life on our planet. Ironically neoliberal capitalist *multinational interests* are

destroying the very systems (oceans, soil and water) that provide them with profit. In theorising rural educational leadership, it remains vital to enunciate the importance of the rural principal. For it is the rural principals who support rural teachers to educate rural students, the students who learn the skills and knowledge that empower them to care for rurality, so all humans, those living in rural and non-rural, can continue to exist. The preferencing of *narrow knowledge systems* and *multinational interests* has put rural systems at risk and created a collapse in climate systems that have led to the climate emergency. Results of the 6-meta-impacts have destroyed critical systems including air, biodiversity, ecosystems, food, ocean, renewable-energy, soil and water. The destruction of these systems impacts rurality and non-rurality alike. For all people need healthy biodiversity and ecosystems in order to ensure humanity can access clean healthy air, food, renewable-energy, and water.

Indigenous First Nations people are impacted by what happens in rurality. The theorising rural educational leadership in this thesis, recognises the importance of knowledge systems of Indigenous First Nations people who live in-, and are educated in-, rural contexts. This thesis argues the knowledge of these people is valuable because they have been caring for the planet for up to 80,000 years. Their knowledge and knowledge systems have much to contribute to support the world address the results of the 6-meta-impacts. One result of the 6-meta-impacts is that people are being displaced from rural contexts. The displacement is occurring in increasing numbers of people and at increasing rates. People are moving, in order to stay alive. Later, this thesis cites data that shows, it is predicted that hundreds of millions of people will move within-, from-, to- and across- rural contexts, non-rural contexts and nation-state borders. Education systems must be equipped to address the needs of these people and it is the rural principal who leads these systems. The work of the rural principal is becoming increasingly important to addressing the results of the 6-meta-impacts, results from which are felt most acutely in rural contexts. The 6-meta-impacts is one of the nine tools that inform theorising rural educational leadership.

Section Two theorises rural educational leadership, advocating for substantial investment into the ongoing co-creation and co-development of the theorising. Ongoing research about rural education and rural educational leadership is critical at this juncture. Critical because it is in rurality that results from the 6-meta-impacts are accurately felt and it is in rurality that the impacts can be addressed. The complexity of rurality and rural education for the rural principal is compounded by the results the 6-meta-impacts have in rural community. This thesis advocates, the role of rural educational leader is one that can support the world as it moves to address the results of the 6-meta-impacts. Section Two concludes by theorising rural educational leadership with a theory that is agile because it is supported by nine tools designed to account for complexity in rural educational leadership.

Neoliberal systems

Across the globe, narrow knowledge systems continue to inform the implementation of neoliberal philosophies in education. This includes the commodification of education and commodification of educational resources and programs purchased for use in schools. There is also an increasing number of organisations trading in professional development (PD) courses that create commercial training and development (T&D) and resources targeted directly to rural principals. The content of the professional development reinforces neoliberal thinking such as that seen through the valuing and implementation of commodified standardised testing regimes created by multinational organisations. These testing regimes value *narrow knowledge systems* where resultant quantifiable positivist student learning data is then used to measure educational success. This is evidenced through the importance attributed to internationally collected data through, for example, the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) testing and Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) testing. There is also importance attributed to national testing regimes conducted by nation-states. In Australia, governments endorse the National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) testing. The assumption is that success - or not - of individual students, their schools³ and by extension the work of the school principal, is able to be numerated. Apparently, the number attributable to student learning outcomes from a narrow range of

³ The Australian *myschool* website (ACARA, NDb) shares student results from NAPLAN testing, empowering community to compare schools by NAPLAN test results (ACARA, 2016).

standards that are related to a discipline (subject) and age group, offers evidence of student learning. It is noted that neoliberal reforms in education and standardising education is antithetical to education as demonstrated in current scholarship (Fuller & Stevenson, 2019; Duncan & Sankey, 2019; Cervone, 2018).

Later in Section Two, examination of international - and national - standardised testing regimes show that test results highlight deficits in the learning of rural students, Indigenous peoples, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people. This is because the tests do not preference skills and knowledge that are valuable in rural contexts or to indigenous knowledge. This begs the question, how would education respond to international- and national- testing regimes wherein students were assessed as successful – or not – with reference to their ability to erect a 1,000 kilometre fence, shear a sheep or goat, milk a cow or camel, access natural water sources and grow food in ways that were sustainable year-in, year-out. I suspect the non-rural students may well fail *en mass* and be considered ‘deficit’ in their learning. This thesis suggests, current standardised testing regimes are to the detriment to humanity, because they do not value skills and knowledge brought to school by rural students, where these skills and knowledge are valuable to rural and non-rural communities. Results of research of this thesis can be used to advocate, that in 2020, it is time to value the skills and knowledge systems inherent in rural contexts because it may well be these skills and knowledge systems that support humans to survive the globe’s current multiple crises. It is the skills and knowledge of people in rural contexts that is required to sustain healthy rural systems that in turn sustain human life.

Dimmock and Walker (2005) note substantial research theorising educational leadership derives from theories of business management. However, it can be argued, education is moving away from positivist notions of education underpinned by neoliberal models of thinking that preference theories from business management. Instead, education is looking to use other measures of success in students’ education. For in 2019,

expectations of schools now focus much more on inclusivity, on the need to develop egalitarian education systems that value every person equally and provide each with the opportunity to achieve their potential as a healthy, happy human being (Brown et al., 2019, p. 458).

The world is moving to education systems that value more than that tested in standardised testing regimes.

For as Reynolds and Warfield (2010) note,

today's educational leaders are expected to recognize and assume shared responsibility not only for the intellectual and educational development of students, but also for their personal, social, emotional, and physical development (p. 61).

This thesis argues, it is timely to theorise education and educational leadership distinct from historic disciplinary links with theories of business-management. Instead, this doctoral research theorises rural educational leadership through preferencing studies of rurality and rural educational leadership.

Context

Results from research show context matters and context is important to consider when engaged in research about education and educational leadership. School contexts are defined in different ways in the scholarship, highlighting that it is important to make clear, what is meant by 'context' when conducting research about rural education and rural educational leadership. Empirical research highlights links between patterns of successful leadership practice and different types of school context (Hallinger & Heck, 2011; Day et al., 2010). In their discussion of 'context', Hallinger and Heck (2011) refer to environmental and organizational conditions that moderate a school's capacity for improving student learning. Subsequent work by Hallinger (2018a) sought to 'bring 'contexts for leadership' out of the shadows by illuminating features often hidden in the background of leadership studies' (p. 6).

Research about rural educational leadership explores relationships between school contexts and the role of the rural principal. Yakavets and colleagues (2017, p. 366) offer a way to define school context inclusive of school leadership (see Figure 11). I advocate the addition of a fourth capital - 'cultural capital' (see Figure 12). This thesis defines 'cultural capital' as the cultural intelligence and culturally specific knowledge

systems brought to schooling contexts by Indigenous peoples, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people. This includes valuing the understandings people from different cultures bring to schooling, about educational and educational leadership. It is important to add 'cultural capital' to a model that defines school context, for research shows it is important principals' value Indigenous content, pedagogy, epistemology and knowledge that Indigenous cultures can offer rural schooling (Kassam, Avery & Ruelle, 2017; Giles & Smith, 2012). In addition, scholars advocate leadership is culture specific (Brown & Conrad, 2007; Blasé, 1987). Further, studies of cross-cultural organisational behaviour, through a comparison of western and non-western leadership styles, confirm culture influences leadership styles and leadership theories (Yakavets et al., 2017; Dickson, Den Hartog & Mitchelson, 2003).

Figure 11 Defining school context

Removed due to copyright restriction

Source (Yakavets et al., 2017, p. 366)

Figure 12 Modified from 'Defining school context'

Removed due to copyright restriction

Source: Adapted from (Yakavets et al., 2017, p. 366).

Different from - and in addition to - the elements of the Yakavets et al. model of school context (Figure 11), is the need to enunciate the specificities of rural contexts. Theorising rural educational leadership is a complex endeavour because rural principals work across a variety of rural contexts. This thesis offers examples of ways to investigate the relationship between rurality, rural educational leadership, context, culture, and knowledge systems. It also offers examples of ways in which to account for context. Therefore, *context* is one of the nine tools that inform theorising rural educational leadership.

Indigenous peoples' knowledge systems

Rural contexts are marked by populations of Indigenous peoples who have developed education systems and educational leadership systems over thousands of years. These systems tend to not be underpinned by individualistic systems characterised by neoliberalism, but instead, are dependent on knowledge valued and shared by- and for the good of- the whole community (Hughes & Laura, 2018; Cajete, 1994; Battiste, 2002). This can result in clashes between traditional systems and Anglo-European-North American systems. For example, in rural South Africa, educational systems assume young people and students will respect

their elders and leaders (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010). Where Anglo-European-North American education systems allow for youth voice where teachers gain and earn the respect of the young people and students, wherein teachers and leaders allow student voice to challenge staff and inform education (Leek, 2019).

This thesis theorises rural educational leadership with reference to knowledge systems of Indigenous peoples, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people. It remains important to challenge research that theorises rural educational leadership through the *narrow knowledge systems* because the resultant 6-meta-impacts continue to create damage to the rural environment displacing people from their homelands. The nation-states that embrace and care for people who move across the globe, increasingly, require theories of education and educational leadership to support incorporation of the knowledge systems of those who move.

Rural school ruptures: invasion, genocide, colonisation

Indigenous peoples live in rural contexts (see Table 31), therefore, consideration of the impact of Indigenous culture on the role of the rural principal is important to investigate when theorising rural educational leadership. The impact of invasion, genocide, and colonisation, have impacted Indigenous peoples in rural contexts and continue to impact in 2020. A critique of ongoing colonial approaches to education (Lewthwaite, Owen, Doiron, Renaud & McMillan, 2014; Apple, 2013; Lester, Minutjukur, Osborne & Tjitayi, 2013) is why this thesis references research about the ways school principals support the range of cultures represented in the student body enrolled at their school.

Table 31 Indigenous population information

Country (year of census)	Numbers of people	Indigenous people as a percentage of total population	Number of nations / people / <i>iwi</i> / tribes	Population
Australia (2016)	Indigenous population: 798,400 (ABS, 2018)	3.3% (ABS, 2018)	256 nations (AIATSIS, ND)	In 2016, 37% of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people lived in the Major Cities of Australia In 2016, 63% of the Indigenous population lived in the rural contexts: . 23.7% lived in Inner Regional Australia, . 20.3% lived in Outer Regional Australia, . 6.7% lived in Remote Australia and . 11.9% lived in Very Remote Australia (ABS, 2018)
Canada (Statistics Canada, 2020)	Total population of Canada: 31,241,030 3.75% identify as aboriginal (1,670,000 people)	4.9%	>630 First Nations communities	In 2011, 44% of aboriginal people were living in the non-urban environment
Aotearoa – NZ (New Zealand Government, ND)	598,605 (Indigenous people)	14.9%	290 <i>iwi</i>	
USA (United States Census Bureau, 2012)	5,220,579 (Indigenous people)	1.7% of the population identified as American Indian or Alaska Native	566 tribes (NCSL, 2020)	In 2012 30% of American Indians lived in non-urban areas (Williams, 2013, April 13)

In Australia, 65% of Indigenous Australians live in rural contexts. The ontologies and epistemologies that define the ways in which Indigenous Australians theorise where they live, is predominantly informed by life lived in rural contexts. As a significant percentage of Indigenous people live in rural contexts, I argue, theorising rural educational leadership be informed by anthropology. Educational anthropologists have long understood all teaching is political and there is no such thing as neutrality in the classroom (Nygreen, Lazdowski & Bialostok, 2017). Taking a trans-disciplinary approach to research about educational leadership is supported through work of scholars such as Walker and Dimmock (2000) who acknowledge the field of educational leadership and management has developed along ethnocentric lines, heavily dominated by Anglo-American paradigms and theories. As a way of redressing historical ethnocentricity, this thesis advocates that theorising rural educational leadership occur with respect to theories of educational anthropology.

An example of principals addressing historical ethnocentricity in education has been undertaken. It occurred with reference to the ways in which rural principals supported communities through the changes that during the post-1994 South African government / post-apartheid era. During this time, education systems required rural principals to support rural communities through the changes required to navigate the cultural shift (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010). It is important to understanding the ways in which rural principals supported rural communities to navigate change in 'turbulent times' (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010, p. 203). Currently, rural principals are supporting rural communities through 'turbulent' times, due to the results of the 6-meta-impacts. It is important to understand how principals enact this work, for research has shown, how leadership is undertaken and evolves schools, can accelerate or hinder the social change required to address disparities (Berryman, Egan & Ford, 2017, p. 531).

Rural leadership for displaced people

Internationally, there is increasing displacement of people including Indigenous citizens, refugees, asylum seekers, and migrants. It is anticipated the rate at which people move across the globe will increase, presenting challenges to nation-states. The need for rural principals to understand ways to accommodate cultural diversity in rural schools as people move around the world will also need to increase. This thesis posits non-rural principals will also benefit from revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership for the theorising will support them accommodate displaced people who move from rural contexts to non-rural schools. The movement of people and the need for rural principals (and non-rural principals) to accommodate the people who move is occurring across the world, occurring with an increasing number of people, and occurring at increasing rate.

The movement of people across the globe continues to grow as evidenced by data. The United Nations website DESA/Population Division showed the annual urban population estimate for the planet mid-year 2019 was calculated at 4,299,439,000 (UN, 2018a). The annual rural population estimated for the planet mid-year 2019 was calculated to be 3,415,138,000 (UN, 2018a). In 2019 with the world's population estimated to be around 7.7 billion people, an unprecedented 70.8 million people had been forcibly

displaced worldwide (Doctors of the World, 2020), representing movement of some 1% of the world's population. Of note for this research, almost half the world's refugees are children of school age (Wood, 2019b, June 20). The UNHCR noted that of the 7.1 million refugee school age children (UNHCR, NDb, p. 2), 3.7 million – more than half – were out of school (NDb, p. 4). The number of refugee children requiring enrolment in school, will only increase. Data in Figure 13 illustrates the upward trend (UNHCR, 2019).

Figure 13 UNHCR numbers of displaced people 2009-2018

Removed due to copyright restriction

UNHCR. (2019). *Global trends. Forced displacement in 2018*. Author: Geneva. Retrieved from www.unhcr.org/5d087ee7.pdf, p. 5.

The *Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees* did not reference climate change refugees in *Part II Global compact on refugees* (UN, 2018b). However, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (iDMC) did. The iDMC estimated that in 2018, there were around 17,188,000 new displacements due to natural disasters and 10,780,000 due to conflict and violence (iDMC, 2018). Predictions showed there will be 200- to 250-million additional climate-change related displacements by the year 2050 (Myers & Kent, 1995, p. 18). This would make the crisis of displaced persons due to the number of people affected by climate change the greatest refugee crisis in history (Biermann & Boas, 2010, p. 62). The UN recognised the importance of addressing issues brought about by of the large movements of

refugees and migrants (UN, 2016). Increasingly, people need to move in order to survive climate change, nation-states will be required to open their borders to accommodate displaced people, and the children will require education. It is the rural principals who are well placed to understand ways to accommodate people who are displaced from rural contexts and who move to rural contexts.

Students, who are displaced, are migrants into the country in which they settle. The OCED note that, ‘immigrant students are more than twice as likely as their non-immigrant peers to perform below the baseline level of proficiency in science’ (OECD, 2016a, p. 4) (see Table 32). The learning data also highlighted the ‘performance between immigrant and non-immigrant students, after accounting for economic, social and cultural status or ESCS and language spoken at home’ (OECD, 2016a, p. 8) was significantly lower for migrant students. Examples of learning results from four countries were taken from the report and are offered in Table 32 as indicative data. The data highlighted the migrant students who were new to the schooling systems in these countries achieved less when compared to students who were not dealing with the complexities of displacement. The deficit is indicated by the use of the minus ‘-’ symbol. PISA learning data highlights to decision makers who value positivist quantitative data-sets, there is a need for action to redress the inequity that presented as lower testing results for displaced students.

Table 32 Immigrant vs non-immigrant 2015 PISA Science score test results

Nation-State	Performance between immigrant and non-immigrant students, after accounting for ESCS and language spoken at home
Australia	-8
Canada	-11
Aotearoa-NZ	-9
USA	-10

Source : (OECD, 2016a, p. 9)

This deficit reading of the data is particularly pertinent to consider, when we know movement of people will only increase as the world adapts to the results of the 6-meta-impacts. The need to support rural principals is critical because we know principals have the highest impact on student learning results, second only to teachers. A deficit in learning because you are immigrant - as we look to a future planet in which it is predicted that hundreds of millions of people will be immigrant - is a cost in educational opportunity the

world simply cannot afford. It is timely to consider implementation of theories that support rural principals, educate students of all cultural heritages.

This thesis advocates the OECD value the collection of- and disaggregation of- data regarding the learning of not just immigrants, but also Indigenous people, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people. And that the data be disaggregated and used to identify ways in which to work towards improving the learning outcomes of all student groups. However, there is no detail in the PISA data relating to the performance of Indigenous students or performance of students from the range of cultural backgrounds in the reports. Instead, the OECD reports stated that 'data on students' ethnic backgrounds is only generated and analyzed in country reports' (May, Flockton & Kirkham, 2016, p. 29). However, we knew, for example, in Canada, tracking achievement among Aboriginal students was limited (Friesen & Krauth, 2012, p.11) and in New Zealand, Smith (2017) noted 'there are still major disparities between the academic results of *Māori* and non-*Māori* students' (p. 167). *Culture* is one of the nine tools that inform theorising rural educational leadership.

Substantive theory of cultural educational leadership

Research undertaken to investigate rural educational leadership, with respect to large numbers of Indigenous, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people, led me to develop a substantive theory of educational leadership - the theory of cultural educational leadership (CEL). The theory of CEL supports rural principals support the learning of students from a range of cultural heritages. This thesis argues, principals need to know that the scholarship shows, different cultures have different understandings about what is important to leadership. Scholarship also shows there are culturally mediated understandings that underpin educational leadership training that claim to develop and prepare school leaders (Asuga, Eacott & Scevak, 2015). For example, for many in Africa, leadership development involves mostly 'learning by doing', informal mentoring and less formal training opportunities (Owusu, Kalipeni, Awortwi & Kiiru, 2017). Where in Africa, leaders tend to incorporate a 'humanistic' approach (Jackson, 2004) in line with the African concept of *Ubuntu* which 'dictates that, if we [are] to be human, we need to recognize the genuine

otherness of our fellow citizens' (Louw, 2001, p. 23). *Ubuntu* offers a powerful frame for sense-making capable of holding the paradox of individual and community in dynamic and interdependent tension (Owusu et al., 2017, p. 243). To contrast with Oman, the quality of school administration relies primarily on the values held and practiced by school principals such as cooperation, devotion, respect, commitment, responsibility and citizenship (Al-Ani & A-Harthi, 2017).

Detail about the theory of CEL can be found in a recent YouTube video lecture (Hardwick-Franco, 2018, October 25). CEL offers rural principals a way to negotiate their role, accounting for the education of all members of the school community, no matter the cultural heritage of each student. CEL supports rural principals as the world moves into a phase during which it is anticipated the movement of displaced people across the world will accelerate, resulting in rural principals needing to manage schools in which there are increasing numbers of different cultures represented in the student body. In a multicultural environment, scholarship recommends educators advocate for culturally responsive and relational-based methodologies (Berryman, SooHoo & Nevin, 2013). Gay suggests (2000) culturally responsive teachers teach to- and through- the strength of their students. CEL posits, school principals be similarly culturally responsive by working to- and through- the range of cultural strengths inherent in their increasingly culturally diverse communities.

A theory that underpins the development of CEL is critical theory as it relates to education. This is best articulated by Freire (1986) in the ground breaking work, *Pedagogy of the oppressed*, for which he is credited with bringing critical theory to education. In his work Freire supports teachers working *with* the *oppressed* people. CEL similarly advocates the benefits of working *with* the people being taught. In addition, I advocate not just working with the students being taught, but instead I advocate for a *whole-of-community* response to *co-create* schooling. Strategies that support principals to enact leadership that support school staff and community members to co-create schooling have been shown to be successful (Tomlins-Jahnke, 2012; Cajete, 1994; Freire, 1986). CEL advocates school principals support school staff to work with students and their families from the range of cultural backgrounds, to co-create curriculum,

pedagogy and assessment with reference to the epistemological and ontological perspectives of the cultures represented in the student body. Underpinning the theory is the notion that it is only when cultural understandings of all students are reflected in and through the education system does it then support and benefit all humanity. The importance to my research, with regard to incorporation of the cultural understandings of all students and their respective cultures, is why I have incorporated into my thesis work by scholars who publish in languages other than English. While I cannot understand their research, I can incorporate their research through translations of their research that other scholars have undertaken. It is critical to the future of the understanding of global rural education that research incorporate the understandings of all.

Freire recommends supporting those who are 'oppressed people' because they experience injustice due to their cultural backgrounds. The relationship between educational leadership and social justice is an important consideration in relation to rural education (Hernandez & Marshall, 2017). Embedded in the scholarship and throughout this thesis, are instances of injustice as it relates to rurality, rural education and rural educational leadership. This occurs in order to identify the injustices with the view to creating solutions to redress the injustices. It has been stated that

critical pedagogy acknowledges the importance of being aware of the *socio-political* [author's italics] context in which schools and, ultimately, classrooms are located (Lewthwaite, Owen, Doiron, Renaud & McMillan, 2014, p.4).

CEL recommends the pedagogic school leader (as defined by Robinson, Hohepa & Lloyd, 2009) enact 'critical pedagogy' when leading staff. Further, CEL recommends the rural principal support staff to understand not just the '*socio-political*' context, but the *socio-political-cultural* context in which schools, classroom, curriculum context, pedagogy and assessment are located; that of the increasingly culturally diverse rural community.

A key tenant of CEL is co-creation. I am wedded to the concept of co-creation, as presented in my twitter feed (Hardwick-Franco, 2017, July), *academia.edu* site (Hardwick-Franco, 2017, November), website (Hardwick-Franco, 2018b) and publications (Hardwick-Franco, 2018a; Hardwick-Franco, 2018d; Hardwick-Franco, 2018e; Hardwick-Franco, 2019a; Hardwick-Franco, 2019b). As such, scholars are invited to co-contribute to the ongoing development of the theory of CEL. I encourage scholars who co-contribute to consider engaging in research underpinned by epistemological and ontological positioning of Indigenous peoples. For example, researchers use decolonial theory (Parra & Trinick, 2018), deploy research methodology based on *Kaupapa Māori* theory (Smith, 2003), use theories that privilege *Māori* language, knowledge and perspectives (Stewart & Dale, 2018), or culturally based Canadian knowledge systems (Lipka & Adams, 2004).

There is not scope within this project to research the interplay between training of principals, rurality, rural educational leadership, culturally diverse elements of the community and culturally diverse understandings of education and educational leadership. Instead, this thesis advocates that it is important that future research explore ways in which its rural principals are supported to negotiate 'knowledge systems about education' and 'knowledge systems about educational leadership'. Where these 'knowledge systems' are held by an increasing number of increasingly culturally diverse rural community groups enrolling students in rural schools. For rural principals will be required to navigate an increasingly diverse set of knowledge systems, from an increasingly diverse range of cultures, in the rural schools.

Critique of research about rural educational leadership

The following offers critique of research about educational leadership. Critique continues to be important, for it has been acknowledged,

the research agenda of educational leadership has utilised a narrow and under-theorised view of practice (Eacott, 2011, p. 135).

Further, I critique the research agenda of *rural* educational leadership for it has been theorised with reference to educational leadership, rather than with reference to research about *rural* educational leadership.

A critique of scholarship that theorises and researches rural educational leadership highlights that the research projects tend to be qualitative and developed through research projects that are context based and small scale. These projects usually focus on one rural principal, a group of rural educational leaders within one school, or rural educational leaders across a small cluster of schools, within- or across- a rural region. There is yet to occur, a significant number of large-scale research projects that investigate rural educational leadership at global scale across nation-states. This thesis shows it is timely for scholars to scale up research into rural education and rural educational leadership including investment into research that is longitudinal and / or incorporates a multi-nation-state, perspective. In a recent paper, the OECD (Echazarra & Radinger, 2019) note their publication about rural education is a unique example of research that investigates rural education and rural educational leadership with a global perspective. I looked for other examples of contemporary research about rural educational leadership that had a similar multi-nation-state perspective.

Critique of research about educational leadership is the focus scholars have on linking the 'effectiveness' of the rural principal or the 'impact' of the principal with reference to particular substantive theories about educational leadership. Substantive theories about educational leadership abound. It appears scholars who work in this area of research appear to believe they have a duty to create their own substantive theory

about educational leadership. I join this group, for post-doctorate, I will continue refining the theorising of rural educational leadership, with this thesis offering a step towards this ambitious goal.

Substantive theories of educational leadership

Educational leadership theories are proliferating. They are embedded in educational degrees around the world. Numerous studies about leadership,

have linked the Big Five traits to self-efficacy and have shown that people who are emotionally stable, assertive, sociable, energetic, dependable, responsible and achievement oriented...Believe they can perform the task necessary to operate successfully (Thoonen, Slegers, Oort & Peetsma, 2012, p. 453).

Harris (2012) showed how principals who use 'distributed leadership' improve student learning. Rhodes has shown 'effective change leadership' (2012, p. 243) is a 'precursor to school improvement'. It has been found nourishing a culture of relational trust and mutual respect are critical features in the change endeavour in Swedish and Australian schools (Edwards-Groves, Grootenboer & Ronnerman, 2016). Gronn (2000) suggested leadership is relational, interactional and happens continuously during the day where the notion of leadership in this context is a 'fluid' and an 'emergent' leadership style, rather than a fixed phenomenon. Begley (2006) investigated 'authentic leadership' in relation to school principals. An antithesis to this is 'bastard leadership', exposed by Wright in 2001. Hadfield and Jopling (2012) took a structural-pluralist approach to aspects of network theory and showed how this can inform development of school principals through the model of 'network leadership' while Sibbet (2013) explored 'visual leadership', which occurs where the principal focus on their own behaviour. Jones, Ransom and Chambers (2020) investigated those undertaking ethical leadership using the Values-Issues-Action model. There is also research that specifically focused on education leadership styles that are culturally sensitive. Hynds et al. (2016) show how 'culturally responsive leadership' worked in mainstream New Zealand secondary schools. Ting and Yeh (2014) found 'cooperative leadership' worked well in Taiwanese elementary schools while Kocolowski (2010) showed how 'shared leadership' worked in Turkish schools. Transformational leadership is of interest to scholars (Orr, 2006; Borden, Preskill & DeMoss, 2012; Jacobson & Cypress, 2012; Boske,

2011). Leithwood and Sun (2012) offered eleven characteristics of transformational leadership. Shields (2010) showed there are seven characteristics of transformative leadership. Bush (2011) identified six management and ten leadership models that fit the transformational leadership framework.

Robinson (2010) showed there are four elements of instructional leadership. These elements were deep leadership content knowledge, ability to solve complex problems, relational trust and development of curricula to foster integration of these elements. Studies showed skills in instructional leadership make a difference to teaching and learning. Research showed the top 15% of high-performing principals focused on instructional leadership and developing teachers, seeing their biggest challenges as improving teaching and curriculum (Barber, Whelan & Clark, 2010, p. 7). A meta-analysis of empirical work on the impact of various leadership approaches (Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008, p. 655) concluded that a comparison between instructional- and transformational- educational leadership showed the impact (on student learning outcomes) of instructional leadership is three- to four- times that of transformational leadership.

Despite a plethora of substantive educational leadership theories in the literature, more research needs to be conducted on identifying characteristics, features and traits needed to support and sustain successful, collaborative leadership in a *rural* school (Preston & Barnes, 2017). It is important rural principals learn about and understand the substantive educational leadership theories they enact for the theories they choose to implement and practice, impact improvement in student learning.

Substantive theory of palette educational leadership

With respect to the number of substantive educational theories that abound, I offer the theory of palette educational leadership (Hardwick-Franco, 2018e). *Palette educational leadership* is the notion that educational leaders have any number of substantive educational leadership theories at their disposal. The theory sees rural principals choosing from any number of substantive educational leadership theories that sit on their palette of choice, in order to fulfil the task at hand. However, choosing one substantive (rural) educational leadership theory from the palette may not best fit the task. Palette educational leadership

empowers rural principals to choose from the palette of options and blend, as an artist would blend colours from their palette, any number of substantive (rural) educational leadership theories in order to address the task to hand.

This thesis advocates training and development for rural educational leaders (Hardwick-Franco, 2019a) to support them to learn substantive educational leadership theories. This would ensure leaders can rely on a range of substantive theories of educational leadership when enacting the role of rural principal. Over time, increased research about rural educational leadership can increase the number and diversity of substantive *rural* educational leadership theories that sit on the metaphorical palette. Future substantive theories might, for example, include rural cultural educational leadership, rural instructional educational leadership, rural transformational educational leadership, and rural relational educational leadership.

This thesis shows scholars who research rural educational leadership continue to note there is significantly less research about rural educational leadership than educational leadership more broadly. This thesis also highlights the paucity of research about rural educational leadership that enacts longitudinal research and the paucity of research about rural educational leadership that encompasses a multi-nation-state perspective. In response, this thesis examines research about rural educational leadership to theorise rural education leadership.

Rural populations matter

It is timely to focus on rurality, rural education and rural educational leadership because there are significant numbers of people in rural contexts, their learning results are less than their non-rural peers, and the work they do in rural contexts matters to the future of the planet. In 2014 the OECD stressed the importance of research about rurality because agriculture is a critical producer of rural assets (OECD, 2014). The OECD notes these rural assets provide food, water, land and ecosystem services, such as biodiversity, landscape and renewable energy. Rural families also manage food production, renewable and non-renewable natural resources, protect water and borders (Kassam, Avery & Ruelle, 2017; Halsey, 2011).

Despite the critical work that occurs in rural regions, there is a long and pervasive history of undervaluing rural experiences (Schafft & Jackson, 2011), and undervaluing the significance of education in a rural setting (Avery, 2013).

Research that focuses on rural contexts is also important because there are significant numbers of people who live, learn and work in rural contexts. Data shows nearly half the world’s population reside in rural areas (UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, ND) and half of all students, across the globe, live in non-urban areas (Parsley & Barton, 2015). Information in Table 33 offers data to show there are significant

Table 33 Percentage of students in rural contexts

Percentage of students in rural contexts	Information source
Australia: 27% of Australian students attend rural schools	Thomson, De Bortoli, & Underwood, 2016
Britain: 15% of public-school students attend rural schools	Clarke, Surgenor, Imrich, & Wells, 2003
USA: One-third of public schools are rural 25% of American students attend a rural school	Williams, 2010
Globally: nearly half the world’s population (47.4 %) reside in rural areas	United Nations Development Program (UNDP), 2013
Globally: half of all students live in non-urban areas	Parsley & Barton, 2015

numbers and significant percentages of students who learn in rural contexts. Further, data in Table 34 shows the learning results of students in rural contexts, is less than that of their urban peers. Australian

Table 34 Education data pertaining to rural contexts

Education data pertaining to rural contexts	Information source
In 101 out of 105 countries there are higher percentages of students in rural contexts who have never been to school	UNESCO (NDb)
African rural students usually attain poorer results in standardized tests compared to their urban peers	SACMEQ, 2010
Out of the 46 countries where data is available, all rural youth have lower literacy than the national average	UNESCO (NDc)
Out of 108 countries, in every country, the population living in educational poverty is higher than the national average	UNESCO (NDa)

data (see Figure 14) shows the percentage of Australian students who meet educational milestones with reference to five geolocations. The data shows, the more remote students are from an Australian major

Figure 14 Percentage of Australian students meeting educational milestones by location

Figure deleted due to copyright

Source: (Lamb et al., 2015, p. 2).

city, the lower the percentage of rural students who meet educational milestones, and this is consistent across all three student age groups. The data shows the differences in results between students educated in rural- and non-rural-geolocations, but also shows, there are differences between students educated in different rural contexts.

The issues unique to rural principals

Another reason to focus on rurality is that research shows, the role of the rural principal is different from the role of the non-rural principal. An exploration of the research highlights a myriad of issues encountered specifically by rural principals (see Table 35) where scholars show leaders of rural schools' face challenges that are not as common in non-rural areas (Klar et al., 2019). Issues identified in scholarship from across the globe (see Table 35, Column 1) offer a glimpse into findings of research that focused on the role of the rural principal. The research indicated the nature of the issues, the breadth of the issues and the number of issues that impacted the rural principal. Research findings also highlighted the nature of the role can differ across nation-states. Further, research showed issues encountered by rural principals, are similar to- and

different from- rural principals across different rural contexts. This suggests, the role of the rural principal is related to the rural context in which the principal lives and works.

Table 35 Issues for rural principals

Column 1	Column 2
Issues for rural principals	Scholars
Equity-related issues in rural education	Tytler, Symington, Darby, Malcolm & Kirkwood, 2011
Issues related to limitations to professional growth	Jarzabkowski, 2003
Australian rural principals need support from their districts, and access to PD to assist them in what is identified as an isolated and overloaded position	Stewart & Matthews, 2015
In rural areas in Australia , there is the added pressure of high surveillance of performance and low anonymity for recovery from any 'errors of judgement'	Halsey, 2011, p. 10
In rural China , resourcing is an issue with a lack of stationery, overcrowded transport systems and half-built infrastructure	Lebens & Radigan, 2007
In rural USA there are limited resources	Howley, Pendarvis & Woodrum, 2005 Lock, Budgen, Oakley & Lunay, 2012 Woodrum, 2005
In Norway principals report little support from local school owners and little formal contact with communities of colleagues where there are few colleagues in small and rural municipalities, and often only one principal in a community or town	Germeten, 2011, p. 17
Major challenges in British rural education include economic hardship, isolation, small multi-grade classes, special needs, narrow bandwidth despite internet access and large operating costs	Clarke et al., 2003
American scholars have also noticed challenges in rural settings, such as unappreciative parents and professional isolation	Howley & Howley, 2005
Many rural schools face the continued threat of closure including those in Scotland (Slee & Miller, 2015), Finland (Karlberg-Granlund, 2011), the UK (Bagley & Hillyard, 2011) and Europe more broadly (Solstad, 2009).	Slee & Miller, 2015 Karlberg-Granlund, 2011 Bagley & Hillyard, 2011 Solstad, 2009
Principals face challenges related to how to involve parents in schooling	Lashway, 2000
Principals note tension between School Governing Bodies, districts and provincial authorities	Clase, Kok & van der Merwe, 2007
Principals support the School Governing Body where members are not financially literate and cannot read the financial reports	Mestry & Hlongwane, 2009
In Ghana , principals face challenges relate to education quality, teacher inefficiency and student absenteeism	Akyeampong, Djangmah, Oduro, Seidu & Hunt, 2007
In Zimbabwe rural schools are typically under-resourced and cater for small groups of children due to sparsely populated areas	Mukeredzi, 2013
In many deep rural areas of South Africa , schooling creates political and social confusions in relation to models of traditional leadership	Wright, 2012
South African teacher-principals note school curriculum, takes up 50% of their time	Bantwini & Feza, 2017
South African principals support teachers where 12.7% of rural teachers are HIV positive	Centre for the Study of AIDS, 2005
In Africa , that 'anybody over 50 years of age would struggle with the demands of the job'	Lumby & Azaola, 2011, p 78
In rural USA there is a limited pool of teachers and leaders	Browne-Ferrigno & Allen, 2006 Downes & Roberts, 2018 Duncan & Stock, 2010 Institute for Educational Leadership, 2005
In rural USA there is difficulty recruiting and retaining principals	Farmer et al., 2006 Pijanowski, Hewitt & Brady, 2009
In rural USA there is a high turnover of administrators and paucity of experienced school leaders	Brown-Ferrigno & Allen, 2006 Downes & Roberts, 2018
Rural educational disadvantage in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand	Sullivan, McConney & Perry, 2018

found that inequities in educational opportunities and outcomes, such as having an insufficient number of experienced teachers and leaders, contributed to lower academic outcomes.	
Increasing rates of poverty among school aged children in many rural communities	Showalter, Klein, Johnson & Hartman, 2017
Higher levels of administrator turnover and a paucity of experienced school leaders	Brown-Ferrigno & Allen, 2006 Downes & Roberts, 2018
School leaders in smaller and more rural districts tend to receive less support	Johnston et al., 2016 Stewart & Matthews, 2015
Geographic isolation	Downes & Roberts, 2018 Sullivan et al., 2018
Critical need to develop effective school leaders in many rural and high-needs schools	Béteille et al., 2012
Rural school leaders are often faced with limited opportunities for PD	Duncan & Stock, 2010 Hardwick-Franco, 2019a Johnston et al., 2016 Lindle, 2016 Preston, Jakubiec & Kooymans, 2013 Reese, Lindle, Della Sala, Knoeppel & Klar, 2015 Stewart & Matthews, 2015
Districts are often forced to hire less qualified candidates who require additional support	Downes & Roberts, 2018 Duncan & Stock, 2010 Halsey & Drummond, 2014 Pijanowski et al., 2009
Isolation often associated with rural school leadership	Downes & Roberts, 2018 Lock et al., 2012 Stewart & Matthews, 2015 Sullivan et al., 2018
Preponderance of inexperienced leaders in rural schools	Béteille et al., 2012 Lock, Budgen, Oakley & Lunay, 2012

Research showed there are key elements to the role of rural principal, highlighting the issues, difficulties and barriers they face (Bantwini & Feza, 2017; Miller, Graham & Al-Awiwe, 2015; Tracy & Weaver, 2000). Some of the elements that impacted the role of the rural principal included teacher quality (Hattie, 2015; Kan et al., 2013; Roberts, 2004), teacher attrition (AITSL, 2016; Buchanan, 2012; Hong, 2010; Abdallah, 2009; Guarino, Santibanez & Daley, 2006; OECD, 2005), juvenile justice (Vinson & Rawsthorne, 2015; Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2013), student wellbeing (Lawrence et al., 2015; UNICEF, 2004), principal wellbeing (Riley, 2018) and the effectiveness of the school principal (Barber, Whelan & Clark, 2010; Caldwell, 2006; Hallinger & Heck, 1996). It was found that overcoming challenges in rural educational was difficult because, for example, of the increasing rates of poverty among school aged children in many rural communities (Showalter, Klein, Johnson & Hartman, 2017). Research also showed rural principals received less support than non-rural leaders (Johnston et al., 2016; Stewart & Matthews, 2015) and navigated geographic isolation (Downes & Roberts, 2018; Sullivan et al., 2018).

Managing and developing staff in rurality

Amongst a myriad of tasks undertaken by principals was management and leadership of teaching staff.

International research showed principals face unique challenges when supporting school teachers in rural contexts. Coetzee, Ebersöhn, Ferreira and Moen (2017) explored this notion in South Africa and showed pressing issues included teacher attrition and this is supported more broadly in the research (Mansfield, Beltman, Price & McConney, 2012; Hong, 2010; Hashweh, 2003). In the global context, teacher retention continued to present challenges (Buchanan, 2012; OECD, 2005). In Australia, Plunkett and Dyson (2011) implemented an open-ended, self-devised survey over a three-year period with one-hundred-and-two new graduate teachers in rural Victoria, Australia, to investigate retainment of teachers in the schooling system. Their study found contractual employment disrupted a sense of belonging to the profession and recommended employment conditions be addressed in order to support retainment of teachers in the rural setting. Important to note, rural principals do not control industrial matters.

Key work of the principal is to support teaching staff to teach. Researchers investigated the quality of teachers in rural contexts (McNeff, 2014; Trinidad et al., 2011; White, 2006). Challenges regarding enhancing teacher quality in rural contexts have been identified as lack of access to professional development (PD) in rural schools, high teacher turnover, lack of follow up, distance of travel to high quality PD and high cost of bringing expert presenters to rural schools (McNeff, 2014). Research claimed the quality of rural teachers would be enhanced if teacher education prepared teachers for the challenges of rural contexts (Trinidad et al., 2011; White, 2006). Robinson, Hohepa & Lloyd (2009) showed principals who employed instructional leadership were three- to four- times more effective in improving students' outcomes than transformational leadership (in Moir, Hattie & Jansen, 2014). Supporting improvements in teacher quality was key work for rural principals and made a positive and measureable difference to schooling.

Research showed the challenges that rural teachers faced, which the rural principal must address. It was found that teachers were impacted by feelings of isolation and lack of support (Plunkett & Dyson, 2011; Abdallah, 2009; McCallum, 2008; Philippou & Charalambous, 2005; Grossman, Wineburg & Woolworth, 2001; Corrie, 2000). Staff deployed to small rural communities in inland Australia, reported a lack of support and feeling physical isolation (Buchanan, 2012). Research showed schools in rural locations continued to experience more staffing pressures than their metropolitan counterparts (Starr & White, 2008; Roberts, 2004; Sharplin, 2002) where ‘long-term’ teachers in remote context were considered to be those who have stayed in a community for two years or more (Whatman, 2002). Further, principals and teachers experienced vulnerability due to uncertainties of working in a small rural school continually threatened with closure (see Table 36). It was found that ongoing debate regarding economic and educational advantages and disadvantages of small schools, threatened teachers’ PD, identity, self-confidence and hinder educational planning and school improvement (Solstad, 2009).

Table 36 Threats of school closure

Threat of school closure – by nation-state	Authors
Scotland	Slee & Miller, 2015
Finland	Karlberg-Granlund, 2011
UK	Bagley & Hillyard, 2011
Europe more broadly	Solstad, 2009

Research showed important to the work of rural principals was support they provided to rural teachers. In a survey, 79% of principals referred to monitoring the teaching and learning standards of educators and learners’ as one of their major contributions to school improvement (Ali & Botha, 2006, p. 80). Research showed the positive impact on teaching due to PD of teachers where investigations showed teachers who received substantial PD could boost student achievement by about twenty-one percentile points (Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss & Shapley, 2007, p. 1). Research continues to highlight ways in which developing rural principals is effective in providing support, to develop and retain teaching staff.

Isolation of the principal

Research noted that working in rural and isolated contexts impacted on the wellbeing of the rural principals. Crump, Twyford and Littler highlighted 'State and national governments in Australia have been active and progressive in shaping policy and undertaking strategic initiatives to provide equity to rural and isolated students for more than 100 years' (2008, p. 41). Yet research showed, after one hundred years, research, policy and funding have yet to facilitate parity between isolated rural students and their non-rural peers. Giannakos and Vlamos (2012) defined small isolated schools as those with small enrolment numbers that are dispersed across Greek islands. Alston and Kent (2008) focused on the effect isolation has on the learning of children. Lake (2008) focused on science education in rural and remote Queensland schools. It was found, principals who worked in rural schools faced issues such as geographic- and professional-isolation (Graham & Miller, 2015). In isolation, rural principals must fulfil the role.

Impost on rural principals from employers' policies

The role of the principal across a range of nation-states is linked to policy direction in which a range of nation-states are moving in which employers are implementing *Standards*⁴. Examples of nation-states that are implementing *Standards* include Australia, New Zealand, Scotland, South Africa, the United Arab Emirates and the USA (see Table 37, Column 1). The *Standards* define the work of principals through criteria and facilitate assessment of the work of the individual principal against the criteria (Tracy & Weaver, 2000). Implementation and use of *Standards* in Australia is supported by national Australian education policy direction. The Australian Education Ministers agreed to the Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians (MCEETYA) (MCEETYA, 2008) as the ten-year plan for Australian schooling and it remains a key document informing education planning across all Australian schools. MCEETYA (2008) called for action to support quality school leadership (p. 11) and endorsed the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) to publish the *Australian Professional Standard for Principals* (APSP).

⁴ There are nation-states that do not have Standards. Instead, there are training requirements. In Israel, principals must complete a two-year preparatory program with a major research university. Compulsory engagement in on-the-job training including 150 hours of fieldwork with a mentor principal (Schechter & Firuz, 2015). In Kenya, principals must undertake two development courses per year.

Table 37 Professional standards for principals – a selection of global views

Row Number	Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
1	Nation-State	Principal standards	Year of publication	Reference to rural, regional, remote
2	Australia	<i>Australian Professional Standard for Principals and the Leadership Profiles (APSP)</i> (AITSL, 2019)	2014 Update 2019	One – on page 6
3	New Zealand	<i>Professional Standards for Primary School Principals</i> (Ministry of Education. Te Tāhuhu O Te Mātauranga, 2020).	No date	Zero
4	Scotland	<i>Standards for Leadership and Management</i> (GTC, 2012)	2012	Zero
5	South African	<i>The South African Standard for Principalship</i> (The Department for Basic Education, 2014) <i>Policy on the South African Standard for Principalship</i> (The Department for Basic Education, 2015).	2014 2015	One – on page 2 One – on page 5
6	United Arab Emirates	<i>Professional Standards for Principals</i> (Abu Dhabi Education Council, ND)	No date	Zero
7	USA	<i>Professional Standards for Educational Leaders</i> (CCSSO, 2015)	2015	Zero

The *Standard* is a key document for Australian principals where, ‘Since 2011 ... ‘the Standard’ has provided a public statement setting out what principals are expected to know, understand and do to succeed in their work’ (AITSL, 2019, p. 3). As such, the *Standards* apply to all Australian principals across all geolocations, including non-rural, rural, inner-regional, outer-regional, remote and very-remote contexts. The document claims to ‘empower school leaders across the country to develop and support teaching that maximises impact on student learning’ (p. 3). The *Standard* therefore refers to principals who live and work in the rural context; a context that is in excess of 99% of Australia. The *Standards* note, ‘All principals have the responsibility to work with members of the school community...across metropolitan, rural, regional and remote Australia’ (AITSL, 2019, p. 6). Important to this thesis, is recognition the *Standards* reference ‘rural, regional and remote Australia’ only once, on page seven. Clearly, the *Standards* lack recognition of the differentiation of the role of the rural principal within- and across- rural contexts. Yet research findings are clear; school context makes a difference to the role of the principal. This thesis argues there is a need to incorporate into the *Standards*, enunciation of rural contexts and ‘what it means to be an effective leader’ as a rural principal; for as this thesis shows, demands of the role of the rural principal are bespoke to the rural contexts in which they live and work. This thesis asks, when the *Standards* are written in such a way that it only mentions the rural context once (AITSL, 2019, p. 6), does this indicate principals are being asked to meet *Standards* that are non-rural centric (urban-centric / metro-centric)? This thesis calls for the

Standards to be re-written in order to link with- and differentiate for- the range of rural contexts in which Australian principals work. Lack of recognition in the industry *Standards* for the differentiation of the role of the rural principal is not unique to the Australia.

Around the world, nation-states (see Table 37, Column 1) are implementing education policy that demands principals meet industry *Standards*. This thesis undertook a document analysis (Silverman, 2014) of the *Standards* listed in Table 37, Column 2. A search of each document occurred using key terms: urban, rural, remote, region/al. Similar to Australia, *Standards* from other parts of the world did not differentiate for the role of the principals living and working across different geolocations. Table 37, Column 4, lists the number of times and page numbers where *Standards* from the different nation-states, reference rural contexts. Similar to Australia, in *South Africa*, the *Standards* mention rural context only once. *Standards* from other nation-states do not mention rural, regional or remote. The lack of reference suggests internationally, not just in Australia, a principle document that guides the work of rural principals, does not value- or differentiated for- the work of rural principals.

Table 37, Row 7, Column 4, highlights the USA *Professional Standards for Educational Leaders* references rural, regional, and remote zero times. It is important to note, within this discussion that values the nuanced role of the rural, remote, regional principal, the USA document overtly references five scholarly works devoted to the work of the urban principal and seven devoted to the urban school environment. I argue, if it is useful in the *USA Principal Standards* to differentiate for experience of the urban principal, in future revisions of the *USA Principal Standards* – indeed in future revisions of all *Principal Standards*, from across the world – it is also possible to differentiate for the experience of the rural, remote, regional school principal (Hardwick-Franco, 2019b, p. 21).

Results of analysis of the *Principal Standards* (Table 37) shows the *Standards* offer no direction, related to the nuanced nature of the role of the rural principals. Research about the work of the rural principals highlights the role is different from that of the non-rural principal. Research also shows the work of the

rural principal is different across the different rural contexts. Yet there is no differentiation for the different rural contexts, within a key document that leads the work of principals. There is opportunity, internationally, for future revisions of *Principal Standards* to redress this gap, through differentiation that accounts for the nuanced nature of the work of the principals who work within- and across- the range of rural contexts. Further, there is research about rural educational leadership that highlight issues faced by rural principals that can be referenced to inform future versions of *Principal Standards* across the world. Decisions made by the employer such as the implementation of key policy documents, impacts the role of rural principal and employer, is one of the tools that inform theorising rural educational leadership.

Lack of research about rural educational leadership from a global perspective

Wellbeing of the Australian rural principal: surveys and reports

This part of Section Two focuses on six reports in which the author, Riley, documented findings from *The Australian Principal Occupational Health, Safety and Wellbeing Survey* herein referred to as the *wellbeing-reports*. The reports inform theorising rural educational leadership because results highlight the wellbeing of rural principals in Australia. Further, collectively, the reports are a rare example of research about rural principals that is longitudinal research, to date, conducted annually for nine consecutive years. The work is also rare because it has a purview that encompasses an entire nation-state and not just a region within a nation-state. Furthermore, Riley's research is now expanding and operating across the nation-states of Canada, Finland, Ireland (PHAW, NDa), New Zealand (PHAW, NDb) and the USA. This expansion will offer opportunity for future research to create knowledge about the wellbeing of rural principals from a longitudinal perspective that crosses nation-states and incorporates a broader range of cultural perspectives.

The principal wellbeing reports differentiated for what Riley referred to as five 'geolocations': urban, suburban, rural, remote, regional / large town. I conducted document analysis (Silverman, 2014) of the six reports by searching each report for the key terms 'rural', 'regional' 'large town' and 'remote'.⁵ Table 38 summarises the number of times the key terms were mentioned in each of the six reports. For the purpose of analysis, this thesis refers to a 'rural' principal as someone the reports describe as 'rural', 'remote', 'regional', 'large town' and a non-rural ('urban') principal as a principal the reports describe as 'urban' and 'suburban'. Data showed there was a peak for differentiating for geolocation in the wellbeing report published in 2015. The publication of results of survey responses between the years 2011-2015 allowed for an examination of the wellbeing of all principals across all five geolocations. From 2016 onwards, coinciding with a new major funder, differentiation accounting for the experience of principals working in rural, remote, regional schools was removed from the wellbeing reports. It became no longer possible to analyse the reports to determine the differentiated wellbeing of rural principals. Did the new major funder, the federal government, through the Australian Research Council (ARC) ask that differentiation for geolocation be removed from the research project? Did Riley and / or the new funder believe from 2016 onwards, the survey no longer needed to account for the wellbeing of the principals who work in different contexts? Was the different experience of rural principals who work across different rural contexts and geolocations no longer worthy of consideration and relevant to the survey? I encourage researchers and future funders of principal wellbeing surveys, to return to conducting an annual survey that allows for collection and reporting of data that differentiates for the wellbeing of the rural, remote, regional / large town school principal. For the wellbeing of these principals remains critical to rural communities, communities that account for in excess of 99% of the Australian land mass, and a significant 27% of student enrolments.

⁵ Where the report was explaining administrative information about the report, Column Four says 'Administrative comment' and where the report was explaining statistical information about the report, Column Four notes 'Statistical information'. For the purpose of analysis for this thesis, and because over the eight years the surveys have been conducted the use of the terms have slightly altered, the term 'regional' is synonymous with 'large town'. But for the purpose of this thesis, the term 'regional' has been used, to avoid undue conflation of terms.

Table 38 Meta-analysis. Number of times rural, remote, regional is mentioned in all Australian Principal Wellbeing Reports

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4	Column 5
Report by year	Rural	Remote	Regional	Date Published
2011	6	5	4	2013
2011-2014	15	16	13	2014
2015	52	52	0	2015
2016	1	1	1	2017
2017	1	1	1	2018
2018	1	1	1	2019

Funders and differentiation for the rural principal

The six wellbeing-reports that inform this thesis were informed by data collected from surveys conducted by Riley. The first survey was conducted in 2011, the first report was produced by Riley (2013), published by Monash University, and funded by the Monash Researcher Accelerator Program. The second report was published in 2014 and shared results from surveys of principals conducted from between 2011 and 2013 (Riley, 2014) and the third report reported on results from surveys collected from between 2011 and 2015 (Riley, 2015). The second and thirds reports were published by the Australian Catholic University and funded by the major sponsor, the *Teachers' Health Fund* while the 'National Principal Organisations' contributed funding and in-kind resources (Riley, 2014, p. 3; Riley, 2015, p. 1). The research team was then awarded a three-year ARC Linkage Grant (LN160101056) that supported the conducting of the wellbeing survey for 2016, 2017 and 2018. Results of surveys conducted in 2016, 2017 and 2018 were still published by the Australian Catholic University (Riley, 2017; Riley, 2018; Riley, 2019) and the industry partners were still the *Teachers' Health Fund* where the National Principal Organisations still contributed co-funding and in-kind resources. However, differentiation for the experience of the rural, remote, regional principal was erased from the fourth, fifth and sixth reports. Nonetheless, results of analysis of the data in the six wellbeing reports informs theorising rural educational leadership because the data and findings highlight the range of issues that impacted the wellbeing of Australian rural principals. Research and data are one of the tools that inform theorising rural educational leadership.

Survey participation of principals

Participation rates for the wellbeing surveys are significant. For the first report, the survey response rate was around 20% of the approximately 10,000 principals across Australia (Riley, 2013, p. 19). The report identified the geolocation of the school in which the 2,005 survey participants worked where 18.3% were from urban and 39.4% were from suburban locations with the remaining 42.2% being from rural locations: 12.2% from large towns, 25.7% were rural and 4.3% were remote (Riley, 2013, p. 48). In the second report, the survey response rate represented approximately 26% of all principals in Australia with participation from 2,621 principals and 1,024 deputy/assistant principals (Riley, 2014, p.13). The report showed approximately 19% of respondents were based in 'urban' locations, 39%-42% were based in 'suburban locations' with the remaining, approximately 42% of respondents were based in rural locations: 13% of respondents were from large towns (regional), 25% were from rural locations and up to 4% were from remote locations (Riley, 2014, p. 13). The third report surveyed 4,385 principals. Rural principals accounted for 40.8% of respondents, 12.3% of respondents were from large town, 24.5% principals were from a rural context and 4% were from a remote context. Other principals were from urban (18.7%) or suburban (40.5%) locations (Riley, 2015, p. 11). These three reports differentiated for the wellbeing of rural principals, and highlighted that in excess of 40% of respondents were from rural locations – a significant number of survey participants. Results from the fourth survey (Riley, 2017) reported on survey responses from 5,247 school leaders (p. 11). This represented an impressive 50% of Australia's approximately 10,000 principals (p. 13) had participated in the annual survey during the six years since surveys had begun in 2011. Results from fifth survey (Riley, 2018) reported on survey responses collected from 5,580 school leaders (p. 11) and results from the sixth survey (Riley, 2019) reported on survey responses from 5,934 school leaders (p. 12). The significant number of principals, who all voluntarily participated in the wellbeing surveys, indicated they valued the surveys.

Wellbeing of Australian rural principals

Document analysis (Silverman, 2014) of the six reports searched for the key terms (rural, remote, region/al). Results of the searches are offered as data in this thesis as subsequent tables. In each table, Columns 1, 2 and 3 offer the page number citation for each time each of the key terms were mentioned in each report. Content surrounding the key term was extracted from the report and is offered in Column 4 of each of the tables below, inclusive of my brief analysis of the content. Data extracted from the first three reports differentiated for the wellbeing of the rural principal. Data highlighted the elements of the role that impacted the wellbeing of the Australian rural principal that are different from the elements of the role that impacted the wellbeing of the non-rural principal. This facilitated an opportunity for my research to highlight wellbeing issues that are different for rural principals when compared to their non-rural peers. Through this analytic process, what also emerged, was a differentiation of the elements of the role of rural principals that impacted the wellbeing of the rural principals from different rural geolocations and contexts. That is, the wellbeing of the rural principal was different across different rural contexts.

Data from the 2011 report (Riley, 2013) that addressed the rural, remote, region/al, principal was extracted and is offered as Table 39. The data showed that,

principals experience nearly five times the incidence of threats of violence and six times the incidence of actual physical violence at work than other population groups measured on the COPSOQ-II (p. 12).⁶

Data also showed government principals working in large towns and rural locations appeared most at risk. Further, the report highlighted that rural principals benefited from connection with regional mentors (p. 13). The first report did not offer deep and broad data to inform a comprehensive understanding of the wellbeing of the rural principal in 2011, however, there was an attempt to disaggregated data for geolocation.

⁶ This thesis references terms and phrases from the wellbeing reports. For fully explained definitions, please refer to the original reports.

Table 39 Rural, remote, region/al principal wellbeing survey – 2011

Row	Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
1	Rural (page number)	Remote (page number)	Region/al (page number)	Content
2	pg 10			Administrative comment
3	Pg 12			Principals experience nearly five times the incidence of threats of violence and six times the incidence of actual physical violence at work than other population groups measured on the COPSOQ-II. Government school principals working in large towns and rural locations appear most at risk.
4	Pg 16			Administrative comment
5	Pg 17			Administrative comment
6	Pg 18			See pg 12
7	Pg 48			Statistical information
8		Pg 10		Administrative comment
9		Pg 13		Regional authorities can visit (particularly remote areas) can support school principals as sympathetic experienced colleagues
10		Pg 16		Administrative comment
11		Pg 17		Administrative comment
12		Pg 48		Statistical information
13			Pg 11	Administrative comment
14			Pg 13	Regional authorities can visit (particularly remote areas) can support school principals as sympathetic experienced colleagues
15			Pg 16	Administrative comment
16			Pg 17	Administrative comment

Source: (Riley, 2013).

Data-sets that emerged from the second report (Riley, 2014) is shared in Table 40. The report was analysed for data that clearly showed the rural principal wellbeing from all three rural geolocations (rural, remote, large town / regional) was different from the wellbeing of the non-rural principal from both non-rural geolocations (urban, suburban). Rural principals were working longer hours than non-rural principals both during term and during school holidays (p. 45 – 46). It also showed the sources of stress for rural principals were different from the non-rural principal. Sources of stress for the rural principal included ‘sheer quantity of work, lack of time to focus on teaching and learning, expectations of employer, government initiatives, and teacher shortages’ (p. 69-70) whereas sources of stress for the non-rural principal, included ‘poorly performing staff, union / industrial disputes, lack of autonomy / authority’ (p. 69-70).

The report showed that the sources of support for rural principals included ‘a supervisor / line manager or the Department / Employer’ (p. 106) and were different for urban principals. Urban principals instead, ‘rely on a friend, a colleague in the workplace, a school leader / colleague through a professional relationship, a school leader / a colleague who is also a friend or a psychologist / counsellor’ (p. 106). The report

highlighted that rural principals are more likely to cite demands at work were due to large workloads. Also, rural principals were more likely to hide emotions and were more likely to experience work-family conflicts (p. 125). Rural principals were also more likely to experience threats of violence (p. 138), actual physical violence (p. 138-139) and bullying (p. 139).

Table 40 Rural, remote, region/al principal wellbeing survey – 2011-2014

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Rural (page number)	Remote (page number)	Region/al (page number)	Content
12	12		Administrative comment
12	12		Administrative comment
13	13		Approximately 25% are from rural locations Approximately 3.5% - 4% are in remote locations
	19	19	The Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage (ICSEA) is a scale that enables meaningful comparisons to be made across schools. It has been developed specifically for the My School website for the purpose of identifying schools serving similar student populations. The variables used in calculating a value on the ICSEA scale include student-level data on the occupation and education level of parents/carers, and/or socio-economic characteristics of the areas where students live, whether a school is in a metropolitan, regional or remote area, proportion of students from a language background other than English, as well as the proportion of Indigenous students enrolled at the school.
31	31	31	Table 15 and Figure 14 show the location of survey participants' current school. The graph shows: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - between 24.3% (in 2012) to 25% (in 2011) of survey respondents are 'rural' school principals - between 12.4% (in 2014) and 13.2% (in 2012) of survey respondents are based in 'large towns' - between 3.4% (in 2013) and 3.9% (in 2011) of survey respondents are principals based in 'remote' schools.
45	45	45	Table 29 and Figure 28 shows between the years 2001-2013 the number of hours rural principals worked. It offers opportunity to compare hours worked by school principals who work in 'urban', 'suburban', 'large towns', 'rural' and 'remote' schools. It is the rural principals (large towns, rural and remote) who work longer hours than the non-rural; working in excess of 66 hours per week.
46	46	46	Table 30 and Figure 29 report on hours principals work during school holiday. The display of data allows comparison between the five geolocations. It shows rural principals (large towns, rural and remote) work longer hours than the non-rural; working in excess of 70 hours per week.
69 - 70	69 - 70	69 - 70	Table 44 and Figure 43 shows the sources of stress for participants across the four years (2011-2014) disaggregated by geolocation. It shows a higher number of rural principals (large town, rural, remote) rate the following as sources of stress higher than non-rural principals: sheer quantity of work, lack of time to focus on teaching and learning, expectations of employer, government initiatives and teacher shortages. The data also show the non-rural principals (urban and suburban) rate the following as sources of stress more highly than rural: poorly performing staff, union/ industrial disputes and lack of autonomy / authority.
106	106	106	Table 71 and Figure 61 show the sources of support for survey respondents, disaggregated by geolocation. It shows rural principals (large town, rural, remote) are more likely than non-rural to seek support from: a supervisor / line manager or the Department / Employer. It shows that non-rural principals (urban and suburban) are more likely than rural to rely on a friend, a colleague in the workplace, a school leader / colleague through a professional relationship, a school leader / a colleague who is also a friend or a psychologist / counsellor.
110	110	110	Table 75 highlights alcohol use by principals. The mean scores highlight males consume more than females, principals of Catholic schools consume more than principals of government schools, principals consume more than deputies, those in large towns consume the most alcohol, followed by suburban, rural, remote then urban. Secondary principals consume more than primary principals.
121	121	121	Figure 70 shows data that highlights rural principal (large town, rural, remote) are more likely than non-rural to site demands at work being due to large workloads, and rural principals are more likely to hide emotions.
125	125	125	Figure 78 shows that for every year (2011-2014), rural principals are more likely than non-rural to have work-family conflicts.
131	131	131	Figure 85 tracks six reasons for poor health and wellbeing across the four years (2011-2014) and five locations (urban, suburban, large town, rural, remote). The interplay of multiple data sets makes analysis complex and therefore difficult to generalise from the data for the purpose of this Table.
138	138	138	Table 84 and Figure 94 show the prevalence of threats of violence towards principals is more likely for rural principals.
138 - 139	138 - 139	138 - 139	Table 85 and Figure 95 show that prevalence of physical violence towards principal is more likely for rural principals.
139	139	139	Table 86 and Figure 96 shows that rural principals are more likely to experience bullying but the remote principals are most likely to experience bullying.

Source: (Riley, 2014).

Data from the surveys published as the third report (Riley, 2015) is offered below in Table 41. Data showed the number of tasks and the time available to perform the tasks in a satisfactory manner was higher for all rural principals (large town, rural, remote) when compared with their non-rural peers (urban, suburban) (p. 28). Data also showed, the speed at which tasks have to be performed and the intensity of work was highest for rural principals in large towns (p. 31), emotional demands were higher for rural principals (p. 33) and the degree to which the employee [principal] could influence aspects of work itself, was least for the rural principals (p. 37).

When compared with non-rural peers', principals from rural geolocations reported slightly less commitment to the organisation for which they work (p. 41), had slightly less means to avoid uncertainty and insecurity (p.45), experienced slightly less recognition (reward) from management for effort at work (p. 46), had slightly less understanding of their role at work (p. 47) and had the highest level of support from their line management (p. 49). Also, when compared to their non-rural peers', principals from rural geolocations experienced the least meaning of work (p. 40), least social support from colleagues from inside their school (p. 50) and least social support from their supervisor (p. 52). Principals also felt they were not part of the social community at work (p. 53), experienced less job satisfaction (p. 56), higher rates of work-family conflict (p. 57) and family-work conflict (p. 58), lower rates of justice (p. 63), lower levels of self-rated health, with decreasing levels, the greater the distance the principal was from the urban centre.

The remote principals had the lowest levels of self-rated health (p. 68), had higher levels of burnout (p. 69) and higher levels of stress, with levels increasing, the more rural the principal. Also, remote principals reported the highest levels of stress (p. 70), reported higher levels of depressive symptoms, with levels increasing, the more rural the principal. The remote principals reported the highest levels of depressive symptoms (p. 72), lowest levels of self-efficacy, with decreasing levels, the more rural the principal. The remote principals had the lowest levels of self-efficacy (p. 75), lower levels of sexual harassment than urban (p. 84), higher levels of unpleasant teasing (p. 88), conflicts and quarrels (p. 89), gossip and slander (p. 90), and higher levels of threats of violence, with those from large towns experiencing the highest levels of

threat (p. 85). They also reported higher levels of stress due to the sheer quantity of work, lack of time to focus on teaching and learning, government initiatives, teacher shortages, financial management issues, inability to get away from school / community and declining enrolments (p. 98).

Results showed there was a decreasing quality of life as the principal moved further from urban schools, with the remote principal having the lowest quality of life (Riley, 2015, p. 112). This occurred without deviation, across eight surveyed items (independent living, happiness, mental health, coping, relationships, self-worth, senses and psychological). The other two items showed increased pain and physical responses for the remote principal (p. 112). Also, the more rural the principal, the higher the level of obsessive passion, and the more rural the principal, the lower the harmonious passion (Riley, 2015, p. 121). Principals from rural and remote geolocations reported the highest levels of sleeping troubles (p. 71) and the highest levels of cognitive stress symptoms (p. 74). Principals from large towns experienced the highest levels of physical violence, with those from rural and remote schools experiencing less physical violence than urban (urban and suburban) (p. 86) and the highest levels of bullying (p. 87). Urban principals were more likely than rural principals, to seek support from other people such as a friend, a colleague in the workplace, a school leader / colleague in a professional capacity, a school leader / colleague who is also a friend, the department / employer, a professional association or medical practitioner than their rural peers (p. 105). The data highlights a number of areas in which there can be improvements to the support offered to rural principals.⁷ The data in the report is rich and deep and paints a worrying picture of the wellbeing of Australian rural principals. In order to account for these issues, the rural principal requires interpersonal skills to support them navigate the issues. *Interpersonal skills* are tools that inform revisioning theories of rural educational leadership.

⁷ Many of the areas mentions in Table 41 use terms from the report that in order to understand fully, require the reader to cross reference with the original report. Should this thesis embed the terms and definitions used in the report, the thesis would plagiarise the report.

Table 41 Rural, remote, region/al principal wellbeing survey – 2015

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
Rural (page Number)	Remote (page Number)	Comments
11	11	Principals who responded to survey questions from rural locations - large town, rural, remote - made up, respectively, 12.3%, 24.5% and 4%, collectively, 40.8% of respondents. Urban principals – urban and suburban - made up, respectively 18.7% and 40.5% of respondents.
28	28	Data shows incongruity between the number of tasks and the time available to perform the tasks in a satisfactory manner is higher for all rural principals when compared with urban peers.
31	31	The speed at which tasks have to be performed, the intensity of work is highest for rural principals in large towns.
32	32	Cognitive demands are similar across the geolocations.
33	33	Emotional demands are higher for rural principals in large towns and rural geolocations.
34	34	Principals from all geolocations have to hide their emotions.
37	37	The degree to which the employee can influence aspects of work itself, is least for the rural principals
38	38	Principals across all geolocations report similar possibilities for development.
39	39	Principals across all geolocations report similar variation in tasks.
40	40	Principals from remote locations experience the least meaning of work.
41	41	Principals from rural geolocations are slightly less committed to the organisation for which they work.
45	45	Principals from rural geolocations have slightly less means to avoid uncertainty and insecurity.
46	46	Principals from rural geolocations are slightly less recognised (rewarded) by management for effort at work.
47	47	Principals from rural geolocations have slightly less understanding of their role at work.
48	48	Principals from all geolocations experience role conflict.
49	49	Principals from remote areas report the highest level of support from their line management.
50	50	Principals from rural geolocations experience less social support from colleagues from inside their school than urban peers.
51	51	Principals from across the geolocations report different levels of social support from colleagues outside their school when compared with their urban peers.
52	52	Principals from rural geolocations experience less social support from their supervisor than their urban peers.
53	53	Principals from rural geolocations experience feeling not part of the social community at work more than their urban peers.
56	56	Principals from rural geolocations experience less job satisfaction than their urban peers.
57	57	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher rates of work-family conflict than their urban peers.
58	58	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher rates of family-work conflict than their urban peers.
61	61	Principals from all geolocations have similar levels of trust regarding management.
62	62	Principals from all geolocations have similar levels of mutual trust between employees.
63	63	Principals from rural geolocations experience lower rates of justice than their urban peers.
64	64	Principals from all geolocations report similar levels of social inclusiveness.
68	68	Principals from rural geolocations experience lower levels of self-rated health, with decreasing levels, the more rural the principal. The remote principals have the lowest levels of self-rated health.
69	69	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher levels of burnout than their urban peers.
70	70	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher levels of stress, with levels increasing, the more rural the principal is. The remote principals report the highest levels of stress.
71	71	Principals from rural and remote geolocations report the highest levels of sleeping troubles.
72	72	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher levels of depressive symptoms, with levels increasing, the more rural the principal. The remote principals report the highest levels of depressive symptoms.
73	73	Principals from all geolocations report similar levels of somatic stress symptoms.
74	74	Principals from rural and remote geolocations report the highest levels of cognitive stress symptoms.
75	75	Principals from rural geolocations experience lower levels of self-efficacy, with decreasing levels, the more rural the principal. The remote principals have the lowest levels of self-efficacy.
84	84	Principals from rural geolocations report lower levels of sexual harassment than their urban peers.
85	85	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher levels of threats of violence, with those from large towns experiencing the highest threat.
86	86	Principals from the rural geolocation (large town) experience the highest levels of physical violence. With those from rural and remote schools experiencing less physical violence than their urban peers.
87	87	Principals from the rural geolocation (large town) experience the highest levels of bullying.

88	88	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher levels of unpleasant teasing than their urban peers.
89	89	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher levels of conflicts and quarrels than their urban peers.
90	90	Principals from rural geolocations experience higher levels of gossip and slander than their urban peers.
93	93	The table on page 93 details the degree to which principals' report on the level of stress they experience, against 19 items or elements of the role that principals encounter.
98	98	The graph on page 98 represents the stress rating against the 19 items from page 93 visually. The graph shows rural principals experience higher levels of stress in these areas: sheer quantity of work, lack of time to focus on teaching and learning, government initiatives, teacher shortages, financial management issues, inability to get away from school / community and declining enrolments.
101	101	The table on page 101 details the degree to which principals indicate the source of support, against 11 items.
105	105	The graph on page 105 represents the sources of support against the 11 items visually, showing the urban school principals are more likely to source support from: a friend, a colleague in the workplace, a school leader / colleague in a professional capacity, a school leader / colleague who is also a friend, the department / employer, a professional association or medical practitioner than rural peers. Of note, across all 11 items, the remote principal is least likely to source support from all 11 items, excepting from their supervisor / line management and a psychologist / counsellor.
108	108	The Assessment of Quality of Life: AQoL-8D shows data across 10 items.
112	112	The graph on page 112 shows decreasing quality of life as the principal moves further away from urban schools, with the remote principal having the lowest quality of life. The graph shows this occurs without deviation, with a line of best fit illustrating this trend across 8 items (independent living, happiness, mental health, coping, relationships, self-worth, senses and psychological). The other two items show increased pain and physical responses for the remote principal.
113	113	Social capital of principals is measured with the COPSOQ-II scales in Trust in Management.
115	115	The graphic illustration of the data on page 113 suggests the social capital is even across the geolocations.
119	119	Data collected through <i>The Dualistic Model of Passion</i> (Vallerand, 2015) measures two types of passion – harmonious ⁸ and obsessive ⁹ .
121	121	A line of best fit for the bar graph shows the more rural the principal, the higher the level of obsessive passion, and the more rural the principal, the lower the harmonious passion.

Source: (Riley, 2015).

Analysis of the fourth, fifth and sixth reports highlighted that only one reference was made to rural, remote, region/al school principals in each report (Riley, 2017; Riley, 2018; Riley, 2019). Due to the poor return of data, further document analysis (Silverman, 2014) occurred, through the use of the term, 'country'. This highlighted seventeen uses of the word 'country' wherein each use of the word was a synonym for nation-state.

The Australian principal wellbeing research project is without peer, due to its longitudinal nature and its collection of data from the entire nation-state. The first three reports, clearly showed, it is possible to survey significant numbers of principals about their wellbeing, and differentiate data by geolocation

⁸ Harmonious Passion – a strong desire to freely engage in activity resulting from autonomous internalization of the passion into the person's identity; willingly accepted as important (Riley, 2015, p. 119).

⁹ Obsessive Passion (OP) – an uncontrollable urge to partake in the passion resulting from controlled internalization into one's identity. This process originates from intrapersonal and/or interpersonal pressure because particular contingencies are attached to the passion, such as feelings of social acceptance, and can overwhelm other aspects of the person's life (Riley, 2015, p. 119).

accounting for the range of contexts in which principals live and work. The resultant data empowers researchers to investigate the wellbeing of Australian rural principals. There are differences between experiences of principals who work in rural- and non-rural- contexts. Results also highlighted there are differences between experiences of rural principals who work in different rural geolocations. These results empower members of the community that support rural principals, including the principals themselves, to understand the elements of the role that require addressing. Results also empower those who support principals to differentiate support, so it is bespoke to the rural context, and the wellbeing needs of the rural principal. The reports that can be generated from the surveys are so valuable, that other nation-states are now interested in collecting wellbeing data of their principals.

There is a lack of acknowledgement of the experience of rural principals in the three most recent surveys. This calls into question the interest scholars and funders have for the differentiated experience of rural principals, the differentiation of the wellbeing of principals related to geolocation, the range of contexts in which rural principal live and work and the contribution rural principals have to education. I advocate that funders support this valuable work to escalate research that differentiates for the experience of the rural principals. For Riley's work is important. It offers an example of research about the role of the rural principals that is without peer across the globe, because the research is longitudinal, operates across a nation-state and in the future, will occur across a number of nation-states and across a number of cultural boundaries.

Reviewing the literature on rural educational leadership

In response to the claim that the context in which rural school leadership operates demands differentiated attention and there is a 'paucity of research on this specialized focus' (Preston & Barnes, 2017, p. 6) I searched *Google Scholar* using the key term 'systematic review rural principal'. The first one-hundred items found on the first ten pages of the *Google Scholar* return were considered for analysis in this thesis. Items considered for inclusion had to meet three criteria: 1) they were systematic reviews of literature that 2) focused on the role of the rural principal and 3) were published in 2019. Only one article met the criteria - a

systematic review of systematic reviews (Hallinger, 2019). It is the only systematic review of research that included reference to research about rural educational leadership, that incorporated a multi-nation-state perspective, and that was informed by a range of cultural perspectives.

Analysis of rural educational leadership in South Africa

Hallinger's systematic review (2019) examined systematic reviews of educational leadership that focused on a number of different nation-states or regions. The contexts or regions or nation-states that Hallinger included in his systematic review, included Africa (Hallinger, 2018b; Hallinger, 2019), Asia (Hallinger & Bryant, 2013; Walker & Hallinger, 2015), Arab societies (Hallinger & Hammad, 2019; Oplatka & Arrar, 2017), mainland China (Walker, Hu & Qian, 2012), Singapore (Ng, Nguyen, Wong & Choy, 2015), Taiwan (Pan, Nyeu & Chen, 2015) and Vietnam (Hallinger, Walker & Gian, 2015). The systematic reviews he referenced, examined scholarship about educational leadership that included some reference to scholarship about *rural* educational leadership. Critique of Hallinger's work is that over half of the publications he cited involve one scholar; himself. It could therefore be successfully argued the work is occurring in an echo-chamber dominated by Hallinger. I offer a counter-argument. Hallinger is to be commended for the work, for he is taking the lead to expand the scholarship on rural educational leadership with a purview that crosses nation-state borders and values a range of cultural perspectives. He is deliberately inclusive of scholarship about rural educational leadership that is post-Anglo-European-North American-centric narrow knowledge systems. While Hallinger's paper referenced research that investigated rural educational leadership from a range of cultural perspectives, the work is not, and there is not, a current (2019) systematic review of research that examines rural educational leadership from a whole-of-globe perspective. I recommend it is time to complete such a project, and such a project is long overdue. For as Hallinger notes,

for much of the past 60 years, the 'visible' knowledge base consisted almost entirely of studies that described EDLM [Education Leadership and management] policies and practices from a relatively small number of Anglo-American and Northern European societies (2019, p. 316).

Hallinger shared results of his research showing there have been a number of EDLM research projects from a broader range of cultural perspectives during ‘the past five years’ (2019, p. 317).

Hallinger’s systematic review also identified systematic reviews of educational leadership scholarship across a range of contexts. He identified different contexts in his conceptual framework (see Figure 15). I highlight how context is important to consider when theorising rurality and rural educational leadership. However, it is not the role of this thesis to define context. Instead, this thesis shows it is important when theorising rurality and rural educational leadership, that research clearly enunciate the way in which the research defines contexts as it relates to the research.

Figure 15 Contexts relating to schooling

Removed due to copyright restriction

Source: (Hallinger, 2019, p. 317)

In the absence of a lack of a systematic review about research about the rural principal from a global perspective, and in the absence of a systematic review about research about the rural principal from an Australian perspective, I choose to investigate Hallinger’s systematic review of EDLM of South Africa (Hallinger, 2019) through extracting information from his research that referenced rural educational

leadership. His work referenced research that exposed the nature of role of the rural school principal (see Table 42).

Hallinger highlighted into which journals scholarship from Africa was published, the types of studies conducted and the methodologies used by researchers. He showed research published from Africa was ‘dispersed across 74 different journals’ (p. 321) and ‘covered general education (45%), social sciences (28%), EDLM (18%), comparative education (4%) and general management (2%)’ (p. 321). He determined 80.8% of the articles were classified as empirical studies, 13.7% were commentaries, 2.7% were conceptual papers and 2.7% were research reviews (p. 323). Hallinger showed South African scholars tended to use qualitative rather than quantitative methods (p. 278). Hallinger also showed how to determine the extent to which scholarship from a non- ‘Anglo-American and Northern European’ perspective is published in ‘Anglo-American and Northern European’ journals. This is important to table in this thesis, because it supports the development of the ways in which the ongoing development of the theory of rural educational leadership can develop as a *global* theory. I advocate, it is essential that scholars from around the world access research published by scholars around the world that explores the experience of rural educational leaders from around the world. It is reference to whole-of-global perspective, from a range of cultural perspectives, which supports the theorising rural educational leadership to reflect whole-of-globe knowledge.

Analysis of Hallinger’s systematic review (2019) facilitates extraction of data that highlighted the issues faced by rural educational leaders in South Africa. The issues Hallinger cited, in alphabetic order, are offered as a summary in Table 42, Column 1.

Table 42 Issues in rural educational leadership in Africa

Column 1	Column 2
Issues in rural educational leadership in Africa	Scholar
Barriers to management positions among female educators	Greyling & Steyn, 2015 Moorosi, 2010 Netshitangani & Msila, 2014
‘Challenging contexts’	Chikoko, Naicker & Mthiyane, 2015

	Kamper, 2008 Naidoo & Perumal, 2014 Van der Berg, 2008
Decentralisation and of school-based management	Bhengu & Gowpall, 2015 Bisschoff, 2009 Bush & Heystek, 2003 Chikoko, 2009 Heystek, 2011
Decision-making	Bhengu & Gowpall, 2015
Distinctively female approaches to leadership in South Africa	Grant, 2005 Lumby, 2013 Lumby & Azaola, 2014 Mestry & Schmidt, 2012 Naidoo & Perumal, 2014 Smit, 2013
Few studies investigated the effects of leadership on teacher attitudes (job satisfaction, commitment, stress and organisational citizenship). Instead, there was a greater focus on how leadership and management influenced teachers' job performance	Bisschoff & Grobler, 1998 Christie, 1998 Grobler, Moloi & Fhatuwani, 2013
Financial management	Mestry & Naidoo, 2009
How the 'socio-cultural context' of South African education impacts leadership, management and school processes	Msila, 2008 Naicker, 2015 Prozesky, 2016
Instructional leadership	Bush, 2013 Du Plessis, 2013 Grobler & Conley, 2013 Hoadley et al., 2009 Kruger, 2003 Mestry, Moonsammy-Koopasammy & Schmidt, 2013 Msila, 2013
Leadership/management processes (e.g. teacher evaluation, performance management) influenced features of the school organisation such as curriculum and instruction	Grobler, Moloi & Thakhordas, 2017 Du Plessis, 2013
Managing new school governance structures	Bush & Heystek, 2003 Fleisch & Christie, 2004 Heystek, 2011 Mestry & Khumalo, 2012 Van Wyk, 2004
Managing relations with the community	Brown & Duku, 2008 Mncube, 2009 Mncube & Du Plessis, 2011 Prew, 2009
Preparation and development of school leaders	Bush, Kiggundu & Moorosi, 2011 Cowie & Crawford, 2007 Steyn, 2008 Webber, Mentz, Scott, Mola Okoko & Scott, 2014
Professional development of school leaders	Grant, 2008 Mathibe, 2007 Mestry & Schmidt, 2010 Moorosi & Bush, 2011
Quality and accountability processes	Bisschoff, 2009 De Clercq, 2007 Heystek, 2011
'Rural schools'	Brown & Duku, 2008 Mestry & Khumalo, 2012 Msila, 2010 Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010 Smit, 2013
School culture	Christie, 1998 Kruger, 2003 Niemann & Kotzé, 2006 Van der Vyver, van der Westhuizen & Meyer, 2014 Van der Westhuizen, Mosoge, Swanepoel & Coetsee, 2005

School effectiveness	Kgaile & Morrison, 2006 Van der Berg, 2008
School improvement	Fleisch & Christie, 2004 Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010 Prew, 2009
School governance reforms	Bush & Heystek, 2003 Chisholm, 1999 Heystek, 2011 Mestry & Naidoo, 2009
Shared or distributed leadership	Botha, 2006 Botha, 2014 Grant, 2005 Grant, 2008 Naicker & Mestry, 2013 Villiers & Pretorius, 2011
Social justice, democracy, equity, race and gender	Bush & Molo, 2007 Chisholm, 1999 Heystek, 2011 Naidoo & Perumal, 2014 Smit, 2013
Strategic planning	Van Niekerk & Van Niekerk, 2006
Studies of leadership in 'small schools'	Lumby & Azaola, 2014
Student achievement	Grobler & Conley, 2013 Van der Westhuizen et al., 2005
The nature of 'South African school leadership'	Clarke & O'Donoghue, 2017 Hallinger, 2018a Hallinger, 2018b
Transformational leadership	Hallinger, 2018b

Source: (Hallinger, 2019).

In his systematic review, Hallinger (2019, p. 236) identified five scholarly works that focused on rural educational leadership (Brown & Duku, 2008; Mestry & Khumalo, 2012; Msila, 2010; Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010; Smit, 2013) that are now examined in turn. They showed how principals navigate the intersection of traditional rural culture that was in conflict with policies from a non-traditional, non-rural based education department. They highlighted the tasks rural principals enact, the interpersonal characteristics required of a successful rural principal, the nature of rural community, the diversity and complexity of rural contexts, the needs of rural schools, the need for professional development in substantive leadership theories, and what it is like to be a female rural principal.

Local, traditional, rural parents, rural school governance, and modern governmental school policies

Qualitative research conducted by Brown and Duku (2008) concluded that when considering the dynamics of parents' participation in school governance, it was shown that African traditions and customs were in tension with modern school policies and legislation. The authors claimed the implications for rural school

leadership are 'critical' and require 'practices and policy provisions [to] reflect ... people's customs / traditions' (p. 447). They recommend the use of 'micropolitics' for rural school leaders to 'cope and survive' (p. 447). The research offered an example of the ways in which the complexities of culture in rural contexts can differ from non-rural contexts. It highlighted how rural principals are required to negotiate demands from locals regarding local rural traditions and cultures, while navigating the demands from the education department that is based in a non-rural context.

Research by Mestry and Khumalo (2012) focussed on six rural schools, looking at 'the perceptions and experiences of rural secondary School Government Bodies [SGBs]' (p. 99). The authors examined the effectiveness of 'learner codes of conduct' (p. 99) designed to address behaviour management in rural secondary schools. The study examined what happened when community, parent and school staff (teaching and non-teaching), were members of the SGBs and were required to design and enforce learner codes of conduct. The research showed the principals' employer, the centralised non-rural based government education department, created a top-down approach to policy creation and implementation processes that did not translate to the rural context, because of the expectation that rural parents would participate. An aim of the approach was to implement a process in which the workload was carried by the parents in the SGB. However, this did not work in the rural contexts because parents in the non-rural contexts did not have capacity (literacy skills, time, proximity to the school) to work with the principal and achieve the aims of the program. This placed additional demands on rural principals, when compared to non-rural principals, because they were left to complete the additional workload.

Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) showed rural schools in South Africa are historically disadvantaged (p. 203). However, the authors acknowledged effective leadership practices are 'to a large extent contingent' (p. 203) on context, and highlighted leadership practices that have been successful in South African rural contexts, as a way of countering deficit theorising of rural schooling. The authors showed the values of the leader are important, for the principal navigates between implementing government education policy changes (such as introducing outcomes-based education and abolishing corporal punishment) and the local

rural traditional values held by teachers, parents and community (p. 205). Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) identified that ‘traditional’ rural values are being challenged by values of non-rural ‘migratory labour’ (people) who migrated into rural contexts for work. The authors noted that left rural principals managing sometimes quite different sub-cultures as residents moved into- and out of- rural contexts. The authors identified a range of inter-personal skills and attributes that were important to the role of rural principals. I summarised them in Table 43. They include being a role model, being trustworthy and committed to broader community welfare. Their research also identified elements of schooling in rural Africa that

Table 43 Personal attributes of a rural principal in Africa

Personal integrity	Exemplary workers	Committed to student learning	Committed to broader community welfare
Trustworthy (particularly with finances)	Good communication skills	Open-door policy	Care and compassion for staff
Everyone is treated the same	Role model to others		

Source: (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010)

contribute to understanding the complexity of the contexts in which rural principals live and work. I summarise these elements in Table 44.

Table 44 Elements of schooling in Africa that highlight contextual elements

Overcrowded schools	Collecting fees	Extreme poverty	Shortage of textbooks
Significant number of under-qualified staff	Poor teacher and pupil attendance	Provisions of materials and buildings	Students came to school in immaculate uniforms
No resourcing for materials and equipment	Running study sessions after school	Female leaders manage sexism from male staff	Learner – educator ratio too high
Schools on land that was a local farmers	High unemployment with limited job opportunities	Increased crime and violence	Education level of parents is low
Fluid population	Large number of new residents	Furniture and equipment broken and vandalised	School regularly being broken into
Dilapidated buildings and grounds	Rape, sexual abuse, teenage pregnancy, AIDS	Lack of recreational and sports facilities	Difficulty in establishing SGBs
Youth taking drugs	Violence on school resulting in deaths of pupils	Sanitary facilities in poor state and barely able to meet demand	Large catchment area makes it hard for staff to go to families and hard for students to attend school
Communication is less readily available (Post Office, Internet, telephone)	Manage school security (with fences, security guards, relationship with neighbouring farmers)	Managing school/community relationship when staff hold different political views to the local rural community	

Source: (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010)

Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) identified elements of successful leadership. Their research found that effective leadership was linked to raising student achievement. It was found principals used substantive educational leadership theories such as distributed leadership to positive effect, as well as transformational, transactional, contingency, relational and, autocratic leadership when required to address attendance. They noted, central to effective leadership were informal school community links (p. 220) and that religious beliefs maintained social cohesion with the school community.

Nature of rural schooling and rural principal training

Research by Msila (2010) was conducted through focus group interviews and observations in ten schools through purposive sampling. The study investigated the nature of schooling in Africa, and the ways in which rural principals believed would support them fulfil the role. It showed African schooling as being characterised by poor school conditions, high levels of illiteracy, lack of parental participation in SGBs, poor transportation, and non-attendance and shortage of teachers (Human Rights Watch, 2007, January). The study noted, within this context, principals are charged with introducing new curriculum with minimal resources and minimal professional expertise in an environment in which 'central education authorities are ... not concerned with the quality of education (Brunswic and Valerien, 2004)' (Msila, 2010, p. 172). Principals agreed it was crucial to be 'a people's person when heading a school especially one with no resources' (p. 179) because it was important to care for employees and motivate staff.

The research investigated what training rural principals believed supported them to fulfil the role. Results highlighted principals lacked preparation programmes for leadership and management positions (p. 169). Principals reported they believed it was important to learn to be transformational leaders and to learn to share leadership with others. They saw potential in mentoring to the degree they suggested mentoring become the 'cornerstone' of principal training but suggested mentors required training (p. 182). Principals noted mentoring worked because the rural principal 'operates in seclusion' (p. 176) and 'usually faces

problems alone', with no other people to bounce ideas on' (p. 175) and that 'district officials do not understand the unique nature of rural schools' (p. 176). The study showed that mentors supported principals emotionally and with health of the community (such as AIDS), teacher morale, absenteeism and improving parent engagement in SGBs (p. 182). Principals saw the benefit of 'peer learning' (p. 180) and formal networks for solving problems such as how to involve parents in SGBs, how to ensure water is available at school and ways to accommodate students being late to school because buses are old and travel on roads that are treacherous in the rain (p. 177). Principals shared that 'peers did not trivialise their questions as they understood entirely where they came from' (p. 180) when questions were asked. Principals believed that ongoing PD was necessary (p. 181) and they saw the benefit of linking with universities (p. 183) to access training.

The female rural school principal

Smit (2013) enacted a feminist, relational, narrative approach to investigate rural school leadership and examined the work of a single female rural principal. Smit's research exposed the tasks the female enacted while in the role of rural principal, which I have listed in Table 45. The tasks included teaching responsibilities, managing the school, taking leadership in whole-of-community causes and personal activities she undertook to enact the role. The research also exposed the nature of the rural context in which she was principal which I have summarised in Table 46. She is the principal of a large number of staff (p. 42), and a large number of students (1,300) in a context in which the community experiences multiple disadvantages related to having no family, having poor health, inadequate housing, food, employment and income. Many are also refugees with no identification or language they can use to communicate with school staff.

Table 45 Role of the rural educational leader in Africa

Teaching responsibilities	Managing the school	Taking leadership in whole-of-community causes	Personal
Taught reading classes	Initiated school building projects, managed the tender process, was site manager	Established a not-for-profit organisation (who provided school fees, uniforms, homework support, washing of children, food, money)	Has a PhD in Education Management
Disciplined learners	Developed sports fields	Gathered food for the hungry	Donated her money to purchase students' uniforms
Curriculum	Managed the school finances	Chaired committees	
Educated parents	Acted as a buffer between school needs and bureaucratic system		
	Managed staff (motivated them)		
	Developing staff		

Source: (Smit, 2013).

Table 46 Nature of rural educational context in Africa

Disadvantaged community	Most learners live in squatters camps	85% of parents are unemployed	Many are refugees
Many were orphaned	Most had only one meal per day	80 km from Pretoria	1300 learners
42 staff	Refugees have no identification documentation	Refugees do not speak a local language or English	In the absence of school fee payments, she relied on donations
Many local parents died from AIDS			

Source: (Smit, 2013).

Findings revealed that the principal believed she was the 'link between the school and community' wherein she 'represented' the image of the school and wanted it to be a good one' (p. 93), whether she was at school or not. She 'chose to stay' in the community because 'there [is] work to be done' (p. 93). The paper concluded with the notion that 'restoring a caring purpose and relational leadership...help create the kind of schools the children deserve' (p. 95). In question, is consideration of the role of the rural principal and gender. I advocate for the ongoing theorising rural educational leadership be informed by an examination of the intersection of gender and role of the rural principal, for there is not a strong focus in current research about the impact gender has on fulfilling the role.

Hallinger's systematic literature review is the only one that offers analysis of the research about rural educational leadership covering perspectives from multiple nation-states and different cultural perspectives. Analysis of the five research projects highlighted the nature of rural community, rural education, and the role of the rural principal in South Africa, which inform the theorising of rural educational leadership. The research offered examples of the ways in which rural principals navigated the intersection of rural contexts, rural community, rural schooling, demands from non-rural education departments and the role of the rural principal. The research also highlighted the tensions being managed by the rural principal as they work between the local rural knowledge systems and the demands of the principals' non-local, non-rural, employers' policies. The findings highlighted that substantive educational leadership theories supported them to enact their work, defined the elements of their role, described the nature of the inter-personal skills required to be successful in the role, and identified the importance of considering culture and context.

Research can highlight the problems about rural educational leadership and the role of the rural principal, through reference to what the principals 'lack'. I argue, that when theorising rural educational leadership, the elements that are integral to the role of the rural principal, including the deficits, be embedded into the theory of rural educational leadership. For it is from acknowledging deficits in rural contexts that work can occur to create policy, funding, definition of the role, research projects, and professional development, to address the deficits and improve rural schooling and the role of the rural principal.

Conclusion

Section Two concludes by offering the theory of rural educational leadership (see Figure 16). Theorising rural educational leadership (Section Two) is necessarily informed by revisioning theories of rurality (Section One) because rural principals live and work in rural contexts. Section Two focused on investigating the important intersection between rurality, rural contexts, rural schooling, rural education, with a particular focus on rural educational leadership.

Results of my research show that theorising rural educational leadership must move beyond the lens of rural / urban binary models. Instead, theorising requires acknowledgement of the intimate connections between different rural contexts and non-rural contexts. Results from Section Two showed the role of the rural principal is distinct. The role of the rural principal in a rural context is the same as- and different from- the role of the rural principal, in a different rural context. Further, results showed the role of the rural principal is the same as- and different from- the role of the non-rural principals. Further, results showed there are elements of the role of the rural principal that are distinct to the unique rurality and rural context in which the rural principal lives and works. Section Two concludes, contexts are at once the same as- and different from- each other while being interconnected. Section Two concludes that theorising rural educational leadership must reflect the complexity of being a rural principal that manifests as being simultaneously the same, different and interconnected with the role of other rural and non-rural principals.

The 9 tools

The theory of rural educational leadership must be flexible enough to account for complexities inherent in rurality, rural education and rural educational leadership. It must be agile enough to account for the complexities, including the differentiated nature of the role of principals who live and work across a range of different rural contexts. Necessarily, theorising rural educational leadership requires *not* an over-simplification, but rather an embracing of the complexity, for the philosophical endeavour of my scholarly research is, to determine a model for theorising rural educational leadership that can account for complexity. I propose the theory of rural educational leadership is a meta-theory that offers flexibility, and agility, in order to accommodate rural contexts that are different from one another and different again from non-rural contexts. I propose that nine tools support a flexible meta-theorising of rural educational leadership. To that end, this thesis offers a representation of the theory of rural educational leadership as an umbrella, from which hang nine tools that interact in order to inform the theory. This thesis proposes that each of the nine tools are equally significant.

One tool is called *community* and requires an examination of the community within which rural principals live and work. It also requires the research to account for and explore the ways in which rural principals and communities work together to negotiate the nature of education and negotiate the role of the rural principal within rural contexts and rural education. A reflection of the research conducted in Section Two, highlights the range of sections of community with which the rural principal lives and works (see Table 47).

Table 47 Community of the rural principal in Eyre Peninsula

Rural school staff	Rural students	Rural parents	School boards	Union	Policy makers
Employer	Funder	Rural community	Rural employers	Universities	Government
Rural and non-rural line management	Business and industry in rural contexts	Non Government organisations in rural contexts	Volunteer organisations in rural contexts	Principal association	Researchers in rural contexts
Government agencies	Training organisations	Business and industry that commodity education and educational leadership PD / T&D / resources			

Another tool is called *context* and requires an examination of the contextual elements of the rural contexts and rural educational contexts in which rural principals live and work. This includes offering clarity about what elements are used to define contexts. But also, clarity about the models used to conceptualise 'context', for the models used to examine 'context' support an articulation of the ways in which contexts are thought about *and* the ways in which contexts impact the role of the rural educational leader.

A third tool is *culture*, which calls for an investigation that values the importance of cultural diversity within the rural school through reference to Indigenous peoples, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people. This includes investigating how inclusive the school is of cultural diversity, with respect to accounting for the inclusion of the range of ontologies and epistemologies of the cultural groups represented in the school community. It includes an investigation of the ways in which knowledge systems of cultural groups inform the co-creation of curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment, accounting for cultural difference. Also required, is accounting for the impact of invasion, genocide and colonisation that has

occurred over the last 400 years in countries such as Australia, Brazil, Canada, India, New Zealand and the USA and continues to occur in 2020 in areas such as Asia, Brazil, China, and Arabia. Further, work is required to analyse the educational experience offered by rural principals to Indigenous peoples, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people.

A fourth tool is called *elements of the role* and calls for an examination of what it is they do, bespoke for the rural context in which they live, that are specific to the role of the rural principal. A fifth tool is called *employer*, and calls for an examination of the policies, procedures, and funding regimes that determine the nature of the work of the rural principal. Examples of policy documents used by the employer to inform the role include the Principal Standards and Job and Person Specifications. Another tool is called *interpersonal* and examines the range of personal attributes that research identifies as significant to being successful while in the role of rural principal.

A seventh tool named *Professional Development (PD) and Training and development (T&D)* (professional development) requires an investigation into the ways in which professional development is offered to rural principals, the ways in which it supports them in their work, the content of training as well as the andragogy through which the professional development is delivered to the rural principal. This tool also determines that principals' access training that supports them to understand rurality and rural educational leadership, arguing that rural principals require knowledge about rurality and rural educational leadership. This is because principals in both rural and non-rural contexts require this knowledge as people will increasingly be displaced and move from- and to- rural- and non-rural- contexts. Further, I advocate, the professional development for rural principals be co-created with them, to address their needs.

Another tool is called *research and data*. This requires investigation of the ways in which rural principals interact with and use research and data to inform them while enacting the role. It also requires an investigation about the ways in which research projects are conducted about rural principal-ship. This includes investigating the extent to which the research about rural principals is longitudinal, is

representative of multi-nation-states, is inclusive of the range of substantive theories about (rural) educational leadership, and accounts for a range of qualitative and quantitative research from both *emic* and *etic* perspectives, while inclusive of a range of ontological and epistemological knowledge systems of a range of cultural perspectives.

The final tool is called *6-meta-impacts* and calls for an investigation into how the 6-meta-impacts impact rurality, rural education and rural educational leadership. This tool calls for the theorising of rural educational leadership to investigate the impact of *narrow knowledge systems* that preference multinational profits over the life of people and the environment, impacting climate change and the displacement and movement of people, leading to war and conflict. The tool also calls for investigations about the ways in which the role of the rural principal supports rural communities address the results from the 6-meta-impacts. This final tool supports theorising rural educational leadership through challenging the hegemony that favours principals enacting the knowledge systems enunciated by the 6-meta-impacts.

Section One showed how the preferencing of multinational business activity and profit, over people and environment, has resulted in an increasing rate at which the 6-meta-impacts are speeding the demise of climactic systems, economic systems, political systems, health systems, legal systems, spiritual systems, and education systems across the world. That is, they destroy the very contexts from which they amass their untenable wealth. The impacts from the demise are acutely felt in rural contexts. Wherein it is people in rurality who are left to mitigate and manage the escalating crises playing out across rurality. Crises that impact rural and non-rural people alike include the poisoning of air, animals, biodiversity, ecosystems, food, oceans, people, shelter, soil, and water. This thesis shows it is people in rural communities, the people rural principals educate, who protect our air, biodiversity, ecosystems, food, ocean, soil, shelter and water. The rural principal educates the people in rural contexts who keep people (rural and non-rural) alive.

The work of the rural principal is critical. Their experience and wellbeing are worthy of reporting on and differentiating for, for the benefit of all humanity. This thesis recommends, the theory of rural educational

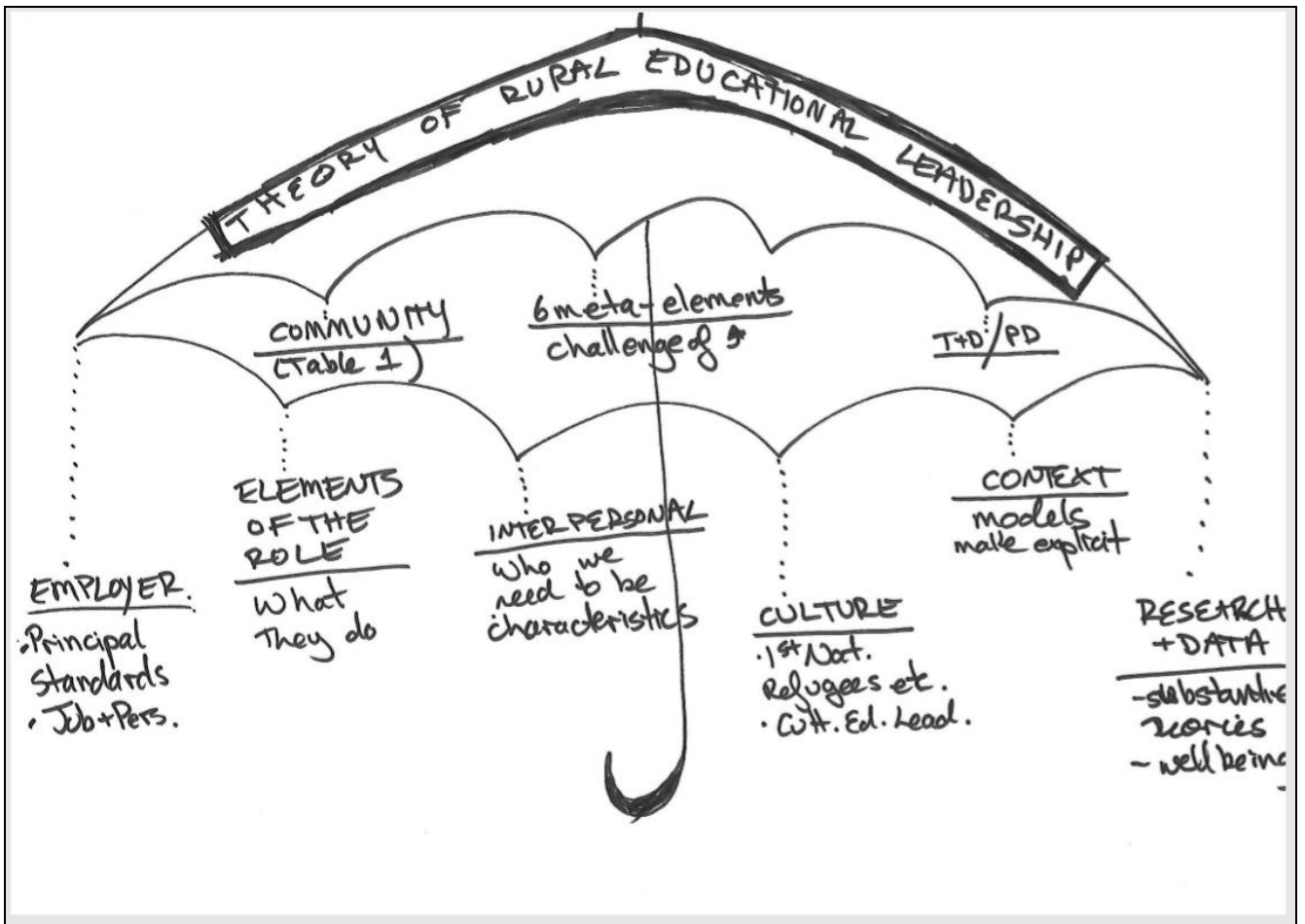
leadership inform the professional development of rural principals. That training support rural principals to support rural teachers to educate rural students in ways that support rural people maintain sustainable and healthy rural systems that support life for all – rural and non-rural alike. Increasingly, rural principals will be required to offer education in rurality that provides knowledge that supports rural people address the impacts in rurality brought about by the 6-meta-impacts (see Figure 3). It is rural people with skills and knowledge who will be at the forefront and able to redress the damaging impacts these 6-meta-impacts have in rurality, impacts that continue to destroy the planet.

Research and scholarship have developed an extensive range of substantive educational leadership theories. Many of these are enacted by rural principals. Work is now required to create a similarly extensive range of substantive educational leadership theories that are substantive *rural* educational leadership theories. The theory of rural educational leadership I have developed is supported by nine tools, and offers opportunity to investigate the bespoke contexts in which each individual rural principal lives and works. This offers research the opportunity to better understand the role of the rural principal in order to further develop the theory. It is not a coincidence that it is a theory that can equally apply to the non-rural principal. For research results show the role of the rural principals is simultaneously the same as- and different from- and interrelated to the role of other rural principals and non-rural principals.

This thesis demonstrates the importance of the ongoing co-creation of longitudinal research that contributes to theorising rural educational leadership be inclusive of a range of ontologies and epistemologies that value the range of knowledge systems of rural people, Indigenous, First Nations, refugees, migrants, asylum seekers and displaced people. Research that preferences the knowledge about rural education and rural educational leadership of people from the diversity of rural contexts and the diversity of cultural backgrounds has greater potential to more fully theorise rural educational leadership in ways that ensure the theory is reflective of rural educational leadership across all nation-states. It is no longer acceptable – indeed never was acceptable – that Anglo-European-North American *narrow*

knowledge systems continue to dominate education and educational research. For that is colonisation and genocide by another means (T. Brabazon, personal communication, April, 20).

Figure 16 Theorising rural educational leadership



SECTION THREE

Empirical work: analysis of datasets about EPSA, and analysis of interviews with rural school principals in EPSA

The final section of this doctoral research configures an intersection between theorising rurality (Section One), and rural educational leadership (Section Two). Section Three explores results of analysis of data related to the contexts in which rural school principals in EPSA live and work, along with results of analysis of interviews with six principals in EPSA. The examination of data in Section Three occurs with reference to the 6-meta-impacts connected with theorising rurality (Section One), and the nine tools connected with theorising rural educational leadership (Section Two). Section Three concludes, by highlighting ways in which rural contexts in EPSA are different from one another and different from non-rural contexts. It also highlights ways in which the role of a rural school principal in EPSA is different from the role of a different rural school principal in EPSA, and different again from the role of a non-rural school principal.

This thesis challenges deficit theorising of rurality, rural education and rural educational leadership. In Section Two, this thesis offered a counter argument to what can be perceived as ‘poor’ learning results for rural students; it asked what learning outcomes would look like for students if standardised testing preferred skills and knowledge systems valuable to people in rural contexts, such as shearing livestock. Are rural students less educated, or is what is being measured, unable to differentiate for- and account for- learning that is valuable to- and valued in- rural contexts?

The Rural context in EPSA

My examination of data highlighted the complexities inherent in rural-contexts and rural-schooling that impact the role of rural school principal in EPSA. Results support a deepening understanding of the unique nature of the individual townships, schools and principal-ship. Results highlighted that in EPSA there was low rural population, few major industries and employers, high unemployment, low wages and high levels of vulnerability and disadvantage. Results also showed complexities related to cultural diversity with

reference to Indigenous Australians (Racial Discrimination Act, 1975)¹⁰ and people from diverse cultural backgrounds.

International research continues to show that an understanding of the context in which an educational leader works, is important to understanding the role of the educational leader (Eacott, 2019; Hallinger, 2019; Yakavets et al., 2017), as per examination of educational contexts in Section Two. This thesis aims to show that when theorising rurality, rural *context* is better understood as rural *contexts*. The rural contexts in which principals in EPSA work were unique and distinct from one another, and unique and distinct from non-rural contexts. An aim of this thesis is to show that it is appropriate to dispel mythology supporting binary rural/non-rural dichotomous modelling when theorising rurality. Instead, this thesis theorises rurality and rural educational leadership, highlighting that contexts are unique for rurality and non-rurality; wherein theorising requires agility, in order to account for the unique nature of each rural context, and the unique nature of each rural school principal-ship, while accounting for similarities and differences between rurality and non-rurality. Data is now examined, that contribute to understanding the rural contexts and rural schools, in which principals in EPSA live and work.

Context and the employer: data and policy

Responsibilities of the Department of Education (herein referred to as the Department), characterise the contexts in which rural school principals' work. For instance, the Department manages students and staff with whom the principals work, with

more than 190,000 children and young people attend[ing] some 900 public schools and childhood services...with close to 30,000 staff including teachers, school-based staff, early childhood educators and staff in corporate support roles (Government of SA, 2017b, p. 4).

¹⁰ This thesis references the Australian Government, *Racial Discrimination Act 1975 3 (1)* for a definition of Indigenous Australians: '*Aboriginal* means a person who is a descendant of an indigenous inhabitant of Australia but does not include a Torres Strait Islander, and, *Torres Strait Islander* means a person who is a descendant of an indigenous inhabitant of the Torres Strait Islands.' (Racial Discrimination Act, 1975). This thesis uses the term Indigenous Australian to refer to Australian Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.

Data shows the Department was responsible for educating a significant number of school students including 66% of the state's primary school aged students, and 56% of the state's secondary aged students (ABS [South Australia STE], 2018). The Department also managed school principals, and determined the nature of their work, through policy. Departmental policies determined principals' work, for example, through determining the characteristics of the role of the principal. The *Education Act 1972 (SA)* is a significant policy document that defines the role of principal and informs the nature of the work of principals. The first key responsibility of the principal, as outlined in Regulation 42 of the *Education Act 1972 (SA)*, *Education Regulations 2012 (SA)*, is to provide educational leadership in schools. Department policy also demands principals meet the Australian Principal Standards (AITSL, 2017). Department policy determines the financial contexts in which principals operate, through funds being allocated to each school as determined by a student-centred-funding-model. In 2017, the Department reported on an education budget of \$AUD3.12 billion (Government of SA, 2017b, p. 20) which is a significant 15% of the state's 2017-2018 total budget of \$AUD19 billion (Government of SA, 2017d, p. 22), and second only to the budget for the Department of Health. In 2019, it was reported that Australia had the highest median wealth in the world (Shorrocks, Davies & Lluberas, 2018, p. 7). Australia is, therefore, when compared with every other country in the world, in the strongest position to fund education. Principals reported they used funding for items such as staffing, purchasing resources for teachers and students, and purchasing professional development that support staff to gain the qualifications that enable them to apply for the role of principal. Staff engagement in training is critical, for Department policy dictates the minimum level qualification in order to be employed as a principal, and from 2020 school principals must hold an advanced leadership qualification (Vukovic, 2016, July 13). I have previously published results of my research, arguing that content and andragogy of professional development to be co-created with rural school principals, and differentiated for rurality, rural contexts, and the bespoke nature of the role of the rural school principal (Hardwick-Franco, 2019a). This was supported by subsequent publications that have cited my research in this area (Echazarra & Radinger, 2019).

Department policy determines the role of the principal through the Job and Person Specification (J&P). An example of a publicly available twenty-page J&P for an entry level principal in EPSA is offered in Appendix 1 (Government of SA, 2018). The document states the work required of a principal. This includes ensuring children enrolled in grades from Reception (R) or Foundation (F), through to grade ten, are educated with reference to the Australian Curriculum (ACARA, NDa), and young people enrolled in grades eleven and twelve meet the completion requirements of the South Australian Certificate of Education (SACE) (SACE, ND).

Department policy determines principals' work within geographic boundaries aligned with the 'partnership' of schools to which each school is connected. There are sixty-two 'partnerships' in SA (Government of SA, NDa). The six partnerships in EPSA are Central Eyre 1, Central Eyre 2, Far West, Whyalla, Port Lincoln and Port Augusta-Quorn (see Table 48, Column 1). The 'partnership' model is investigated by scholars such as Kaimal, Barber, Schulman and Reed (2012) and Brooks, Havard, Tatum and Patrick (2010). My project focused on work undertaken by principals who led schools listed in Table 48, Column 2, not the work of those who led sites listed in Column 3. The schools listed in Column 2 consist of different 'types-of-schools' (see Table 49) including Aboriginal schools and Anangu schools (ASs), area schools (AreaS), a Better Behaviour Unit (BBU), high schools (HSs), a junior primary school (JPS), an Open Access College (OAC), primary schools (PSs), and special schools (SSs).

Table 48 EPSA partnerships, schools and sites

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
Partnership	Schools included in this research project	Sites not included in this research project
Central Eyre 1	Cleve Area School	Cleve District Children's Centre
	Cummins Area School	Elliston RSL Memorial Children's Centre
	Elliston Area School	Kimba Community Kindergarten
	Kimba Area School	Lock Early Learning Centre
	Lock Area School	Wudinna RSL Memorial Kindergarten
	Wudinna Area School	
Central Eyre 2	Cowell Area School	Cowell Early Childhood Centre
	Port Neill Primary School	Tumby Bay Kindergarten
	Tumby Bay Area School	
	Ungarra Primary School	
Far West	Ceduna Area School	Ngura Yadorim Children and Family Centre
	Karcultaby Area School	Streaky Bay Children's Centre
	Koonibba Aboriginal School	
	Miltaburra Area School	
	Penong Primary School	
	Streaky Bay Area School	
Whyalla	Edward John Eyre High School	Gabmididi Manoo Children and Family Centre
	Fisk Street Primary School	McRitchie Crescent Children's Services Centre
	Hincks Avenue Primary School	Neta Kranz Children's Centre
	Long Street Primary School	Norrie Stuart Childhood Services Centre
	Memorial Oval Primary School	Whyalla Stuart Early Childhood Centre Kindergarten
	Nicolson Avenue Primary School	Win Newby Kindergarten
	Stuart High School	
	Whyalla High School	
	Whyalla Special Education Centre	
	Whyalla Sturt Campus R-7	
	Whyalla Town Primary School	
Port Lincoln	Kirton Point Primary School	Bishop Kindergarten
	Lake Wangary Primary School	Kirton Point Children's Centre
	Lincoln Gardens Primary School	Park Terrace Kindergarten
	Poonindie Community Learning Centre	Poonindie Early Childhood Centre
	Port Lincoln High School	Port Lincoln Children's Centre
	Port Lincoln Junior Primary School	
	Port Lincoln Primary School	
	Port Lincoln Special School	
Port Augusta – Quorn	Augusta Park Primary School	Augusta Park Childhood Services Centre
	Carlton School	Flinders Children's Centre
	Flinders View Primary School	Port Augusta West Childhood Services Centre
	Port Augusta Secondary School	Quorn Kindergarten
	Port Augusta Special School	RICE Project Preschool
	Port Augusta West Primary School	Stirling North Childhood Services Centre
	Quorn Area School	Willsden Childhood Services Centre
	Stirling North Primary School	
Willsden Primary School		

Table 49 Type-of-school

Aboriginal schools and Anangu schools (ASs)	Area schools (AreaS)	Better Behaviour Unit (BBU)	High schools (HSs)
Junior primary schools (JPs)	Open Access College (OAC)	Primary schools (PSs)	Special schools (SSs)

Research undertaken for this doctoral thesis focused on the forty-six Department schools situated in EPSA. Forty-four schools are listed in Table 50. The forty-fifth was a BBU, a federally funded campus located in Port Lincoln which accommodated ten students at a time, whose behaviour regularly prevented them from participating in mainstream educational experiences. There were six BBUs in SA (Government of SA, 2020). The forty-sixth campus was the OAC based in Port Augusta. Students enrolled in the OAC live in very-remote areas of the state in which families were hundreds of kilometres from the next farm, township or school (Government of SA, NDb). The OAC offered learning for students from across the state, through a blend of online, audio-visual, and in-person pedagogy. Quorn Area School is situated within the Port Augusta–Quorn partnership however as the township of Quorn sits outside the township of Port Augusta The Quorn AreaS did not feature in this thesis.

Context and school: data and schools in EPSA

Table 50 offers data that related to rural schools and communities in EPSA. The ordering of the data from Column 2 through to Column 17 is deliberate. As the examination of data occurs, results of analysis of the data from previous columns, informs the analysis of the data of subsequent columns. Column 1 lists the names of the forty-five schools in alphabetical order. Column 2 details the gender of the principal employed by the Department at each school, during the interview stage of this project. Column 3 identifies each 'type-of-school', followed by the grades taught at each school from grade R/F through to grade 12. Column 4 notes the geolocation of each school as 'outer-regional', 'remote' or 'very-remote'. Column 5 highlights which schools are located in a regional-town (RT) and which were the 'Only' Department school in that town. The name of the town in which the school is situated is also listed in Column 5 (Government of South Australia, NDa). Column 6 details the numbers of full-time students who were enrolled in schools in 2017. Column 7, notes which schools were 'small', because student enrolment was less than two-hundred, and which schools were 'additional', because student enrolment was greater than two-hundred. Column 8 shows the number of teaching staff who were employed at each school, and the number of full-time

equivalent (FTE) staff, who were employed at each school. Column 9 lists the number of non-teaching staff who were employed at each school, and the number of FTE non-teaching staff. Column 10 details the number that represented the *Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage* (ICSEA) of each school (ACARA, 2013) and Column 11 notes the number that delineated the 'Category' of each school, where the 'Category' of the school is determined by the Department and is linked to the ICSEA (ACARA, NDc). Column 12 notes the percentage of Indigenous Australian students who were enrolled in each school and Column 13 the percentage of students enrolled who had a language background other than English. Data offered in Table 50 Columns 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12 and 13 was sourced from the individual school profiles as featured on the Australian government *myschool* website (ACARA, NDb) during August 2018. Data for Column 10 was sourced from the Department (Government of SA, 2017c).

Column 14 and Column 15 offer population data for people who were living in EPSA. Throughout this thesis, population data is sourced from the Australian Bureau of Statistics website (ABS) using the *QuickStats* data from the 'available geography' location that is called *Local Government Area* (LGA). In instances where data for the LGA location was unavailable, this thesis used data from the ABS data location named *State Suburbs* (SSC) (ABS [QuickStats], 2019). The data in Columns 14 and 15 correspond to the population who lived in and around the school listed in Column 1 and the town named in Column 5. Column 14 shows the percentage of Indigenous Australian people and the ABS data location (LGA or SSC). Column 15 shows the number of individuals who identified as Indigenous Australian people and ('/') the total population identified by the ABS data location (LGA or SSC). Where population data was not available ('N/A') this is because the ABS determined that confidentiality of residents could be compromised, due to the small population (ABS [Karcultaby SSC], 2019,).

(This page intentionally blank).

Table 50 Data about contextual aspects of schools in EPSA

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4	Column 5	Column 6	Column 7	Column 8	Column 9	Column 10	Column 11	Column 12	Column 13	Column 14	Column 15
School name	Gender of school principal in Term 2, 2018	Type-of-school AND Year levels	Geolocation	School as Regional town 'RT' OR 'Only' school in town and township	Full-time equivalent enrolments	'Small' school: < 200 students enrolment OR 'additional' school: > 200 student enrolment	Number of teaching staff AND the number of full-time equivalent teaching staff	Number of non-teaching staff AND the number of full-time equivalent non-teaching staff	Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage (ICSEA)	Category	Percentage of Indigenous Australian student enrolment	Language back-ground other than English	Percentage of Indigenous Australia people (LGA/SSC)	Number of Indigenous Australia people AND the total number of people (LGA/SSC)
Augusta Park Primary	Female	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Port Augusta	262.0	Additional	27 25.8	24 16.8	781	1	58%	13%	18.3% (LGA)	2523/13,808 (LGA)
Better Behaviour Unit – Port Lincoln	Male	Better Behaviour Unit	Remote	RT Port Lincoln	N/A	N/A	N/A N/A	N/A N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	5.1% (LGA)	724/14,064 (LGA)
Carlton School (Aboriginal School)	Female	Aboriginal School R-10	Outer regional	RT Port Augusta	98	Small	13 12.4	16 10.6	N/A	1	95%	48%	18.3% (LGA)	2523/13,808 (LGA)
Ceduna Area School	Male	Area School R-12	Very remote	Only Ceduna	506.3	Additional	54 50.3	30 20.7	922	2	28%	2%	21.7% (LGA)	741/3,408 (LGA)
Cleve Area School	Male	Area School R-12	Remote	Only Cleve	274.4	Additional	28 23.8	17 12.2	1,009	6	0%	0%	0.6% (LGA)	10/1,771 (LGA)
Cowell Area School	Female	Area School R-12	Remote	Only Cowell	162.0	Small	18 15.6	13 9.7	966	5	8%	1%	2.4% (SSC)	27/1,109 (SSC)
Cummins Area School	Female	Area School R-12	Remote	Only Cummins	391.0	Additional	36 29.4	21 14.9	1,033	5	3%	1%	1.8% (SSC)	17/959 (SSC)
Edward John Eyre High School	Male	High School 11-12	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	454.6	Additional	29 27.6	27 24.1	N/A	2	12%	1%	4.7% (LGA)	1032/21,828 (LGA)
Elliston Area School	Female	Area School R-12	Very remote	Only Elliston	67.9	Small	9 7.5	8 4.7	991	5	6%	0%	2.9% (LGA)	30/1,045 (LGA)
Fisk Street Primary	Male	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	132	Small	9 9	18 12.5	855	1	43%	2%	4.7% (LGA)	1032 / 21,828 (LGA)
Flinders View Primary	Female	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Port Augusta	170	Small	18 16	22 16	749	1	72%	1%	18.3% (LGA)	2523 / 13,808 (LGA)

Hincks Avenue Primary	Female	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	135	Small	11 11	18 11.8	852	2	29%	4%	4.7% (LGA)	1032 / 21,828 (LGA)
Karcultaby Area School	Female	Area School R-12	Very remote	Only No township	62.6	Small	10 7.8	9 5.4	1,072	6	3%	0%	N/A (SSC)	21 (SSC)
Kimba Area School	Female	Area School R-12	Remote	Only Kimba	171.5	Small	19 15.2	12 6.9	1,011	6	2%	1%	1.3% (LGA)	14 / 1,061 (LGA)
Kirton Point Primary	Female	Primary School R-7	Remote	RT Port Lincoln	206.0	Additional	19 16.9	15 9.4	887	2	27%	25%	5.1% (LGA)	724 / 14,064 (LGA)
Koonibba Aboriginal School	Male	Aboriginal School Primary school R-7	Very remote	Only Koonibba Aboriginal Community	31	Small	4 4	6 3.5	N/A	1	100%	0%	87.8% (SSC)	130 / 149 (SSC)
Lake Wangary Primary	Female	Primary School R-7	Remote	Only Lake Wangary	76	Small	7 6.2	7 2.7	961	5	12%	0%	7.4% (SSC)	15 / 200 (SSC)
Lincoln Gardens Primary	Male	Primary School R-7	Remote	RT Port Lincoln	82	Small	7 7	9 6.8	702	1	78%	0%	5.1% (LGA)	724/14,064 (LGA)
Lock Area School	Male	Area School R-12	Remote	Only Lock	57.3	Small	11 8.8	7 3.7	993	6	2%	0%	0% (SSC)	0 / 276 (SSC)
Long Street Primary	Male	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	299	Additional	21 21	16 10.7	910	2	11%	0%	4.7% (LGA)	1,032/21,828 (LGA)
Memorial Oval Primary	Male	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	291	Additional	16 15.6	11 6.9	957	5	6%	0%	4.7% (LGA)	1,032/21,828 (LGA)
Miltaburra Area School	Female	Area School R-12	Very remote	Only No township	50	Small	9 7.5	6 3.7	1,019	5	0%	0%	N/A	N/A
Nicolson Avenue Primary	Female	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	470	Additional	30 27.4	23 14.5	910	4	13%	0%	4.7% (LGA)	1,032/21,828 (LGA)
Open Access College – Port Augusta School of the Air Data for state wide	Female	Open Access College R-12	Major cities Port Augusta campus is outer regional	RT Port Augusta	848.9	Additional	113 100.5	31 29.3	999	2	8%	0%	18.3% (LGA)	2,523/13,808 (LGA)

Penong Primary	Female	Primary School. R-7	Very remote	Only Penong	23	Small	3 2.8	5 2.6	945	2	26%	0%	22.1% (SSC)	63 / 289 (SSC)
Poonindie Community Learning Centre	Female	Primary School R-7	Remote	Only Poonindie	89	Small	7 5.4	8 4.9	958	4	13%	2%	16% (SSC)	29 / 188 (SSC)
Port Augusta West Primary	Male	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Port Augusta	291.4	Additional	22 20.2	16 11.2	954	3	14%	3%	18.3% (LGA)	2,523/13,808 (LGA)
Port Augusta Secondary School	Male	High School 8-12	Outer regional	RT Port Augusta	605.1	Additional	58 55.7	35 27.5	875	2	42%	15%	18.3% (LGA)	2,523/13,808 (LGA)
Port Augusta Special School	Female	Special School R/F - 12	Outer regional	RT Port Augusta	46	Small	10 8.9	15 10.6	N/A	2	48%	4%	18.3% (LGA)	2,523/13,808 (LGA)
Port Lincoln High School	Male	High School 8-12	Remote	RT Port Lincoln	724.0	Additional	62 58.2	41 30.5	939	3	15%	7%	5.1% (LGA)	724/14,064 (LGA)
Port Lincoln Junior Primary	Female	Junior Primary School R-2	Remote	RT Port Lincoln	319	Additional	28 24.3	17 10.9	N/A	4	13%	16%	5.1% (LGA)	724/14,064 (LGA)
Port Lincoln Primary	Female	Primary School 3-7	Remote	RT Port Lincoln	480	Additional	35 29.1	22 15.5	957	4	11%	4%	5.1% (LGA)	724/14,064 (LGA)
Port Lincoln Special School	Female	Special school R/F-12	Remote	RT Port Lincoln	30	Small	6 5.8	19 10.9	N/A	4	10%	3%	5.1% (LGA)	724/14,064 (LGA)
Port Neill Primary	Female	Primary School. R-7	Remote	Only Port Neill	7	Small	2 1.9	2 1.1	N/A	5	0%	0%	1.5% (SSC)	3 / 194 (SSC)
Stirling North Primary	Male	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	Only Port Augusta	320	Additional	20 18.8	19 12.4	958	3	15%	10%	18.3% (LGA)	2,523/13,808 (LGA)
Stuart High School	Female	High School 8-10	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	151	Small	17 16	13 10.8	853	2	25%	0%	4.7% (LGA)	1,032/21,828 (LGA)
Streaky Bay Area	Male	Area School R-12	Remote	Only Streaky Bay	253.0	Additional	27 24.1	16 11.0	997	5	2%	0%	1.5% (LGA)	32/2,074 (LGA)
Tumby Bay Area	Female	Area School R-12	Remote	Only Tumby Bay	199.1	Small	20 16.2	12 6.9	994	5	5%	1%	2% (LGA)	52/2,610 (LGA)
Ungarra Primary	Female	Primary School. R-7	Remote	Only Ungarra	36	Small	4 3.6	4 1.4	1,054	6	0%	0%	3.7% (SSC)	6 / 163 (SSC)

Whyalla High School	Female	High School 8-10	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	468.2	Additional	38 37	20 16	955	3	10%	2%	4.7% (LGA)	1,032/21,828 (LGA)
Whyalla Special Education Centre	Female	Special Education R/F-12	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	53.0	Small	10 9.6	16 12	N/A	2	19%	0%	4.7% (LGA)	1,032/21,828 (LGA)
Whyalla Stuart Campus	Female	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	104	Small	6 5.8	9 6.8	792	1	48%	5%	4.7% (LGA)	1,032/21,828 (LGA)
Whyalla Town Primary	Female	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Whyalla	343	Additional	24 22.4	11 6.8	1,020	5	3%	2%	4.7% (LGA)	1,032/21,828 (LGA)
Willsden Primary	Female	Primary School R-7	Outer regional	RT Port Augusta	158	Small	17 16.8	17 13.1	705	1	80%	55%	18.3% (LGA)	2,523/13,808 (LGA)
Wudinna Area School	Male	Area School R-12	Very remote	Only Wudinna	199.7	Small	21 16.8	11 6.2	1,011	5	4%	0%	2% (LGA)	25/1,250 (LGA)
TOTAL number of schools: 45							TOTAL number of staff: 842	TOTAL number of staff: 694						

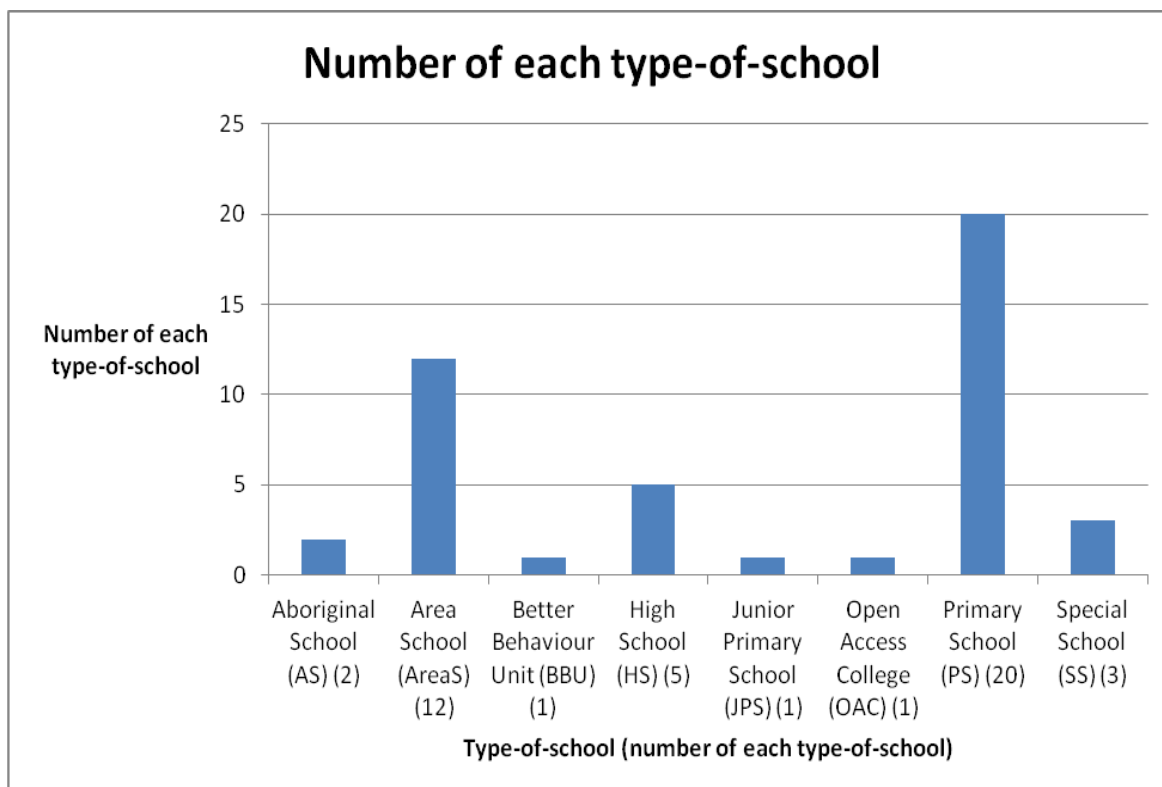
Column 2 – The declared gender of Principals

Table 50, Column 2, notes the declared gender of each principal. During the interview stage of this research project, there were twenty-nine female and sixteen male principals. Research investigating the links between gender and the role of the rural principal reveals that the role of rural principal is different for females. A recent study, guided by standpoint theory, has shown that mentoring is successful in supporting females to obtain the role of secondary school principal in Oklahoma (Kruse & Krumm, 2016).

Column 3 - Type-of-school

Table 50 Column 3 identifies each 'type-of-school' (see Figure 17) and shows there were eight different types-of-schools in EPSA. There were two ASs, twelve AreaS, one BBU and five HSs, one JPS, one OAC, twenty PSs and three SSs. Analysis shows, there are differences between schools that are the same 'type-of-school'. For example, there are two ASs (Koonibba Aboriginal School and Carlton School) that are the same 'type-of-school' because they are both Aboriginal Schools. But they are different from one another because they are positioned in different geolocations and enrol students in different grades. Koonibba Aboriginal School is situated in the very-remote Aboriginal community of Koonibba, forty-five kilometres from the very-remote town of Ceduna, enrolling students in grades R/F-7. Whereas Carlton School is situated outer-regional, in the regional-town of Port Augusta, enrolling students in grades R-9.

Figure 17 Number of each type-of-school in EPSA



The twelve AreaS are similar to each other because they are all the same type-of-school, and enrol students in all the grades, R/F-12. This aspect makes them similar to a different type-of-school, the three SSs, which similarly enrol students in grades R/F-12. The twelve ASs and three SSs are different from the other types-of-schools that do not enrol students in all the grades. There are three SSs in EPSA that are similar to each other because they are all the same type-of-school and are all located in regional-towns, enrolling students in grades R/F-12 on the basis the students have been formally diagnosed with having a Global Developmental Delay or Intellectual Disability.

AreaS are different from other AreaS, because they occur in different geolocations either remote, or very-remote. Different also, because not all AreaSs had a cohort of students in senior-school grades 11-12 large enough to run classes in all subjects. Instead, these senior-school students leave their home, community, and AreaS to complete high school education as a boarder in larger schools closer to- or in- the non-rural area. Alternatively, AreaS in EPSA can enrol students in the OAC when students study a subject on-line

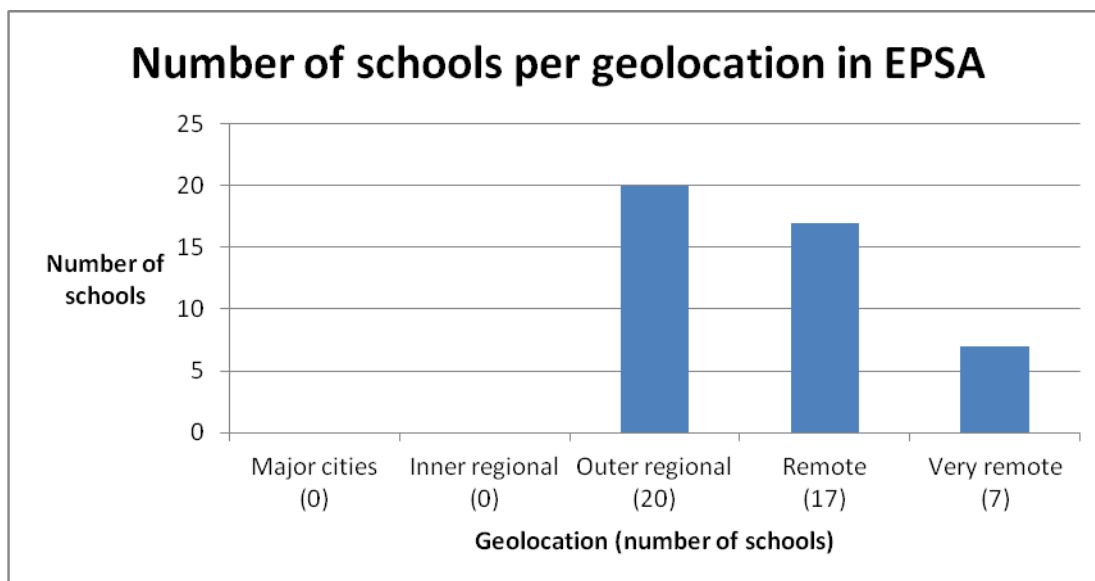
where there is no school-based teacher to teach the subject. An OAC enrolment does not work for all students because of the high cost, and the student tends to be the only senior-school student at the AreaS studying the subject.

There are five HSs that are similar to each other because they are the same type-of-school, and are all situated in regional-towns. But they are different from one another because they enrolled students in different grades. Two HSs (Port Augusta Secondary School and Port Lincoln HS) enrolled students in grades 8-12 whereas in Whyalla, two HSs catered for students in grades 8-10 and one Whyalla HS school enrolled senior-school students in grades 11-12.

Column 4 - School geolocation: outer-regional, remote, very-remote

The contexts in which rural principals work can be defined by geolocation. The ABS references five geolocations identified in a map named *The Australian Statistical Geography Standard (ASGS) Remoteness Structure* (ABS, 2020). With respect to South Australia, the map indicates the state capital city of Adelaide is defined as a 'major city' of Australia, covering a land mass of some 1,827 km². This thesis considers the rest of the state, some 982,000 km², as rural, which is in excess of 99% of the state. The map indicates rurality comprises four distinct geolocations: 'very-remote', 'remote', 'outer-regional', and 'inner-regional'. The majority of EPSA is considered either very-remote or remote, with a small section around Whyalla and Port Augusta considered outer-regional. The geolocation shown in Table 50 Column 4, shows twenty schools are considered to be 'outer-regional', seventeen schools are considered 'remote', and seven 'very-remote' (see Figure 18).

Figure 18 Number of schools per geolocation in EPSA



Column 5 - School geolocation, isolation and population

Schools in 'Regional Towns' or the 'Only' school in town

Schools that were located in one of the three regional-towns in EPSA, and those that were the 'Only' Department school in the town in which they were located are delineated in Table 50 Column 5. There were twenty-seven principals who worked in schools located in one of the three towns (Whyalla, Port Lincoln and Port Augusta) and there were nineteen principals who worked in schools that were the 'Only' school that serviced the township in which they were situated, and the surrounding district.

Correlation of data in Column 5 and Column 4 shows there were eleven schools situated within the outer-regional-town of Whyalla and nine schools situated within the outer-regional-town of Port Augusta. The remaining twenty-five schools were situated in either very-remote- or remote- geolocations. Also, there were nineteen principals who are the 'Only' school principal in their respective town. For most of these nineteen principals, an in-person connection with a neighbouring principal, required hours of travel.

Correlation of data in Column 5 and Column 3 shows principals who were the 'Only' principal in the town, led four different 'types-of-school'. Twelve were principals of AreaS, five were principals of PSs, one was

principal of an AS and one was principal of a Community-Learning-Centre. Column 5 shows there were twenty-seven principals who worked in one of the three regional-towns where in each of these towns, there were multiple principals. However, it cannot be assumed that because there were multiple principals in these towns, these principals are not isolated.

Isolation from peer-principals

Principals in regional-towns were professionally isolated from peer-principals, because there was no peer-principal who led the same 'type-of-school' in their town. For example, principals of the Port Lincoln HS (PLHS), the Port Lincoln Special School (PLSS) and the Port Lincoln Junior Primary School (PLJPS) lived in Port Lincoln, in which there were six principals. Three principals led PSs that enrolled students in grade R/F-7. The principals of the PLHS, PLSS and PLJPS are to be considered isolated, because there were no peer-principals in Port Lincoln, who led the same type-of-school.

The principal of the PLHS was professionally isolated due to leading the only HS in Port Lincoln that enrolls students in grades 8-12. The next closest peer-principal who similarly led a rural HS that enrolled students in grades 8-12, worked in Port Augusta, some 344 kilometres away, an eight-hour return car drive travelling at 110 kilometres per hour on the single lane *National Highway One*. The principal of the Port Lincoln SS was isolated due to leading the only school in town that enrolled students with special needs in grades R/F-12. Principals of the three SSs in EPSA were each located in a different regional-town. Principals of schools with significant numbers of Indigenous Australian students were similarly isolated from one another by hundreds of kilometres. The principal of the Port Lincoln JPS (PLJPS) was isolated due to leading the only school in the entire state that enrolled students only in grades R/F-2.

Distance, travelling time, and danger

There are long distances between schools in EPSA. Three towns sit at the extreme corners of the triangle that is EPSA. Ceduna sits in the far north-west corner, Port Lincoln is on the southern tip, and Port Augusta is situated in the far north-east corner. It is 403 kilometres between Ceduna and Port Lincoln, a ten-hour

return drive. It is 344 kilometres between Port Lincoln and Port Augusta, an eight-hour return drive. It is 470 kilometres between Port Augusta and Ceduna, a nine-hour return drive. The time taken to drive was calculated from the author's experience while driving reliable cars, along narrow, single lane, aged, bituminised roads where the speed limit is 110 kilometres per hour. Driving speed was lowered when negotiating vehicles which included road trains that transport goods speed limited at 100 kilometres per hour, tourists who are mostly retired and towing boats or caravans travelling at 80 kilometres per hour, as well as those who drive slowly due to towing large, oversized vehicles that support work in the agriculture-, aquaculture-, fossil-fuel-, energy- and mining-industries. In addition, particularly when driving at dawn and dusk, principals must avoid native animals on the road such as kangaroos, emus, and wombats, feral animals such as rabbits, foxes, goats, deer and camels, as well as wayward stock such as sheep, and cattle that escape from farms through damaged fencing. Hitting animals at speed kills animals and people. In addition, climate change has increased the severity and frequency of weather events including high temperatures, strong winds, catastrophic weather conditions, and bushfires, impacting principals' decision to drive. Indeed, on days the government declare as 'catastrophic' due to the likelihood of wildfire, government workers are forbidden from driving. This also results in student reliant on school buses to transport them to school, remaining home. There is significant time and funding required to navigate the distances.

Training

With respect to geolocation and resulting isolation, research showed it can be difficult for rural principals to access professional development (Jarzabkowski, 2003; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Preston, Jakubiec, & Kooymans, 2013; Stewart & Matthews, 2015; Reese, Lindle, Della Sala, Knoeppel, & Klar, 2015; Johnston et al., 2016; Lindle, 2016; Hardwick-Franco, 2019a). Yet research showed professional development is important because development of principals has been shown to improve schooling (Eacott, 2013). Geolocation and isolation also impacted ways in which rural principals support school staff to access training, which is important, for as research shows, well trained staff have the biggest impact on improving the education of rural students (see Section Two). The time investment required to travel, and the cost of

travel to professional development, for the forty-six principals (Column 2), 842 teachers (Column 8), and 694 school support staff (Column 9) is significant, and impacts staff access to training.

Isolation and small populations

Table 50 Column 15 shows the population as the 'total number of people', for each EPSA town named in Column 5 and shows the three regional-towns had the highest populations. Whyalla had the highest population of any town with 21,828 residents (ABS [Whyalla LGA], 2019) followed by Port Lincoln with a population of 14,064 (ABS [Port Lincoln LGA], 2019), and Port Augusta with a population of 13,808 (ABS [Port Augusta LGA], 2019). Ceduna had a population of only 3,408 people, (ABS [Ceduna LGA], 2019), and a neighbouring town, Streaky Bay, had even less population, only 2,074 people (ABS [Streaky Bay LGA], 2019). Even more isolated were Karcultaby AreaS, and Miltaburra AreaS. Karcultaby had a population of a mere twenty-one people (ABS [Karcultaby SSC], 2019) and population of Miltaburra is not available because the ABS advise, Miltaburra is too small (<21) to share data while ensuring anonymity for residents.

Karcultaby AreaS and Miltaburra AreaS are not situated with a township, but instead are schools that are positioned amongst pastoral land and sheep paddocks. Principals in EPSA are working in towns with low population.

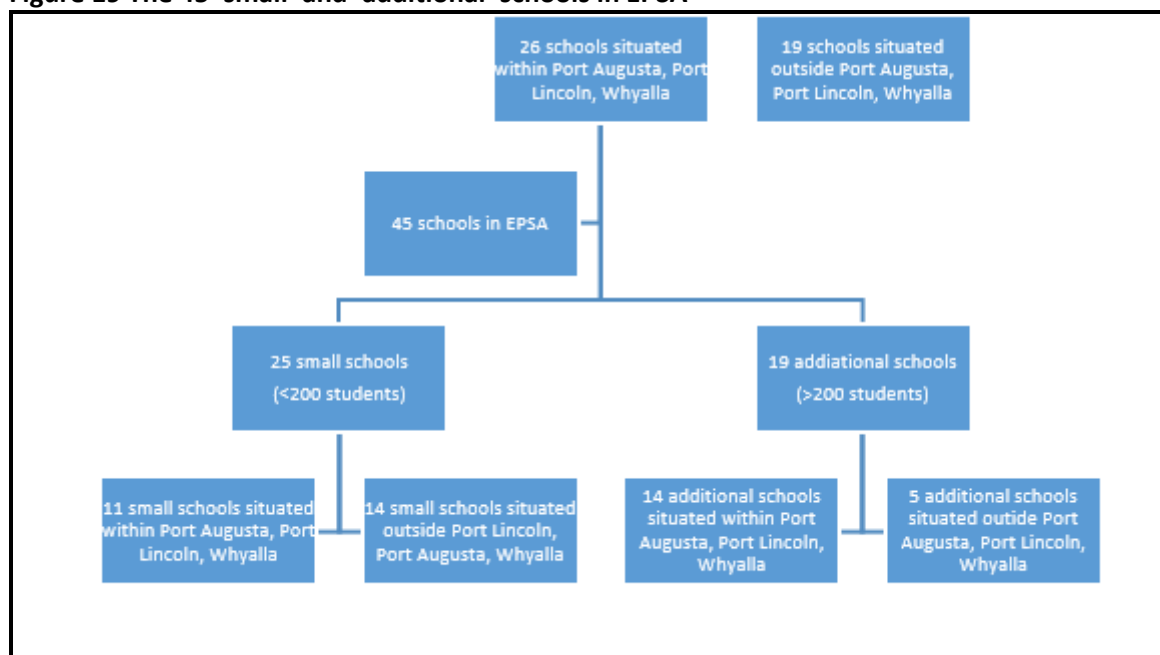
Column 6 - Student enrolment numbers

The numbers of students enrolled in each school is listed in Column 6. Schools in EPSA had communities with small populations, from which schools draw student enrolments. Enrolment numbers for schools in EPSA ranged from only seven students at the Port Neill Primary school, through to 849 students enrolled in the OAC.

Column 6 and Column 7 - Small school contexts

It was shown in 2010, that if 200 enrolments or less was used to define a ‘small’ school, then in Australia, there were 4,253 such schools, representing approximately 45% of all schools in Australia (Anderson et al., 2010). Research showed the majority of small schools were situated in non-urban locations and the more distant a community was from a capital- or regional-city, the more likely it was to have a small school (Halsey, 2011, p. 6). Table 50 Column 6 highlights the number of full-time equivalent student enrolments for each school; which were ‘small’ schools (<200 students) and which were ‘additional’ schools (>200 students), is recorded in Column 7. Column 7 shows there were twenty-five ‘small’ schools, and nineteen ‘additional’ schools (see Figure 19). Outside the three regional-towns, only five schools were considered ‘additional’, that is, across the EPSA landscape, the majority, were ‘small schools’.

Figure 19 The 45 ‘small’ and ‘additional’ schools in EPSA



Column 8 and Column 9 - Staffing contexts

Research shows, for the rural principal, staffing rural schools is problematic (Hashweh, 2003; OECD, 2005; Hong, 2010; Plunkett & Dyson, 2011; Buchanan, 2012; Mansfield, Beltman, Price & McConney, 2012; Coetzee, Ebersöhn, Ferreira & Moen, 2017). Column 8 and Column 9 shows, respectively, the number of teaching and non-teaching staff per school, and the number of full-time equivalent teaching and non-

teaching staff. There was a wide range of numbers of staff between schools. Port Neill PS had only four staff members whereas the OAC principal line managed 144 staff. The principal of the OAC necessarily, enacts different line management of staff when compared to that of the principal of Port Neill PS. Research about principals enacting different line management of staff due to the numbers of staff has been examined by scholars (Lee, Smerdon, Alfeld-Liro & Brown, 2000; Masci, De Witte & Agasisti, 2018). Correlating data in Columns 8 and 9 with data in Column 6, shows, unsurprisingly, low student enrolment numbers correlates to correspondingly low numbers of staff.

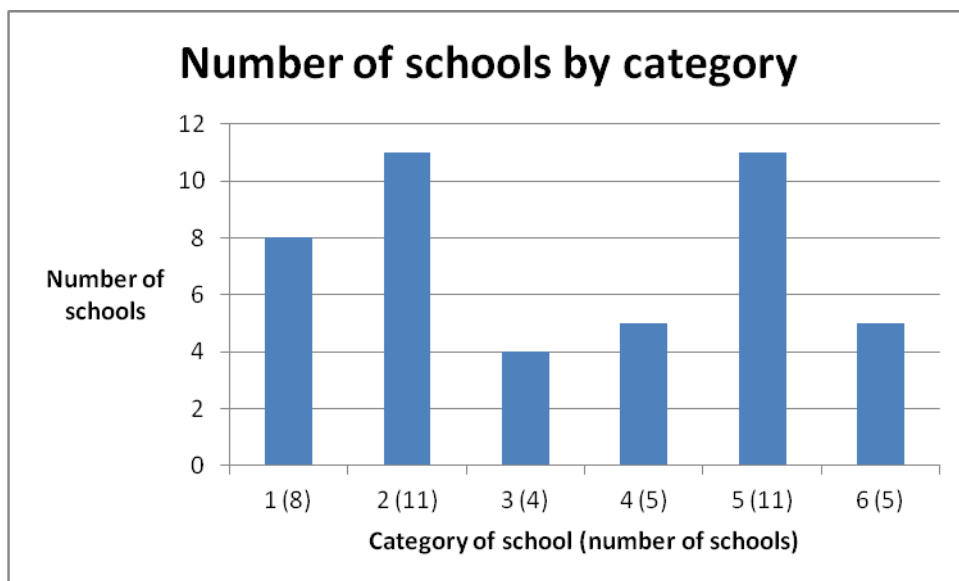
Column 10 and Column 11 - Community socio-economic contexts: EPSA

ICSEA data and school 'category'

Table 50 Column 10 offers the *Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage* (ICSEA) for each school (ACARA, NDb). The ICSEA number represents the level of vulnerability and socio-economic disadvantage of rural students in EPSA (ACARA, NDc). The higher the ICSEA number, the more advantaged the school, with the Australian community average being 1000. Karcultaby AreaS (Karcultaby) had the highest ICSEA at 1,072, and WillsdenPS (Port Augusta) had the lowest ICSEA at 705. Analysis of the ICSEA data shows there was a wide range of vulnerability and socio-economic disadvantage of rural students in EPSA.

The Department uses the ICSEA number to determine the level of advantage- or disadvantage-of a school, and allocates a 'category' number to each school that is noted in Table 50 Column 11 (see Figure 20). The number '6' categorises schools that were the most 'advantaged' and the number '1' categorises schools that were the most 'disadvantaged'. Sixteen schools were 'advantaged' because they were deemed by the Department to be category '5' or '6', and nineteen schools were critically disadvantaged because they were considered to be category '1' or '2' schools.

Figure 20 Number of schools per category in EPSA



Correlation of the data from Column 11, Column 5 and Column 3, highlights there were sixteen ‘advantaged’ schools that were allocated a ‘category’ number of 5 or 6. Of these, two were PSs in the regional-town of Whyalla, three were PSs and the ‘Only’ school in town, while eleven were AreaS and the ‘Only’ school in town. There were twenty ‘disadvantaged’ schools that were allocated a ‘category’ number of 1 or 2. These included the two Aboriginal Schools, the two very-remote schools in the most western side of EPSA, and sixteen in regional-towns: seven schools in Whyalla, six schools in Port Augusta, and three in Port Lincoln.

The next four data-sets are in addition to that offered in Table 50 and were collected by the Australian government and pertain to socio-economic information about communities in EPSA. The first data-set was taken from the *Australian Early Development Census* (AEDC) (AEDC, 2019b). The AEDC reports on indicators that sit within five ‘domains’: physical health and well-being, social competence, emotional maturity, language and cognitive skills as well as communication skills and general knowledge (AEDC, 2019a). It has been shown the vulnerability of children at the point of the AEDC census (in the early years of the life of a child) can be correlated to their future educational success as evidenced in NAPLAN results (AEDC, 2019c). The AEDC data has also been shown to predict future health and wellbeing (O’Connor et al., 2019, p. 207)

of the child. The second data-set was taken from the *Social Economic Indexes for Areas* (SEIFA) (ABS [SEIFA], 2018). SEIFA data indicates the *Relative Socio-Economic Disadvantage* as measured through ABS data collection (ABS [SEIFA], 2018), with respect to the *Local Government Area (LGA) Index of Relative Socio-economic Advantage and Disadvantage*. The SEIFA number reflects the level of disadvantage of communities related to low income, low educational attainment, high unemployment and the jobs available in relatively unskilled occupations. The third data-set highlights the average wages, and the fourth data-set highlights unemployment levels. Analysis reveals socio-economic information about rural communities in EPSA.

AEDC and SEIFA data

Table 51 Column 1 lists the names of a sample of geographic-areas considered for investigation, for the purpose of offering indicative data. Column 2 lists the percentage of children in each area who were identified as vulnerable in one- or more-areas as measured by the AEDC in 2012 (AEDC, 2019b). The AEDC data clearly indicates there was a higher level of vulnerability in children who lived in towns in EPSA, when compared to the state’s capital and Australia more generally. Column 3 lists the SEIFA results (ABS [SEIFA], 2018). The lower the SEIFA number the more disadvantaged the community. The SEIFA data indicates there was a higher level of social- and economic-disadvantage in EPSA when compared to Adelaide.

Table 51 Australian Early Development Census and Social Economic Indexes for Areas data: vulnerability and socio-economic disadvantage

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
Name of city / town	Australian Early Development Census (AEDC) levels of vulnerability on one or more levels of vulnerability (AEDC, 2012)	Social Economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA) (2016)
Adelaide	17%	1058
Australia	22%	Not available
Ceduna, EPSA	37.5%	942
Port Augusta, EPSA	36.5%	879
Port Lincoln, EPSA	22.4%	925
Whyalla, EPSA	25.2%	874

Column Two data taken from the AEDC data Census.

AEDC. (2019b). *Data explorer*. Retrieved from <https://www.aedc.gov.au/data/data-explorer>

Column Three data taken from ABS [SEIFA].

ABS. [SEIFA]. (2018). *Census of population and housing: Socio-economic indexes for areas (SEIFA), Australia, 2016*. Retrieved from <https://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/2033.0.55.0012016?OpenDocument>

Average wage and percentage of unemployment

Table 52, Column 1 lists the names of a sample of geographic-areas considered for analysis, for the purpose of offering indicative data. Data in Column 2 and Column 3 was sourced from the ABS website, using the ‘Data by Region’ function, where data reflects activity at the level of the Local Government Area (LGA). The data therefore is representative of the population not just in a township, but the broader LGA in which a town was located. Column 2 highlights the ‘median equivalised total household income (weekly)’ of people from the nominated towns (ABS, 2017). Results shows the weekly income for someone living in the Whyalla LGA was \$664 while the national weekly income was \$877 (ABS [Whyalla], 2020). In 2016, the differences in weekly wages between someone in Whyalla compared with national average, over the course of a year, was as much as \$AUD11,076. The average wage of those who live in the LGA of the nominated rural towns in EPSA, was less than the Australian average.

Column 3 lists the unemployment rates of people from the nominated towns. Ceduna had a low unemployment rate of 3.5% (ABS [Ceduna], 2020), Whyalla had the highest unemployment rate of 12.4% (ABS [Whyalla], 2020) while the national average was 6.9%. Examination of unemployment rates highlights that rates vary between the rural contexts in EPSA, and between rural and non-rural contexts.

Table 52 EPSA median equivalised income and unemployment data highlighting socio-economic disadvantage

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
Name of Town	Median equivalised total household income (weekly) in \$AUD	Unemployment rate (percentage of population)
Adelaide (ABS [Adelaide], 2020)	\$943	11.9%
Australia (ABS [Whyalla], 2020)	\$877	6.9%
Ceduna, EPSA (ABS [Ceduna], 2020)	\$800	3.5%
Port Lincoln, EPSA (ABS [Port Lincoln], 2020)	\$709	6.4%
Port Augusta, EPSA (ABS [Port Augusta], 2020)	\$730	9.7%
Whyalla, EPSA (ABS [Whyalla], 2020)	\$664	12.4%

Data for Column Two and Column Three sourced from the Australian Bureau of Statistics, referencing data that focused on the level of Region Summary.

Results of analysis of the data in Table 50 Columns 10 and 11, and federal- and state-government data in Table 51 and Table 52, shows rural towns in EPSA were characterised as supporting students and communities that had low levels of resources, and high levels of socio-economic- and educational- vulnerability when compared to Adelaide and the national average.

Employment in EPSA

Impacting the levels of disadvantage, vulnerability, and the socio-economic contexts in EPSA is the ability of people to gain employment. Research highlighted that EPSA had limited employment opportunities. The *Eyre Peninsula Natural Resources Management (EPNRM) Report* (EPNRM, 2017, p.9) noted EPSA encompasses a land mass of around 80,000km² which is almost as big as Austria. The report showed cropping and grazing accounted for 87% of land use, supporting agricultural industries. Conservation accounted for a further 17% of land use, supporting employment in a range of environmental roles, and EPSA had around 2,355 kilometres of mainland coastline, supporting employment in a range of aquaculture industries.

The *Eyre Peninsula Local Government Association (EPLGA) Corporate Plan 2016-19* (EPLGA, 2016) encompasses the eleven local governments in EPSA. The Port Augusta LGA is in addition to EPLGA so it does not feature in the *EPLGA Corporate Plan*. The *EPLGA Corporate Plan* noted the major industries in the EPLGA region, and employment figures within these industries. The health-care- and social-assistance- industry were the largest employer in SA and the largest regional industry in the EPLGA, providing 3,437, or 14.0%, of the region's jobs. The retail sector was the region's second largest industry providing 2,669, or 10.5%, of the region's jobs. Manufacturing, including food processing and the production of metal products, was the region's third largest industry providing 2,552, or 10.4%, of the jobs. Mining provided only 923, or 3.7%, of the region's jobs. Fishing and aquaculture are small employers in comparison with other industries providing only 250 and 471 jobs respectively.

Column 12 to Column 15 - Cultural contexts

Theorising rurality in Section One and rural educational leadership in Section Two highlighted the importance of valuing knowledge systems of Indigenous First Nations people, as well as people who are refugees, asylum seekers, migrants, and displaced people. This thesis claims, revisioning rurality, and rural educational leadership, requires reference to the knowledge systems of people from a range of cultural heritage.

Indigenous Australians

ABS data shows Indigenous Australians were 2.8% of the national population and 2% of the SA population (ABS [Koonibba], 2019). Department enrolment data shows that Indigenous Australian enrolments accounted for 6.4% of South Australian school enrolments (Government of SA, 2017a). The Department defines Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people as

students who have identified to be of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander origin. The term ‘origin’ is considered to relate to people’s Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander descent and for some, but not all, their cultural identify (Government of SA, 2017a, p.1).

Traditional Indigenous Australian owners in EPSA include the *Barngarla, Nauo, Wirangu, Kokatha* and *Mirning* nations (EPNRM, 2017, p.9). There are significant numbers of Indigenous students in schools across EPSA (see Figure 21). The Indigenous knowledge systems of traditional owners are important and valuable to educational contexts and rural contexts. These rural-based traditional owners have much to contribute to rural educational leadership. What is now required is cultural appropriate invitations to facilitate the holders of traditional Indigenous knowledges engaging in rural education and rural educational leadership.

Column 12 - Percentage of Indigenous Australian student enrolment

Table 50 Column 12 shows the percentage of Indigenous Australian children enrolled in each school in EPSA (see Figure 21). Column 12 is correlated with the Department ‘partnership’ structure (see Table 53). Each Column in Table 53 names a ‘partnership’ in EPSA under which each school within the partnership is listed, against which is the percentage of students enrolled in each school who identified as Indigenous Australian

(ACARA, NDb). The data is divided into columns to show which schools had a percentage of Indigenous Australian student enrolment that was greater than- or less than-the state average of 6.4% of school enrolments. One school had 100% Indigenous Australian enrolment (Koonibba) and one school had 95% (Carlton School). There were eight schools in which Indigenous Australian students accounted for more than half (>48%) the school enrolment and thirty-two schools had enrolments of Indigenous Australian students higher than the state average. There were thirteen schools that had less than the state average and there were four schools with zero Indigenous Australian student enrolments. All schools in the Far West partnership had significant numbers of Indigenous Australian enrolments in excess of state and national averages, as did all schools in the three regional-towns.

(The following page is intentionally blank).

Figure 21 Percentage of Indigenous Australian students per school in EPSA

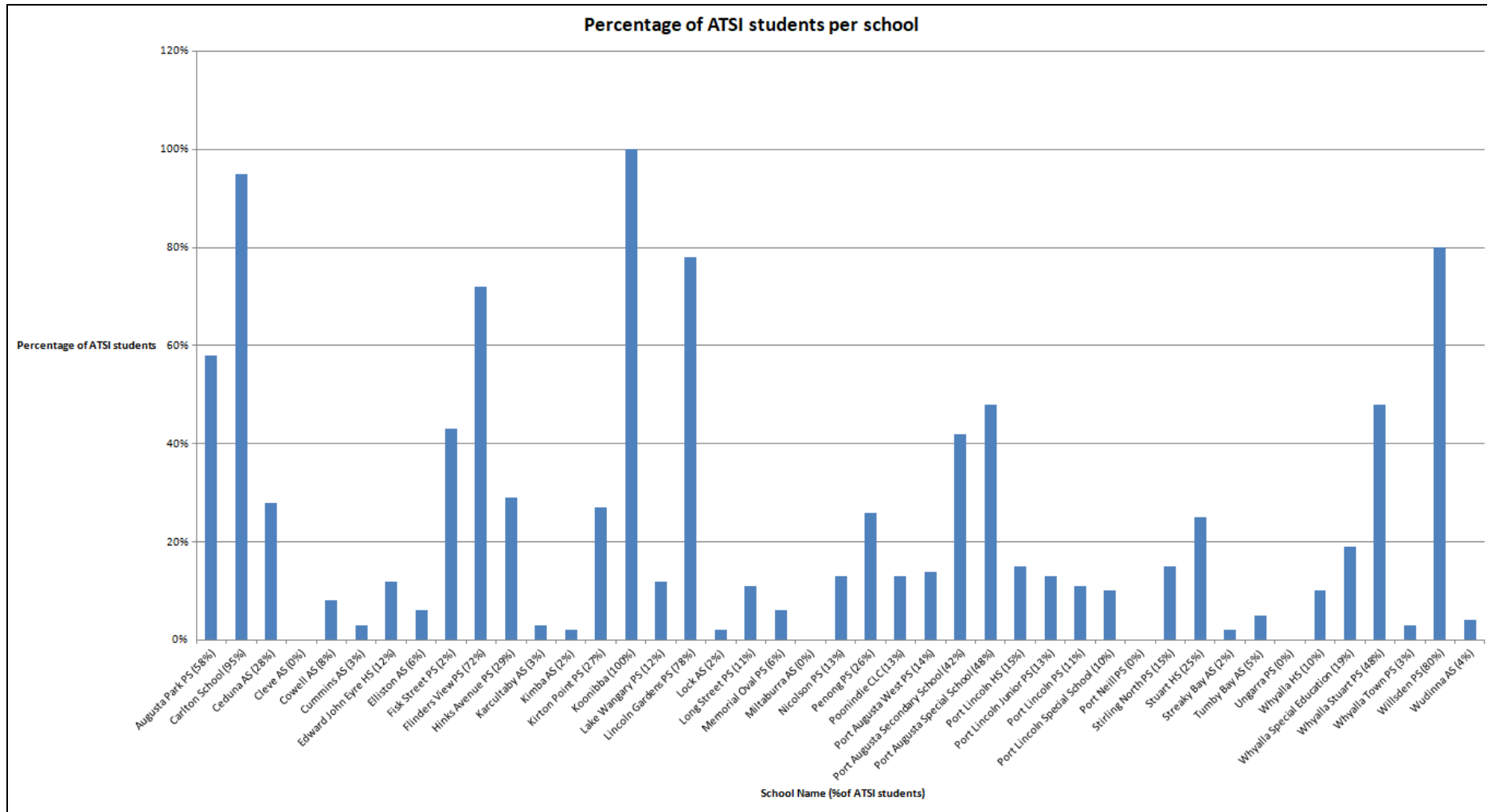


Table 53 Percentage of Indigenous Australian enrolment by Department partnership in EPSA

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4	Column 5	Column 6	Column 7	Column 8
Far West >6.4%	Port Lincoln >6.4%	Port Augusta – Quorn >6.4%	Whyalla >6.4%	Whyalla <6.4%	Central Eyre 1 and 2 >6.4%	Central Eyre 1 and 2 <6.4%	Central Eyre 1 and 2 Zero
Ceduna AS (28%)	Kirton Point PS (27%)	Augusta Park PS (58%)	Edward John Eyre HS (12%)	Memorial Oval PS (6%)	Cowell AreaS (8%)	Cummins AreaS (3%)	Cleve AreaS (0%)
Koonibba AS (100%)	Lake Wangary PS (12%)	Carlton School (95%)	Fisk Street PS (43%)	Whyalla Town PS (3%)	Elliston AreaS (6%)	Karcultaby AreaS (3%)	Miltaburra AreaS (0%)
Penong PS (26%)	Lincoln Gardens PS (78%)	Flinders View PS (72%)	Hinks Avenue PS (29%)			Kimba AreaS (2%)	Port Neill PS (0%)
	Poonindie CLC (13%)	Port Augusta West PS (14%)	Long Street PS (11%)			Lock AreaS (2%)	Ungarra PS (0%)
	Port Lincoln HS (15%)	Port Augusta Secondary School (42%)	Nicolson PS (13%)			Streaky Bay AreaS (2%)	
	Port Lincoln Junior PS (13%)	Port Augusta Special School (48%)	Stuart HS (25%)			Tumby Bay AreaS (5%)	
	Port Lincoln PS (11%)	Stirling North PS (15%)	Whyalla HS (10%)			Wudinna AreaS (4%)	
	Port Lincoln Special School (10%)	Willisden PS (80%)	Whyalla Special Education (19%)				
			Whyalla Stuart PS (48%)				

Column 13 - Language background other than English

Table 50 Column 13 shows the percentage of student enrolments that spoke a language other than English.

In nineteen schools 0% of the students spoke a language other than English, a further seventeen schools had between 1% and 5% of students with a language background other than English. A further eight schools had between 7% and 55% of students with a language background other than English. When data from Column 13 is correlated with data from Column 5, it shows the eight schools with between 7% and 55% of students with a language background other than English, were all located in one of two regional-towns, five in Port Augusta and three in Port Lincoln.

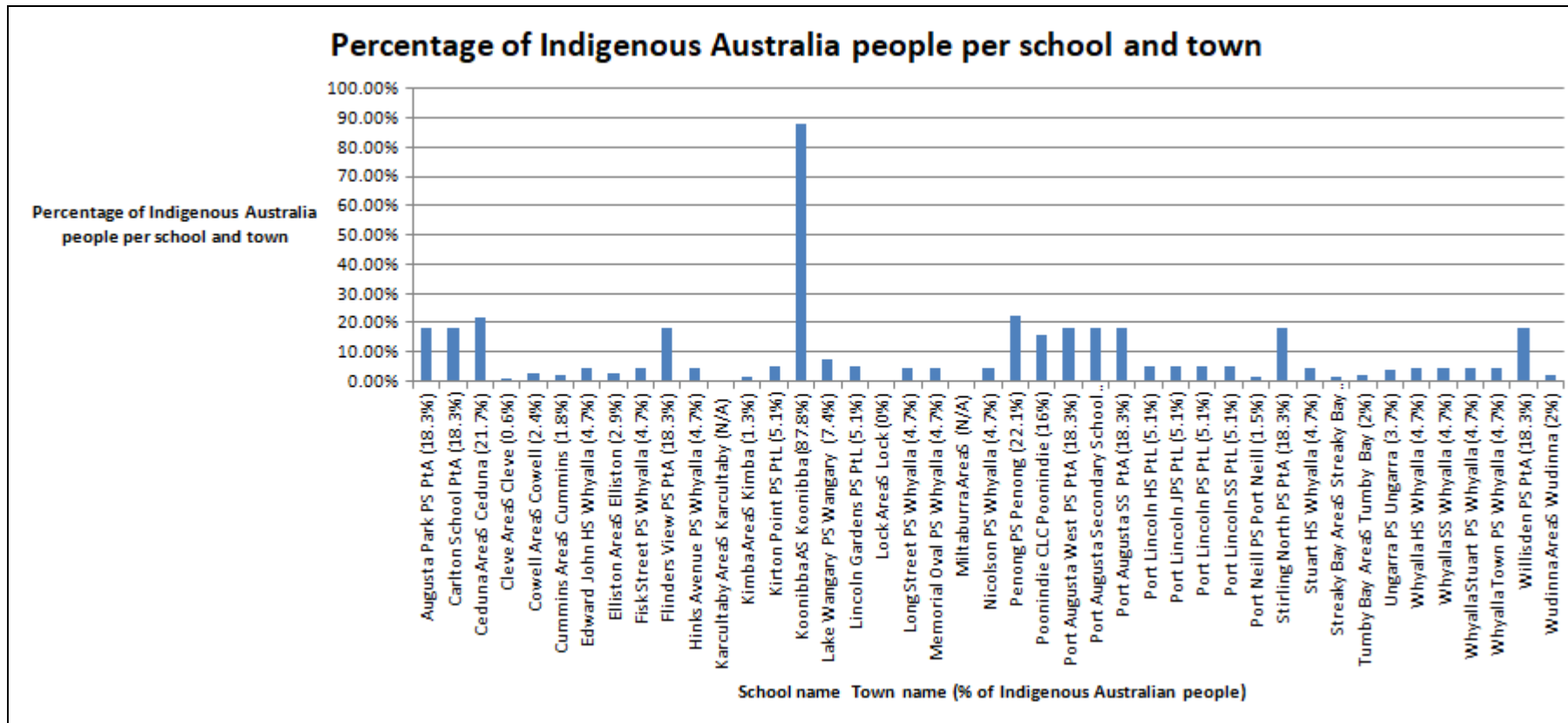
While investigating the impact students from different cultural backgrounds have on the role of the rural principal, state government policy decisions were made about the settlement of Syrian refugee families in rural South Australian towns and schools, south of Adelaide (J. Weatherill, personal communication, 2017). This thesis proposes future research explores ways in which different cultures bring their understandings about what is important when it comes to education and educational leadership, into rural South Australian contexts.

Column 14 - Indigenous Australian people

Column 14 revealed the percentage of Indigenous Australian population per town and the data collection point, which was either the *Local Government Area* (LGA) or the *State Suburbs* (SSC) location (see Figure 22). The percentage of Indigenous Australian people resident in each town was different. The town with the highest percentage of Indigenous Australians was Koonibba (87.8%), an Aboriginal town situated forty-seven kilometres from Ceduna, in the far west of EPSA. The town with the next highest population of Indigenous Australians was the town of Penong (22.1%) situated seventy-five kilometres west of Ceduna. Ceduna had the next highest percentage of Indigenous Australians (21.7%). Koonibba, Penong and Ceduna are towns in EPSA that are situated close to Aboriginal managed lands. Poonindie and Lake Wangary had populations of Indigenous Australian people at 16% and 7.4% respectively. The towns of Poonindie and Lake Wangary were considered to be close to Port Lincoln, situated respectively sixteen and forty-six kilometres from Port Lincoln. Of the three regional-towns, the Indigenous Australian population of Port Augusta was highest at 18.3%, Port Lincoln next highest at 5.1% and Whyalla next highest at 4.7%. There were eight towns in EPSA with a lower percentage of Indigenous Australian population than the state (2%), national (2.8%) and Department (6.4%) average. These towns Cleve, Cowell, Cummins, Kimba, Lock, Streaky Bay and Tumby Bay, were situated across central EPSA and each had an AreaS, except Port Neill that had a PS. There is no predictable pattern to the percentage of Indigenous Australian students enrolled in rural schools in EPSA.

(The following page is intentionally blank).

Figure 22 Percentage of Indigenous Australian people per school and town in EPSA



Column 15 - Population: Indigenous Australia people and total population

Column 15 lists the number of Indigenous Australian people and the total population. It shows the number of Indigenous Australian residents in the township of Lock was zero, there were three Indigenous Australian people in Port Neill and six in Ungarra. By contrast, the number of Indigenous Australian people resident in the three regional-towns was 724 in Port Lincoln, 1,032 in Whyalla and 2,523 in Port Augusta. The numbers of people who identified as Indigenous Australian people were different in each town.

Results of analysis of data in EPSA

The examination of a range of data-sets above, allowed for an investigation about rural contexts in EPSA; the contexts in which rural principals interviewed for this research, lived and worked. Results inform an examination of the impact rural contexts have on the role of the rural principal. They inform a deeper understanding of the complexities inherent in rurality that impact rural educational leadership. It was shown that the employer determines policies that impact the contexts in which rural principals lived and worked. These policies were seen to include employment conditions, funding, and training and development. Results also show the range of type-of-schools in which a principal worked where the 'type-of-school' can be similar to- and different from- another 'type-of-school' and it cannot be assumed the role of the rural principal for a 'type-of-school' is generic to that 'type-of-school'.

Rural principals work across a range of geolocations where the role of the rural principal is impacted by the geolocation of the school. It was noted, being the 'Only' principal in town created a role that is isolated, where, there can be long distances between schools, lengthy travel time to drive the long distances, and dangers associated with this driving. The impacts of distance, supports a deeper understanding, about ways in which geolocation in EPSA impacts the isolation of principals.

There is no predictive pattern that can reveal the role of a principal in EPSA is similar to the role enacted by a different principal in EPSA. There is no predictive pattern connecting the principals who were the 'Only' principal in town with the 'type-of-school' they lead. One cannot predict the level of advantage, or category

of a school, with respect to geolocation, or type-of-school. Similarly, there is no predictive pattern related to the numbers of staff, student enrolments, Indigenous Australian student enrolments, percentages of students speaking languages other than English. Further, the population of Indigenous Australian people for a town in EPSA cannot be correlated to a regional town, a rural town, or distance from a regional town. This impacts the role of principals when it comes to negotiating cultural diversity with respect to Indigenous Australian culture, because each community and school context is different, and is dependent on the school and community in which the rural principal works. Rural principals were supporting vulnerable students. Certainly, non-rural principals also work in schools in which students and communities are complex, vulnerable and disadvantaged. What this thesis shows, is, it is the isolation of the rural contexts in which the rural principals lived and worked that compounds the impact the levels of student and community, vulnerability and disadvantage, have on the role of the rural principal.

Principals were living and working in rural towns in EPSA that were more disadvantaged than Adelaide, where different towns in EPSA, had different levels of disadvantage. This research showed, the work of principals in EPSA is influenced- and informed- by, the number - and nature - of the businesses and industries that employ family members of students enrolled in the schools. Where each principal must be cognizant of the local industries, for the success – or not – of local business, determine the financial success of the community, impacting families of the students enrolled at the school, and in turn, impacting the work of the rural principal.

There are differences and similarities between rural contexts, rural communities, rural schools and rural school principal-ships. Results revealed it is not possible to generalise for 'rural context', for there are differences inherent across- and within- rural contexts. Similarly, it is not possible to describe a 'typical rural school principal in EPSA', because the role of the rural principal in EPSA is different from- and similar-to the role of other rural principals in EPSA. That is, the role of the principal in EPSA cannot simply be theorised as that of a person who is a 'rural school principal'. This thesis argues, it is the impact of multiple complexities

that when considered simultaneously, inform the theorising of rurality for EPSA, and inform theorising rural educational leadership for EPSA.

The theory of rural educational leadership must consider the complexities that have been enunciated about the nature of ruralities and rural educational leaderships in EPSA. It has been shown, each rural context is unique and each rural school in EPSA is unique and different from other rural schools in EPSA, impacting theorising of rural educational leadership. The uniqueness and differences, coupled with the lack of predictability about rurality, and rural educational leadership, inform the need to create a theory of rural educational leadership that is agile. An agile theory that can account for the differences inherent within- and across- rural contexts, rural schools and rural educational leadership in order to respond to the unique rural contexts in which rural principals live and work. Results support the notion that it is timely to challenge assumptions about the predominance of the non-rural centric theorising of the role of rural school principal. This thesis argues, the theorising of rural educational leadership be informed by results of analysis of what it is that the rural school principal shares, impacts their role. What is it that interviews with rural school principals, tell us about the role?

Analysis of interview with principals

Introduction

Six of the forty-five rural principals in EPSA agreed to be interviewed via telephone. Interview questions can be found in Appendix 3. The analysis of transcripts of interviews conducted with six rural school principals in EPSA occur with respect to the nine tools that sit within theorising rural educational leadership (Figure 16). The transcripts were analysed using the constant comparative method (CCM) (Merriam & Mohaman, 2000) where codes and themes were allocated to the transcripts. The CCM allows the analytic process to constantly compare data (interview transcripts, codes and themes), until the analytic work is complete (Merriam & Mohaman, 2000). The following, offers data, data analysis, results, and discussion of the analysis, one tool at a time.

The excerpt of the transcript, taken from the beginning of the interview with P5, is offered as an example of an interview transcription (see Figure 23). There are six complete transcriptions, one for each principal (P). Each line (L) of the interview transcript is numbered, for example, where P5 says, 'In the capacity of a teacher', on L4. Figure 24 also shows endnotes were used to create memos, which were created during transcription and analysis.

Figure 23 Example of interview transcript (P5)

1	[Redacted Principal's Name] from [Redacted School Name] 24 th May 2018 10.10am – 11.10am (7, 228 words)
2	Q1) It would be helpful if you could summarise your journey to becoming a rural school principal and why you're committed to the role.
3	I came up to [Regional EPSA town][X] years ago ⁱ
4	In the capacity of a teacher ⁱⁱ
5	I was given permanency ⁱⁱⁱ . Permanency was the incentive to come up here. It was only for 4 years.
6	Once I got here, opportunities opened up to me. I took advantage of those opportunities that opened up to me.
7	The journey has been one of taking up of leadership opportunities within in the school and small little stepping stones ^{iv}
8	Then I did some study. I did a Graduate Diploma in Literacy and Learning. That gave me a stepping stone to become a Leader in Literacy
9	I did that throughout [Regional EPSA town] for a while, working with the teachers
10	I did some extra study and I got my Masters in Curriculum and in Education. That gave me a springboard into a another direction ^v
11	I worked in 5 of the 7 schools in [Regional EPSA town] in a leadership capacity
12	Then I did some work in the Regional Office, looking after the early years and pre-schools in particular ^{vi}
13	I supported, line-managed and guided their work ^{vii} ^{viii}

The six interview transcripts were analysed separately, with respect to the nine tools that sit within the theorising rural educational leadership. Firstly, the entire text of the interview transcript of P1 was analysed against the nine tools. The transcript text was analysed with respect to tool one, *community*; this text was highlighted yellow. Text analysed with respect to tool two, *context*, was highlighted green. This occurred for the interview transcript of P1, with nine different colours used, where each colour represented one of the nine different tools. This process occurred for all six interview transcripts, in turn. Where the interview transcript of P2 was analysed with respect to the tools differently from that which occurred for P1, the CCM of analysis, allowed for the return to the transcript of P1, and allowed for changes to the ways in which the transcript for P1 had been analysed. This back-and-forth, constant comparing of the ways in which

interview transcript texts were analysed, with respect to the nine tools, occurred until all six transcripts had been colour coded against the nine tools. This was to facilitate the CCM of analysis, and colour coding for all six interview transcripts, being consistently applied to all six transcripts.

Six tables were constructed, one for each transcription. The tables were named P1, P2, P3, P4, P5 and P6. Each of the six tables had nine columns, with respect to the nine tools that sit within the theorising rural educational leadership. Next, all colour coded text in the transcription of P1 was allocated to one of nine columns in the table named P1. For example, the text that was linked with tool one, *community*, that had been highlighted yellow, was extracted and placed into column one, named *community*. The text in the transcription of P1 that was linked with tool two, *context*, that had been highlighted green, was extracted and placed into column two, named *context*. This occurred until all the interview transcript text for P1 had been allocated to one of the nine columns in the table labelled P1. Where it became apparent there was an inconsistency in the allocation of a colour to the text, the CCM of analysis allowed for the analytic process to re-analyse and re-allocate the interview transcript text of P1 to a different column. This analytic process occurred for the interview transcript of P1 through to P6. The example provided (Figure 24) shows text from the transcript of the interview with P4 was placed into a table that has the nine columns, where each column is named with one of the tools. The line numbers of the interview transcript were preserved. Six such tables resulted from this process, one for each principal. As the analytic process unfolded across all six transcriptions, and where the allocation of text to a column was inconsistent, the CCM of analysis allowed for the analytic process to re-analyse and re-allocate text to a column. This occurred until the interview transcript text of all six principals had consistently been allocated to a column.

Figure 24 Data from interview transcript of P4 placed into one of nine columns in a table

Column 1 Community	Column 2 Context	Column 3 Culture	Column 4 Elements of the role	Column 5 Employee	Column 6 Interpersonal	Column 7 PD/T&E	Column 8 Research & dev	Column 9 Six meta elements
(Table 1) who	Models made explicit	First nations refugees asylum seekers migrants	What they do	Standards job & post	Who we need to be Personal characteristics		What makes them Wellbeing	Challenge of these 6
DONE	DONE	DONE	DONE	DONE	DONE	DONE	DONE	DONE
L6 I met my spouse there [very remote town]		L4 I was sent to a very remote area. Working with a lot of indigenous students.	L7 Take opportunities	L3 I began my career in 1994. I was sent to <Very remote town> At the time, I didn't even know where <very remote town> was	L9 Follow passion and interest	L123 [Trainers need to] have a headset on the difference between rural and metro	L39, 102 [I] mentor teachers L39, 48, 80, 92 [I] receive[d] mentoring	
L7-8 Working in small very remote schools gives good grounding for going into leadership because I was given a lot of opportunities to develop and show I had leadership skills		L142-144 <Regional EPSA town> is a regional city and so it is much bigger. Whereas <Very remote town> is a very small rural community. Not to mention is very close to an aboriginal community	L7-8 Regional office work: special education; behaviour management	L4 I was sent to a very remote area	L15 I was ready for a change	L123-124 My biggest frustration is all the very best trainings and PDs are in Adelaide. That's sometimes unrealistic for rural principals.	L48, 80, 127 [I use a] Leadership Coach*	
L22-25 When I came to <Regional EPSA Town> we planned on spending 3 years in <Regional EPSA Town>. Then moving back to Adelaide to our family. In that 3 years we had			L11 Encouraged to apply for jobs Win the job	L5 I planned on only being there for a year. And ended up staying for 8 years!		L124 They [Trainers] never come to us; We always have to go to them	L75-76 We're a Category 3 school ¹¹ . I've got a low socio-economic factor in my school	

Comment [WU1]: Career

Comment [M2]: Be flexible

Comment [M3]: I met my husband, I bought a house. Own a business. Behaviours of principal indicates their commitment to rural RE: employment of them

Next, the analytic process focused simultaneously on all six resultant tables. The information that sat under the first column heading *Community* was extracted from each of the six resultant tables and placed into a single table (see Figure 25). This occurred for the nine columns, resulting in nine tables, where each was labelled using the name of each of the nine tools. Where it became apparent there had been an inconsistency in analysis, the CCM of analysis allowed for the re-analysis and re-allocation of text, until the text for all six transcriptions had been consistently analysed, and text consistently allocated to a column.

Figure 25 Data from interview transcripts of P1-P6 placed into Table 1 Community

Column 1	Column 2
Principal	Line Number/s with interview transcript excerpt
P1	L6 [After Uni I] returned straight back to <Regional Town>, which was home for me, and my family support was here and my Partner [spouse] was here as well
	L25 It's what I've know I guess. I grew up in the country. I didn't want to stay in the city. When I finished my course I came straight home
	L25-26 My support network is here. My family is here
	L27 There's a lot of underprivileged kids in our community
	L33 It doesn't change a lot from metro to rural
	L61

The CCM process of analysis then focussed on one column at a time. Figure 26 offers an example of analysis of interview data that sits under *Community*. Column 1 lists the six principals in turn (P1-P6), Column 2 the interview transcript excerpts (with line numbers). Column 3 offers the code/s attached to the transcript excerpts, and Column 4, resultant themes. The use of these four Columns occurs for all nine tables. There are nine such tables, each named with respect to one of the nine tools. As per ethics approvals (see Appendix 2), information that could be used to identify principals was redacted, to ensure individuals are not identifiable. Where redaction occurred, details that could identify a principal was replaced with generic information within square brackets '[]'. Analysis of each of the nine tables now occurs.

Figure 26 An example of attribution of coding and themes using Community – tool 1

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Principal	Line Number/s with interview transcript excerpt	Code/s	Theme
P1	L6 [After Uni I] returned straight back to <Regional Town>, which was home for me, and my family support was here and my Partner [spouse] was here as well	After uni Returned home Family Partner Supported in rural	Personal
	L25 It's what I've know I guess. I grew up in the country. I didn't want to stay in the city. When I finished my course I came straight home	Home Prefer / choose rural	Personal
	L25-26 My support network is here. My family is here	Support-network Family	Personal
	L27 There's a lot of underprivileged kids in our community	Underprivileged kids in community	Philosophical
	L33 It doesn't change a lot from metro to rural	Metro=rural	
	L61	Self-awareness of being	Community

Culture – tool 3

Table 54 offers data extracted from *Column 3 Culture* from each of the six interviews; the third tool theorising rural educational leadership. Column 1 lists each of the six principals (P1-P6). Column 2 is information from interview transcript with the line number (L) of each excerpt. Column 3 offers the code/s attributed to the text and Column 4, themes.

Table 54 Tool 3 Culture from P1 to P6 interview transcript excerpts

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Principal (P)	Interview transcript excerpts with line number/s (L)	Code/s	Theme/s
P1	No mention of Indigenous Australian students or community	Indigenous Australian is a non-issue	Ignorance vs normalising
P2	No mention of Indigenous Australian students or community	Indigenous Australian is a non-issue	Ignorance vs normalising
P3	L5 For the last 15 years, before coming to EPSA, I was living and working in Aboriginal communities, on the <i>Anangu Pitjantjatjara Yankunytjatjara</i> lands (Aboriginal lands) and then 9 years in <Aboriginal School>	Working with Indigenous Australian long term	Embed with Indigenous Australian culture – normalising
	L324 Some rural schools mostly indigenous dominant schools can't keep staff members for more than a year or two	Indigenous Australian schools hard to staff	Deficit
	L333-335 In an Aboriginal school for example, and I'm thinking of a couple of Aboriginal communities, where all of the complexities I've talked about are Times 1000, All the political nature of it and the complexity of it is frightening literally sometimes quite physically frightening and none of that is really valued If you were to apply for a job even in another rural area, You would be not given the credit that you should be given	Not credit given for difficult to work in Indigenous Australian schools	Deficit
P4	L4-5 I was sent to a very remote area. Working with a lot of indigenous students. I planned on only being there for a year. And ended up staying for 8 years	Working with Indigenous Australian long term	Embed with Indigenous Australian culture – normalising
	L142-143 <EPSA Regional Town> is a regional city and so it is much bigger. Whereas <Very remote town> is a very small rural community. Not to mention is very close to an Aboriginal community.	Schools are close to Indigenous Australian community	Contextual difference
P5	L172-174 In <EPSA Regional Town> it's like a small city we've got 26,000 people. We've got 7 primary schools. 3 high schools. In <EPSA Regional Town> there is only 1 high school and there is a huge Aboriginal component The context is really different; They [staff] need to know that context	Different school contexts due to different percentages of enrolments of Indigenous Australian	Contextual difference
P6	L225-257 A couple of other principals that I became really close with How did I get close to them? I'm trying to think One of them was principal in an Aboriginal school; This was when I was at <EPSA Regional Town Primary School>. I had a high percentage of Aboriginal students and we did an exchange I took kids up there and s/he brought kids down to our school and the kids kept in contact	Connecting students who are Indigenous Australian	Embed with Indigenous Australian culture – normalising
	L261-263 We were part of that project and we both focused on Aboriginal Professionally we got on really well and shared lots of discussion around the issues and solutions to the issues That was a person from an outlying area that probably influenced me to a degree. We probably influenced each other	Connecting with principals of schools with high percentages of enrolments of Indigenous Australian	Embed with Indigenous Australian culture – normalising

Table 55 Tool 3 Culture from P1 to P6 interview transcript excerpts

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Principal (P)	Interview transcript excerpts with line number/s (L)	Code/s	Theme/s
P1	No comment from principal in interview	-	-
P2	No comment from principal in interview	-	-
P3	No comment from principal in interview	-	-
P4	No comment from principal in interview	-	-
P5	No comment from principal in interview	-	-
P6	No comment from principal in interview	-	-

Analysis

Table 54 Column 2 highlighted that on eight occasions, four principals (P3; P4; P5; P6) discussed Indigenous Australian students or Indigenous Australian communities and two principals (P1; P2) did not. Examination of the data showed ways in which P3, P4, and P6 lived and worked, with and in, Aboriginal community and Aboriginal schools. It also showed principals were placed in short-term roles, but ended up staying long-term. P3 recalled, ‘for the last 15 years I was living and working on Aboriginal communities ... and then nine years in [Aboriginal school]’ (P3L5). P4 shared, ‘I was sent to a very remote area working with a lot of Indigenous students planned on being there for a year and stayed for 8’ (P4L4-5). P6, while working in a non-Aboriginal school, revealed that s/he engaged with a principal from a very remote Aboriginal school, with the purpose to link P6’s predominantly Aboriginal student enrolment with students in a very-remote Aboriginal school.

Principals highlighted deficits related to working in Aboriginal schools. P3 identified ‘schools can’t keep staff members’ (P3L324), Aboriginal schools are ‘1000 times’ more complex to work in (P3L333) are ‘physically frightening’ (P3L334) and noted, the ways in which principals navigated the role in complex Aboriginal schools and communities, is not ‘given credit’ (P3L335) when applying for jobs in other rural contexts. P4 and P5 noted it is important principals are mindful of school contexts in relation to how ‘close’ the school is to ‘an Aboriginal community’ (P4L143), and how there can be ‘a huge Aboriginal component [enrolment]’ (P5L174). Further, at no time, did any principal (see Table 55) mention culture, neither the culture of the rural, remote, regional context, nor the cultural background of the students enrolled in their schools or region.

Context – tool 2

Data was extracted from *Column 2 Context* of each of the six interviews; the second tool theorising rural educational leadership. At no stage during any interview did any principal discuss or cite a concept of context, or model of context, through which they think about, or intellectualise, context. In the absence of data, the CCM of analysis allowed the analytic process to refer back to the interview transcripts. The six interview transcripts were scanned, using the 'find' function in Microsoft word for the word 'context'. The scan highlighted that P2, P4, and P6 did not use the word context and the remaining three principals did. P1 used the term 'context' in relation to the cost of professional development (P1L131-133). P3 used the word 'context' in relation to 'distance' preventing access to professional development (P3L226-227). P5 spoke of 'context' in relation to the different contexts in EPSA (P5L83-87). P5 advocated that staff needed to interact with educators outside their own contexts (P5L88-90; P5L463-465), that rural contexts offered opportunities for leadership (P5L99-101), advocated that leaders should know (P5L313) and 'meld into' their rural contexts (P5L316-322), and that training was offered in rural contexts, to 'tick off' that professional development was delivered (P5L221). P5 also noted that in many rural contexts, for rural principals, there is nowhere to go (P5L381-389). At no time, did principals discuss context with respect to rurality.

Community – tool 1

Column 1 Community of each of the six interviews was taken from the first tool theorising rural educational leadership and five themes were allocated to the information. One theme focused on the *personal* experiences of principals that brought them to the role. This included members of their personal communities who impacted their decision to choose to enact the role of rural principal. Another theme revealed the *community members* identified as impacting principals while enacting the role. One theme focused on the *role* of rural principal and highlighted what it is they reported they did while in the role and another theme focused on the *community expectations* that impacted principals while in the role. The last theme focused on principals' *reflections on their role* with respect to being a principal in a rural and non-rural context.

Personal experiences of the principals

Analysis of the data attributable to the theme *personal experiences of the principals* (see Table 56)

highlighted that there are personal experiences that brought people to the role and there are members of their personal community who impacted interviewees, to choose to enact the role of the rural principal.

Two principals were born and raised in rural contexts (P1, P6), and two were placed in rural contexts by the Department (P4, P5). Five principals reported staying in rural contexts due to the rural lifestyle (P1, P3, P4, P5 and P6) while P2 reported the negative impact rurality had on their own children (P2L229-236), and on their extended non-rural family members (P2L276-277).

Table 56 Personal experiences of the rural principals

Principal (P)	Interview transcript extract with line number/s (L)
P1	I grew up in the country. I didn't want to stay in the city. When I finished my [university] course I came straight home [to Regional EPSA town] school (L6)
P2	I haven't been a leader in metro (L108). We leave bits of our family behind (L276-277) and family leave you to go to uni (L279-283).
P3	We've got a rural lifestyle. We like it. We don't want to change it (L13)
P4	When I came to [Regional EPSA town] we planned on spending [around 3] years in [Regional EPSA town]. Then moving back to Adelaide ...we've been here [around 20 years] now. There's no reason to move anywhere else because. I feel I've got the whole deal here in [Regional EPSA town]. It's great for my family. I'm part of a really good community (L22-25).
P5	I had never been to a rural town ever before I came to [Regional EPSA town]; it was my first time out of Adelaide. I vaguely knew where [Regional EPSA town] was. I really needed a job I <i>really</i> need a job. I took it up for 4 years. I moved myself and my family to [Regional EPSA town]. At first it was really <i>really</i> difficult. (L22-26). I've been here for 30 years. 30 years is a long time. It just goes to show you though that once you get those fundamentals right and you feel comfortable and safe and you're operating within the community I love being in [Regional EPSA town] now. I've stayed for the whole journey (L51-54)
P6	I was born and bred in [very remote town], rural South Australia. So I'm a country person and I always wanted to work in the country. Especially after I went to the city to go to [teacher training]. I decided that I preferred country life to city life, that's why I probably for most of my career stayed in the country. (L3-6)

Community members

Data attributable to the theme *community members* is offered in Table 57. Analysis highlighted

interviewees articulated the community members who impacted the ways in which interviewees enacted the role of rural principal. Of note, is the complexity inherent to rural community due to the different groups with which the rural principal interacts, where rural community cannot be thought of as a mono-culture.

Table 57 From Tool 1: Community members who impacted the role of the rural principal

Community members associated with the rural principal through work			
Colleagues who are principals in town (P1L47)	School staff (P1L186-188; P2L13; P3L22-23; P4L52; P5L63-64; P6L490-496)	School students (P1L168-170; P2L20; P3L43-45; P4L52; P5L92- 96; P6L105-111)	Families / parents connected to school (P1L168-170; P2L28-30; P3L47-48; P4L65-66; P5L102-104; P6L167-172)
Colleagues who are principals out of town (P5L162-164)	Families connected with other schools (P1L97; P5L267-271; P6L478-480)	Employer – Department (P2L257-263; P5L257- 263)	Local rural business and industry (P3L104; P4L63; P6L476-480)
Union (P5L257-263)	Other services (P2L34)	Governing council (P3L34-39)	Community organisations e.g. volunteer non-government organisations, arts, sports clubs (P1L66-68; P2L188-192; P3L80-82; P4L25; P5L40-41; P6L379-383)
Community members associated with the rural principal <i>not</i> through work			
Spouse / partner / husband / wife (P1L6, P3L6; P4L6)	Family in rural town (P1L6; P2L81-82; P4L22-25; P5L24-25; P6L148-156)	Friends who are not in rural town	Community support network (P1L26)
Own child/ren who are in rural town or in Adelaide for university study (P2L279-283; P4L22-25; P5L24-25; P6L379-383)	Family who are not in rural town (P2L276-277; P4L124-125)	Rural is home (P1L25, P2L229-236; P3L7-8; P4L22-25; P5L51- 54; P6L3-6)	Family business (P3L7-8)

Principals noted, while in the role, they ‘support[ed]’ and ‘help[ed]’ community members, (P1L33-34; P2L28-30; P3L80-82; P4L22-25; P5L162-164; P6L379-383) and similarly, community members ‘support[ed]’ and ‘help[ed]’ the principals, (P1L25-26; P2L244-246; P3L55; P4L22-25; P5L162-164; P6L274-280). Principals also noted, they forged working ‘relationships’ with community members (P1L31-32; P2L28-30; P3L101; P4L63-64; P5L323-324; P6L69-71). Principals articulated ownership of their community, through the use of the phrase ‘your community’ (P3L21; P4L67; P5L323-324) highlighting the close connection they had with their community. Table 57 offers *Community members associated with the rural principal through work*, separate from *Community members associated with the rural principal not through work*. The separation occurred due to the nature of the role. The principals reported they cannot have personal relationship with people with whom they work.

Role of the rural principal

Analysis of the data attributable to the theme *role of the rural principal* highlighted the work that principals enacted while in the role, where the work and the role is determined through interaction with community. Examples of the work included (see Table 58) 'welcome receptions' (P1L56-57), 'manage resources' (P2L120; P6L105-111), 'support student learning' (P1L168-170; P3248-253; P6L483-487), support 'student behaviour' (P3L40-42; P4L177-180), manage staff (P3L34-39; P5L63-64), and manage negative community response when fulfilling Department work that impacted local people (P3L34-39). Examination of data also showed the role required principals to manage the impact living and working with rural community had on their private lives. For example, principals noted they must be always 'dress[ed] well' (P2L167-172), they managed death threats from students who knew where the principal and the principal's family lived (P4L177-180), they looked to find safe housing (P5L44-50) in order to protect their family's privacy (P2L188-192), and they managed costs to their own family budget related to living far from Adelaide, and therefore far from medical specialists (P6L167-172). Also, the role required rural principals to enact tasks that are in addition to what can be listed in a job description and different from the non-rural principal. For example, principals noted, the role required them to be aware they are on duty twenty-four-hours-per-day-seven-days-per-week (24/7) (P2L115-118; P4L28-31), where 'You can't ever really escape it [the role] on the weekends or after hours' (P3L24), because when in the role, 'People are looking at you all the time' (P5L265-266) and it's like living in a 'fishbowl' (P5L265-266). Principals understood, in rural contexts, 'You have a lifestyle where you are being under the microscope the whole way' (P6L470-475) and acknowledged the role 'cuts into your private life' (P2L109-112). It was shown that community determined the role required principals to be 'trustworthy' (P1L75), 'credible, have good values and be responsible' (P1L189-191). Further, principals noted the role required them to 'take [community surveillance] into account in what you choose to do outside school hours' (P6L470-475). Principals accepted the role 'is about being seen but also being seen [by community] in the right way' (P1L191-192).

Table 58 From Tool 1: Roles undertaken by the rural school principal

Principal (P)	Role of Principal
P1	<p>Support underprivileged students L27 Welcome receptions L56-57 Talk to community about their children L71 Be trustworthy L75 Know about families in other schools L97 Improve education and well-being of students and families L168-170 Teaching L170 Do good, positive things L186-188 Look after yourself L189-191 Be credible, have good values, be responsible, be excellent L189-191</p>
P2	<p>Take opportunities L11 Manage resources L20 Manage school as a hub for families to access support L28-30 Be a leader and public employee L114 Dress well L167-172 Manage online presence L167-172 Manage confidentiality L188-192 Link students with post-school employment options L227-228 Manage emotional impact of the role L279-283</p>
P3	<p>Manage a family business L7-8 Manage opinion and gossip of community L25-28 Manage risks and threats L25-28 Manage Department processes e.g. poor performance of staff L34-39 and manage the community response to this work e.g. manage student behaviour L40-42 Learn who is related to who L102 Learn about local crops L196-198 Manage the emotional impact of the role L199-201 isolating (L204) and friendless (L219-222) Manage student learning and community understanding of student learning L248-253</p>
P4	<p>Take opportunities L7-8 Maintain work-life balance L68 Manage aggressive parents L75-76 Manage own privacy L77-79 Manage the tough times L83 Manage workload (L140) and family time (L135) and leisure (L118-119) Manage aggressive students and death threats L177-180</p>
P5	<p>Take opportunities L27-30 Find a good school for own children L31-36 Find safe housing for own family L44-50 Manage lack of relief teachers L63-64 Manage expectations of students families and staff regarding post-school employment options for students L92-96 Manage work-life balance L142-145 Manage families who frequently shift students school-to-school L267-271</p>
P6	<p>Manage lack of resources L105-111 Manage deficit system of Department L105-111 Manage students with special needs L105-111 Manage travel, manage budgeting of travel, manage own families higher costs of living rural L148-156 Manage lack of access to specialist medical support in rural contexts, time and costs associated with travel to Adelaide to access to specialist medical support L167-172 Be confident; ask questions L274-280 Allow community to use school resources and grounds L384-389 Support / fundraise for rural families in drought L476-480 Support rural families to learn there are cultures from around the world and they think and act differently L483-487 Support local community initiatives L490-496 Make hard decisions community don't like L497-503 Manage negative community feedback L497-503 Inform local community about school activities L497-503</p>

However, there is an impact on rural school principals when managing continual community scrutiny. Principals found it 'wearing' (P2L115-118) and reported that it is important to 'look after yourself' (P1L189-191; P4L68). Principals' were shown to do this, by managing a 'work life balance' (P4L68), wherein you cannot be friends with people (P3L219-222) or friends on Facebook (P2L182-187), which leaves you 'isolated' (P3L204) and 'lonely' (P6L66-68), and the role can get tough and personal (P4L83), where it is difficult to protect your privacy (P2L109-112; P3L199-201; P4L166-167; P5L265-266; P6L470-475). With respect to heightened awareness of community surveillance, principals lacked engagement with community through social media, which resulted in the role being even lonelier (P2L167-172).

Community expectations

Analysis highlighted the *community expectations* that community members held about the ways in which principals enacted the role. All six principals knew their communities expected them to be *in* community for 'There's expectations around being part of the local club' (P3L80-82) where 'I need a good relationship with the different community's sporting communities' (P4L64), and to 'Be involved in a community project' (P6L379-383). Principals noted, to be successful, 'I really needed to get my kids involved in all the sporting clubs, join up to community groups, be visual' (P5L40-41) although this brings difficulties, for 'Your kids might all play on the same hockey team and that can get complicated' (P2L188-192). Principals offered, that it is not just a matter of being in community, 'It's a matter of being seen' (P1L66-68) to be in community, and while being seen in community, being available for community to talk to, 24/7 (P1L71; P2L188-192; P3L74-78; P4L162-164; P5L142-145; P6L66-68). Principals articulated a range of places in which community expected them to be the principal 24/7 (Table 59).

Table 59 From Tool 1: Places where community expect rural principals are principals 24/7

In community / on the street / after hours / personal life / in my home / are my neighbours	At sport / volunteering [basketball, netball, hockey, football, organisations, arts groups]	Facebook	Shop	Beach	Bank manager	Dinner with my spouse
P1L61; P2L188-192; P3L17; P4L166-167; P5L127-129; P6L66-68	P1L66-68; P2L188-192; P3L80-82; P4L25; P5L40-41; P6L375-378	P2L167-172	P2L167-172; P4L28-31; P5L142-145	P4L28-31	P4L169-170	P4L72-73

In response to community expectation, principals reported being committed to being a ‘good role model’ (P2L109-112) and to ‘honour the role and represent it well’ (P2L109-112). Principals understood that they required ‘self-awareness’ (P1L61) because, principals knew that 24/7, community members were ‘scrutinising’ (P5L151-156) and ‘judging’ them (P1L61; P3L83-86). The principals accepted 24/7 judgement by community, and believed ‘you’ve got to be really respectful of’ the community judging you (P1L61) while also knowing that ‘sometimes [principals] have to make some hard decisions that the community might not like’ (P6L497-503). It appeared that where the community do not like a decision, a rural principal must remain strong, weather the storm, be resilient, and enact the role, alone.

Reflections on their role

Principals’ *reflections on their role* highlighted that rural principals had understanding about whether or not it is different being a school principal in rural context when compared to a non-rural context. A summary of principals’ responses is offered in Table 60. P1 and P5 suggested the role can be the same and P6 reflected there are advantages to being a non-rural principal. By contrast, P3 and P4 noted an advantage for non-rural principals, is being incognito on weekends. P2 would not comment, because s/he had not experienced the role of both rural and non-rural school principal-ship.

Table 60 From Tool 1: Reflections on the role

Principal (P)	Interview Transcript excerpt with line number/s (L)
P1	It doesn't change a lot from metro to rural (P1L33)
P2	I don't know if there's a difference in metro; I haven't been a leader in metro (P2L108)
P3	If you're in a metro school nobody sees you on the weekend (P3L83-86)
P4	A principal in a metropolitan school I could disappear and hide for the weekend and just be myself with my family. Whereas that is not the case here (P4L72-73)
P5	There is not such a huge difference between us and what would happen in the metropolitan area (P5L159-160)
P6	You don't have to actually live there to receive some of the advantages of the metropolitan area (P6L61-63).

Whether or not principals stated the role of rural and non-rural principal is the same or different, all principals discussed at length, throughout interviews, the differences that created the role of the rural principal. P1 noted the role 'becomes deeper than just teaching' (P1L70). Results also showed, no matter how rural a principal was, principals empathised with colleagues in rural communities smaller and further from Adelaide, than their own (P3L83-86; P4L142-144; P5L140-141; P6L73). Further, principals reflected there were negative elements to being a rural principal (P2L227-228; P3L204; P6L105-111) but also noted, there are opportunities in rural contexts when compared to the non-rural experience (P2L11; P4L7-8; P5L27-30).

Elements of the role – tool 4

Data was extracted from *Column 4 Elements of the role* of each of the six interviews; the fourth tool theorising rural educational leadership. Four themes were allocated to the transcript excerpts. Interactions between the rural principal and the rural community was an important element of the role, with *community* the first theme. Elements of the role were determined by the nature of the work enacted by the rural principal while working at school, with *school* the second theme. Further, elements of the role impacted the personal lives of rural principals, with *personal* being the third theme. Elements of the role that impacted both interviewees career path into rural principal-ship, and principals staying in the role, had *career* trajectory being the fourth theme.

Community

Analysis of data attributable to the theme community highlighted elements of the role that are determined by interactions between the rural principal and the rural community. There were tasks the rural principals undertook, due to working in a rural community (see Table 61) that included working with families (P2L42), offering a range of social supports to parents (P177-86), becoming part of the wider social community network (P3L50-51), allowing community into the school context (P4L56-57), and reassuring families rural education is as good as non-rural (P5L72-76).

Table 61 From Tool 4: Rural principal tasks determined by community

Tasks	
Look after the community (P1L27)	
Make a difference for the community (P1L28-29)	
Meet families in the morning (P1L55)	
Meet families new to the school (P1L55)	
Support community with (P1L77-86)	Personal issues
	Marriage
	Relationship support
	How to talk to their children
	Getting their children to events
	How to get financial support
	Linking families with support agencies
	Give advice
	Being accessible
	Making sure all school leaders are accessible to community
	Providing safe space
	Make school non-threatening for families
	Having an open door policy
	Improve learning for children
Be available to community (P1L94)	
Work with families (P2L42)	
Accept community has impact (P3L20)	
Accept you are your community, your community is you (P3L21)	
Balance the two sides: benefits [and non-benefits] (P3L50-51)	
Be part of the local club / Association / sports team (P3L80-82)	
Travel around for the job (P3L91)	
Manage having a supermarket 200 kms away and being very remote in Aboriginal Schools (P3L193-195)	
Allow community to put adverts in school newsletter / promote community (P4L56-57)	
Know what's happening in the community (P4L62)	
Department need to know rural principals rely more heavily on Deputy Principals / Senior Leaders for support than metro (P4L81-83)	
Constantly saying to community, rural students achieve the same as any best schools in Adelaide and are not getting a second rate education because we are rural (P5L72-76)	
Constantly proving rural students do not have their learning disadvantaged (P5L77)	
Be a real strong educator (P5L307-308)	
Know your context and what your town's about (P5L313)	
Meld that into the context of a rural town (P5316-322)	
Think about how melding into community is different in rural than remote (P5316-322)	

School

Examination of interview data sets attributable to the theme *school* highlighted there are tasks the principal undertakes, that are due to working at a rural school (Table 61). All principals discussed difficulties associated with staffing in rural schools. For example, principals' noted new graduate teachers come to rural contexts (P4L99), that rural principals supported, developed (P5L19-20) and improved (P5L284-288) younger, new and less experienced (P2L214; P4L111-112) early career teachers (P2L12), early graduate teachers (P1L146-149,) and new graduates (P4L105-106) to become 'proficient' (P4L99-100) in line with the AITSL Professional Standards for teachers. Principals highlighted they supported teachers' development, wellbeing, and relationships (P1L156-162), to keep teachers in the profession (P1L144-145; P5L299-300). P4 expressed frustration at this element of the work (P4L103) knowing that s/he invested in working to develop young staff, after which, staff usually left town (P4L108-109).

Further, principals noted they managed difficulties with staffing (P5L333), and attracting quality staff, particularly when vacancies became open late in the year (P6L120-123). Principals noted they led (P3L108) and managed staff, managed the need for staff to take leave (P5L80; P6L392-395), and managed lack of access to relief teaching staff (P2L204-205; P3L165-166; P5L334; P6L124-129). To combat staffing difficulties, P3 noted s/he actively built a team of staff with complementary skills (P3L228), whereas P4 noted finding it easier to set high expectations and work with new graduates when compared with supporting staff that had been at a school for life (P4L105-106) who P3 described as 'set in their ways' (P3L323).

Rural principals supported staff in a number of ways. The support came in various forms such as coaching (P1L152-155; P5L284-288), mentoring (P1L152-155; P4L102; P5L245-255), making sure there was time and money for staff to visit schools outside their school of employment (P2L197-198; P5L88-90), and that staff had access to professional development (P2L197-198; P5L83-87; P6L352-357). Principals engaged in a range of tasks related to supporting teachers. Principals observed teacher practice (P1L152-155), critiqued teacher performance (P1L152-155), offered strategies for improvement (P1L152-155), processes and good

practice (P1L139-143), and created teacher buddy systems (P1L152-155; P5L298). Principals also focused on supporting teachers to teach (P1L139-143; P2L12; P4L99-101; P5L19-20; P6L35) up to two-to-three days per week (P5L289-291), to improve curriculum (L1L104; P3L69; P5L245-255), track and improve student learning (P1L139-143; P3L70; P5L301-303; P6L358-363), and supported teachers to become leaders (P1L174-175; P4L108-109).

It was found that there were elements of the role that were distinct to the rural schooling contexts. These included managing the impact of travel (P3L29), being credible 24/7 (P1L224-230;P5L289-291), managing less access to professional development (P2L15-16) than non-rural principals, as well as managing the isolation from-, separation from- and having fewer- support services for families, and managing the impact this had on rural families (P2L35-40). Principals also noted they managed community responses when fulfilling Departmental processes that community members did not like, such as poor performance management of a staff member, who is related to most of the community (P3L34-39), and behaviour management where families from both sides of a student fight, blame the school (P3L40-42).

Principals were found to manage the complexities of rural schools in a number of ways. These included managing schools with students in grade R/F to grade 12 (P3L65-67), where there were small numbers of students and staff (P3L68), a small leadership team (P3L139-142), and where staff needed to teach across year levels and curriculum areas (P3L139-142). Principals engaged in activities particular to rural schools (P3L131-133). They planned far ahead to access relief teachers (P2L204-250; P3L165-166; P5L334; P6L124-129), drove a bus (P3L110), managed the oval watering system (P3L111), handled snakes (P3L112), guided stock off the oval (P3L113), managed emergencies (P3L120) with a clear head because of isolation (P3L121), taught up to four- to four-and-a-half days while being the principal (P3L167-169), and taught in the classroom, to cover for teachers who were absent due to sickness (P3L165-166) where there was no Temporary Relief Teacher (TRT) to relieve the sick teacher.

Rural principals had less access to TRTs when compared with non-rural principals. The lack of access to TRTs, offers a way of showing deficits in rural contexts have a compounding effect. For not only do rural principals have lack of access to TRTs, this lack of access impacts on other elements of rural schooling. For without access to TRTs, staff cannot, for example, be released to attend professional development, observe each other's practice, engage in line management meetings, and travel to other schools for peer-support activities. The lack of access to TRTs, results in other elements of the development of teachers being negatively impacted, to the degree the teachers cannot engage in development activities to the same degree as colleagues in non-rural contexts.

The data-sets revealed that principals also managed rural schools that lacked adequate finances (P2L49-53; P3L298-301; P5L335; P6L157-166) to compensate for the distances staff in rural schools had to navigate. Principals also supported families to gain access to financial support (P2L227-228), and noted they had to use their networks (P6L346-351) to be creative and innovative to find solutions (P2L15-16; P5L331-332; P6L346-351). Solutions included applying for funding through grants (P6L346-351), and advocating to the Department that equal funding for rural and non-rural, is not equitable, particularly when considering the additional costs borne by rural schools (P2L15-16; P3L29; P6L346-351) due to their distance from Adelaide and requisite travel costs.

Personal

Data attributable to the theme *personal* experience, highlighted ways in which the role, impacted the *personal* lives of rural principals. Principals reported managing the interaction between the role and their personal lives was an important element of their work, due to being on-duty 24/7. Principals were found to be engaged in deliberate actions, to ensure they had a work-life balance, because being on-duty as a principal 24/7 (P1L63; P2L121-122; P3L206-210; P4L70-71; P5L325-326; P6L400-406) was stressful (P3L286) and impacted wellbeing (P2L121-122; P5L373-377). The 24/7 demand occurred differently for each rural principal and included the following, staff feel free to contact you 24/7 (P2L119), community expect you to be the principal 24/7 (P2L123-125; P3L206-210; P4L70-71; P5L391-399), and expect you to become part of

the community (P4L22-25) while they judge you as the principal (P3L83-86). Principals noted the demands of the workload made for long working hours (P2L128-130; P5L378), that the role was isolating and lonely (P3L176-177; P5L506-508) - in part, because principals in rural contexts, were not with family and friends (P3L183-185; P5L381-389). P5 noted, the more rural their colleagues, the less opportunity those colleagues had to escape (P5L391-399) the 24/7 demands.

Principals managed a work-life balance in different ways. Some principals consciously put limits on work at home (P2L126; P4L134; P5L325-326; P6L407-409) for the sake of their own family's wellbeing (P4L134), and to be transparent with their staff (P4L136). P2 noted s/he worked efficiently while at work (P2L131) and P4 sought-out support from their professional network (P4L48). P5 took courses to help with time management (P5L327) while other principals consciously took breaks from the role (P2L123-125; P4L137; P6L20). Further, principals managed their sleep (P2L127; P6L407-409) health, and kept fit (P6L410).

Principals enjoyed living rural and made their homes in rural contexts. They talked about purchasing homes (P4L22-25; P6L44-47), embedding their family into rural contexts (P4L22-25; P6L41) and the importance of reframing the difficulties they faced due to the rural contexts, into positives (P6L411-421). Principals also noted they managed additional financial costs to their family due to living rural (P6L481-482).

Career

Data attributable to the theme *career* trajectory highlighted what influenced interviewees to consider a career path into rural principal-ship, and what influenced them to stay in the role. Principals took opportunities (P1L171; P2L239; P4L7) and 'fell into the job' (P6L531-539) to become a rural principal. Principals noted that because people preferred working in the non-rural context (P6L60), and because there was less competition for rural principal roles (P2L240-242), young leaders were encouraged to apply for principal-ship (P4L11) and young leaders 'get a go' (P2L240-242) at being a rural principal.

All principals engaged in a range of leadership positions prior to principal-ship that impacted their career trajectory. Some worked in leadership roles in schools (P4L13; P6L51-54), and recalled working with principals who were positive role models (P4L35-38; P6L51-54). Principals also noted they worked in Department Regional Offices, undertaking educational leadership roles in specific areas such as behaviour management, special education (P4L7-8), and educational disadvantage (P6L56-59). Principal noted that working in Regional Offices roles was a positive experience, because the roles facilitated interviewees working across all the schools in the region, working with pre-school to grade 12, and working with a range of principals. Principals noted that these experiences, facilitated interviewees seeing both positive and negative ways in which principals managed rural schools. P4 noted working in Regional Office supported them to understand the ways in which the Department and schools worked together (P4L7-8).

The continuation of the career of the rural principal was underscored through relationship with colleagues. Principals addressed professional isolation (P3L103-105; P6L83-86) through working more closely with each other principals who were similarly working in rural contexts. Principals also networked with local leaders in the Department partnership or Regional EPSA town (P2L103; P3L237-242; P5L56-59; P6L89-90) in which they worked. P5 noted the networking occurred more in rural contexts than in the non-rural context (P5L60-62). Principals also noted, because they could predict the thinking of the colleagues they always worked with (P5L83-86; P6L83-86), they needed to reach outside EPSA. Principals noted they need to reach out to colleagues in Adelaide (P5L120), and elsewhere (P2L101-102; P5L341-345; P6L91), with colleagues who worked in the same [Type of school] (P2L104), and with colleagues affiliated with Professional Education Associations (P2L104; P6L74-82). It appears, these collegiate associates were important to rural principals, because links with these people facilitated connection with trusted colleagues who supported, listened to, and debriefed with them (P3L230; P4L80-81; P6L398). Principals also noted the professional relationships were important, due to links with people, knowledge, and skill development. P6 noted, these connections also highlighted, the degree to which enacting the role of rural principals, resulted in P6 missing out on professional state-wide leadership opportunities, professional learning, and promotion positions (P6L213-215).

Principals accepted the cost in time, money, and travel to continue professional development in order to remain in the career. Principals noted they were required to travel and find accommodation, to attend partnership meetings and training, and travelled 60,000-70,000 kilometres per year (P3L92-95; P5L466). P6 noted being excluded by the Department, from attending training conducted in Adelaide, that was advertised for 'non-rural only' participants. P6 noted that s/he was excluded, due to the cost to the Department (P6L213-215) for rural principals to attend professional development - whereas Professional Associations paid costs associated with travel to Adelaide (P6L216-221). Principals attended conferences (P6L92-97), undertook formal university post-graduate study, and training, and shared that these activities helped principals in their career (P5L114-118; P6L554-559). P6 noted s/he was not trained (P6L531-539) and learnt on the job (P6L554-559); P5 notes that s/he was self-directed (P5L105-106), and that no-one supported P5 to become a principal (P5L107-112). P5 and P6 also noted, currently, in addition to their role, they supported other leaders (P6L264-273). P5 noted there should be a formal process to release P5 from the role of principal while doing so (P5L368-371).

The results of my research confirmed the imperative that kept principals motivated to work in rural educational leadership. This included supporting disadvantaged families (P4L111; P6L51-54) and knowing, 'There's still lost of work to be done here, why would I leave?' (P4L26). In the rural context however, P5 noted, principals felt they had to work twice as hard to attract people and to prove themselves (P5L71) and that the 'job itself has become so demanding that people don't want them' (P5L224-228).

Employer – tool 5

Four themes were allocated to the data from Column 5 *Employer* of each of the six interviews; the fifth tool theorising rural educational leadership. One theme confirms that there were *opportunities* provided to the principals while working for the Department that led them to the role of rural principal. Another theme highlights that *personal decisions* principals made, when offered roles by the Department, impacted interviewees' pathway into rural principal and impacted their personal lives. A further theme is *process*, highlighting Departmental processes that impacted principals obtaining, retaining and enacting the role.

Another theme is *career trajectory*, referring to elements that contributed to a career trajectory that led to the role of the rural principal.

Opportunity

The evaluation of the data-sets showed that for five principals, it was opportunities, while working for the Department that supported them to attain the role of rural principal (see Table 62). They noted ‘tak[ing]’ (P4L89-90; P5L6) opportunities (P1L13; P2L87; P4L7-8; P5L6) in rural educational contexts for ‘there’s no better way’ (P1L164-167) to develop skills (P4L7-8) and knowledge to ‘quickly’ (P4L86-88) climb ‘the ladder’ (P1L172-173) and become a rural principal. It was found that opportunities empowered principals to become rural principals at a younger age (P1L172-173; P4L89-90; P5L102-103) when compared to non-rural colleagues (P1L164-167; P4L85-86) because there was less competition (P4L85-86). However, P5 suggested an early rise to principal-ship for young people occurred too quickly, before they established their careers as educators (P5L102-103).

Table 62 From Tool 5: Opportunities supporting pathway into principal-ship

P1L13	Then opportunity basically came up - which is a good thing in the country - because there's always opportunities to do leadership positions.
P1L164-167	There is opportunity obviously in rural settings to become a principal at an early age. I was a principal [in my thirties], which is very young to be a principal. There was another principal within [Regional EPSA town] who was 27. Being a principal at such a young age, that's unheard of in Adelaide. So if you want to actually reach the top of the teaching pathway and teaching career, to become a principal, obviously there's other positions higher than that, but if your aim is to become a principal, there's no better way to learn that than actually coming to a rural setting.
P1L172-173	The opportunities I found working in the country are far higher. We've got younger leaders working within the country areas and the rural areas. So there is opportunity at an earlier age to move yourself through the leadership. Through the ladder in a sense. And actually achieve your aspirations in your career
P1L179-180	If you want to become part of a leadership opportunity, coming to a rural setting like this one offers you that opportunity. We've got a lot of young leaders in [Regional EPSA town] that do aspire to be principals
P2L87	I've had so many opportunities
P4L7-8	I really believe that was the grounding for me going into a leadership position. Because I was in a small area school, I was given a lot of opportunities to develop and show that I did have some leadership skills. I started my leadership journey there.
P4L85-86	I guess being in a rural setting gives you so many more opportunities than what you have in a metropolitan setting because there's less competition to get a leadership position.
P4L86	I was given so many opportunities in terms of furthering my career. At [in the 40s age group] I'm a young principal
P4L86-88	I wouldn't have those opportunities if I hadn't put myself out there to be in a rural setting. I made a conscious decision I guess to stay in rural so that I could further my career quickly. Because that's what I wanted.
P4L89-90	Take every opportunity that you've got even if you are a little bit nervous or a little bit out of your depth. You take those opportunities because they don't come often in metropolitan schools
P5L6	Once I got here, opportunities opened up to me. I took advantage of those opportunities that opened up to me.
P5L102-103	<i>However</i> My problem is that I believe that people here, and they're very young, the young people here could become leaders here very quickly The problem I have with that for teachers here in [Regional EPSA town] in particular is that they become leaders too quickly without establishing themselves firstly

Personal decisions

Principals made decisions that impacted their personal lives in order to obtain the role of rural principal. For example, principals reported agreeing to being sent by their employer, to an unknown (P4L3) 'very remote area' (P4L4; P6L7-11) and planning to be there for only 'a year' (P4L5) but deciding to stay for the best part of a decade. By way of contrast, P6 reported 'requesting' (P6L7-11) rural placement. Principals made decisions about their personal lives that included relocating their family (P2L3-9), buying a house (P6L7-11), and managing a work-life balance because the job 'can consume you' (P4L130). Principals also noted, that due to the 'tyranny of distance' (P2L153-165) they noted they could only fulfil the role with 'hours of driving' up to 70,000 kilometres per year (P3L92-95).

Principals made personal decisions about relationships with others who were similarly working for the Department, where those relationships supported them to aspire to rural principal-ship. They noted, prior to obtaining the role of rural principal, interviewees had personal relationships with leaders (P2L100), teaching staff (P1L40-44), and line managers (P1L40-44; P4L35-38) who 'encouraged' (P4L10), and 'supported' (P1L50; P2L243) them to 'take up' (P5L7) leadership. Principals noted it was also personal relationships with colleagues who supported them while in the role of principal that enabled them to enact the role. Principals reported, 'we have a very close-knit group of principals' (P1L98-130), and 'supportive' (P2L243) working relationships with other principals in the partnership (P1L98-103; P2L243), which principals noted, occurred more easily than in the non-rural context (P2L17-18). P5 noted this was important, because principals had initiated the support they offered each other, for 'systematically', the Department has not supported them (P5L123-124) as rural principals.

Principals shared personal decisions they made that led to obtaining the role of rural principal. These elements included working for the Department and taking 'stepping stones' (P5L7) to leadership, 'taking leadership opportunities' (P5L7), gaining permanency (P5L3-4), being mentored (P4L35-38), following the role modelling of principals (P4L39-40), engaging with a leadership coach (P4L48-50), and being 'saturated' (P1L48-49) in the leadership environment. P3 offered personal reflections about the role, noting that 'rural, remote, regional, metro education are all unique' and have their own challenges (P3L14-16). P3 also shared, people should spend time working in rural schools (P3L144) because the 'sheer social complexity' requires social intelligence that is not well understood (P3L154-156) more broadly.

Process

There are Departmental processes that impacted the pathway into- and work as- the rural principal. Interviewees shared that they choose (P6L7-11) to apply for, 'got sent' (P6L7-11) and 'won' (P1L14-16; P3L9-10) educational leadership roles, with the support of principals they worked with (P1L189-20). P1 shared, principals s/he worked with, used Department processes to support P1 into educational leadership. For example, a principal advertised an 'internal' position (P1L19-20), facilitating P1 to apply for a role

without competition from outside the school. A different principal, created a new role that P1 won (P1L19-20). P5 'learnt how to do things on the job' (P5L238-240) whereas now, P5 noted, there is more support for people who move into leadership (P5L113). Interviewees referenced the new Department processes that required new principals to engage in a compulsory University course which interviewees noted, new principals reported being unable to implement. P5 attributed principals being unable to implement the training due to the 'day-to-day driving our work' (P5L229-233) while P6 suggested the compulsory course is 'wrong' in the first year of the role (P6L564-577) because of the workload for a principal in their first year.

Principals articulated the Departmental employment processes that created pathways for them into principal-ship. Interviewees shared they worked in school based educational leadership roles such as deputy (P1L14-16), and region-wide roles in Regional Office (P4L41-42) that offered opportunities which supported them to understand the workings of State Office (P4L41-42; P6L222-223). P4 explained how educational leadership roles enabled her/him to work with a range of principals (P4L41-42), work across a range of schools, subjects, and year levels (P4L43-45), which supported P4's pathway to principal-ship (see Figure 27). Principals' highlighted Departmental processes that linked them with people who supported them while in the role of rural principal. These people included a line manager, a Regional Director, a Principal Consultant (P2L105-106), members of the partnerships (P3L62-63; P6L222-223), other principals in the partnership (P3L62-63), a range of people working in support services from Regional Office (P6L112-119) and Central Office (P2L153-165; P3L146-148; P5L229-223; P6L222-223).

Departmental processes associated with funding, impacted the role of interviewees. Under-resourcing prevented rural principals to engage in activities with parity to non-rural colleagues. Funding also impacted purchasing the latest and best resources, professional development, travelling across large distances, and cleaning and maintaining school grounds (P1L117; P3L92-95; P6L324-327). Principals shared, leaders from the Department in Adelaide, visited rural schools with funding so tight, that the funding of the visit allowed such short times for meetings, that P2 considered the lack of commitment to rural contexts 'insulting' (P2L153-165). Principals suggested, that Department leaders from Adelaide, did not understand the

workload of the rural principal (P3L170; P5L272-281) and thereby assumed the rural principal was readily available to meet (P2L153-165).

Department processes are linked to the student-centred-funding-model, a funding model that determined the investment in school-based leadership. The funding model impacted on rural schools due to small student enrolment numbers and consequently, small allocation of staffing, and small funding, which left rural schools bereft of leaders. The one, two or three leaders that can be employed in small schools, enacted every leadership role a school required (P3L134-L138). Department funding process provided the same amount of funding for rural and non-rural schools, and principals noted, having equal amounts of funding is not equitable (P3L316-320), because there is no compensation or recognition for the complexities of the rural school (P3L325-327). P6 shared how s/he advocated for equitable funding (P6L526-530).

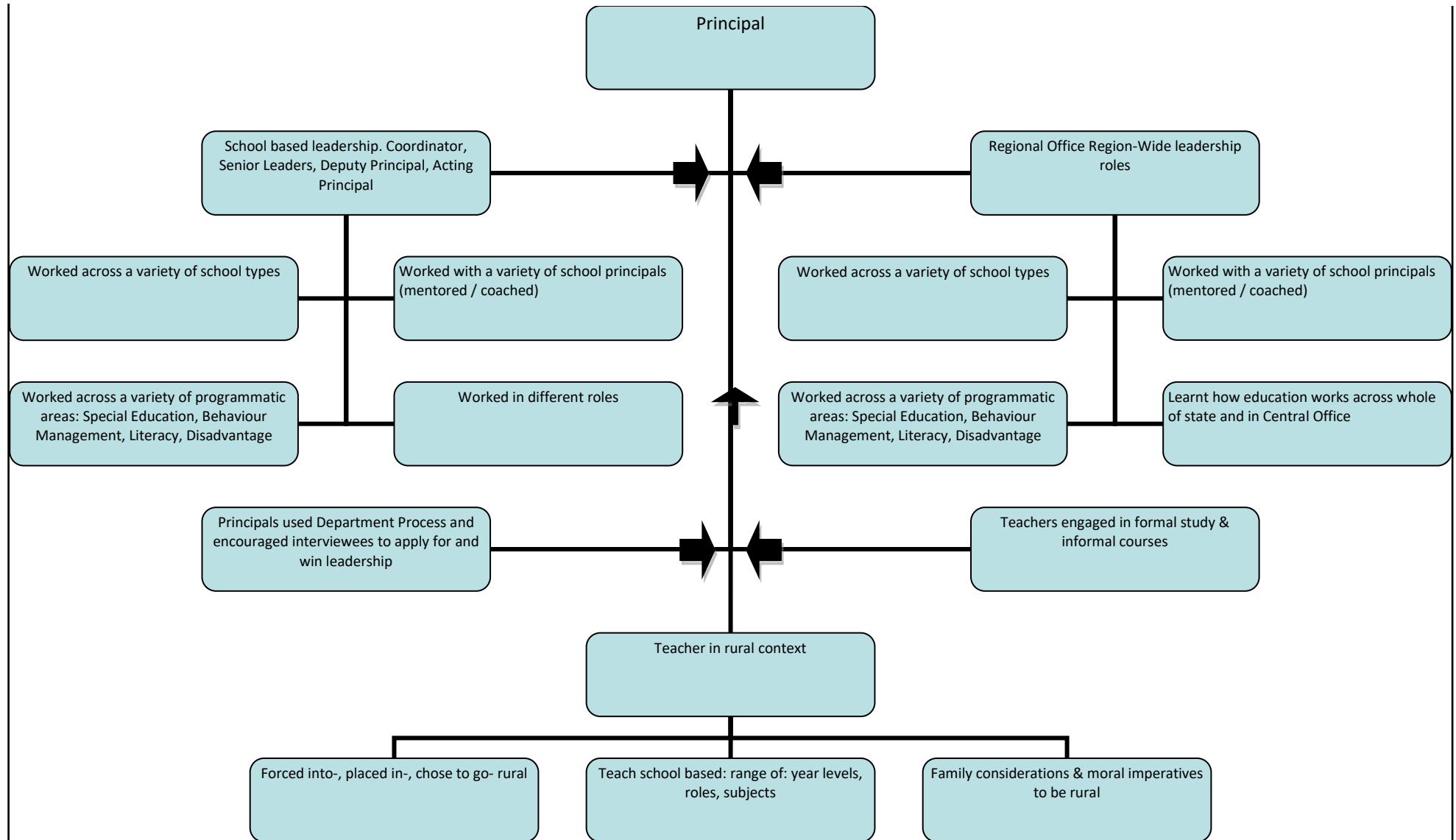
Processes from Central Office impacted rural principals. The non-rural based people who created Departmental processes have 'lost touch with what's really necessary in a school' (P6L585) where policies and procedures are 'metro-centric' and rarely helpful in country areas (P3L157-159). P3 noted the Department heard this 'a lot' (P3L157-159). P3 highlighted the Department processes that impacted the role. These included human resourcing (P3L146-148), poor performance management (P3L34-39), managing a small community that is 'against' the principal when they enact Departmental processes (P3L149-153), and where Departmental processes impacted on the isolation of rural principals (P3L182). Department processes prevented interviewees from moving to principal roles in non-rural contexts (P3L328-332), and because quality non-rural people seldom applied for rural leadership, the same local rural people ended up 'winning' the leadership roles (P6L143-147) in rural schools.

Career Trajectory

A review confirmed the career trajectory that led interviewees to the role of rural principals was impacted by various conditions. Career trajectory was determined by considerations related to interviewees' family (P2L3-9), and a moral imperative to support schooling (P5L14-16). A common element was that interviewees were 'assessed', 'offered' or 'won' permanency (P1L7-12; P2L3-9; P4L11; P6L36-40) while working in rural contexts. There were a broad range of roles interviewees fulfilled through their careers (see Figure 27), prior to principal-ship. Principals highlighted working in a range of school-based roles such as, working across year levels (P1L7-12; P2L3-9; P4L8-11; P5L12-13; P6L16-19) teaching across subjects (P1L7-12), teaching across school based teaching roles (P1L7-12; P4L8-11) and across school types (P2L3-9; P4L8-11; P5L12-13; P6L16-19). Interviewees noted rural context provided opportunities for leadership (P5L99-101) wherein they learnt different knowledge from different principals with whom they worked (P4L17; P5L11), about how to enact the role of principal (P2L95-96) and also reported learning how the Department and schools worked together (P4L12-13). Prior to principal-ship interviewees engaged in a variety of educational leadership roles that included roles in Regional Office enacting region-wide educational leadership roles in specialist roles (P2L3-9; P6L16-19), Special Education, Behaviour Management (P4L8-11) and Literacy (P5L9). Interviewees engaged in school based leadership roles prior to principal-ship such as 'acting' school based leadership roles such as deputy principals, Senior Leader, Coordinator (P1L14-18; P2L3-9; P4L8-11; P6L36-40) that led to tenured positions (P1L20-23) wherein P5 noted s/he learnt about line-management of staff (P5L12-13).

Principals with whom interviewees worked used Departmental processes to support the career trajectory of the interviewees. Interview participants reported their principals 'creating positions' (P1L19-20) and 'making positions available' (P1L18-19) and 'encouraging', 'urging' and 'asking' them to apply (P4L14-16; P6L16-19) for leadership roles. A principal used the Department process of the short-term 'internal' vacancy (P1L14-16), thereby ensuring that only people already working at the school were eligible to apply for the school based educational leadership roles.

Figure 27 Pathway to principal-ship



Professional development, training and development – tool 7

Five themes were allocated to the data from *Column 7 PD-T&D* of each of the six interviews; the seventh tool theorising rural educational leadership. One theme related to *formal* professional development because rural principals accessed formal development through the formal educational institutions of a university. Another theme related to the *informal* professional development in which rural principals used informal mechanisms to engage with informal training events. A third theme is the *programmatic* professional development the Department offered rural principals, much of which principals reported, did not support them to fulfil the role. A fourth theme related to the *logistics* that principals were required to manage, in order to ensure staff accessed training. A final theme related to *equity* in relation to principals managing staff access to professional development.

Formal

Reviewing the data-sets aligned with the theme *formal* professional development showed that four rural principals engaged in formal development delivered by formal educational institutions that are universities. The formal training included graduate diplomas and master's degrees. These degrees covered initial teacher training, a graduate leadership program, a graduate diploma in literacy and learning, a masters in curriculum, and a graduate diploma in curriculum development (P1L5; P5L206-212; P3L58-60; P5L8; P5L10; P6L26-27). P3 recommended formal university degrees include placement of leaders in the rural context (P3L178-179).

Formal professional development positively impacted interviewees. P3 noted the formal training was 'worth it. It was good.' (P3L58-60). P5 noted the graduate diploma gave her/him a 'stepping stone to become a leader' (P5L8) and a masters gave her/him a 'springboard into another direction' (P5L10). P6 noted line management encouraged her/him to study (P6L291-297) and the graduate diploma was 'very practical' (P6L291-297) where a subsequent masters was not practical, but instead, 'expanded my thinking' (P6L298-306).

Further, principals engaged with formal professional development in different ways. P1 ‘left’ EPSA (P1L5) to engage in study, P3 ‘had to go’ away from EPSA to study the graduate diploma (P3L58-60), while P6 studied while living in Adelaide (P6L26-27). P3 (P3L178-179), P5 (P5L206-212), and P6 (P6L298-306), all advocated that training occur in rural contexts with face-to-face components. P5 (P5L215-220) noted s/he continued to work with universities, and encouraged organisations to deliver training locally in EPSA.

Informal

Analysis of interview transcripts showed that principals engaged with informal professional development that took a variety of forms which is summarised in Table 63. Results highlighted that despite their isolation, and in the absence of development offered in rural contexts, rural principals found ways to engage in a range of informal training opportunities.

Table 63 From Tool 7: Informal professional development in which rural principals engaged

Being mentored (P1L49;P3L56)	Being coached (P4L127)	Learning from others (P1L49;P2L59-63;P5L469-479;P6L251-254)	Being engaged with online PD-T&D (P5L469-479)
Being engaged with professional associations (P2L59-63)	Being in charge of their own PD-T&D (P3L246-247;P6L429-440)	Professional networking (P2L59-63;P5L469-479)	Professional organisation (P2L59-63)
Harsh reality of experience (P3L53-54)	Line manager (P6L429-440)	Contacts (P3L61)	

Programmatic

Rural principals engaged in programmatic professional development offered by the Department that is summarised in Table 64. Information about programmatic development offered by the Department was shared amongst principals, through the partnership structure (P1L110-112). It was this sharing that empowered principals to engage in training in ways that are more efficient than occurred prior to the partnership structure.

Principals were positive about accessing programmatic professional development offered by the Department. P1 noted s/he was keen to access the 'latest' and 'best' training (P1L115), to improve her/his own skills, and in turn, shared that s/he passed the knowledge onto teaching staff (P1L139), thereby improving the skills of the teachers, and further, the learning of students (P1L116). P1 noted the ways in which programmatic professional development improved the teaching in STEM, literacy, numeracy, behaviour management and classroom management (P1L207-221). P2 noted the positive way in which the Department supported and funded the development of new graduates (P2L219-226). P1 and P5 noted ways in which the Department supported middle managers (P1L180-183; P5L222-223).

Table 64 From Tool 7: Programmatic professional development responses from the Department

Programs in Adelaide for new graduates (P2L219-266)	Professional development meetings (P3L92-95)
Good teaching practice (P1L139)	Conferences (P2L175-181)
Literacy and numeracy (P1L207-221)	Leaders program (P2L91-94)
STEM (P1L110-112)	Protective practices for principals (P2L173-174)
Classroom management (P1L207-221)	Partnership meetings (P3L92-95)
Behaviour management (P1L207-221)	Administrative training for principals (P5L241-244)
Middle leaders' program (P1L180-183;P5L222-223)	Legal training for principals (P5L241-244)

Principals highlighted programmatic professional development they engaged in to support them in the role included development that supported principals with leadership (P2L91-94), protective practices (P2L173-174), administration and legal matters (P5L241-244), and student wellbeing (P6L309-310). This training occurred through a variety of organisations, not only the Department. Principals noted they accessed programmatic professional development through professional organisations (P2L175-181), partnership meetings (P3L92-95) and when principals engaged in action research (P6L312-323).

Principals highlighted concerns about programmatic professional development. P3 highlighted it was difficult to connect with development, because the training was not rural specific, and not delivered in towns close to the principals (P3L226-227). P5 highlighted Department programmatic training for principals, was not meeting the needs of both inexperienced and experienced principals (P5L342-347). P5 highlighted concerns about the ways in which the Department offered programmatic professional

development that upheld travelling 'gurus' such as Hattie (P5L348-352). P5 was concerned, because programmatic responses come and go, based on the Departmental connection with a particular 'guru', that P5 noted took principals away from core elements of the role. P6 highlighted training did not meet the needs of rural principals and their rural context (P6L328).

Logistics

Rural principals highlighted the range of logistics to be consider when organising for themselves and staff to engage in professional development and the difficulties faced by those in rural contexts, when linking with development opportunities (P1L121; P2L43-47; P3L304; P5L81-82). The logistics included navigating the cost of training and broader financial- and non-financial- considerations linked with staff attending professional development. Of note, there are costs that rural principals factored in, when staff attended development, which the non-rural principal did not need to consider (P1L128-130; P2L43-47; P3L160-162; P5L81-82; P6L331-332). This highlighted, the logistics the rural principal is required to manage, to ensure rural staff accessed professional development is 'more complicated' (P2L43-47) when compared to the work of the non-rural principal.

There are costs the rural principal must factor in to their career decisions (P1L195-205; P2L43-47; P3L304; P6L331-332). For example, these involved the cost in funding a temporary-relief-teacher (TRT) to cover the staff members attending the professional development (P1L121-126; P2L262). The rural principal must account for the cost of the TRT to cover the staff member for the two days of travel the staff member is required to travel in order to attend the training. This travel is extensive (P1L121; P2L254-258; P3L321-322) and required a day travelling prior to the professional development and required a day travelling post the training. Two days of travel is required, in order to safely navigate the distances required in order to get to-and-from the staff members place of residence and the place at which the training is being delivered. Financial costs to the rural principal also included the cost of accommodation, meals, flights, and taxis for the staff member to-and-from their accommodation to the professional development. These costs start at \$AUD1,000 per staff member, for one day of training (P1L121-126). These costs are borne by the rural

school; non-rural principals do not need to account for these additional costs when non-rural staffs attend non-rural based professional development.

There were logistical considerations that the rural principals managed, where the cost to the rural principal was non-financial. In rural contexts, when there is no TRT available (P2L262), other staff covered for the classes of the teacher attending the professional development, or the principal engaged in a day of teaching, while still enacting the role of the rural principal. The non-financial cost is related to additional workload and stress. There are dangers associated with extensive travel and the worry about the danger to staff, borne by principals. Dangers included the distance staff must travel (P1L121) to access training, can be a 500 kilometres drive, one way (P1L134-136). Dangers are also associated with the length of time to travel, and the number of hours spent driving on the road (P1L137; P2L254-258) where principals worry that staff may hit a kangaroo (P2L254-258). Another non-financial cost is the time spent away from family while attending the professional development and while driving to and from the training. For example, there are occasions, where the staff member started driving, in order to attend training the following day, after a full days' work at the school. The non-financial cost to the staff member is fatigue and risk of dying on roads. Roads that are in ill repair upon which the speed limit is 110 kilometres per hour.

Due to the financial- and non-financial- costs, rural principals did not endorse staff attending short professional development offered in the non-rural centre. That is, rural staff missed opportunities to attend development that is offered in the non-rural context; professional development that is conducted in Adelaide, for one- to two-hours (P3L160-162). Despite the logistics principals had to navigate, they valued themselves and staff accessing training (P1L134-136; P2L262; P3L321-322; P5L463-465; P6L331-332).

Equity

There are issues related to equity of access to professional development where rural principals had to navigate issues related to access to development that their non-rural counterparts did not. Principals articulated the training they engaged in or wanted to access (see Table 65). Of note, P3 asked 'I don't even

know what you mean by that. What training providers? What sort of training are they providing?’ (P3L264-266). P3 is not aware that there are training providers that offer development specific to the role of school principal. Whereas P6 funds her/his own training either through a budget line at the school or with her/his own personal funds (P6L224-249).

Table 65 From Tool 7: Professional development that principals’ access and want to access

The latest training and development (P1L109-110) Quality PD-T&D (P2L66-67)	The latest teaching methods (P1L109-110)	Make sure all principals are on the same page (P1L114)	Access to PD-T&D offered by [Professional Association] (P2L66-67)
Mentoring (P2L88-90)	Aspiring leaders (P2L88-90)	New leaders (P2L88-90)	Online PD-T&D (P2L269-274;P4L127 ;P6L100-104) Webinars (P5L460-462)
Training that is differentiated for rural contexts (P4L123)	Face-to-face (P4L127;P6L100-104)	Whole of staff (P6L135-142)	Adelaide after school sessions (P2L207-208;P4L123-124;P6L135-142)
University PD-T&D (P6L224-249)	Masters (P6L224-249)		

Principals are able to articulate equity issues related to access to training. Principals noted, ‘Don’t forget rural; don’t forget those more rural; we need to know what [professional development] opportunities are coming up’ (P1L110). Principals were aware they could not access twilight after school development opportunities in Adelaide (P2L207-208; P6L135-142) and are frustrated, for it is unrealistic that principals will attend all the best professional development held in Adelaide (P4L123-124). And it involved time away from their own family (P2L64-65). However, P2 highlighted, because of our isolation we are more innovative (P2L15-16) when it comes to accessing training.

Principals wanted professional development to be delivered in their rural contexts (P4L124). P6 noted, there are benefits for having the whole staff access the same training because staff are more likely to implement what they learn (P6L135-142), but principals are not interested in the professional development being delivered to ‘tick-off that something’s been done in that town’ (P5L221). Principals highlighted the need for training to be delivered in their rural contexts. They are interested in face-to-face (P4L127; P6L100-104) and noted online learning is useful (P2L269-274; P4L127; P6L100-104). However, P6 highlighted there are difficulties with online professional development because of unreliable internet

access (P6L100-104) in rural contexts. Principals' said they preferred development opportunities be offered in EPSA but noted this can still involve long distances and time spent travelling (P2L254-258). Travel to and from training in EPSA, can still be a six- to eight-hour round trip. Small schools only had one, two or three leaders when the principal is off-site attending training. P2 noted, school staff needed support in the form of a TRT, when P2 is attending professional development, in the event that 'things go pear shaped' (P2L259-261).

Interpersonal – tool 6

Two themes were allocated to the interview data from *Column 6 Interpersonal* of the six interviews; the sixth tool theorising rural educational leadership. Theme one highlighted the *skill set* that principals identified were important to the role and theme two highlighted the *dispositions* principals identified as important to the role.

Skill set and dispositions

Rural principals articulated skills and dispositions that they believed to be important to the role (see Figure 28). These included skills and dispositions such as 'have initiative' (P1L37-38), develop teachers (P2L12), and take opportunities (P4L85-86). As well as skills and dispositions that are in addition to that required of the non-rural principal, in part, due to community judgements of the principal, that included 'stay sober' (P3L212-217), be sporty (P3L212-217), be an advocate (P6L526-530) for rurality.

Figure 28 Skill sets and dispositions required of rural principals using – tool 6

Skill set			
Be a go getter (P1L37-38)	Do a good job (P1L39)	Be supportive (P6L16-19)	Manage rurality (P3L90)
Have initiative (P1L37-38)	Try your best (P1L39)	Be a trainer (P2L12)	Manage staff (P2L12;P5L336-340;P6L336-340)
Develop teachers (P2L12)	Become part of the community	Be level headed (P1L37-38)	Manage change (P4L15)
	Plan ahead	Be sporty (P3L212-217)	Manage finances (P2L49-53;P6L222)
Network (P2L101-102;P6L346-351)	Do administration (P2L138)	Be strategic (P2L196)	Manage loneliness (P4L156)
Stay sober (P3L212-217)	Lead change (P2L14)	Be organised (P2L203)	Manage travel (P6L222-223)
Volunteer for Professional Education Association (P6L74)	Take opportunities (P4L85-86)	Be creative (P2L15-16;P6L346-351)	Manage PD-T&D (P2L12;P6L441-446)
		Be innovative (P2L15-16)	
		Be courageous (P6L36-40)	
		Be motivated (P6L51-54)	
		Be committed (P6L55)	
		Be an advocate (P6L526-530)	
Dispositions			
Want to make a difference (P1L41)	Be able to relate to everyone (P1L52;P6L74)	Be respectful	
Enjoy isolation (P3L180)	Be transparent in communication (P1L185-186)	Be proactive (P4L52)	
Enjoy rurality (P3L12)	Be compassionate (P1L27;P4L111)	Be serious (P3L89)	
Have credibility (P1L52)	Be an introvert (P3L211)	Be passionate (P4L9)	
Have confidence (P1L43;P6L36-40)	Be self-directed (P5L104)	Be empathetic (P5L336-340;P6L346-351)	
Have good values (P1L185-186)	Be honest	Be clear headed (P3L121)	
	Be trustworthy (P1L53-55)	Be a learner (P6L291-297)	

Research and data – tool 8

Table 66 offers data from *Column 8 Research and Data* of the six interviews; the eighth tool theorising rural educational leadership. Three themes were allocated to the information. Theme one, highlighted *research*, and showed principals used research to inform how they enacted their role. Theme two, focussed on *data*, and showed principals used data while enacting the role. Theme three illustrated where principals used educational leadership *techniques*.

Table 66 From Tool 8: Research and data from P1 to P6 interview transcript excerpts

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Principal (P)	Interview transcript excerpts with line number/s (L)	Code/s	Theme/s
P1	L28 We're a category 2 school so high underprivileged, high unemployment, single parent	Socio-demographic data	Data
P2	L68 One of the presenters was - he's the man that's been coordinating and leading The Australian Principals' Wellbeing Survey - You know that one?	Principal wellbeing	Research
	L70 You looked at that data? [Riley wellbeing data]	Principal wellbeing	Data
	L72-80 Yes, he presented at that conference and that was fascinating He reaffirmed for me the importance of being really careful about how much time you spend on the job Because he was talking about the hours worked by principals and the impact	Principal wellbeing	Research
	L 72-80 Riley posed the question to the group, 'What do you think could help principals with their workload?' Someone in the room said, 'Maybe we need more holiday time. To recuperate from the stresses workload etc' He said, 'Rather than more holidays I'd like to see principals finish work earlier in the day and go home to their families.'	Principal wellbeing	Research
	L72-80 Because one of the big bits of data he had was about family breakdown for Principals and how many young principals are remaining single, possibly because they're having difficult establishing relationships in the first place because of their workload	Principal work-life balance	Research
	L72-80 I'm always being mindful to keep family a priority but that just emphasised it for me; That it is backed by research as well		Research
	L83-85 His data clarified that in Australia, the female leaders are more at risk, for certain. With mental health impacts etc He said that's highly likely to be because of their other workloads. I'm very fortunate in that I have a very wonderful partner who has always shared all of those kinds of roles so it never put all that much pressure on me		Research
	L88 Mentoring	Mentoring	Technique
P3	L56 There are a couple of mentors through the Department	mentors	Technique
P4	L 39, 102 Mentor teachers L 39, 48, 80, 92 Receive mentoring	Mentoring Being mentored	Technique
	L 48, 80, 127 leadership coach	Being coached	Technique
	L 75-76 We're a category 3 school. I've got a low socio-economic factor in my school	Socio-demographic data	Data
	L 105 our results are not where we'd like them to be but they are improving	Learning data	Data
	L 130 work-life balance	work-life balance	Research
	L 146-147 I'm just intrigued to know why it's even become a topic	This thesis	Research
	L182 Our literacy and numeracy results are lower	Learning data	Data

Research, data and techniques

The Department required rural principals to fulfil the role with respect to research and data. Principals used data in their roles (P1L28; P2L70; P4L75-76). P1 and P4 referenced data that highlighted to them, the complexities inherent to the communities in which they work. Complexities related to socio-demographic

data that showed principals they worked in schools in which students are characterised as having low socio-economic status (P1L28; P4L75-76). P4 referenced data that highlighted the literacy and numeracy learning levels of students in the school were low (P4L105) compared with Australian standards (P4L182). P2 referenced research and data (Riley, 2018) that highlighted the poor well-being of principal across Australia (P2L68). P2 noted that Riley's research showed female principals are more 'at-risk' of mental health impacts while in the role, when compared with males (P2L83-85). P2 is the only principal who referenced gender (P2L83-85). Yet research highlights the role of the rural principals is different for woman and men (Klocko & Justis, 2019; Pendola & Fuller, 2018; Kruse & Krumm, 2016).

Principals used leadership techniques in their work. Principals referenced mentoring (P2L88), highlighted they mentor staff (P3L56; P4L102), and noted they are being mentored (P3L56; P492) and coached (P4L48) by others. Research notes the positive impact of mentoring and coaching, as education leadership techniques (Thessin, 2019; Klar, Huggins, Andreoli & Buskey, 2019; Duncan & Stock, 2010). Principals did not reference the research connected with the educational leadership techniques that implemented while in the role. Do principals know about the research that shows these educational leadership techniques make a difference to leadership, teaching and learning?

6-meta-impacts – tool 9

Table 67 offers data from *Column 9 6-meta-impacts* of the six interviews; the ninth tool theorising rural educational leadership.

Table 67 From Tool 9: 6-meta-impacts from P1 to P6 interview transcript excerpts

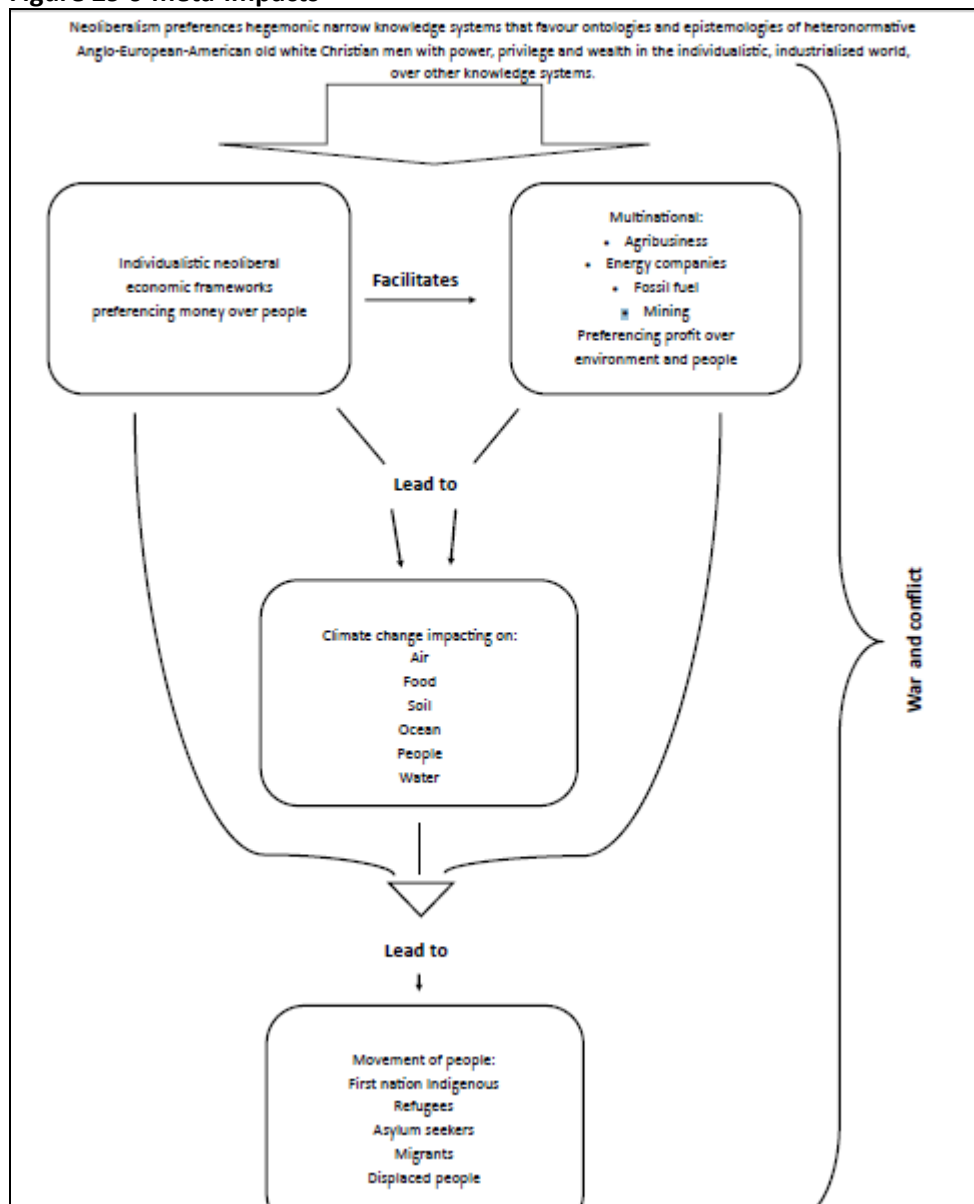
Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Principal (P)	Interview transcript excerpts with line number/s (L)	Code/s	Theme/s
P1	No comments identified through analytic work	-	-
P2	No comments identified through analytic work	-	-
P3	No comments identified through analytic work	-	-
P4	No comments identified through analytic work	-	-
P5	No comments identified through analytic work	-	-
P6	L447-452 I think that our employers don't trust their employees enough at the moment That's why we've gone to this huge accountability framework People don't trust they've got to have accountability gone wild And unfortunately, that takes time and energy away from the things that really count and matter I'd say trust your employees a little bit more to be professional in their own right and to fulfil their own professional development needs Don't impose things on them that they can't see any relevance to	Lack of trust Over accountability Impact on 'real' job	Neoliberal accountability

The 6-meta-impacts are reoffered (see Figure 29). Data in Table 67 clearly shows that principals P1 through P5 made no comments about the 6-meta-impacts identified in the theorising of rural educational leadership. P6 is one of the older and more experienced educators, and rural educational leaders. P6 was the only principal who offered reflections about the impact of neoliberal systems on the role, without directly using the term. P6 commented on the impact of neoliberal systems on the role, with reference to the Department enacting policy and process resulting in 'accountability gone wild' (P6L447-452). P6 attributed acute levels of his/her accountability to the Department as symbolic of the Department lacking trust in their principals (P6L447-452).

Due to the lack of data in Table 67, the CCM of analysis, empowered a return to the interview transcripts to find a principal's reference to the 6-meta-impacts. Principals did not discuss the impacts of neoliberal policy, climate change, multinationals, the movement of people, or conflict and war. While principals

discussed the impact of lack of funding (P1L117; P2L219; P3L315; P5L83-87; P6L186-212) principals did not discuss the impact of neoliberal policies, from a systematic perspective. This thesis recommends, future research investigate the degree to which rural principals understand the links between their local rural contexts in which they work, and their understanding of the impact global systems have on rural communities and schools.

Figure 29 6-meta-impacts



Results of analysis

The following section aligns the results of the analysis of the data sets relating to the context on EPSA and the analysis of interview transcripts. Results attributable to tool three - *culture* - highlighted principals made little (P3, P4, P5, P6) or no (P1, P2) reference to the impact of Indigenous Australian culture, community and students on their role as rural principal. Yet data (Table 50 Columns 12-15) have shown there were above average numbers of Indigenous Australian community members, and Indigenous Australian student enrolments, in the communities and schools in which principals' in EPSA work. Are the principals who did not mention Indigenous Australia (P1, P2), unaware of the ways in which significant numbers of Indigenous Australian community members, and student enrolments impact their role? Does a principal's lack of reference to the impact from Indigenous Australia, reflect principals normalising the impact Indigenous Australian culture has on their role? Is it the case that significant numbers of Indigenous Australian community members and student enrolments have become normalised to the role, and is therefore not worthy of noting?

Results showed that Indigenous Australian culture impacted the role. P4 and P5 reported, once they engaged with the Indigenous Australian community, they engaged with the community deeply, and for many years. They enjoyed the work. However, principals highlighted deficits. This doctoral thesis recognises these deficits in order to work towards addressing ways in which significant numbers of Indigenous Australian community members and student enrolments impact the role of rural principal. This thesis advocates future research must occur with a purpose; to continue to improve education in ways that Indigenous Australian communities recommend benefit Indigenous Australian students. What is worthy of note for this project, is that principals made little reference to this impact. Is this due to the interview questions not focusing on this issue? The semi-structured nature of the interviews allowed principals to talk about any matter. If principals' lack of differentiation for Indigenous Australian community and students is due to either ignorance of the impact, or due to the normalising of the impact, it can be claimed, this is colonisation in another form. The situation in which Indigenous Australian people find themselves is different across a range of socio-demographic indicators that are highlighted year in year out in the annual

Closing the Gap reports (Commonwealth of Australia, 2020). Where principals ignore the inequity - or normalise the inequity - in the educational context, this requires challenge.

Results highlight the need for future research about the ways in which significant numbers of Indigenous Australian community members and student enrolments impact the role of rural principal. Revisioning theories of rurality, and rural educational leadership, show the importance of Indigenous Australian culture. That there is a deficit of information from rural school principals in EPSA, highlights the need to redress this, focus on this in future research, and engage in the process of altering educational systems to re-dress the needs of rural education in order to better support the education of Indigenous Australian communities and students. And better support rural school principals who lead schools in which there are significant numbers of Indigenous Australian student enrolments.

Rurality is a concept that defines a context in which rural principals live and work. Results of analysis attributable to tool two, *context*, highlighted that while three principals (P1; P3; P5) talked about the context in which they live and work, they did not talk about a model through which they think about context. Does the lack of a model through which to think about 'context', impact their ability to advocate for their context? Without clarity of a concept of context, are principals disempowered to discuss the nuances of the rural contexts in which they live and work? Could it be that without time, and energy to commit to the intellectual work required to determine what it is that is meant by [rural] 'context', rural principals remain trapped in non-rural centric models, unarmed with information to counter arguments that suggest the work of the school principals in the rural context is the same work as that of the school principals in non-rural contexts?

Results of analysis attributable to tool 1, *community*, impacted the role of the rural principal. Results highlighted that principals enacted the role twenty-four hours per day, seven days a week, knowing they were being constantly judged, by a range of community members. Community scrutinised principals everywhere they went, about everything they said and how they said it, everything they did, and even what

they wore, both inside, and outside, the school fence. Results indicated, principals not only accepted constant scrutiny from whole-of-community as integral to the role, but principals were respectful of the constant high-level surveillance. It appears principals do not regard this demand as either a positive or negative aspect of rurality, instead, it is simply an aspect of the role. Principals reported they not only deliberately attended to the expectations of rural communities, but went out of their way to ensure community saw them behaving and speaking in ways that accommodated community expectations. Results showed, principals reflected upon the pressures under which colleagues working more remote than them self must endure. No matter the geolocation of the interviewee, they empathised with colleagues who lived and worked under the spotlight of community surveillance, even more acute than themselves.

Results showed that principals required high level social- and emotional- intelligence, to work out very quickly, what the unspoken rules, expectations and tasks were, that the rural community demanded of their local rural principal. It appears that the ability of the principal to learn, understand, negotiate and enact the unwritten and unspoken expectations that rural community members have of them, determined their success in the role. Principals also had to negotiate community gossip, to which principals could not respond (P3L25-28) but instead had to be strong enough in character to cope with community backlash and community gossip. This was particularly relevant to rural principals, when they made decisions with which community members did not agree. By contrast, in the non-rural setting, principals can make difficult decisions and leave their school contexts, drive to neighbouring suburbs in which they live, and remain incognito. Whereas rural school principals cannot escape the role, cannot be anonymous, and cannot live separate from students and community. For the rural principal, there was no break from constant community surveillance and judgement as the principal.

Results highlighted it was important that principals were involved in the local community outside of the formal role, and showed an interest in community. Important to the role, seems to be the perception community members have of the rural principal, but also the principals' commitment to the rural school, the rural town, the rural way of life, and rural identity. Where people approve of the principal's

commitment to their community, they are more likely to work with the principal and support them in their work. That the rural principal has to link with community outside the school gate, adds complexity, and a time commitment to the role, that is due to working in small isolated rural communities.

Results showed that living under a social microscope (P6L470-475), being hyper-vigilant about how they presented to community and being constantly judged, impacted negatively on principals' well-being. Riley's work (2011-2019) confirmed a myriad of ways in which principals' well-being is at risk. However, this research showed that the health and well-being of principals in rural contexts, is at higher risk than principals in non-rural contexts, for there are additional elements of the role that impacted the principals. These included having no personal life in which the interviewee was *not* the rural principal. Results showed the principals, can neither disconnect from the role, nor have personal relationships with community members. As a consequence, it appears it is important the rural principal build relationships - not friendships. Principals reported being alone and lonely, in ways that are in addition to-, and different from-, the non-rural principal.

The analysis of the results attributable to tool four, *elements of the role*, showed that demands from community, determined elements of the role of the rural principal, over which the rural principal had no control. These elements determined *what* the principal must do such as the tasks they undertake including snake handling. But also, the *ways* in which principals must enact the tasks, while on duty twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. Results highlighted the work the rural principal enacted was due to demands from rural staff, rural students, non-rural based Department requirements, and members of the rural community. Results showed it is important to rural community that rural principals became community members, and melded their professional life and personal life, into one. In small, rural communities, the lines between professional and personal become blurred. The life of a rural principal is one of a rural community member. Is it possible to appropriately compensate a principal for giving up their private life for the role?

Results revealed the impact on personal life of professional responsibilities. Principals understood, to have success in the role, they must acknowledge, identify, accept and be complicit with the additional, unwritten, demands and expectations, of the rural community in which they lived and worked. Results highlighted that for a rural principal, being constantly on duty, and under constant community surveillance, created a stressful existence in which principals' well-being and family life suffered. At times, this level of familiarity with community, compromised the safety and well-being, of the principal and their family. Results highlighted that principals deliberately created a work-life balance that was transparent to their own family, their staff and community.

Principals shared the ways in which individuals and the system supported them into the role, and the ways in which principals made personal decisions to engage in career moves that supported them to achieve the role - and stay in the role. Results highlighted there are opportunities in rural contexts that supported people into the role of rural principal, more quickly than would otherwise occur in non-rural contexts. Principals noted, connections with other principals via the Department partnership had a positive impact in keeping them in their role. Principals also noted, they gained knowledge about principal-ship through undertaking roles and observing principals with whom they worked. Results highlighted that ongoing relationships with colleagues who similarly are rural principals was important to continued success as a rural principal, as was ongoing connection with professional development. Of note, principals felt a moral obligation to remain rural, to address the educational needs of the rural community.

These results demonstrate how the rural context added elements to the role in addition to that of the non-rural principal. There were difficulties associated with navigating non-rural-centric-funding and Departmental processes that require alteration in order to work in rural contexts. As well as navigating inequities that leave rural schools bereft of resourcing in line with their non-rural counterparts. Other elements included difficulties with access to professional development, travel and staffing. Results highlighted, rural principals are not just looking for teaching staff, but are looking to engage *quality* teaching staff.

Analysis revealed the employer (tool 5) impacted the rural principal and highlighted the use of what appears to be an 'echo-chamber' model of placement of contenders into the role of rural educational leadership. It appears rural principals gave educational leadership opportunities to staff by using Departmental processes to choose who was promoted into leadership. This thesis calls for future research to investigate what it is that current rural educational leaders look for in future rural educational leaders. Are current principals engaged in succession planning, with the view to replicating current models of rural educational leadership they interpret as successful, based on the current models, assumptions and thinking? Are current rural principals looking at and for staff who can replace themselves? Do systematic features in the Department require current rural principals to maintain, and replicate the status quo? Indeed, is the current method of succession planning unwritten Departmental process? There is no evidence that indicates either principals or the Department are engaged in rural educational leadership succession planning with reference to current contemporary research, validated through the multiple blind peer reviewed evidenced based research process. Further, results showed no principal referenced that the Department required them to fulfil the role of rural principal with reference to formal documentation such as the *AITSL Principals Standards*, or the *Department Job and Person Specifications*. Yet the employer used these documents, and the processes that are related to these documents, when employing the rural principals and when managing the rural principals. Are those systems relevant in rural contexts?

Rural principals found formal professional development, training and development (PD-T&D) (tool 7), delivered by formal institutions such as universities had a positive impact on their role. This has been found to be the case in the research (Eacott, 2013). Despite the isolation, rural principals were keen and interested to access development and found innovative ways to engage with a range of professional training. Principals also engaged in informal training, delivered at informal events by informal institutions and what appeared to be small amounts of programmatic professional development, delivered by the Department. Principals were discerning about the quality of that development, and found training hosted by the Department to be wanting.

Analysis highlighted inequity regarding access to professional development for rural principals and school staff, when compared with non-rural colleagues. Results showed rural principals and staff missed out on training that is held in Adelaide, after school. Principals are keen for them self and their staff to access professional development, and called for development opportunities to be delivered to them, in their local rural contexts. Principals were judging the quality of the delivery and content of professional development offered to their staff. Principals managed a range of logistical elements, to ensure they and their staff accessed a range of training, independent of the Department. The management of these logistics highlighted that principals are serious about staff access to quality professional development, in spite of the shortfall in funding delivered to them through the Department funding models. Of note, staff risked their lives and family unity, because of the travel required in order to access training. A worry for a rural school principal, not carried by non-rural colleagues, is the worry about their staff who have to travel long distance to and from professional development, and the risk of staff having a fatal accident on the dangerous country roads.

Principals sourced professional development. This thesis suggests this is a risk to the Department. Where rural principals engaged themselves and their staff in training – online or otherwise – there is a risk to the Department, when the content of the development does not marry with the Department’s policy direction. Where the Department continues to not provide adequate funding, not provide the required logistical support to rural principals, and does not seek to address equity for rural principals, these principals no doubt, will continue to find their own ways to access the professional development they believe is required of them self and their staff. Where shortfalls in service from the Department facilitate the rural principals choosing the training for themselves and their staff, the principals and staff will continue to access knowledge they can use to challenge Departmental policy direction. This provides a different, and arguable healthy, risk to the Department. Principals used their own money, time, and resources (car and accommodation), in addition to their workload, to access professional development that supported them to develop in the role. This highlighted the generosity of the principals. However, this also highlighted the impact of the neoliberal capitalist system on rural principals. Is there articulation to the Department, from

rural principals, of the problems, the inequity, logistics, and personal cost to themselves due to the role? Is this another example that highlights rural principals keep quiet, and pay (time, travel, safety, accommodation) for their own development, in order to retain their role?

There can no longer be a one-size-fits-all approach to professional development. This thesis argues, such an approach cannot work for rural principals, where the cohort consists of a mixture of principals, some of whom are young, some who are new to the role, and some who are experienced. This thesis argues, it is not equitable to deliver the same training for rural principals who are at different stages of their principal career, in different types-of-schools, and in different geolocations.

Review of the data attributable to tool seven, *interpersonal*, highlighted that principals identified skills and dispositions that empowered them to be successful in the role. Principals also identified skills and dispositions they were forced to develop, to simultaneously meet the demands of the non-rural based employer, and rural community. It appears principals are not in a position to question, but rather, appeared to accept the expectations others have of them and, ensured they developed the skills and dispositions required to meet the expectations of both the employer, and community.

The system of employment does not empower principals to engage in respectful, meaningful dialogue with either the non-rural based Department, or the local rural community. Dialogue that could lead to co-creating ways in which rural principals can identify and then develop the skills and dispositions they require, to lead the rural schools into an uncertain future. Results showed, that while principals articulated the skills and dispositions required, to ensure they are empowered to meet the demands of the rural community and the Department, not one principal questioned their skills and dispositions to fulfil the demands of the job. Instead, it appears these principals have complete self-belief in their ability to fulfil the role. Does isolation and alone-ness in the role create this self-belief and what could appear to be lack of self-reflection and self-reflexivity?

Principals noted they developed skills related to enjoying training teachers, enjoying being creative, innovative, and managing change. No doubt, these elements of the role are 'enjoyable' because they keep the job interesting. However, it would appear it is required that the rural principal enjoy enacting these skills, for without them, the principal cannot enact the role of the rural principal. For example, the rural principal cannot develop teachers, while receiving inequitable amounts of funding when compared with non-rural principals. It would appear the system perpetuates a myth. The myth is that principals enjoy being 'creative' (P2L15-16; P6L346-351), 'innovative' (P2L15-16), having 'initiative' (P1L37-38), being 'strategic', (P2L196) and 'planning ahead'. This thesis asks are these euphemisms for, 'rural principals do not receive adequate amounts of funding, but cannot complain so they reframe the lack of funding as an enjoyable hurdle in order to retain employment?' There is opportunity to research how much time rural principals invest in being 'creative' to ensure they fulfil the role, while not being adequately resourced to do so. Examination highlighted that rural principals required skills that empowered them to learn how systems work. This empowered principals to work within the systems, to ensure tasks were achieved that rural communities required, while the Department did not adequately resource rural schools to address the needs of schools in rural contexts. The rural principal must enact what this thesis proposes to be *entrepreneurial educational leadership*; a theory of educational leadership the author will progress through future research.

One of the dispositions of the rural principal is to be resigned to the ways in which the system works evidenced by P3 'It's not terrible. It's just the way it is.' (P3L90). It appears principals are resigned to their fate; a fate that required them to develop skills and dispositions and fulfil the role in ways that met the expectations of rural communities and the Department – without principals offering a challenge to the rural community and Department. Instead, principals appeared to replicate the model of rural principal-ship that had become normal; a model that is not to be questioned. Principals shared that people are 'tapped' for the role of rural principal, whereby those who 'tap' you then mentor you, supporting you to follow the 'norm' and fulfil the role as it has been filled. Part of the model of the 'norm' for the rural principal, is to 'follow the norm'; to not think and question the system that perpetuated the norm. This appears to result

in rural principals who do not blame Department policies and systems for the difficulties they faced in rural contexts. Rather, rural principals simply indicated where problems occurred for them while in the role, and noted ways in which they were 'creative' in order to address the inequities.

When 'tapping' people for the role of the rural principal, are those who 'tap', perpetuating status quo. Is it the case that principals are assuming the way they enacted the role, and therefore the way the next generation will enact the role, is the way in which the role needs to be enacted? By 'tapping' the next generation of school leaders, are principals upholding the skills and dispositions they have, the skills and dispositions they value, and are they presuming these are the skills and dispositions that future rural principals will be required to replicate? There is opportunity to research the ways in which rural principals' question the ways in which they enact the role. Have rural principals the strength to challenge themselves about the ways in which they and the next generation might enact the role? Are current principals in a position to support the next generation of rural principals to enact the role in ways that are more fluid and responsive to the needs of ruralities in the future? Is the professional development offered to the next generation of rural educational leaders, developing the skills and dispositions required of them, to enact the role in ways that empower them to support learning in the community that meets the needs of the future rural communities? Rural principals appeared to enact a process whereby current principals identify future educational leaders and encourage people to apply for leadership where this informal process of 'tapping' people for the role creates educational leaders who believe they are confident, valued, trusted, successful, natural leaders, who are not empowered to question the system and processes that enabled them to achieve the role, fast tracking the advancement of young, ambitious, inexperienced rural teachers into rural educational leadership. While the Department has power and control over the formal systems that employ people for the role of rural principal, it is the principals working through informal and formal processes that empower the next generation into leadership. I argue for co-construction of processes whereby the Department and rural educational leaders work together, and create formal processes that support *research informed* succession planning processes, bespoke to the role of *rural* principal.

Data sets attributable to tool eight, *research and data*, showed principals made little reference to research and data during interviews. Yet Department policy instructed principals to use research and data to inform leadership, teaching, and learning. Notably, principals reported they are working in roles in which they claimed there is not time to attend to the day-to-day tasks. It appears there is certainly no time left for principals to source and explore, research and data. This highlights a tension between the Department assumption that principals will enact leadership and lead teaching, with reference to research and data, and the role the Department determines people must enact that leaves principals time-poor and unable to ponder the research and data. Does the Department describe the expectations of those in the role of the principal to the degree, that principals are prevented from having time to reflect and think about the research? With the result, that principals cannot assess the research and use the research to question the demands made by the Department; demands that research can show are detrimental to education. For as results of the investigation showed, the only research referenced by a principal was P2, who cited Riley. But this research was presented to her/him during a meeting held by [A Professional Education Association]. It was neither research sourced by the principal her/himself, nor researched offered by the Department.

Examination of the results attributable to tool 9, *6-meta-impacts*, showed only one principal, P6, questioned the impost of neoliberal thinking (P6L447-452). This occurred when P6 questioned the Department for their 'accountability gone mad' (P6L447-452). S/he questioned this, while attending to the demands from the Department, and while engaged in work that supported the standardised, accountability frameworks. P6 questioned the demands placed upon principals that resulted in additional workload, related to use of data used to inform the Department, about the accountability of the principal. S/he noted that this work took time away from 'running the school'. Yet s/he simultaneously valued the data that attested to the levels of literacy, numeracy and well-being, of students. Principals valued data related to learning and wellbeing of students, while not valuing data the Department seek, used to determine principals' accountability to the role. Can principals question the Department's surveillance, and retain their employment?

Conclusion

Section Three offered results of analysis of interviews with rural school principals who work in EPSA, that contribute to an understanding of rurality in EPSA. Section Three also offered results of analysis of the transcripts of interviews conducted with six rural principals in EPSA, with respect to the 6-meta-impacts connected with theorising rurality (Section One), and the nine tools connected with theorising rural educational leadership (Section Two).

The six principals interviewed for this research project, offered a representative sample of the diversity captured by the data and contextual information. Male and female principals were interviewed and collectively, have experience to comment on the role of rural principal in different types-of-schools including those with significant numbers of enrolments of Indigenous students (ASs), students with disabilities (SSs) as well as AreaS, JPS, PSs and HSs. Collectively, they had experience as rural principals in different geolocations, outer-regional, remote and very-remote. They also work in schools that are based in regional-towns or is the 'Only' school in town. The principals led different sized schools, schools with different numbers of student enrolments, teaching staff and non-teaching staff. Principals interviewed also work in schools from the most advantaged to the least advantaged and worked in schools with a differing range of cultural diversity.

This research shows the levels of vulnerability, and socio-economic advantage or disadvantage in EPSA was different for different rural schools and communities, and different when compared to non-rural contexts. It also showed there are a range of tasks rural principals enacted that are directly attributable to the rural context and rural schools in which they lived and worked. Geolocation impacted the isolation of rural principals in EPSA. Principals are isolated because they are the 'Only' principal in a township, or they are the only principal of that 'type-of-school'. The investigation of the geolocation of schools highlighted the long distances between principals, time required to travel the distances, and dangers associated with driving. There are also financial costs of travelling and the cost to the environment in carbon emissions. This can result in principals choosing to not travel and meet, leading to more isolation, and lack of access to

professional development. Further, principals lived and worked in towns that have small populations wherein the population of each rural town in EPSA is different from another town. This research shows geolocation and resultant isolation impact rural principals in different ways. Of note, the impact cannot be generalised for a rural principal in EPSA.

That Australian rural principal's experience geographic- and professional-isolation is supported by research (Parson & Hunter, 2019; Klocko & Justis, 2019; Graham & Miller, 2015). Yet research shows it is important principals connect with their peers through mentoring and coaching (Thessin, 2019; Klar, Huggins, Andreoli & Buskey, 2019; Owusu, Kalipeni, Awortwi & Kiiru, 2017; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Duncan & Stock, 2010).

There is not scope within this thesis to focus on the impact of isolation on principals however, it is important that future research focuses on this area. For now, this research reveals that context, geolocation and resultant isolation for rural principals, impact the role of the rural principal, and inform the theorising of rural educational leadership.

This research shows the important of recognising that rural principals have links with the community that are key to their success in the community and in the role. Rural and non-rural principals can be lonely, but the rural principal, is always surrounded by community. The behaviours of the rural principal need to be more guarded than the non-rural principal but the rural principal is more likely to have closer relationships with those in the rural community. Rural principals have close relationships with families, employers, and closer relationships with people in religious organisations, government and NGOs that support vulnerable families. The ease with which rural principals can connect with these additional supports creates a safety net for rural families that, it could be argued, is more difficult for principals to achieve in non-rural contexts. The closer links between the rural principal and the manager of a local rural NGO that offers community support can be due, for example, to the rural principal coaching the sports team in which the NGO managers' child is a member.

The current model of succession planning for rural principals confirms that the current rural principal chooses which staff go on to 'win' the rural educational leadership roles, where these leadership roles, lead to rural principal-ship. This process sees current principals groom others for the role. The process also sees current principals identify future principals where the staff member exhibits similar skills and dispositions to current rural principals. This reaffirms that the ways in which rural principals currently work, are not only effective, but are to be replicated. Further, it was shown that principals used Departmental process to exclude 'outsiders' from applying for 'internally' advertised roles, supporting interviewees to 'win' leadership roles. When the role was then publically advertised, the incumbent - the interviewees for this thesis - had the experience to 'win' the role for competitive contracted tenure. This thesis argues rural principals require support that empowers them to develop thinking about the role, in order to challenge the current preference for the Fordist model that [re-]creates rural principals. This thesis also argues, the Department invest in research informed succession planning, employing people into rural educational leadership, with reference to 'expertise, not experience' (Brabazon, pers. com., 2020). This research also argues that rural principals require professional development that supports them develop skills and dispositions to meet the needs of rural communities into a future post-carbon, post-neoliberal-capitalism and post-nationalistic-borders.

Principals are not empowered to develop skills and dispositions that serve the needs of the particular rural communities and the Department. Rather, the principals fulfil the status quo. This research highlights that principals make sure they are seen by rural community and the Department, to be enacting the skills and dispositions the community and Department require of the principal. In neoliberal systems, it is the employer that has the power. It would appear this has created the role of rural school principal, wherein a principal cannot question the employer. I have yet to find research that shows high level surveillance by an employer over the principals' work, makes a positive and measurable difference to educational leadership, teaching, and student learning outcomes.

In neoliberal times, local rural communities are reliant on the global market and multinational oligarchy to purchase the products they mine, and the food and energy they produce in rural contexts. It appears it is the principal's role is to create staff who are compliant to Department needs, and educate children and young people in ways that meet minimum standards and maintain status quo. It would appear it is not the role of the rural principal to empower young people to question what is occurring in their local rural communities and question the impact global systems have on their local rural community. Are rural principals empowered to challenge the ways in which the Department and community demand they fulfil the role? Will their job be safe if they do so?

A risk to the Department is that rural schooling is led by principals who are not developing and being developed with reference to contemporary knowledge, research and data. While the Department demands principals enact the role with reference to research and data, results highlight that principals suggest, the role does not afford them time to do so. P4 expressed being intrigued at the nature of this PhD research topic (L146-147). Given the Department focus on principals referencing research and data to inform their work in the role, future research could investigate ways in which rural principals' access and use, research and data, while in the role.

This thesis argues the future of rural schooling requires rural principals be empowered to enact the role with reference to contemporary research. The pace of change to rural contexts is increasing in its rapidity. Increasingly, principals will be required to be abreast of contemporary thinking not just about education and rural educational leadership but also about rurality. Where the Department is insisting that principals access research and data as yet another of the tasks the principal must undertake, this thesis argues, principals need support and be given time and training to do so.

Principals adhere to both rural community expectations and the expectations of the non-rural Department. Therefore, rural principals are in positions where they must adhere to what can be competing views in regard to education. For to be successful and retain work, principals must enact behaviour to ensure

community see them adhering to the unwritten rules that rural communities hold about what it is the rural community expected from a rural principal. Simultaneously, the principal must adhere to the written (and unwritten) rules of the Department about what it is principals must achieve in accordance with the increasingly neoliberal, standardised work place. Principals continue to enact elements of the role without challenge to rural community assumptions and without challenge to Departmental assumptions, about the ways in which the role might otherwise be enacted. At what point, do rural principals break out of the echo chamber and advocate the role be determined by other expectations?

Department- and community-expectations do not empower principals to lead education in ways that challenge students, staff and community, in ways that prepare them for the harsh realities of the future in rural contexts. A future impacted by climate change, by neoliberal capitalism and the demise of neoliberal capitalism, the impact of the movement of a rapidly increasing number of displaced people, the impact of increasing amounts of poisoned air, biodiversity, ecosystem, food, ocean, soil and water. Instead, this research shows, the rural contexts in which rural principals live and work, require principals to maintain the systems and expectations of local rural community, and non-rural based government education Department. This is resulting in current education systems perpetuating themselves, where, these systems are not accounting for the inherent nature of rurality, rural contexts and the needs for rural education.

This perpetuation of current education systems, is to the detriment of rural contexts, rural people, and education in rural contexts. This thesis argues the role of the rural principal is one that must lead the world as we enter a world that may well have to be a world post-carbon, post-capitalism, and post-borders. For arguably, it is in rural contexts that the impacts of climate change are felt the most acutely. It is in rural contexts that demise of both the quality and quantity of air, biodiversity, ecosystem, food, ocean, soil and water is first noticed. It is also, arguably, in rural contexts, that the impact of climate change, neoliberal capitalism, displacement of people, and armed conflict is most acutely felt. Further, it is the rural community that is most keenly impacted by the work of multinational agribusiness, mining and energy, as they enact their work and leave environmental devastation behind when they exit environments that are

no longer profitable. This thesis argues it is the rural principal that requires support, access to knowledge, to support rural communities into the future, as humanity faces an uncertain future across the globe.

The research in this chapter confirms that support for rural school principals, so they in turn can support and educate their rural communities is key to the future not only of rurality, and rural education, but of the globe. For we all need clean healthy systems for agriculture, air, biodiversity, community, displaced people, economy, energy production, environment, food, health, homes, Indigenous First Nations people, mining, schools, soil, spirituality and water with no conflict, disease and war. It is education that will support the planet into the future.

CONCLUSION

**The intersection of revisioned
theories of rurality and rural
educational leadership puts
rurality at the centre**

My research offers an original contribution to knowledge: a revisioning of theories of rurality (Section One). This work resulted in locating the 6-meta-impacts (see Figure 3) that I showed impacted rurality and developed as a model to revision rurality. My research also offered, as an original contribution to knowledge scaffolded on the Section One, a theory of rural educational leadership (Section Two), which is summarised under an umbrella (see Figure 16). I tested the theories of rurality and rural educational leadership against a range of contextual elements that defined my local context in EPSA, and against transcripts of interviews with rural principals who lived and worked in EPSA (Section Three). I conclude by highlighting ways in which the work in the three sections of my thesis impact one another, showing how the results of the 6-meta-impacts in ruralities influence rural educational leadership. I posit that the future requires rural educational leaders to support people manage contemporary ruralities as we grapple with the results of the 6-meta-impacts. For as the world moves into the future, rurality is influenced by the 6-meta-impacts and it is leadership in rural contexts that will be able to support rurality and non-rurality navigate the impacts.

I offered examples of revisioning theories of rurality showing the nation-state, through policies in areas such as climate change, economics, education, employment, transport, and health, perpetuated a system in which the wealthy have access to non-rural based advantages, when compared to those living in rurality. As the rural and the poor cannot access, for example adequate education, health treatment, and transport, there are rural poor who remain uneducated, sick and in rural contexts. This then makes it difficult for these people to participate in thinking and activism that empowers them to contest the inequity and contest the systems that perpetuate the inequity. In turn, the inability of the rural poor to challenge the system that locks them into a cycle of inequity, perpetuates a system in which poor, undereducated, unhealthy rural people cannot and do not react against the system that keeps them poor, undereducated and unhealthy rural people. This includes being unable to react against the multinational companies who own and control, among other assets, agriculture, air, aquaculture, borders, education, energy, forestry, gaols, manufacturing, mining, ocean, pharmaceuticals, ports, sanitation, soil, transport systems, water, and the security of the nation-state. Much of the work that government used to have over sight and control,

was outsourced to private companies during the shift to deregulated neoliberal capitalist systems through the 1970s and 1980s. This included outsourcing much of the social services work related to supporting people living in poverty, people who are homeless, have drug and alcohol addiction, suffer domestic violence, poor health outcomes, unemployed, are aged and have disabilities. With resources being targeted to people with reference to positivist data such as population, this has left rurality bereft of services. In parallel, and simultaneously, deregulation has empowered destruction of rural environments. This is the revised rurality in which the rural principal works.

Theorising rural educational leadership must be informed by the revisioning of rurality for it is in rurality that rural leaders operate. With reference to Couper's claim (2018, p. 3) noted in the beginning of my prologue, 'rural' and 'being rural' are inseparable; living in rural, places rural leaders in the unique and strong position to support rurality respond to the threats to humanity that results of the 6-meta-impacts pose to both rurality and non-rurality. I showed results from the 6-meta-impacts on rurality, impacted not only the broader rural community, including rural school staff and rural students, but also rural business and industry, and importantly, the rural environment. It is rural principals who are living and working in rural communities who are at the forefront of supporting communities that are negotiating the results these 6-meta-impacts. Therefore, rural principals require knowledge about theories of contemporary rurality, and how to use resultant knowledge and expertise to inform their work in education, and the broader rural community. Rural principals can lead changes to future education systems and lead rural schools and the rural communities in which rural schools are situated, into an increasingly uncertain future. Of concern, is that current theories of educational leadership do not account for the current realities of the rural contexts, yet I have shown, the two theorisations, necessarily, work hand-in-hand.

I have shown there is no 'one' rural context, instead, there is differentiation with respect to rurality. That is, ruralities are different from one another and different from non-rural. Rurality is more complex than binary models can allow. Similarly, the role of rural principal is contextualised to the rural context in which the rural principal lives and works. Differences between rural, remote, regional, country and non-rural weave

through the thesis. Yet policy positioning, such as the *Principals Standards* and the *Job and Person Specification* remain the same for rural and non-rural principals. Where rural and non-rural are treated equally, this does not offer equity. Inequities impact ruralities and the role of rural principal. Of concern, is that currently, this inequity is not formally recognised by the Department and yet it has been shown that when it comes to rurality and non-rurality, equal application of education policy and funding is not equitable. Further, rural principals noted the skills and knowledge they gained did not enable them to win a principal role in non-rural schools; that is, non-rural based decision makers assume knowledge gained from rural experiences do not translate to non-rural contexts. In addition, Department processes appeared to be non-rural-centric, and did not acknowledge elements of the role bespoke to the rural context. Whereas I have shown, the role of rural principal requires educational leadership skills, dispositions and engagement with tasks that are in addition to that required by principals working in non-rural contexts. Also, rural principals are often the only person in a position of leadership living and working in a rural town or community, working 24/7, under constant judgement, using social intelligence to identify and work with rural powerbrokers. Rural contexts are treated as remote from, unconnected with, and not related to non-rural contexts. However, I have shown, ruralities bear the environmental cost of the work of the commercialised global corporatisation of rurality, to benefit people who live in rural and non-rurality. In South Australia, the systems that underpin our current way of governing, are designed to favour those working in less than 1% of the state – the non-rural context. However, what I have shown, is that the consequences of the 6-meta-impacts, effect rurality and non-rurality alike.

The preferencing of the positivist and narrowing knowledge systems have been shown to impact rurality, rural education and rural educational leadership. Deregulated neoliberal economic systems have impacted rurality with no regard for their impact. I showed this occurs in rural agricultural contexts where people have been forced to become reliant on a multinational oligarchy that offers little in the way of diversity of seeds. In education, narrowing knowledge systems from a reliance on multinational oligarchies have impacted rural education, through commodification of curriculum. I have shown education products have been used to determine the success – or not – of schooling, through valuing positivist notions and, testing

regimes, the collection of learning data, and measuring the work of the rural school principal. However, it is the rural principal, who can enact rural educational leadership, to challenge and redress the preferencing of the narrow knowledge systems that I have shown, destroyed rurality and devalued knowledge of those in rural contexts. Deregulated neoliberal workplaces facilitate processes that systematise inequity. The rural principal can advocate that knowledge of rurality can shape rural schooling where education can be a catalyst to plan for and manage rurality for a future that must redress the results of the 6-meta-impacts. Rural principals require support that empowers them to do so; to support not just schools, but rural communities more broadly, to manage the results of the impacts of the 6-meta-elements. This includes supporting rural principals to support changes in education for Indigenous Australian culture, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people; the movement of people from different cultural groups into and out of the rural contexts. There will be an increasing need to support rural principals to do so, for global predications indicate that the displacement of people will continue to increase and the speed at which this increase is occurring will also increase. Further, it is critical rural principals know what is happening in rural community local business, industry and employment conditions for their local rural communities. For climate change, drought, fire, flood or a downturn in global demand for the products local families produce results in economic downturn that impacts parents, the employment of rural community members, family wages, family dynamics, poverty and health. What happens in rural community impacts on what happens at school, and the rural principal must be aware of- and navigate - the impacts.

At the intersection of the revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership, principals negotiate the links between the deficits of rurality and the deficits inherent in their role. Where principals identified elements of the role that were restricted by inequity, they offered platitudes such as 'we turn positives into negatives', 'it's not that it can't happen, it's just that it is more difficult and costly to make happen'. It appears that an important disposition that makes for a successful rurality and rural principal experience is 'accepting inequity'. I showed that rural principals work within systems of inequity that result in rural principals paying more for the same goods and services, when compared to their non-rural principal peers

and that rural students have less access to resources when compared to non-rural students. Under neoliberal systems, where numbers matter, rural students such as those with special needs, or who are gifted, are fewer in number and therefore do not attract funding to support their differentiated needs. Instead, rural principals learn not only to source resources, but they also learn to find better ways to access those resources. When rural principals meet with non-rural colleagues, the inequity faced by rural principals becomes clearer. With this knowledge, rural principals are then empowered to advocate for their students. The rural principals expressed their *modus operandi* was to focus on ways in which they can turn the negatives, into positives. It appears, the Department expectation is that principals will find solutions. However, it is a systems response, a response from governments and government Departments that is required to redress inequities faced by rurality, rural education and rural educational leaders. Under deregulated neoliberal frameworks, the 'normal' is for principals to enact more work to higher levels, with increased surveillance and less funding. The platitudes, it could be argued, are euphemisms for 'we do not challenge our employer'. Instead, we must find 'creative' ways to enact 'innovative' responses to address the inequity. Rural principals did not make value judgements about the work they had to enact in order to navigate obstacles that are due to inequity in rural contexts. This is work that is in addition to that of the non-rural principals. Instead, rural principals simply noted, they find ways to 'get on with the job'. The rural principal approach to navigating inequity is fuelled by neoliberal influences on the thinking of the principals. While navigating the deficit model of rurality, rural principals are not content with having staff, they are not content having access to professional development, they are not content with access to resources and services. Instead, they are looking for *quality* staff, *quality* professional development, *quality* resources and *quality* services. They are not content with simply 'making do'. This is a revised theory of rural educational leadership, for a mythology that typecasts rurality, is the 'making do' with whatever and whomever you can find. This is no longer the case. Rural principals, like non-rural principals, are looking for the best people for the job. Rurality, rural educational and rural educational leadership are no longer content with functioning in the deficit model that presumes support for frameworks devised for non-rural-centric models. It is policy and funding shifts that are required to attend to addressing inequity and improving rural schooling, not 'creativity' and 'innovative' work practices of rural principals. However, in

times of a labour surplus, in order to maintain their work and income, it is understandable principals do not voice discontent, frustration and their vision for equity for rurality, rural education and the role of the rural principal. The narrow knowledge systems maintain systems that keep the workers dependant on the system, no matter how unreasonable the request.

The future of the role of the rural principal is integrally aligned with the future of rurality. The future is one in which contemporary rurality and rural educational leadership, are changing. It is the nature of the change and the rate of change that require understanding. The ways in which the changes impact rurality, the role and the person fulfilling the role, will require the rural principal to access support, training and knowledge that will support them respond to the nature of the changes to the rurality and the role. The ways in which this will continue to play out, with respect to the 6-meta-impacts, is yet to be fully understood. As the world moves to a world that is post-carbon, post-neoliberal capitalism and post-fossil-fuels, rurality and the role of the rural principal will continue to change. It is important that rural leaders are well placed to support rural students and rural communities navigate the changes while continuing to live in rural contexts. Isolation impacts principals accessing divergent thinking about educational leadership and their ability to develop collegiate relationships with other education leaders. Conclusions highlight the need to understand contemporary rurality, the role of the rural principal and the intersection between the two. Substantial research is required, in order to determine if my findings are transferable to other rural contexts. For as this research project demonstrates, the role of the rural principal is integrally linked with the rural context in which they operate, and the rural community with which they are connected. The role of the rural principal is bespoke to and differentiated for a range of rural contexts in which rural principals live and work; I challenge assumptions that suggest non-rural centric models can apply equally to rural contexts.

In Australia, the 2019 liberal-national coalition government was seen on the international stage at the UN Climate Change talks to deny the impacts of climate change and deny any responsibility Australia might have to address Australia's reliance on fossil fuels for economic gain. Communities in EPSA face the impacts

of climate change, particularly in relation to agricultural, aquacultural, mining and energy production industries. The people in EPSA see the impacts of climate change, yet this does not translate to the work linked to the role of the rural principal. The link between the 6-meta-impacts and the role of the rural principals is particularly worth questioning in 2020, for as the year progressed, financial institutions, universities, insurance companies and superannuation (pension fund managers) divested from investments in fossil fuels. During the Australian summer of 2019/2020 there were unprecedented fires, flooding and hail. We are seeing results of the 6-meta-impacts in EPSA, and it is the rural principals who can support rural communities negotiate the impacts of climate change, multinational agribusiness mining and energy production, with increased numbers of displaced people and increased instances of conflict.

Rurality has been revisioned to reflect the reality of contemporary rurality, through the creation of the model that articulates the 6-meta-impacts. It is these elements that impact rurality, and in turn impact the role of the rural educational leader. Rural educational leadership has been theorised. It is the leaders in the revisioned rurality that will have an important role to play, leading the world, from their position in rurality, into an uncertain future. Rurality and rural educational leaders are integrally linked and work together. How the intersection will occur into an uncertain future is yet to play out. What is certain, is that rurality will continue to change at an increasing speed and the world requires rural leaders ready to educate those in rurality and non-rurality about the contemporary realities in rurality, in order to navigate what the future holds. And increasingly, navigating the 6-meta-impacts requires responses from the centre – rurality.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following is a summary list of recommendations made throughout the thesis. I recommend:

- Ongoing co-creation of revisioning rurality by scholars, organisations and government, wherein it is acknowledged that this work requires working towards agreement about theories of rurality, and agreement about the ways in which to theorise ruralities both across- and within- organisations at the global level.
- That research contributing to theorising rurality, overtly reference the philosophical underpinnings of the sources referenced. Determining and articulating the philosophical underpinnings, used to create substantive theories of rurality, of the organisation creating theories, of the data itself, and the ways in which the data was collected, of the research and the ways in which the research was conducted, of the policy positioning informing the theorising and the impact of funding allocation.
- The OECD prioritise funding for rural contexts as the majority of OECD land and people is rural.
- That knowledge from both qualitative and quantitative data contribute to theorising rurality.
- That theories of rurality and rural educational leadership reference knowledge systems of the Indigenous peoples; that revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership requires inclusion of – indeed preferencing of – the ontological and epistemological perspective of Indigenous people and it is important to be cognizant of the impact of non-Indigenous ontologies, epistemologies and resultant inequities as they relate to Indigenous peoples.
- Ongoing investment in data collection, research, policy creation and application of knowledge, as well as funding, in relation to rurality and rural educational leadership, for it is only through such work, that there is opportunity to better understand ways to maintain the systems that support the

humans care who for the natural rural elements that allow for continued exploitation and commodification of the natural rural assets into commercial rural assets.

- The model of the 6-meta-impacts as a way to support ongoing revisioning rurality. I recommend the model be used to critique and challenge substantive theories of rurality and theorising of rurality. And I recommend revisioning rurality and rural educational leadership through the lens of a world that is post-narrow-knowledge-systems, post-neoliberal-capitalism, post-multinational oligarchy, post-carbon, post-border controls and post-war. Where the world urgently manages the *movement of people* who will continue to move across nation-state borders in increasing numbers as they seek clean, healthy, life sustaining, air, water and food.
- Consideration be given to research that finds ways to place commercial monetary value on elements of rurality (commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, humans in rurality and human systems in rurality) including when costing policy positions. This is in part to determine the value of rurality and the costs to rurality of the activities that occur in rurality. The work includes research from the positivist perspective in order to improve calculation of the commercial value of the elements of rurality (rural assets, natural rural elements, humans in rurality and human systems that sustain and support people living in rurality); for it is only when these elements are valued through the same epistemological framework (at the moment neoliberal capitalism) that they can be traded like-for-like. I recommend that attributing to goods, products and services that are purchased, the inclusion of the cost to the elements of rurality (rural assets, natural rural elements, humans in rurality and human systems in rurality) – inclusive of the cost of disposal of the commodities. That there be a way to, similarly, value ‘rural community wellbeing’. I recommend this work is essential, in order to go some way to addressing the deficit theorising of rurality.
- Highlighting data that informs deficit theorising of rurality, where the data is shared with nation-states, global-NGOs and multinational oligarchy, where the data is then used to challenge these organisations to work in ways that support rurality, wherein the organisations enact policy and funding decisions that address the deficits in the data-sets thereby improving rurality.
- A challenge to the assumptions that non-rural centric models can apply equally to rural contexts.

- Advocating to governments that policy and planning ensures equity of access to rural land and the assets connected to that land.
- With reference to the neoliberal free markets, that the movement of migrants, refugees and asylum seekers occur without reference to nation-state borders, similar to the current movement of money.
- That revisioning rurality must be inclusive of non-rural, to facilitate advocacy for greater care of rural elements in rural contexts because those in non-rural contexts benefit from assets that originate in rural contexts.
- Revisioning rurality requires referencing – indeed preferencing – the ways in which elements of rurality (rural assets, natural rural elements, humans in rurality and human systems that sustain and support people living in rurality) theorise the elements of rurality, rather than theorising rurality through non-rural ontological and epistemological thinking. Where research values the skills and knowledge systems inherent in rural contexts because it may well be these skills and knowledge systems that sustain healthy rural systems that in turn sustain human life in order that humans survive the globe’s current multiple crises.
- Theories of rurality be considered theories of humanity. For the demise of elements of rurality, impact rural and non-rural contexts and people. The rural and non-rural are at once linked and impact one another.
- Ongoing co-creation of the theorising rural educational leadership.
- The role of rural educational leader is one that can support the world as it moves to address the results of the 6-meta-impacts (see Figure 3).
- Rural principals be required to offer education in rurality that provides knowledge that supports rural people address the impacts in rurality brought about by the 6-meta-impacts (see Figure 3) for it is rural people with their skills and knowledge who will be at the forefront of the work required to redress the damaging impacts these 6-meta-impacts have in rurality, impacts that continue to destroy the planet.
- Theorising rural educational leadership occur with respect to theories of educational anthropology.

- The pedagogic school leader (as defined by Robinson, Hohepa & Lloyd, 2009) enact 'critical pedagogy' when leading staff. I recommend my theory of Cultural Educational Leadership (CEL) wherein the theory supports the rural principal support staff to understand not just the '*socio-political*' context, but the *socio-political-cultural* context in which schools, classroom, curriculum context, pedagogy and assessment are located; that of the increasingly culturally diverse rural community.
- That my theory of CEL benefits education because it supports principals' to work *with* the people being taught. I recommend not just working with the students being taught, but advocate for a *whole-of-community* response to *co-create* schooling. That principals support school staff to work with students and their families from the range of cultural backgrounds, to co-create curriculum, pedagogy and assessment with reference to the epistemological and ontological perspectives of the cultures represented in the student body. I recommend that it is only when cultural understandings of all students are reflected in and through the education system does it then support and benefit all humanity.
- The placement of tertiary institutions in rural contexts and delivery of university degree education in rural communities thereby offering opportunity for rural people to engage in tertiary learning in their rural community contexts.
- That principals be given opportunity, time, and funding, as part of the role, to engage in work that facilitates them engaging with the latest multiple blind peer reviewed evidence based credible independent research and data, to facilitate principals develop their skills and knowledge about – not just rural educational leadership, but rurality more broadly.
- Training that supports rural principals to support rural teachers to educate rural students in ways that support rural people maintain sustainable and healthy rural systems that support life for all – rural and non-rural alike.
- There can no longer be a one-size-fits-all approach to professional development for principals' as they work across the rural and non-rural contexts.

- My theory of rural educational leadership (REL) inform the professional development offered to rural principals.
- Training and development for rural educational leaders to support them to learn substantive educational leadership theories wherein leaders then enact their work through reference to a broad range of substantive theories of educational leadership.
- A systematic review of research that examines rural educational leadership from a whole-of-globe perspective for this work is long overdue.
- Future revisions of *Principal Standards* differentiate for the nuanced nature of the work of the principals who work within- and across- the range of rural contexts, with reference to the research about the rural principal.
- Those aspiring to the role of rural principal consider the career-trajectory of the interviewees into the path of principal-ship (see Figure 27).
- That due to the negative impacts upon rural principals who live with 24/7 surveillance and judgement, I recommend the employment of Temporary Relief Principals in order to release rural principals from their work, in recognition of the demands of the role that sees them working 24/7.
- That the elements of the role of the rural principal be used to inform the differentiation of Job and Person specifications for rural principals, differentiation of funding for the role, and differentiation of professional development for the role.
- That principals be empowered to engage in conversation with the Department in order to challenge and question the ways in which the Department employ them to enact the role; that there be support for ongoing open discussion, debate and challenge relating to the Job and Person Specification, the knowledge and skills required of rural principals, the supports offered by Department to the rural principals, inclusive of decisions relating to funding, policy and succession planning.
- Co-construction of processes whereby the Department and rural educational leaders work together, and create formal processes that support *research informed* succession planning processes, bespoke to the role of *rural* principal.

- The OECD value the collection of- and disaggregation of- data regarding the learning of not just immigrants, but also Indigenous people, refugees, asylum seekers, migrants and displaced people. And that the data be disaggregated and used to identify ways in which to work towards improving the learning outcomes of all student groups.
- A challenge to regimes of neoliberal economic philosophical perspectives regarding education, that support the manifestation of learning outcomes of rural students as deficits, without reference to what people in local rural contexts value in relation to learning and knowing.

Within the confines of the PhD thesis, I could not account for all theorising of rurality. Instead, I recommend there be ongoing co-construction of the revisioning theories of rurality. For example, there needs to be theorising of rurality with respect to natural rural elements such as air and water. Who owns the air? Where is the water captured, stored and cared for? How can we cost the value of air, assets on the lands, biodiversity, ecosystems, endemic fauna and flora, food, Indigenous knowledge, landscapes, ocean, soil, sources of renewable energy, sun, water, waves? How can we cost the value of people and their systems as they relate to agricultural, aquacultural, border control, communication, cultural, economic, education, governance, health, infrastructure, knowledge, legal, medical, recreation, sanitation, security, shelter, social, spiritual and transport? How can we cost the damage poor air quality has had on the health of humans and ecological systems, and then charge polluters of the air? Who contaminates the water and who remediates the water? How can we encourage polluters to value clean healthy air with a higher dollar value than the activity they are undertaking that currently poisons the air? For air that is poisoned in rural contexts, makes its way to non-rural contexts. What is the impact of the (lack of) policies of nation-states on the businesses that access the water? How is the water transported? Who pays for the water to be delivered to people living in- and businesses operating in- rural contexts when the water is gone or poisoned? How is contamination of the water managed? Who measures the pollutants and decides what is a 'safe' level of pollutant in the water? Who decides the ownership of the water? How do we manage water when the pollutants in the water are micro molecules that cannot be removed from the water cycle? How

can we account for corruption in rurality? How can revisioning theories of rurality account for the corporatisation of ruralities, the industrialised extraction, exploitation, consolidation and consumption?

Further, I recommend questions be asked in relation to commercialisation of natural aquacultural rural elements. Who determines who owns the natural rural assets and who has the right to benefit from the assets? Who determines who has the power and voice when it comes to determining the content and formation of global policies wherein those policies determine who has access to, who benefits from (financial and nutritional benefits), who has control over and management of natural aquacultural resources and built infrastructure, who is responsible for remediation of damaged people, communities and environmental systems, who has access to the natural rural assets and profits from sales of the commercialised aquacultural assets in the ever changing aquaculture industries? Who determines which chemicals are used to hasten the growth of farmed-fish where those chemicals in turn are eaten by consumer, leach into ecosystem, soils and waterways in ways that create irreversible damage? Of particular concern is where the multinationals exit the area neither financing people for their failing health nor financing the remediation of the environment. Of equal concern is food security risk and geo-political-economic security. Will the distribution of wealth, relating to sales of natural rural aquacultural assets, favour those from developing countries who are sourcing the aquaculture assets? – for they are the people whose nation-state hosts the commercialised natural rural aquacultural asset. To whom does food belong? Aquaculture assets, such as fish, are caught or harvested in developing countries through the use of labour by people who are cheaper to employ than workers in G20 and OECD countries. Does the food belong to that poorer country? Does the multinational company that employs the people have the right to deny them access to the food they harvest? As the oceans rise, who determines the law of the sea and where the new boundaries are situated, and therefore those who have access to and own the food?

I recommend future revisioning theories of rurality accounts for rural recreation in relation to beaches, camping, glaciers, lakes, mountains, national parks, rivers, oceans, snow, and Indigenous land, particularly with respect to stewardship of rurality. Who has ownership of nature? For as renewable energy sources

expand, there will need to answers to questions such as who owns the wind, who owns the ocean, and sun? Who can desalinate, who cannot? Who can put wave energy infrastructure in the ocean and who cannot? What happens when oyster racks and wave energy infrastructure compete?

I recommend future research account for the role multi-modal-media have in the results of the 6-meta-impacts. For the multi-modal-mainstream-media have the power to determine the knowledge that is disseminated that does, and does not, inform citizens of the realities of the results of the 6-meta-impacts.

FUTURE RESEARCH

The following is a summary list of recommendations made throughout the thesis with regard to future research. I recommend:

- Future research that is undertaken related to contemporary rurality be informed by the *6-meta-impacts*.
- Future research work towards theorising rurality with reference only to research that engages in philosophical knowledge produced through the ontological position of constructivism and epistemological position of constructionism.
- Future research about rurality, rural education and rural educational leadership collect data disaggregated for the range of rural contexts therein exposing the nature of complexities inherent in contemporary ruralities and contemporary rural educational leadership.
- Future research about rural be conducted and informed only by those living in rural contexts.
- Future research preference and value the philosophies and knowledge systems of Indigenous, First Nations peoples, asylum seekers, refugees, migrants and displaced people for these people have managed to maintain societies in rural contexts for thousands of years. Where future research advocate it is their knowledge systems that may be what humanity relies on in order to support the current world recover and sustain life on the planet.
- Future research explore ways in which different cultures bring their understandings about what is important when it comes to education and educational leadership, in rural contexts.
- Future research about rurality and rural educational leadership with reference to research that only references rurality and rural educational leadership.

- Future research attach a commercial value to the elements of rurality: commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, humans in rurality and the value of the human systems that sustain and support nature and people living in rural contexts.
- Future research work to the attribute a cost to goods, products and services that are purchased, that includes the cost to the elements of rurality (commercial rural assets, natural rural elements, humans in rurality and the value of the human systems that sustain and support nature and people living in rural contexts) inclusive of the cost of disposal of the commodities.
- Future research critique research published about rurality that is published through the *narrow-knowledge-systems* (see Figure 3) where future research challenges the pervasiveness of the dominance of the hegemony of *narrow knowledge systems*.
- Future research consider and articulate the deficits in rurality with commentary to both contextualise the deficits and recommend solutions about ways to redress the deficits.
- Future research focus on soils.
- Future research investigate the philosophical underpinnings, used to create substantive theories of rurality, of the organisation creating theories, of the data itself, and the ways in it which the data was collected, of the research and the ways in which the research was conducted, of the policy positioning informing the theorising and the impact of funding allocation.
- Future research investigate the degree to which rural principals understand the links between the local rural contexts in which they work, and their understanding of the impact global systems have on rural communities and schools. As well as the ways rural principals, support and educate their rural communities for the future not only to the benefit of rurality and rural education, but the globe.
- Future research investigate how rural principals work towards a future that is uncertain; researching the connections between the work of the rural principal and the future of rural education where rural communities are impacted by results of the 6-meta-impacts. These impacts include: climate change, neoliberal capitalism and the demise of neoliberal capitalism, the impact of the movement of a rapidly increasing number of displaced people, the impact of increasing

amounts of poisoned air, biodiversity, ecosystem, food, ocean, soil and water, a world post-carbon and post-nationalistic-borders. With a focus on considering the ways in which rural principals support education and rural communities to manage change due to the 6-meta-impacts.

- Future research investigate ways in which education systems incorporate the views of rural principals into planning. That future research consider ways in which dialogue between employers and rural principals, support co-creating ways in which to identify and then develop the skills and dispositions of people, required to lead rural schools into an uncertain future, as well as the skills and dispositions of the rural principal that make a positive and measurable difference to educational leadership, teaching, and student learning outcomes. And consider ways in which dialogue between employers and rural principals, support co-creating ways in which to identify and then implement policy and funding, required to lead rural schools into an uncertain future.
- Future research consider the implementation of educational leadership theories that support rural principals educate students of all cultural heritages.
- Future research seek to understand rural education from a global perspective, wherein that research incorporates the understandings about rural education and rural educational leadership of cultural groups from across the globe.
- Future research explore ways in which rural principals are supported to negotiate 'knowledge systems about education' and 'knowledge systems about educational leadership'. Where these 'knowledge systems' are held by what is an increasing number of increasingly culturally diverse rural community groups enrolling students in rural schools.
- Future research investigate how rural principals navigate an increasingly diverse set of knowledge systems, from an increasingly diverse range of cultures, in the rural schools.
- Future research looks at the deficit in learning because you are immigrant or refugee for it is predicted that hundreds of millions of people will be immigrant. I recommend future research address this cost in educational opportunity the world simply cannot afford.
- Future research occur with a purpose; to continue to improve education in ways that Indigenous Australian communities recommend benefit Indigenous Australian students. With a focus on

research that considers how to better support rural principals in which there are significant numbers of Indigenous Australian student enrolments and research the ways in which significant numbers of Indigenous Australian community members and student enrolments impact the role of rural principal.

- Future research about ways rural principals enact their role with reference to the enrolment of Indigenous, migrant and refugee students. Inclusive of research about ways the rural principal engage in the processes of altering educational systems to re-dress the needs of rural students in order to better support the education of students from diverse cultural groups.
- Future research to consider how rural principals incorporate ontological and epistemological knowledge systems of Indigenous, refugee, asylum seeker and migrant student groups.
- Increased research about rural educational leadership and in turn, the development of an increased number and diversity of substantive *rural* educational leadership theories bespoke for rural contexts, including for example, rural educational leadership, rural cultural educational leadership, rural entrepreneurial leadership and rural instructional educational leadership.
- Research be undertaken that focuses on theorising rural educational leadership, improving understanding about the role of the rural principal, with deeper interrogation of the nature of the work of the rural principal, in order to determine the issues faced by rural principals, related to rural context, that are similarly experienced by rural principals from across the world. I recommend that this work determine the issues rural principals navigate that are bespoke to the unique rural contexts in which they live and work. And that it determine the issues rural principals navigate that are similar to non-rural principals.
- Research and theorising rural educational leadership incorporate the work of scholars from around the world who explore the experience of rural educational leaders from around the world. Where the work references a whole-of-global perspective, from a range of cultural perspectives.
- Escalated support for research that differentiates for the experience of the rural principals including research about the role of the rural principals that is longitudinal, operates across single

nation-states, has a purview across communities of nation-states, across cultural boundaries, and across the globe. This work would offer a global view of the life and work, of the rural principal.

- Future research about *Principal Standards* and the nuanced nature of the work of the principals who work within- and across- the range of rural contexts be undertaken to inform future versions of *Principal Standards*.
- Future research create knowledge about the wellbeing of rural principals from a longitudinal perspective that differentiates for the wellbeing of the rural, remote, regional / large town principal with research that crosses nation-states and incorporates a broader range of cultural perspectives.
- Future research to investigate what it is that current rural educational leaders look for in future rural educational leaders including research about the ways in which rural principals 'tap' the next generation of school leaders, the ways in which current rural principals support the next generation of rural principals to enact the role, and the impact of rural principals' working in an echo-chamber.
- Future research consider the skills and dispositions current rural principals value, the skills and dispositions that research identifies as significant to being successful as a rural principal as well as the skills and dispositions that will be required into the future, and those skills and dispositions that the next generation of rural principals will need to enact in ways that are fluid and responsive to the needs of future ruralities and the results of the impact of the 6-meta-elements.
- Future research focus on the intersection between the role of rural principal, rural contexts and the isolation and loneliness of the person enacting the role.
- Future research focus on the ways in which rural principals engage in succession planning.
- Future research investigate ways in which rural principals support staff and students meet the non-rural policy decisions, particularly in relation to standardised testing for knowledge valued by non-rural decision makers.
- Future research focus on the intersection of the role of rural principal, rural contexts and the impact rural community has on the person enacting the role.

- Future research to investigate the ways in which high level surveillance by an employer over the rural principals' work, makes a positive and measurable difference to educational leadership, teaching, and student learning outcomes.
- Future research about the professional development offered to rural educational leaders, the ways in which this training develops the skills and dispositions required of them to enact the role in ways that empower them to support learning in the community that meets the needs of the rural communities in the future.
- Future research to determine the written and unwritten rules used by community and the Department that the rural principal must determine and meet in order to be judged as successful in the role.
- Future research about the ways in which training providers co-create content and andragogy of training with rural principals and the resultant difference the method of co-creation makes to the ability of rural principal's to enact the role – including research about the impact on rural principals who access training from their rural contexts.
- Future research focus on the relationships between the rural principals and the range of contexts in which they work.
- Future research investigate ways in which rural principals' access and use, research and data, while in the role, with reference to supports given to do so, by their employer.
- Future research about the rural principal be informed by research about the various elements of rurality and range of activities that occur in the range of rural contexts.
- Future research articulate the differences between the role of the rural and non-rural principal across the range of rural and non-rural contexts – beyond the rural / non-rural binary model; inclusive of an articulation of the elements of the role that are in addition to and different from that of the non-rural principal.
- Future research articulate the ways in which rural principals support one another.
- Future research articulate the different experiences for gender of the rural principal across the range of rural contexts.

- Future research articulate the deficits inherent in the role of rural principal, with the view to providing solutions that more effectively support rural principals enact the role.
- Future research to continue, about rurality, about rural educational leadership and about the relationships between them, through ongoing co-creation between scholars, non-government organisations and governments, from a range of disciplines, where the researchers live rural, and encompass a range of cultural and language groups, with the view to offering a whole-of-globe view.
- Substantial research is required, in order to determine if my findings are transferable to other rural contexts, and leadership roles in rurality that sit outside of schools.

As the world rapidly transitions, it is what occurs in rurality that requires deep consideration, through research, and it may well need to be the rural leaders who will lead the world into the future.

APPENDICIES

Appendix 1 Entry level Eyre Peninsula South Australia Rural school Principal Job and Person Specification



Government of South Australia
Department for Education and
Child Development

MS002A
Updated 12/15

PRINCIPAL POSITION DESCRIPTION (Principal Positions – Education Act)

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

Position Title: **Principal**
Location: **Port Neill Primary School**
Classification: **Band A - 1**
Period of Appointment From **24/01/2015** To **26/01/2024**
Fraction of Time **1.0**

CONTEXT OF THE POSITION

The Department for Education and Child Development (DECD) is entrusted by the South Australian community to work together with young people and their families to lead and deliver high quality public education and care.

DECD is a diverse organisation made up of local school, preschool and care communities that are open to all. Schools respect the local ethos, culture, history, vision and values within their own distinct community, providing all students the opportunity to excel.

The school context is defined by the Governing/School Council constitution, the School Context Statement, Site Improvement Plan, Annual Reports and other planning documentation, including the Services Agreement and Partnership Plan where applicable. The School Context statement and other general information about the school, is available on the school's website.

Port Neill is a small rural school in a predominantly farming community. It boasts a 'Family Atmosphere' and a high level of parental and community involvement. Port Neill has a supportive Governing Council that is keen to ensure the sustainability of the educational programs and outcomes. Port Neill's enrolments are increasing over time and with this they are keen to ensure their students gain opportunities to explore their world in and outside of Port Neill through an innovative curriculum from R- year 7.

POSITION OF PRINCIPAL

The responsibilities of DECD principals are derived from common law, state and federal statutes, the Education Act and its subordinate Regulations and the Education and Early Childhood (Registration and Standards Act 2011).

Principals operate within the powers and functions delegated from the Chief Executive. Principals are responsible to the Chief Executive for the good management and leadership of the school and operate within departmental policies and available resources.

The principal plays a vital role in delivering the department's goals – the child being at the centre of everything we do. Principal leadership is critical to school ethos and culture, through a commitment to the development and achievement of system priorities.

As leaders within DECD, principals collaborate within and across sites, the system, the community and with other agencies and services to enhance innovation and improved outcomes for young people, their families and the community.

In the case of a school with a governing council, the principal is jointly responsible with the governing council for the governance of the school.

The principal is expected to uphold the Code of Ethics for the South Australian Public Sector. **Note:** A copy of the code and related information for DECD employees is available at: <http://www.decd.sa.gov.au/hrstaff/default.asp?id=40762&navgrp=361>

The principal is required to maintain a safe and healthy environment for staff, children and young people and comply with all provisions of the relevant workplace health and safety legislation and related departmental health, safety and wellbeing responsibilities and procedures, including child safety.

The key responsibilities of a principal, as outlined in Regulation 42 are:

- providing educational leadership in the school;
- the management of the day-to-day operations of the school;
- the welfare and development of the students;



- the establishment and maintenance of a social and educational environment within the school favourable to:
 - learning; and
 - acceptable forms of behaviour; and
 - the development within students of self-control, self-discipline and a respect for other persons and their property;
- the provision, and the day-to-day management of the provision, of instruction in the school in accordance with the curriculum determined by the Chief Executive under Part 7 of the Act;
- ensuring that staff, students and parents are consulted about, and informed of, the disciplinary rules governing students' behaviour both inside and outside the classroom;
- the administration of discipline within the school;
- promoting the continuing professional development of the staff of the school;
- encouraging staff of the school to participate in processes for determining policies for the school and resolving problems;
- the conduct of regular staff meetings:
 - as an integral part of decision making and communication within the school; and
 - in a manner providing full opportunity for staff involvement;
- keeping the school council informed of relevant educational and other policies;
- fostering community participation in school programs and in educational developments generally;
- the proper care and safekeeping of school property belonging to the Minister.

The principal teaches as appropriate to the school context.

Regulation 42 and the Australian Professional Standard for Principals provide the current framework for the duties of principals in the context of the school. The job specification for principals may be varied from time to time by the Chief Executive.

For a school that provides a Preschool Program:

The principal is the Nominated Supervisor for that site under section 114 of the Education and Care Services National Law. As Nominated Supervisor, the principal is the "responsible person" under Section 162 of the National Law.

Under Section 169 of the Education and Care Services National Law the principal is responsible for providing educational leadership that ensures appropriate teaching strategies are used, facilitates access and participation of children and ensures effective participation of parents in the operation and delivery of the centre's programs.

REPORTING/WORKING RELATIONSHIPS

The principal is answerable to the Chief Executive through the relevant Education Director for carrying out the functions and responsibilities defined in this position description.

The principal is required to participate in an annual Performance and Development process with the Education Director for the achievement of specified results that reflect the priorities of the department and school.

The principal actively engages with Families SA and Health professionals, families and community groups to integrate services and programs that improve outcomes for children, young people and families.

The principal has authority and responsibility for the good conduct and safety of all persons on site, whether as volunteers, visitors, or as employees of the department, the council, or another agency.

The principal builds strong complementary working relationships with the School Council or Governing Council. The principal ensures the professional knowledge, expertise and work of the staff appropriately informs the work of the Council.

SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS

Out of hours work and travel may be required.

Principals commencing their first tenured appointment of 12 months or more as a principal will be required to complete a leadership induction course provided by DECD. New principals who do not



currently hold advanced leadership qualifications will be required to attain an advanced qualification in strategic leadership via the South Australian Institute for Educational Leadership (SAIEL).

Promote and create a safe work environment by implementing the DECD Work Health Safety & Injury Management System at the site which includes the responsibility and authority for safety and wellbeing over employees, contractors, volunteers, children/young people, volunteers and other visitors when working for DECD.

Ensure that all employees are provided with appropriate training and resources to perform their duties safely; investigate Lost Time Injuries and implement appropriate corrective actions; and effectively manage workplace hazards through consultation with employees and other duty holders.

ELIGIBILITY

Appropriate check box (external or internal) must be selected

A mandatory requirement of this role is South Australian registration as a teacher prior to taking up the position. Information is available at the Teachers Registration Board SA website: <http://www.trb.sa.edu.au/default.php>

Externally advertised positions

Applicants do not need to be currently employed in DECD. However, applicants must be either currently registered or able to be registered to teach in South Australia, and meet DECD minimum employment requirements before taking up an appointment.

Minimum DECD requirements include:

- Recognised teaching qualifications and registration as a teacher in South Australia;
- an active on-line application in the Employable Teacher Register (ETR);
- a cleared DECD Employment Declaration;
- Australian residency or current work permit;
- Reporting Abuse and Neglect training; and
- an approved First Aid certificate.

NOTE: For positions with a period of appointment of 12 months or less the minimum DECD requirements above must be current at the time of lodging the application.

At the conclusion of a term of appointment:

- permanent DECD employees will be placed according to the terms of their substantive appointment and the policies in operation at the time;
- employees originally from other public sector organisations with a right of return, will be managed according to the provisions of the Public Sector Act 2009 (SA) and any applicable public sector determination or policies;
- applicants who are not permanent employees of DECD do not hold placement rights with DECD at the conclusion of the appointment.

DECD is an equal opportunity employer.

Positions of 12 months or less advertised internally at the site

Commences in the current year:

Applicants must be in a permanent, PAT, TPT or temporary (contract) position (not TRT) at this worksite during the period for which applications are being accepted for the position.

Please note: If a teacher in a temporary appointment at the site is the successful applicant for a position that extends beyond the term of their original appointment to the school, the original appointment will not be automatically extended.

Commences in the following year:

Applicants must have a guaranteed placement at the worksite at the beginning of that school year. Teachers who are currently in a temporary position or TRT role in a school are not guaranteed a



Government of South Australia

Department for Education and
Child Development

MS002A
Updated 12/15

teaching position in that school for the following year. These teachers cannot apply for leadership positions being advertised internally with a commencement date during the following year.



SECTION B: RESULTS TO BE ACHIEVED

Principals are required to both lead and manage. Leadership develops shared vision, inspires and creates commitment and embraces risk and innovation. Management develops systems, which limit uncertainty, even out differences and improve consistency and predictability in delivering educational services.

The five principal professional practice results (as detailed in the *Australian Professional Standard for Principals* (July 2011)) are sought, ensuring every opportunity is available for quality learning and success for all students.

Further detail is provided in the attached Appendix.

Note: The Australian Professional Standard for Principals is available at http://www.aitsl.edu.au/verve/resources/Australian_Professional_Standards_for_Principals.pdf

SECTION C: SELECTION CRITERIA

<p>Essential Criteria</p> <p>The selection criteria for all principal positions are the five professional practices particular to the role of a principal identified by the <i>Australian Professional Standard for Principals</i> (July 2011):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Leading Teaching and Learning• Developing Self and Others• Leading Improvement, Innovation and Change• Leading the Management of the School• Engaging and Working with the Community <p>In addressing these criteria, it is essential that applicants provide evidence which demonstrates the extent to which they have the three leadership requirements detailed in the <i>Australian Professional Standard for Principals</i>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• vision and values• knowledge and understanding• personal qualities and social and interpersonal skills. <p>These should be developed with reference to the school's context statement and the leader's collaborative and corporate responsibilities within the department's broader goals and operations.</p>
<p>Desirable Criteria</p> <p>An advanced leadership qualification would be an advantage.</p>

APPLICATION

Appropriate check box (full or modified) must be selected

Full Application

The length of the written application and CV should each generally not exceed 1,500 words. (Refer to Merit Instruction 5 <http://www.decd.sa.gov.au/hrstaff/pages/recruitment/meritdocs/>)

Modified Application (for positions of 12 months or less)

Provide details re application, CV and referees

<p>I</p>



APPENDIX

RESULT AREA

Professional practices to be achieved ensuring every opportunity is available for quality learning and success for all students.

Leading Teaching and Learning

- (1) Effective teaching that promotes enthusiastic, independent learners, committed to life-long learning is achieved through the creation of a positive culture of challenge and support.
- (2) A culture of effective teaching is developed by leading, designing and managing the quality of teaching and learning.
- (3) High expectations are set for the whole school and achieved through careful collaborative planning, monitoring and review of the effectiveness of learning.
- (4) High standards of behaviour and attendance are achieved through the encouragement of active engagement and a strong student voice.

Developing self and others

- (1) The school has a professional learning community that is focused on the continuous improvement of teaching and learning.
- (2) All staff are supported to achieve high standards and develop their leadership capacity through the management of performance, effective continuing professional learning and regular feedback.
- (3) The complexity and range of learning capabilities and actions required of the principal role are managed through a commitment to personal ongoing professional development and personal health and wellbeing.

Leading improvement, innovation and change

- (1) Clear, evidence-based improvement plans and policies for the development of the school and its facilities are produced and implemented collaboratively.
- (2) The vision and strategic plan is put into action across the school and its goals and intentions are realised through leadership and management of innovation and change.

Leading the management of the school

- (1) A range of data management methods and technologies are used to ensure that the school's resources and staff are efficiently organised and managed to provide an effective and safe learning environment as well as value for money. This includes appropriate delegation of tasks to members of the staff and the monitoring of accountabilities to ensure these are met.
- (2) A successful school is built through effective collaboration with the Governing/School Council, parents and others.
- (3) A range of technologies is used effectively and efficiently to manage the school.

Engaging and working with the community

- (1) A culture of high expectations that takes account of the richness and diversity of the school's wider community and the education systems and sectors is built.
- (2) Positive partnerships with students, families and carers, and all those associated with the school's broader community are developed and maintained.
- (3) An ethos of respect is built, taking account of the intellectual, spiritual, cultural, moral, social, health and wellbeing of students.
- (4) Sound lifelong learning from birth through to adult life is promoted.
- (5) The multicultural nature of Australian people is recognised, understanding and reconciliation with Indigenous cultures is fostered, and the rich and diverse linguistic and cultural resources in the school community recognised and used.
- (6) The needs of students, families and carers from communities facing complex challenges are recognised and supported.

ELIGIBILITY AND APPLICATION INSTRUCTIONS LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

Principal, Preschool Director and School Based Leadership Positions

All applicants must be currently registered or be able to be registered with the [Teacher Registration Board of South Australia](#) prior to the commencement of a position. Specific eligibility includes for;

External leadership Positions (more than 12 months), applicants who are eligible to apply must:

- Be a permanent DECD teacher, or
- An employable teacher who holds a current [Authority to Teach](#) letter and who has meet DECD [minimum employment criteria](#), or will be able to meet DECD [minimum employment criteria](#) and gain an [Authority to Teach](#) letter before commencing the position.

External leadership Positions (12 months or less), applicants for these positions must be:

- A permanent DECD teacher, or
- An employable teacher who currently holds an [Authority to Teach](#) letter and who has already meet DECD [minimum employment criteria](#)

Internal leadership Positions (12 months or less),

Where positions are advertised internally at the site that commence in the current year:

Applicants must be in a permanent, PAT, TPT or temporary (contract) position (not TRT) at this worksite during the period for which applications are being accepted for the position.

Please note: If a teacher in a temporary appointment at the site is the successful applicant for a position that extends beyond the term of their original appointment to the school, the original appointment will not be automatically extended.

Where positions are advertised internally at the site that commence in the following year:

Applicants must have a guaranteed placement at the worksite at the beginning of that school year. Teachers who are currently in a temporary position or TRT role in a school are not guaranteed a teaching position in that school for the following year. These teachers cannot apply for leadership positions being advertised internally with a commencement date during the following year.

PLEASE NOTE:

- An applicant for a **Preschool Director position** must hold an early childhood qualification as identified below;
 - A four-year Early Childhood teaching qualification, which is approved by the Australian Children's Education and Care Quality Authority (ACECQA), *or*
 - Be a permanent DECD teacher and hold a letter of approval from the DECD Superintendent, Site HR or the Assistant Director, Workforce Management to work in an early childhood program, *or*
 - Hold an [Authority to Teach](#) letter which indicates they are cleared for employment in an early childhood program
- Where an applicant for a preschool director position does not have an approved early childhood qualification, they may be considered in remote country if there are no other suitable applicants with an early childhood qualification. In these instances each applicant will be considered in line with *Education and Care Services National Regulations (Reg 241)* and *DECD Selection and Employment Policy*.
- Permanent employees of DECD, at the conclusion of their appointment, will be placed according to the terms of their substantive appointment and the policies in operation at the time.
- Applicants who are not permanent employees of DECD or are from another public sector organisation, do not hold ongoing placement rights with DECD at the conclusion of the appointment.



Information Privacy Notice

The department will use the information you provide to support workforce planning, respond to Ministerial requests for information, and to meet statutory reporting requirements. The information you provide will be incorporated into the department's Human Resource Management System and will be accessed by relevant department personnel for the purposes of workforce analysis and planning, human resource service provision and reporting to meet Federal and State government requirements. Reporting will be in the form of statistics, and will not provide specific information about individuals.

All information will be handled in accordance with the Information Privacy Principles (Department of Premier and Cabinet Circular no. 12).

- Accept
- Not Accept

Have you read the eligibility criteria for this position?

- Yes
- No

Are you eligible to apply for this position?

- Yes
- No

1. Applicant Details

Title

- Mr
- Ms
- Mrs
- Dr
- Professor
- Miss

First Name (as per birth certificate)

All other names (as per birth certificate/visa)

Preferred Name

Surname

Previous Surname

Date of Birth

Gender

- Male
- Female
- Other

DECD Employee ID (if known)

Postal Address:

No. & Street or PO Box

Suburb/Town

State

Post Code
Country
Is your Residential Address the same as your Postal Address?
 Yes
 No

Residential Address:
No. & Street
Suburb/Town
State
Postcode
Country
Home Number
Mobile Number
Are you of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander origin?
 A - Aboriginal
 B - Torres Strait Islander
 C - Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander
 E - Not Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander

Email

2. Generic Attachments

My Attachments

Supporting Documentation

Evidence of Name Change (marriage, deed poll, divorce certificates). Please upload one attachment only.

Australian or overseas Birth Certificate or Passport or Citizen Certificate:

If not Australian citizen, a copy of visa:

Additional Relevant Attachments (if applicable):

Confirmation of Aboriginality Certificate (if required). Please upload one attachment only. If you are of Australian Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander origin, please refer to help for further information.

3. Employment History

Your employment history should include all periods of employment, unemployment, tertiary study and schooling for a continuous period over at least the last 5 years. PLEASE NOTE: The information provided in this section will be available against all your current applications (for any job type). If you delete information in this section, it will no longer be available for use in the system against any current or future applications. Please [click here for help](#)

From (Approx Date)

.....

To (Approx Date)

.....

Employer/Activity

.....

Location

.....

Details

.....

4. Qualifications

PLEASE NOTE: This section reflects all qualification details you have provided online via DECDjobs for any type of job. If you delete a qualification, it will no longer be available for use in the system against any current or future applications. If you have been or are currently employed with DECD, please ensure your qualification details match what was previously provided. If your qualification is not listed please select the closest match. Please click here for help.

Qualification

.....

Awarding Institution

.....

Start Date

___ \ ___ \ ___ (dd \ mm \ yyyy)

Completion Date (actual or expected)

___ \ ___ \ ___ (dd \ mm \ yyyy)

Duration (length of course)

.....

Major Field of Study

.....

Documentation

Please attach an electronic copy of any relevant qualifications that have not already been provided to the department. Click here to check whether a qualification is mandatory. REMINDER: Do not remove an attachment if it is relevant to any application you have submitted, past or present.

Academic Transcripts or Certificates

Practicum/Placement Documents

5. Certificates and Registration

PLEASE NOTE: This section reflects all certificate and registration details you have provided online via DECD jobs for any type of job. If you delete details in this section, they will no longer be available for use in the system against any other current or future applications. Please provide details of and upload a copy of updated or new required certificates only. Previously entered certificates and registration are already recorded and do not need to be attached again. Please print online help and fill in all necessary documentation relevant to your application. Please click here for help.

Relevant History Screening Please provide details of your Relevant History Screening Letter (if you are a teacher you may provide details of your Teacher Registration below instead). PLEASE NOTE: The NATIONAL POLICE CERTIFICATE purchasable from Police Stations is NOT ACCEPTABLE.

As an alternative to a Relevant History Screening, if you are a teacher seeking employment as an ancillary you can provide details of your Teacher Registration Renewal (renewed registration certificate).

Type

To be Advised

DCSI - Communities Social Inclus Child-Related Employ Chk

Letter Date

____ \ ____ \ ____ (dd \ mm \ yyyy)

Please attach your Screening Letter:

Teacher Registration Please provide details of your South Australian Teacher Registration or renewed registration certificate.

Teacher Registration Class:

- To be Advised
- TRFU - Full Registration
- TRPR - Provisional Registration
- TRRS - Restricted Registration

Teacher Registration Number:

.....

Teacher Registration Expiry Date:

_________ (dd \ mm \ yyyy)

Please attach your Teacher Registration Certificate:

Responding to Abuse and Neglect New applicants in a school/preschool based environment must attach their Full Day Responding to Abuse and Neglect Training or updated Certificate here. All other applicants can attach their updated certificate here. Please click here for further details.

Responding to Abuse and Neglect Issue Date:

_________ (dd \ mm \ yyyy)

Please attach your Responding to Abuse and Neglect Training Certificate:

NOTE: The Certificates below are relevant if you are seeking employment in a school or preschool: If you have previously provided this information and a copy of a certificate, you do not need to reattach until the initial certificate has expired and you have an update.

First Aid Please provide details of your First Aid Certificate (OPTIONAL)

First Aid Class:

- To be Advised
- BELS - Basic Emergency Life Support
- PEFA - Provide Emergency First Aid (Education & Care Set)
- PRFA - Provide First Aid (Previously Applied and Senior)
- RECT - Receipt for enrolment in approved First Aid course

First Aid Issue Date/Enrolment Date:

_________ (dd \ mm \ yyyy)

Please attach your First Aid Certificate:

Anaphylaxis Training Please provide details of your Anaphylaxis Training Certificate

Anaphylaxis Training Issue Date:

___ \ ___ \ ___ (dd \ mm \ yyyy)

Please attach your Anaphylaxis Training Certificate:

Asthma Training Please provide details of your Asthma Training Certificate

Asthma Training Issue Date:

___ \ ___ \ ___ (dd \ mm \ yyyy)

Please attach your Asthma Training Certificate:

6. Referee Details

Please nominate at least 3 referees below, one of whom must be your line manager: [Please click here for help.](#)

Name

.....

Type:

.....

Position and Location

.....

Work Phone

.....

Other Phone

7. Written Application

Please click [here](#) for help.

Please attach your written application addressing the job and person specification (if you include your curriculum vitae / resume with your written application you need only attach one file).

Please attach your curriculum vitae / resume if it is separate from your written application.

8. Pre-Employment Declaration

To be eligible to receive an offer of employment within the South Australian public sector; including the Department for Education and Child Development (DECD), you must complete a pre-employment declaration. You may also be required to agree to other pre-employment processes. Information in this declaration and other pre-employment processes is necessary to assess the suitability of applicants to be offered employment in the South Australian public sector, having regard to an applicant's ability to perform the technical aspects of a role and in consideration of the ethical obligations on public sector employees. Some information is necessary to seek to ensure the Crown and responsible officers of the Crown comply with their obligations under the Work Health and Safety Act 2012. Some information is to ensure public sector agencies meet workplace diversity targets. The information is collected and managed in accordance with the State Records Act 1997 and destruction schedules issued under that Act, and the Cabinet Administrative Instruction 1/89 known as the Information Privacy Principles Instruction and Premier and Cabinet Circular No. 12. You should be aware that the definition of misconduct in the Public Sector Act 2009 includes providing a false statement in connection with an application for engagement as a public sector employee. Please read the online help before completing the questions below. PERMANENT EMPLOYEES PLEASE NOTE: As an employee of the Department for Education you are bound by the Code of Ethics for the South Australian Public Sector. Under the Code of Ethics you are required to ensure your line manager is aware of any declaration below where you answer yes.

Medical and/or Disability

The following question is designed to assist in ensuring you are fit to perform the duties of the role you have applied for; in ascertaining if any reasonable workplace adjustments are required in order for you to perform the inherent requirements of the role; and to assist the Crown and responsible officers of the Crown in meeting obligations under the Work Health and Safety Act 2012. This question is also important to assist public sector agencies to implement workplace diversity initiatives.

Do you currently have any medical condition or disability (including learning disability) which might prevent or impede you from being able to satisfactorily perform any duties or functions that might be reasonably required of you in the role for which you have applied?

- No
 Unsure

Please provide information on your condition or disability.

Please Note: If yes or unsure, please provide details (include details of any medications/ assistance/ adjustments that may reasonably be required so that you can perform the inherent requirements of the role). Please note: You may be required to participate in a medical and/or functional capacity assessment (at your own cost) in order to assist in assessing your suitability to be offered employment in the role and South Australian public sector. If you do not agree to participate, you will not be further considered to receive an offer of employment.

Criminal History

Public sector employees are under significant ethical obligations. In assessing whether it is appropriate to offer you employment in the South Australian public sector, it is important to consider your suitability to adhere with these ethical obligations, your character, and prior conduct. The following questions are important to help assess your suitability to be offered employment in the South Australian public sector.

Have you ever been investigated or found guilty of any criminal offence, including any traffic offences not resolved by expiation?

- Yes
 No

Please provide information on the offence or offences.

.....

Have you ever been the subject of allegations of conduct by you towards a child (Person under 18 years of age) that if proven would have amounted to criminal conduct or would have constituted misconduct in an employment setting?

- Yes
 No

Please provide information on the allegations.

.....

Are you currently facing criminal charges yet to be determined?

- Yes
 No

Please provide information on the criminal charges.

.....

Please note: In addition to this declaration, you may be asked to agree to Criminal History or other background history screening or assessment. You will not be further considered for an offer of employment in the South Australian public sector if you do not agree to participate in such history or other background screening or assessment. If you are offered and accept employment in the South Australian public sector, it will be a condition of such employment that you agree to periodic history or background screening or assessment.

Employment History

The following questions are also designed to assist in assessing your suitability to be employed in the South Australian public sector with regard to the significant ethical obligations on public sector employees.

Has your employment been terminated by any organisation, including a South Australian public sector agency, for any reason?

- Yes

No

Please provide information on your termination.

.....

Have you been the subject of allegations or an investigation or any other process relating to alleged unsatisfactory performance or misconduct by you as an employee?

Yes
 No

Please provide information on the allegations or investigation.

.....

Are you currently, the subject of an investigation or any other process relating to suspected or alleged misconduct or other unsatisfactory performance by you?

Yes
 No

Please provide information on the alleged misconduct or other unsatisfactory performance.

.....

Voluntary Separation and Redemption of Workers Compensation Entitlements

Have you ever received any voluntary early retirement or voluntary separation package from employment in the South Australian public sector, including accepting a "Change in Direction" or "Teacher Renewal" incentive payment?

Yes
 No

Please provide information on the voluntary early retirement of voluntary separation.

.....

Have you resigned from employment in the South Australian Public Sector or private employer upon the redemption of workers compensation entitlements?

Yes
 No

Please provide information on your resignation.

.....

Supporting Documentation

Supporting Documentation (if applicable)

Declaration

I declare that the information in this declaration and in any other documents completed by me and/or any other statement made by me in support of my application for employment in the South Australian public sector, and the information provided by me in connection with my application for employment in the South Australian public sector, including in any interview, is true and correct in every detail.

YES

Disclosure of Confidential Information

I acknowledge that if I am employed in the public sector either in the role for which I have been offered or in any other role, I may, during the course of that employment, gain access to confidential information. Detailed provisions regarding disclosure of confidential information are contained in relevant public sector legislation, regulations, determinations, guidelines and industrial instruments. Without detracting from such sources, unless such information is clearly not of a confidential nature, and unless I am expressly advised to the contrary by someone with requisite authority, policy or as required by law all information I gain access to as a public sector employee is to be treated as confidential. The expression "confidential information" as used in this declaration means all information which must be treated as being of a confidential nature. I understand that I must not disclose or make use of that confidential information, during or after that employment, except in the proper course of my duties and/or with requisite authority and/or otherwise according to law. In particular, I undertake not to use any confidential information gained by virtue of any public sector employment, with the intent of securing a benefit for myself, any person, company or any future employer. In any case where I am in doubt as to whether information gained during employment in the South Australian public sector is confidential and/or how such information should be managed, I undertake to seek advice and instruction from a supervisor or manager.

YES

Potential or Actual Conflict of Interest

I undertake that if I am employed in the public sector either in the role for which I have been offered or in any other role, I will not engage in any external or private activities which will result in a conflict or potential conflict of interest with any of my duties as a public sector employee. I am aware that detailed provisions regarding conflict of interest and disclosure of conflict of interest are contained in relevant public sector legislation, and guidelines. Without detracting from such sources, in any case where there is any possible doubt regarding a potential conflict of interest, I undertake to seek advice and instruction from a supervisor or manager.

YES

Employment Based on Provision of True and Correct Information

I understand that if I am offered employment in the public sector it has been made on the basis that the information that I have provided in connection with my application for employment is true and correct in every detail. I understand that any false statement made in connection with my application for employment in the South Australian public sector - which will include information withheld or incomplete - may lead to a rejection of my application for employment, or, in the event that I am employed or continue employment in the South Australian public sector, will amount to misconduct and render me liable to disciplinary action, including termination of employment.

YES

Please enter your name to confirm the above declaration:

.....

9. Application Declaration

1. Are you currently the subject of any disciplinary inquiry?

Yes

No

2. Have you been the subject of any disciplinary action in the last 5 years where the penalty was more than a reprimand?

Yes

No

3. Are you currently the subject of a formal management process related to any specific issue(s) of unsatisfactory performance in your current role?

Yes

No

If you answered yes to any of the above questions, please attach relevant documentation.

Appendix 2 Ethics approval

Invitation email to participants

Email subject line: Research about the SA rural school principal

Content of email:

Dear <insert principal's name>

I am studying the Doctor of Education with Flinders University. I am conducting research into what it is like to be a school principal in rural South Australia on Eyre Peninsula.

I am keen to know what you think about your experience of being a school principal in the rural context. I am wondering if you would be interested in participating in 2 interviews with me, where we talk about your experience as a rural school principal.

The potential benefits of your participation in the study include the opportunity you will have to reflect on your career, particularly the chance to explore and reflect on how being in the rural context supports the development of your educational leadership skills and knowledge.

If you are still willing to participate in this study the following would be your commitment: - A 45 – 60 minute 1-on-1 semi-structured audio recorded telephone interview that I subsequently transcribe. - You will be invited, but not compelled, to read and edit the interview transcription. - A follow up 45 – 60 minute 1-on-1 semi-structured audio recorded telephone interview that I subsequently transcribe. - You will be invited, but not compelled, to read and edit the interview transcription. The recordings and transcriptions will be retained on an electronic device under password protection. I will only use recordings for the purpose of transcribing the conversation. Once the recording is transcribed the originals will be stored in a locked area at Flinders University. I plan to present and publish my findings.

Information you share remains confidentially and you can withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty or consequences. Your anonymity cannot be guaranteed because the project engages 5 participants from a pool of 46 potential participants. The research has ethics approval from DECD and Flinders University. I ask that you not disclose

to others that you have been contacted, in order to manage confidentiality in relation to all principals invited to take part in the research project.

Please find attached the following documents: - A Letter of Introduction - An Information Letter - A Consent Form.

If you are still interested in taking part in the research, please read all attachments, then sign and return the Consent Form. Once I have received the signed Consent Form, I will contact you to organise the interview time and place.

Please do not hesitate to contact me at any time to ask questions.

I look forward to your response.

With thanks Kathryn Hardwick-Franco BA (Hons), Grad DipEd, MMus (ethno.) Adel Med (LeaderMgmt) Flin

Doctor of Education Candidate, Leadership and Management Flinders University, South Australia

M: (Content removed for privacy reasons)

E: Kathryn.hardwickfranco@flinders.edu.au

W: <https://kathrynhardwickfra.wixsite.com/mysite>

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (Project number 7906). For more information regarding ethical approval of the project the Executive Officer of the Committee can be contacted by telephone on 8201 3116, by fax on 8201 2035 or by email

human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

Letter of introduction

(Content removed for privacy reasons)

Letter of introduction (cont.)

(Content removed for privacy reasons)

Consent form

(Content removed for privacy reasons)

Information sheet

(Content removed for privacy reasons)

Information sheet (cont.)

(Content removed for privacy reasons)

Information sheet (cont.)

(Content removed for privacy reasons)

Approval to work with DECD school sites



Government of South Australia
Department for Education

System Performance
31 Flinders Street
Adelaide SA 5000
GPO Box 1152
Adelaide SA 5001
DX 541
Tel. +61 8 8226-0809
Education.ResearchUnit@sa.gov.au
www.education.sa.gov.au

REFERENCE NO: CS17/000750-1.13
RESEARCHER: Ms Kathryn Hardwick-Franco
RESEARCH BODY: Flinders University

Dear Principal/Director/Site Manager

The research project titled "*Context and the development of rural school principals: Perspectives of South Australian educational leaders*" has been reviewed centrally and granted approval for access to Department for Education sites. However, the researcher will still need your agreement to proceed with this research at your site.

The Researchers whose names appear below are the only persons permitted to conduct research on your site:

Name	Clearance Type	Expiry Date
Kathryn Hardwick-Franco	DCSI Child-Related Employment Screening	17/8/2019

The Researcher(s) whose names appear below are permitted to conduct research on your site on the condition that they have no contact with children or access to personal information or identifiable data:

- Dr John Halsey, Flinders University
- Associate Professor Shane Pill, Flinders University

Please contact Betty Curzons in the Business Intelligence Unit for any other matters you may wish to discuss regarding your participation (Tel. (08) 8226 0809 or email: Education.ResearchUnit@sa.gov.au).

Yours sincerely

Ben Temperly
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, SYSTEM PERFORMANCE

24/4/2018

Ethics approval from DECD



Government of South Australia
Department for Education

System Performance
31 Flinders Street
Adelaide SA 5000
GPO Box 1152
Adelaide SA 5001
DX 541
Tel. +61 8 8226-0809
Education.ResearchUnit@sa.gov.au
www.education.sa.gov.au

Reference No: CS17/000750-1.13

Ms Kathryn Hardwick-Franco
College of Education, Psychology and Social Work
Flinders University
48 London Street
PORT LINCOLN SA 5606

Dear Ms Hardwick-Franco

Your research project "*Context and the development of rural school principals: Perspectives of South Australian educational leaders*" has been reviewed by a senior officer within our department.

I am pleased to advise you that your application has been approved, subject to the following conditions:

- That a copy of any final reports, presentations or manuscripts accepted for publication be submitted to the Education.ResearchUnit@sa.gov.au mailbox 30 days prior to their publication.
- That the Department for Education is notified when findings are to be released to other government or nongovernment agencies or to participating sites.

Please contact Betty Curzons in the Business Intelligence Unit for any other matters you may wish to discuss regarding your application (Tel. (08) 8226 0809 or email: Education.ResearchUnit@sa.gov.au).

I wish you well with your research.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'B. Temperly'.

Ben Temperly
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, SYSTEM PERFORMANCE

24/4/2018

Appendix 3 Interview questions

These are the interview questions that were explored during the one-on-one telephone interviews with the six rural school principal participants. I opened the interview by thanking participants for making time to take part in my research expressing my hope that the interview was rewarding and informative for them. I reinforced that I appreciated their time and expertise. I established a sense of rapport with each participant by asking questions that started the conversation in ways that were relaxed and valued their personal experiences.

Questions

- 1) It would be helpful if you could summarise your journey to becoming a rural school principal and why you are committed to the role.
- 2) As you navigate the role of the rural school principal, how does the rural context impact on you?
- 3) Can you offer reflections on who or what has been helpful in developing you as a rural school principal?
In what ways was this helpful?
- 4) Could you explore the characteristics of the role of the rural school principal that you believe are important to the way you enact your work?
- 5) When you think about the rural context, what do you think is important for rural school principals like yourself to know, as you lead a rural school?
- 6) Do you have any advice for those who support your development as a rural school principal?
- 7) Can you talk to me about the ways you think the rural context matters when developing people like yourself as rural school principals?
- 8) Could you tell me about how as a rural school principal you help build capacity of teaching staff and support improvements to student learning?
- 9) As we get to the end of the interview, I wonder, do you have advice for people thinking about becoming educational leaders?

10) Some rural school principals' access professional development from training providers, if you were given a chance, what would you like to say to people who train rural school principals?

11) Is there anything you would like to add that you feel is important that we have not covered?

12) Is there anything you would like to ask me about this research project?

At the end of the interview I reminded participants that if there was anything in any way that upset them during the interview, that as DECD staff they have access to the Employee Assistance Program (EAP) through calling 1300 687 327, or emailing eap@convergeintl.com.au. I reminded them that the service is available 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. I reinforced that they should they call; anonymity is assured and no personal or identifying information is shared with DECD without written consent. I also reminded participants that other services that can offer support are Lifeline telephone 13 11 14 and Beyond Blue telephone 1300 22 46 36.

I ended the interview by thanking the participant for their participation.

REFERENCE LIST

- Abdallah, J. (2009). Lowering teacher attrition rates through collegiality. *Academic Leadership: The Online Journal*, 7(1), Article 24. Retrieved from <https://scholars.fhsu.edu/alj/vol7/iss1/24/>
- Aboagye, J., Kaiser, H. & Hayanga, A. (2014). Rural-urban differences in access to specialist providers of colorectal cancer care in the United States: A physician workforce issue. *JAMA Surgery*, 149(6), p. 537–543.
- Abramovay, R. (1992). *Paradigmas do capitalismo agrário em questão* [Agrarian capitalist paradigms in question]. São Paulo: Editora Hucitec. Translation by Fernandes, B. & Welch, C. (2019).
- Abu Dhabi Education Council. (ND). *Professional standards for principals*. Abu Dhabi: Author. Retrieved from https://www.unrwa.org/sites/default/files/adedc_professional_standarda_for_principals.pdf
- Akyeampong, K., Djangmah, J., Oduro, A., Seidu, A. & Hunt, F. (2007). *Access to basic education in Ghana: The evidence and the issues*. Brighton: Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity, Centre for International Education.
- Al-Ani, W. & Al-Harhi, A. (2017). Perceived educational values of Omani school principals. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 20(2), p. 198-219. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2014.1003613
- Alasia, A., Bédard, F., Bélanger, J., Guimond, E. & Penney, C. (2017). *Measuring remoteness and accessibility: A set of indices for Canadian communities*. Reports on special business projects, Catalogue no. 18001-X. Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Centre for Special Business Projects. Retrieved from <http://www5.statcan.gc.ca/olc-cel/olc.action?objId=18-001-X&objType=2&lang=en&limit=0>
- Alcoff, L. (2003). Introduction: Identities: Modern and postmodern. In L. Alcoff and E. Mendieta (Eds.), *Identities: race, class, gender and nationality* (p. 1-8). Melbourne: Blackwell Publishing.
- Alcoff, L. & Mendieta, E. (Eds.) (2003). *Identities: race, class, gender, and nationality*. Melbourne: Blackwell Publishing.
- Ali, F. & Botha, N. (2006). *Evaluating the role, importance and effectiveness of heads of department in contributing to school improvement in public secondary schools in Gauteng*. Johannesburg: MGSLG.
- Alston, M. & Kent, J. [ca. 2008]. *The impact of drought on secondary education access in Australia's rural and remote areas*. Retrieved from <http://www.dest.gov.au/NR/exeres/69C79C18-BCBA-447A-B2FC-01C8F1DA3AF3.htm#publication>
- Álvarez-Álvarez, C., García Prieto, F. & Pozuelos Estrada, F. (2020). Posibilidades, limitaciones y demandas de los centros educativos del medio rural en el norte y sur de España contemplados desde la dirección escolar. *Perfiles Educativos*, 42(168), p. 94-106. DOI: 10.22201/iisue.24486167e.2020.168.59153. Translation by Fernandes, B. & Welch, C. (2019).
- Amit, R. & Sasidharan, S. (2019). Measuring affordability of access to clean water: A coping cost approach. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 141, p. 410-417. DOI: 10.1016/j.resconrec.2018.11.003
- Anderson, B. (2006). *Imagined communities: Reflections on the origins and spread of nationalism*. London: Verso.
- Anderson, M., Davis, M., Douglas, P., Lloyd, D., Niven, B. & Thiele, H. (2010). *A collective act: Leading a small school*. Melbourne: ACER Press.
- Anonymous. (2018). The cover up: Complicity in Rwanda's lies. *Review of African Political Economy*. Retrieved from <http://roape.net/2018/11/21/the-cover-up-complicity-in-rwandas-lies/>

- Ansoms, A. (2019). Expanding the space for criticism in Rwanda. *Review of African Political Economy*. Retrieved from <http://roape.net/2019/03/12/the-green-revolution-in-rwanda-an-expanding-space-for-criticism/>
- Appiah, D., Asante, F. & Nketiah, B. (2019). Perspectives on agricultural land use conversion and food security in rural Ghana. *Sci*, 1, p. 1-13. DOI: 10.3390/sci1010014.v1
- Apple, M. (2013). *Knowledge, power, and education*. New York: Routledge.
- Argent, N. (2013). Reinterpreting core and periphery in Australia's mineral and energy resources boom: An Innisian perspective on the Pilbara. *Australian Geographer: Geographical Political Economy and Resource Development*, 44(3), p. 323–340.
- Ashwood, L., Diamond, D. & Thu, K. (2014). Where's the farmer? Limiting liability in midwestern industrial hog production. *Rural Sociology*, 79(1), p. 2–27.
- Asuga, G., Eacott, S. & Scevak, J. (2015). School leadership preparation and development in Kenya: Evaluating performance impact and return on leadership development investment. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 29(3), p. 355-367. DOI: 10.1108/IJEM-10-2013-0158
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. [ABS]. (2017). *Equivalent total household income (weekly)*. Retrieved from <https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/2901.0Chapter31502016>
- ABS. (2018). *Estimates of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians, June 2016*. Retrieved from <https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/3238.0.55.001>
- ABS. [SEIFA]. (2018). *Census of population and housing: Socio-economic indexes for areas (SEIFA), Australia, 2016*. Retrieved from <https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/2033.0.55.001>
- ABS. [South Australia STE]. (2018). *2016 Census community profiles. South Australia. General community profile*. Retrieved from http://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/communityprofile/4?opendocument
- ABS. [Ceduna LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Ceduna. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA41010?opendocument
- ABS. [Cleve LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Cleve. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA41190?opendocument
- ABS. [Cowell SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Cowell. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC40316?opendocument
- ABS. [Cummins SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Cummins. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC40333?opendocument
- ABS. [Data by region]. (2019). *Data by regions*. Retrieved from <https://itt.abs.gov.au/itt/r.jsp?databyregion>

ABS. [Elliston LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Elliston. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA41750?opendocument

ABS. [Karcultaby SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Karcultaby. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC40662?opendocument

ABS. [Kimba LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Kimba. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA43220?opendocument

ABS. [Koonibba SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC40707?opendocument

ABS. [Lock SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Lock. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC40767?opendocument

ABS. [Penong SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Penong. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC41125?opendocument

ABS. [Poonindie SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Poonindie. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC41170?opendocument

ABS. [Port Augusta LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Port Augusta. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA46090?opendocument

ABS. [Port Lincoln LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Port Lincoln. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA46300?opendocument

ABS. [Port Neill SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Port Neill. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC41191?opendocument

ABS. [QuickStats]. (2019). *QuickStats. Home*. Retrieved from <https://www.abs.gov.au/websitedbs/D3310114.nsf/Home/2016%20QuickStats>

ABS. [Streaky Bay LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Streaky Bay. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA47490?opendocument

ABS. [Tumby Bay LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Tumby Bay. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA47910?opendocument

ABS. [Ungarra SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Ungarra. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC41473?opendocument

ABS. [Wangary SSC]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Lake Wangary. State Suburbs*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/SSC41514?opendocument

ABS. [Whyalla LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Whyalla. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA48540?opendocument

ABS. [Wudinna LGA]. (2019). *2016 Census QuickStats. Wudinna. Local Government Areas*. Retrieved from https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/LGA48640?opendocument

ABS. [Adelaide]. (2020). *Adelaide (C) (LGA) (70070)*. Retrieved from https://itt.abs.gov.au/itt/r.jsp?RegionSummary®ion=40070&dataset=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018&geoncept=LGA_2018&datasetASGS=ABS_REGIONAL_ASGS2016&datasetLGA=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018®ionLGA=LGA_2018®ionASGS=ASGS_2016

ABS. [Ceduna]. (2020). *Ceduna (C) (LGA) (41010)*. Retrieved from https://itt.abs.gov.au/itt/r.jsp?RegionSummary®ion=41010&dataset=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018&geoncept=LGA_2018&datasetASGS=ABS_REGIONAL_ASGS2016&datasetLGA=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018®ionLGA=LGA_2018®ionASGS=ASGS_2016

ABS. [Port Augusta]. (2020). *Port Augusta (C) (LGA) (46090)*. Retrieved from https://itt.abs.gov.au/itt/r.jsp?RegionSummary®ion=46090&dataset=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018&geoncept=LGA_2018&datasetASGS=ABS_REGIONAL_ASGS2016&datasetLGA=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018®ionLGA=LGA_2018®ionASGS=ASGS_2016

ABS. (2020). *Remoteness Structure*. Retrieved from <https://www.abs.gov.au/websitedbs/D3310114.nsf/home/remoteness+structure>

ABS. [Port Lincoln]. (2020). *Port Lincoln (C) (LGA) (46300)*. Retrieved from https://itt.abs.gov.au/itt/r.jsp?RegionSummary®ion=46300&dataset=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018&geoncept=LGA_2018&datasetASGS=ABS_REGIONAL_ASGS2016&datasetLGA=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018®ionLGA=LGA_2018®ionASGS=ASGS_2016

ABS. [Whyalla]. (2020). *Whyalla (C) (LGA) (48540)*. Retrieved from https://itt.abs.gov.au/itt/r.jsp?RegionSummary®ion=48540&dataset=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018&geoncept=LGA_2018&datasetASGS=ABS_REGIONAL_ASGS2016&datasetLGA=ABS_REGIONAL_LGA2018®ionLGA=LGA_2018®ionASGS=ASGS_2016

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. [ACARA]. (NDa). *Australian curriculum*. Retrieved from <https://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/>

ACARA. (NDb). *My school*. Retrieved from <https://www.myschool.edu.au/>

- ACARA. (NDc). *What does the index of community socio-educational advantage (ICSEA) value mean?* Retrieved from <https://www.myschool.edu.au/glossary/>
- ACARA. (2013). *Guide to understanding 2012 index of community socio-educational advantage (ICSEA) values*. Retrieved from <http://www.myschool.edu.au>
- ACARA. (2016). *NAPLAN achievement in reading, writing, language conventions and numeracy: National report for 2016*. Sydney: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.nap.edu.au/docs/default-source/default-document-library/2016-naplan-national-report.pdf?sfvrsn=2>
- Australian Early Development Census. [AEDC]. (2019a). *About the AEDC*. Retrieved from <http://www.aedc.gov.au/about-the-aedc>
- AEDC. (2019b). *Data explorer*. Retrieved from <https://www.aedc.gov.au/data/data-explorer>
- AEDC. (2019c). *Research project. The predictive validity of the AEDC; predicting NAPLAN outcomes at year 3, 5, 7, and 9*. Retrieved from <https://www.aedc.gov.au/researchers/resources-for-data-users/research-projects/research-project/the-predictive-validity-of-the-aedc-predicting-naplan-outcomes-at-year-3-5-7-and-9>
- Australian Government. Bureau of Meteorology. [BOM]. (2016). *Indigenous weather knowledge*. Retrieved from <http://www.bom.gov.au/iwk/>
- Australian Institute of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies. [AIATSIS]. (ND). *Indigenous Australian languages. Celebrating 2019 International Year of Indigenous Languages*. Retrieved from <https://aiatsis.gov.au/explore/articles/indigenous-australian-languages>
- Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. [AIHW]. (2013). *Youth justice in Australia 2011–12: An overview Bulletin no. 115*. Canberra: Author.
- AIHW. (2019). *Rural & remote health*. Canberra: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.aihw.gov.au/reports/rural-remote-australians/rural-remote-health>
- Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership. [AITSL]. (2016). *Spotlight. What do we know about early career teacher attrition rates in Australia?* Melbourne: Author.
- AITSL. (2017). *Improve leadership with the principal standard*. Melbourne: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.aitsl.edu.au/lead-develop/understand-the-principal-standard>
- AITSL. (2019). *Australian professional standard for principals and the leadership profiles [APSP]*. Melbourne: Educational Services Australia. Retrieved from https://www.aitsl.edu.au/docs/default-source/national-policy-framework/australian-professional-standard-for-principals.pdf?sfvrsn=c07eff3c_4
- Avery, L. (2013). Rural science education: Valuing local knowledge. *Theory into practice*, 52(1), p. 28–35. DOI: 10.1080/07351690.2013.743769
- Azizuddin, M. (2019). Vietnam's Post-1975 Agrarian Reforms: How Local Politics Derailed Socialist Agriculture in Southern Vietnam. *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 49(4), p. 684-686. DOI: [10.1080/00472336.2018.1508605](https://doi.org/10.1080/00472336.2018.1508605)
- Bagley, C. & Hillyard, S. (2011). Village schools in England: At the heart of their community? *Australian Journal of Education*, 55(1), p. 37-49.

- Bain, R., Cronk, R., Hossain, R., Bonjour, S., Onda, K., Wright, J., Yang, H., Slaymaker, T., Hunter, P., Prüss-Ustün, A. & Bartram, J. (2014). Global assessment of exposure to faecal contamination through drinking water based on a systematic review. *Tropical Medicine & International Health*, 19(8), p. 917–927.
- Bakhtin, M. (1996). Forms of time and of the chronotope in the novel. In M. Holquist (Ed.), *The Dialogic Imagination: Four Essays* (p. 84-258). Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Ballas, D., Dorling, D. & Henning, B. (2017). Analysing the regional geography of poverty, austerity and inequity in Europe: A human cartographic perspective. *Regional Studies*, 51(1), p. 174-185.
- Bantwini, B. & Feza, N. (2017). Left behind in a democratic society: A case of some farm school primary school teachers of natural science in South Africa. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 20(3), p. 312-327. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2015.1124927
- Barber, M. & Mourshed, M. (2009). *Shaping the future: How good education systems can become great in the decade ahead*. No Place: McKinsey and Company. Retrieved from http://www.mckinsey.com/locations/southeastasia/knowledge/Education_Roundtable.pdf
- Barber, M., Whelan, F. & Clark, M. (2010). *Capturing the leadership premium. How the world's top school systems are building leadership capacity for the future*. No Place: McKinsey and Company. Retrieved from http://mckinseysociety.com/downloads/reports/Education/schoolleadership_final.pdf
- Barbour, L., Gribbin, C. & Machan, E. (2020, January 27). How long until drought-stricken towns run out of water? *ABC News*. Retrieved from <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2020-01-27/how-long-until-drought-stricken-towns-run-out-of-water/11655124>
- Barreto, P. & Muggah, R. (2019, August 23). The Amazon is reaching a dangerous tipping point. We need to scale solutions now if we have any chance of saving it. *World Economic Forum*. Retrieved from https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/08/amazon-dangerous-tipping-point-forest-fires-brazil?utm_source=Facebook%20Videos&utm_medium=Facebook%20Videos&utm_campaign=Facebook%20Video%20Blogs
- Bartley, T. (2007). Institutional emergence in an era of globalization: The rise of transnational private regulation of labor and environmental conditions. *American Journal of Sociology*, 113(2), p. 297–351.
- Battiste, M. (2002). *Indigenous knowledge and pedagogy in First Nations education: A literature review with recommendations*. Ottawa: National Working Group on Education. Retrieved from https://www.truworld.ca/_shared/assets/Battiste_2002_Indigenous_Knowledge_and_Pedagogy23663.pdf
- Beach, D., From, T., Johansson, M. & Öhrn, E. (2018). Educational and spatial justice in rural and urban areas in three Nordic countries: A metaethnographic analysis. *Education Inquiry*, 9(1), p. 4-21. DOI: 10.1080/20004508.2018.1430423
- Beach, D., Johansson, M., Öhrn, E., Rönnlund, M. & Per-Åke, R. (2019). Rurality and education relations: Metro-centricity and local values in rural communities and rural schools. *European Educational Research Journal*, 18(1), p. 19-33. DOI: 10.1177/1474904118780420
- Bednaříková, Z., Bavorová, M. & Ponkina, E. (2016). Migration motivation of agriculturally educated rural youth: The case of Russian Siberia. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 45, p. 99–111.

- Begley, P. (2006). Self-knowledge, capacity and sensitivity: Prerequisites to authentic leadership by school principals. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 44, p. 570–589.
- Belkhir, M., Brouard, M., Brunk, K., Dalmoro, M., Ferreira, M., Figueiredo, B., Huff, A., Scaraboto, D., Sibai, O. & Smith, A. (2019). Isolation in globalizing academic fields: A collaborative autoethnography of early career researchers. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 18(2), p. 261-285. DOI: 10.5465/amle.2017.0329
- Bell, D. (2006). Variations on the rural idyll. In P. Cloke, T. Marsden and P. Mooney (Eds.), *The hand book of rural studies* (p. 149-160). London: Sage.
- Bellon, T. (2019, August 22). Explainer: what are the obstacles to Bayer settling Roundup lawsuits? *Reuters*. Retrieved from <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-bayer-glyphosate-lawsuit-explainer/explainer-what-are-the-obstacles-to-bayer-settling-roundup-lawsuits-idUSKCN1VC11E>
- Berdegúe, J., Bebbington, A. & Escobal, J. (2015). Explaining spatial diversity in Latin American rural development: Structures, institutions and coalitions. *World Development*, 73, p. 129–137.
- Berryman, M., Egan, M. & Ford, T. (2017). Examining the potential of critical and Kaupapa Māori approaches to leading education reform in New Zealand’s English-medium secondary schools. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 20(5), p. 525-538. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2016.1206973
- Berryman, M., SooHoo, S. & Nevin, A. (Eds.). (2013). *Culturally responsive methodologies*. Bingley: Emerald Publishing Group.
- Besser, T. (2009). Changes in small town social capital and civic engagement. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 25(2), p. 185–193.
- Béteille, T., Kalogrides, D. & Loeb, S. (2012). Stepping stones: Principal career paths and school outcomes. *Social Science Research*, 41, p. 904–919. DOI: 10.1016/j.ssresearch.2012.03.003
- Bhengu, T. & Gowpall, Y. (2015). When decentralisation becomes centralisation: An ethnographic study about teachers’ experiences of participation in decision-making in a secondary school in the Pinetown District. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 43(1), p. 9–17.
- Biddle, C. & Azano, A. (2016). Constructing and reconstructing the “rural school problem”. *Review of Research in Education*, 40(1), p. 298-325. DOI: 10.3102/0091732x16667700
- Biermann, F. & Boas, I. (2010). Preparing for a warmer world: Towards a global governance system to protect climate refugees. *Global Environmental Politics*, 10(1), p. 60-88.
- Bisschoff, T. (2009). Mandated change gone wrong? A case study of law-based school reform in South Africa. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 23(4), p. 336–347.
- Bisschoff, T. & Grobler, B. (1998). The management of teacher competence. *Journal of In-Service Education*, 24(2), p. 191–211.
- Bjarnason, T. & Thorlindsson, T. (2006). Should I stay or should I go? Migration expectations among youth in Icelandic fishing and farming communities. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 22, p. 290-300.
- Blaikie, N. (2010). *Designing social research. The logic of anticipation* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Polity Press.

- Blanchard, T., Li, J., Mencken, C. & Tolbert, C. (2012). Entrepreneurial environment and the prevalence of diabetes in U.S. Counties. *International Scholarly Research Notices 2012*, Article ID 359473, p. 1-5. DOI: 10.5402/2012/359473.
- Blanchard, T., Tolbert, C. & Mencken, F. (2013). The health and wealth of U.S. counties: How the small business environment impacts alternative measures of development. *Cambridge Journal of Regions, Economy, and Society*, 5, p. 149–162.
- Blase, J. (1987). Dimensions of effective school leadership: The teacher's perspective. *American Educational Research Journal*, 24, p. 589-610.
- Bollman, R. & Reimer, B. (2018, July 28 - August 2). The dimensions of rurality: implications for classifying inhabitants as 'rural', implications for rural policy and implications for rural indicators. In *30th International Conference of Agricultural Economists, Vancouver, Canada*.
- Borden A., Preskill, S. & DeMoss, K. (2012). A new turn toward learning for leadership: Findings from an exploratory coursework pilot project. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, 7, p. 123-152.
- Borras, S., Franco, J. & Wang, C. (2013). The challenge of global governance of land grabbing: Changing international agricultural context and competing political views and strategies. *Globalizations*, 10(1), p. 161–179.
- Boske, C. (2011). Educating leaders for social justice. In C. Shields (Ed.), *Transformative leadership in education: Equitable change in an uncertain and complex world* (p. 362-382). New York: Routledge.
- Botha, R. (2006). Leadership in school-based management: A case study in selected schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 26(3), p. 341–353.
- Botha, R. (2014). The place and role of distributed leadership in functional and effective South African schools: Towards school improvement. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(20), p. 1225–1232.
- Bottoms, G. & O'Neil, K. (2001). *Preparing a new breed of school Principals: It's time for action*. Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board.
- Boustan, L. & Langan, A. (2019). Variation in women's success across PhD programs in economics. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 33(1), p. 23-41. DOI: 10.1257/jep.33.1.23
- Brabazon, T. (N.D.). *Home* [YouTube Channel]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/user/TaraBrabazon>
- Brabazon, T. (2018, June 26). *Vlog 109 Grey Literature*. [YouTube Video]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JQRMkL4Fbc4>
- Brabazon, T. (2019, May 31). *Vlog 167 The Blue Economy*. [YouTube Video]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XBZLMMG6IFM>
- Brabazon, T. (2019, July 21). *Vlog 170 Green Economy*. [YouTube Video]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q8YeksyxHRY&t=7s>
- Brabazon, T., Redhead, S. & Chivaura, R. S. (2019). *Trump Studies: an intellectual guide to why citizens vote against their interest intellectual guide to why citizens vote against their interests*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing.

- Bradley, K. & Herrera, H. (2016). Decolonizing food justice: Naming, resisting, and researching colonizing forces in the movement. *Antipode*, 48(1), p. 97–114.
- Brezzi, M., Dijkstra, L. & Ruiz, V. (2011). *OECD Extended regional typology: The economic performance of remote rural regions*. OECD Regional Development Working Papers, 2011/06. Paris: OECD Publishing. DOI: 10.1787/5kg6z83tw7f4-en
- British Broadcasting Corporation. [BBC]. (2019, September 12). Purdue Pharma ‘reaches tentative agreement’ to settle opioid cases. *BBC News*. Retrieved from <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-us-canada-49670690>
- BBC. (2020, June 4). Arctic oil spill prompts Putin to declare a state of emergency. *BBC News*. Retrieved from <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-52915807>
- Brock, C. & Barham, B. (2015). Amish dedication to farming and adoption of organic dairy systems. In B. Freyer and J. Bingen (Eds.), *Re-Thinking organic food and farming in a changing world* (p. 233-255). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Brooks, J., Havard, T., Tatum, K. & Patrick, L. (2010). It takes more than a village: Inviting partners and complexity in educational leadership preparation reform. *Journal of Research on Leadership in Education*, 5(12), p. 418-435. DOI: 10.1177/194277511000501204
- Brown, R. (2003). Community attachment. In K. Christensen and D. Levinson (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of community: From the village to the virtual world* (p. 245-246), vol. 1. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Brown, L. & Conrad, D. (2007). School leadership in Trinidad and Tobago: The challenge of context. *Comparative Education Review*, 51, p. 181-201.
- Brown, B. & Duku, N. (2008). Negotiated identities: Dynamics in parents’ participation in school governance in rural Eastern Cape schools and implication for school leadership. *South African Journal of Education*, 28(3), p. 431–450.
- Brown, M., McNamara, G., O’Hara, J., Hood, S., Burns, D. & Kurum, G. (2019). Evaluating the impact of distributed culturally responsive leadership in a disadvantaged rural primary school in Ireland. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 47(3), p. 457-474. DOI: 10.1177/1741143217739360
- Browne-Ferrigno, T. & Allen, L. W. (2006). Preparing principals for high-need rural schools: A central office perspective about collaborative efforts to transform school leadership. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 21(1), p. 1–16.
- Brunswic, E. & Valerien, J. (2004). *Multigrade schools: Improving access in rural Africa?* Paris: UNESCO.
- Bryden, J. & Bollman, R. (2000). Rural employment in industrialised countries. *Agricultural Economics*, 22, p. 185-197.
- Buainain, A., Romeiro, A. & Guanziroli, C. (2003). Agricultura familiar e o novo mundo rural [Family agriculture and the new rural world]. *Sociologias*, 10, p. 312–347. Translation by Fernandes & Welch (2019).
- Buchanan, J. (2012). Telling tales out of school: Exploring why former teachers are not return to the classroom. *Australian Journal of Education*, 56(2), p. 205-220.

- Bullers, S. (2005). Environmental stressors, perceived control, and health: The case of residents near large-scale hog farms in eastern North Carolina. *Human Ecology*, 33(1), p. 1–16.
- Bünemann, E., Bongiorno, G., Bai, Z., Creamer, R., De Deyn, G., de Goede, R., Fleskens, L., Geissen, V., Kuyper, T., Mäder, P., Pulleman, M., Sukkel, W., van Groenigen, J. & Brussaard, L. (2018). Soil quality – A critical review. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 120, p. 105–125.
- Burdick-Will, J. & Logan, J. (2017). Schools at the rural-urban boundary: Blurring the divide? *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 672(1), p. 185-201. DOI: 10.1177/0002716217707176
- Burnett, R. et al. (2018). Global estimates of mortality associated with long-term exposure to outdoor fine particulate matter. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(38), p. 9592-9597.
- Bush, T. (2008). *Leadership and management development in education*. London: Sage.
- Bush, T. (2011). *Theories of educational leadership and management* (4th ed.). London: Sage.
- Bush, T. (2013). Instructional leadership and leadership for learning: Global and South African perspectives. *Education as Change*, 17(sup1), p. S5–S20. DOI: [10.1080/16823206.2014.865986](https://doi.org/10.1080/16823206.2014.865986)
- Bush, T. & Heystek, J. (2003). School governance in the new South Africa. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 33(2), p. 127–138. DOI: [10.1080/0305792032000070084](https://doi.org/10.1080/0305792032000070084)
- Bush, T., Kiggundu, E. & Moorosi, P. (2011). Preparing new principals in South Africa: The ACE: School leadership programme. *South African Journal of Education*, 31(1), p. 31–43.
- Bush, T. & Moloi, K. C. (2007). Race, racism and discrimination in school leadership: Evidence from England and South Africa. *International Studies in Educational Administration*, 35(1), p. 41–59.
- Butler, T. & Lees, L. (2006). Super-gentrification in Barnsbury, London: Globalization and gentrifying global elites at the neighborhood level. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 31(4), p. 467–487.
- Cafer, A. (2018). Khat: Adaptive community resilience strategy or short-sighted money maker? *Rural Sociology*, 83(4), p. 772-798. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12209
- Cajete, G. (1994). *Look to the mountain: An ecology of Indigenous education*. Durango, CO: Kivaki Press.
- Caldwell, B. J. (2006). *Re-imagining educational leadership*. Melbourne: ACER Press.
- Calo, A. (2016, October 28). For farmers, this land is often someone else's. *San Francisco Chronicle*. Retrieved from <http://www.sfchronicle.com/opinion/article/For-farmers-this-land-is-often-someone-else-s-10420689.php>
- Campbell, R. (2017). *The housing experiences of young people on the Isle of Mull*. (Doctoral thesis, University of Stirling, Stirling, Scotland). Retrieved from https://dspace.stir.ac.uk/handle/1893/28341?mode=full#Xp_sbMgza70
- Carbonell, R., Iggulden, T. & Davies, J. (2019, March 6). Murray-Darling Basin could be missing billions of litres of water, study claims. *ABC News*. Retrieved from <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2019-03-06/billions-of-litres-of-water-missing-from-murray-darling-basin/10873782>

Cardno Agrisystems Limited. (2008). *Understanding the economics of land reform in Limpopo and developing a best practice model for post-settlement land restitution*. Polokwane: Polokwane Cardno Agrisystems Limited Research Report.

Carolan, M. (2018). Justice across real and imagined food worlds: Rural corn growers, urban agriculture activists, and the political ontologies they live by. *Rural Sociology*, 83(4), p. 823-856. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12211

Carruthers, P., Winter, M. & Evans, N. (2013). *Farming's value to society. Realising the opportunity*. Commissioned by the Oxford Farming Conference to provide information for the 2013 Conference *Confident Farmers Delivering for Society*. Oxford: Oxford Farming Conference. Retrieved from <https://www.ofc.org.uk/sites/ofc/files/research/ofcreportfullow.pdf>

Carvalho, R., Aguiar, APD. & Amaral, S. (2020). Diversity of cattle raising systems and its effects over forest regrowth in a core region of cattle productions in the Brazilian Amazon. *Regional Environmental Change*, 20(4), p. 1-15. DOI: 10.1007/s10113-020-01626-5

Castaneda, R., Doan, D., Newhouse, D., Nguyen, M., Uematsu, H. & Azevedo, J. (2018). A new profile of the global poor. *World Development*, 101, p. 250-267. DOI: 10.1016/j.worlddev.2017.08.002

Castree, N. (2008). Neoliberalising nature: The logics of deregulation and reregulation. *Environment and Planning A*, 40, p. 131–152.

Centre for the Study of AIDS. (2005). *Young, rural teachers most at risk*. Pretoria: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.csa.za.org/article/view/346/1/1>

Cervone, J. (2018). *Corporatizing rural education neo-liberal globalisation and reaction in the US*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Chambers, C., Crumb, L. & Harris, C. (2019). A call for dreamkeepers in rural United States: Considering the postsecondary aspirations of rural ninth graders. *Theory & Practice in Rural Education*, 9(1), p. 7-22.

Chambers, C. (2020). Let's give 'em something to talk about: Spurring college conversations among rural students, schools, and families. In H. C. Green, B. Zugelder and J. Manner (Eds.), *Handbook of research on leadership and advocacy for children and families in rural poverty* (p. 279-294). Pennsylvania, USA: IGI Global.

Chan, J., Iankova, K., Zhang, Y., McDonald, T. & Qi, X. (2016). The role of self-gentrification in sustainable tourism: Indigenous entrepreneurship at Honghe Hani Rice Terraces World Heritage Site, China. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24, (8-9), p. 1262-1279. DOI: 10.1080/09669582.2016.1189923

Chaplin, H., Davidova, S. & Gorton, M. (2004). Agricultural adjustment and the diversification of farm households and corporate farms in central Europe. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 20, p. 61–77.

Chikoko, V. (2009). Educational decentralisation in Zimbabwe and Malawi: A study of decisional location and process. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 29(3), p. 201–211.

Chikoko, V., Naicker, I. & Mthiyane, S. (2015). School leadership practices that work in areas of multiple deprivation in South Africa. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 43(3), p. 452–467.

Chikozho, C., Makombe, G. & Milondzo, K. (2019). Difficult roads leading to beautiful destinations? Articulating land reform's contribution to rural livelihoods in the Limpopo Province, South Africa. *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth*, 111, p. 13-19. DOI: 10.1016/j.pce.2018.11.003

- Chisholm, L. (1999). The democratization of schools and the politics of teachers' work in South Africa. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 29(2), p. 111–126. DOI: [10.1080/0305792990290202](https://doi.org/10.1080/0305792990290202)
- Christie, P. (1998). Schools as (dis)organisations: The 'breakdown of the culture of learning and teaching' in South African schools. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 28(3), p. 292–300.
- Clark, E. (2005). The order and simplicity of gentrification: a political challenge. In R. Atkinson and G. Bridge (Eds.), *Gentrification in a Global Context: The New Urban Colonialism* (p. 261-269). New York: Routledge.
- Clarke, H., Surgenor, E., Imrich, J. & Wells, N. (2003). *Enhancing rural learning: Report of the task force on rural education*. Victoria, BC: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from http://www.bced.gov.bc.ca/mintask/rural_task_rep.pdf.
- Clarke, S. & O'Donoghue, T. (2017). Educational leadership and context: A rendering of an inseparable relationship. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 65(2), p. 167–182.
- Clase, P., Kok, J. & van der Merwe, M. (2007). Tension between school governing bodies and educational authorities in South Africa and proposed resolutions thereof. *South African Journal of Education*, 27(2), p. 243-263.
- Clayton, J., Sanzo, K. & Myran, S. (2013). Understanding mentoring in leadership development: perspectives of district administrators and aspiring leaders. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, 8(1), p. 77-96. DOI: 10.1177/1942775112464959
- Cloke, P., Milbourne, P. & Widdowfield, R. (2001). Interconnecting housing, homelessness and rurality: Evidence from local authority homelessness officers in England and Wales. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 17, p. 99-111.
- Cloke, P., Widdowfield, R. & Milbourne, P. (2000). The hidden and emerging spaces of rural homelessness. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space*, 32(1), p. 77-90. DOI: 10.1068/a3242
- Coady, D., Parry, I., Le, N. & Shang, B. (2019). *IMF Working Paper. Global fossil fuel subsidies remain large: An update based on country-level estimates*. Washington: International Monetary Fund. Retrieved from <https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/WP/Issues/2019/05/02/Global-Fossil-Fuel-Subsidies-Remain-Large-An-Update-Based-on-Country-Level-Estimates-46509>
- Coetzee, S., Ebersöhn, L., Ferreira, R. & Moen, M. (2017). Disquiet voices foretelling hope: Rural teachers' resilience experiences of past and present chronic adversity. *Journal of Asian and African Studies*, 52(2), p. 201-216.
- Cole, D., Todd, L. & Wing, S. (2000). Concentrated swine feeding operations and public health: A review of occupational and community health effects. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 108(8), p. 685–699.
- Commins, P. (2004). Poverty and social exclusion in rural areas: Characteristics, processes and research issues. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 44(1), p. 60-75.
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2019). *National regional, rural and remote tertiary education strategy final report*. Canberra: Department of Education. Retrieved from https://docs.education.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/national_regional_rural_and_remote_tertiary_education_strategy.pdf

- Commonwealth of Australia. (2020). *Closing the gap report 2020*. Canberra: Author. Retrieved from <https://ctgreport.niaa.gov.au/sites/default/files/pdf/closing-the-gap-report-2020.pdf>
- Connolly, K. (2019, August 7). 'Part of the German soul' under threat as forests die. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/environment/2019/aug/07/part-of-german-soul-under-threat-as-forests-die>
- Constance, D., Hendrickson, M., Howard, P. & Heffernan, W. (2014). Economic concentration in the agrifood system: Impacts on rural communities and emerging responses. In C. Bailey, L. Jensen and E. Ransom (Eds.), *Rural America in a globalizing world: Problems and prospects for the 2010s* (p. 16–35). Morgantown, WV: West Virginia University Press.
- Corrie, L. (2000). Facilitating newly qualified teachers' growth as collaborative practitioners. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 28(2), p. 111–121.
- Council of Chief State School Officers. [CCSSO]. (2015). *Professional standards for educational leaders*. Retrieved from <https://ccsso.org/resource-library/professional-standards-educational-leaders>
- Couper, I. (2018). *Place in the sun: Reflections on relationships, rules and rurality*. Inaugural lecture delivered 4 September 2018. Stellenbosch University: African Sun Media. Retrieved from https://www.sun.ac.za/english/Documents/InauguralPublication_ProfICouper_29Aug2018.pdf
- Cowie, M. & Crawford, M. (2007). Principal preparation—still an act of faith? *School Leadership and Management*, 27(2), p. 129–146.
- Cramer, K. (2016). *The politics of resentment: Rural consciousness in Wisconsin and the rise of Scott Walker*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The Foundations of Social Research*. Sydney: Allen & Unwin.
- Crow, H. (2010). *Factors influencing rural migration decisions in Scotland: An analysis of the evidence*. Edinburgh: Scottish Government. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.scot/publications/factors-influencing-rural-migration-decisions-scotland-analysis-evidence/pages/11/>
- Crown. (2020). *National records of Scotland*. Retrieved from <https://www.nrscotland.gov.uk/statistics-and-data/statistics/statistics-by-theme/population/population-estimates/mid-year-population-estimates/population-estimates-time-series-data>
- Crump, S., Twyford, K. & Littler, M. (2008). Interactive distance e-Learning for isolated communities: The policy footprint. *Education in Rural Australia*, 18(2), p. 39-52.
- Cubas, T. E. A. (2017). O São Paulo agrário na era da globalização [Agrarian São Paulo in the globalization era] (Doctoral thesis, Universidade Estadual Paulista, Brasil). Translation by Fernandes, B. & Welch, C. (2019).
- Culliney, M. (2014). Going nowhere? Rural youth labour market opportunities and obstacles. *Journal of Poverty and Social Justice*, 22(1), p. 45–57.
- Curtis, K., Lee, J., O'Connell, H. & Zhu, J. (2019). The spatial distribution of poverty and the long reach of the industrial makeup of places: New evidence on spatial and temporal regimes. *Rural Sociology*, 83(1), p. 28-65. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12216

- Dabney, K., Chakraverty, D., Hutton, A., Warner, A. & Tai, R. (2019). The bachelor's to PhD transition: Factors influencing PhD completion among women in chemistry and physics. *Bulletin of Science, Technology and Society*, 36(4), p. 203-210.
- Darling, E. (2005). The city in the country: Wilderness gentrification and the rent gap. *Environment and Planning A*, 37(6), p. 1015–1032. DOI: 10.1068/a37158
- Davies, A. (2019, April 17). Questions over companies chosen for \$200m of Murray-Darling water buybacks. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/australia-news/2019/apr/17/questions-over-companies-chosen-for-200m-of-murray-darling-water-buybacks>
- Davies, G. (2019, October 9). British unions vote to boycott Israel. *The Bulletin*. Retrieved from <https://socialistproject.ca/2019/10/british-unions-vote-to-boycott-israel/>
- Day, C., Sammons, P., Hopkins, D., Harris, A., Leithwood, K., Gu, Q. & Brown, F. (2010). *10 strong claims about successful school leadership*. Nottingham: National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services.
- De Clercq, F. (2007). School monitoring and change: A critical examination of whole school-evaluation. *Education as Change*, 11(2), p. 97–113.
- De La Fuente, A., Jacoby, H. & Lawin, K. (2019). *Impact of the West African Ebola epidemic on agricultural production and rural welfare: Evidence from Liberia*. St. Louis: Federal Reserve Bank of St Louis. [Policy Research Working Paper Series](http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/423511560254844269/pdf/Impact-of-the-West-African-Ebola-Epidemic-on-Agricultural-Production-and-Rural-Welfare-Evidence-from-Liberia.pdf) 8880, The World Bank. Retrieved from <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/423511560254844269/pdf/Impact-of-the-West-African-Ebola-Epidemic-on-Agricultural-Production-and-Rural-Welfare-Evidence-from-Liberia.pdf>
- Democracy Now. (2020, October 12). Monsanto-Bayer. In *Twitter* [@democracynow]. Retrieved 12th October, 2020. Retrieved from <https://twitter.com/democracynow/status/1160748741491642368>
- Dickson, M., Den Hartog, D. & Mitchelson, J. (2003). Research on leadership in a cross-cultural context: Making progress, and raising new questions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14, p. 729-768.
- Dijkstra, L. & Poelman, H. (2008). *Remote rural regions: How the proximity to a city influences the performance of rural regions*. Regional Focus No. 1, 2008. Brussels: European Union, Regional Policy. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/focus/2008_01_rural.pdf
- Dimmock, C. (2012). *Leadership, capacity building and school improvement concepts, themes and impact*. London: Routledge.
- Dimmock, C. & Walker, A. (2005). *Educational leadership: Culture and diversity*. London: Sage Publications.
- Doctors of the World. (2020). *World Refugee Day 2019*. [Online Blog]. Retrieved from <https://doctorsoftheworld.org/blog/world-refugee-day-2019/>
- Doss, C., Summerfield, G. & Tsikata, D. (2014). Land, gender, and food security. *Feminist Economics*, 20(1), p. 1–23.
- Doteuchi, A. (2006). Three initiatives to invigorate society in the era of population decrease. *NLI Research*, 5(2), p. 1–6.

- Downes, N. & Roberts, P. (2018). Revisiting the schoolhouse: A literature review on staffing rural, remote and isolated schools in Australia 20014-2016. *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education*, 28(1), p. 31-54.
- Drew, J., Dollery, B. & Blackwell, B. (2017). A square deal? Mining costs, mining royalties and local government in New South Wales, Australia. *Resources Policy* (55), p. 113-122. DOI: 10.1016/j.resourpol.2017.11.004.
- Dubbeling, M. & De Zeeuw, H. (2011). Urban agriculture and climate change adaptation: Ensuring food security through adaptation. In K. Otto-Zimmermann (Ed.), *Resilient Cities. Local Sustainability, Vol 1.* (p. 441–449). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer. DOI: 10.1007/978-94-007-0785-6_44
- Duncan, C. & Sankey, D. (2019). Two conflicting visions of education and their consilience. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 51(14), p. 1454-1464. DOI: 10.1080/00131857.2018.1557044
- Duncan, H. E. & Stock, M. J. (2010). Mentoring and coaching rural school leaders: What do they need? *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 18(3), p. 293–311. DOI: 10.1080/13611267.2010.492947
- Du Plessis, P. (2013). The principal as instructional leader: Guiding schools to improve instruction. *Education as Change*, 17(sup1), S79–S92. DOI: [10.1080/16823206.2014.865992](https://doi.org/10.1080/16823206.2014.865992)
- DuPuis, E. (2006). Landscapes of desires? In P. Cloke, T. Marsden and P. Mooney (Eds.), *The handbook of rural studies* (p. 124-132). London: Sage. DOI: 10.4135/9781848608016.n8
- Dutta, M. & Thaker, J. (2019). ‘Communication sovereignty’ as resistance: strategies adopted by women farmers amid the agrarian crisis in India. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 47(1), p. 24-46.
- Eacott, S. (2010). Bourdieu’s strategies and the challenge for educational leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 13(3), p. 265-281. DOI: 10.1080/13603120903410587
- Eacott, S. (2011). New look leaders or a new look at leadership? *International Journal of Educational Management*, 25(2), p. 134-143.
- Eacott, S. (2013). The return on school leadership preparation and development courses: A study on Australian university-based courses. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 27(7), p. 686-699.
- Eacott, S. (2019). High-impact school leadership in context. *Leading and Managing* 25(2), p. 66-79.
- Echazarra, A. & Radinger, T. (2019). *Learning in rural schools: insights from PISA, TALIS and the literature. OECD Education Working Paper No. 196.* Paris: OECD. DOI: 10.1787/8b1a5cb9-en
- Economic Research Service. (2018). *Atlas of rural and small town America.* U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from <https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/atlas-of-rural-and-small-town-america/>
- Edirisingha, P. (2012). *Interpretivism and positivism (ontological and epistemological perspectives).* [Online blog]. Retrieved from <https://prabash78.wordpress.com/2012/03/14/interpretivism-and-positivism-ontological-and-epistemological-perspectives/>
- Education Act 1972 (SA)* Retrieved from <https://www.legislation.sa.gov.au/LZ/C/A/EDUCATION%20ACT%201972/CURRENT/1972.154.AUTH.PDF>
- Education Act 1972 (SA) part 4 div 6 sub-div 42.* Retrieved from <https://www.legislation.sa.gov.au/LZ/C/A/EDUCATION%20ACT%201972/CURRENT/1972.154.AUTH.PDF>

- Edwards-Groves, C., Grootenboer, P. & Ronnerman, L. (2016). Facilitating a culture of relational trust in school-based action research: Recognising the role of middle leaders. *Educational Action Research*, 24(3), p. 369–386. DOI: 10.1080/09650792.2015.1131175
- Elbakidze, M., Angelstam, P., Yamelynets, T., Dawson, L., Gebrehiwot, M., Stryamets, N., Johansson, K-E., Garrido, P., Naumov, V. & Manton, M. (2017). A bottom-up approach to map land covers as potential green infrastructure hubs for human well-being in rural settings: A case study from Sweden. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 168, p. 72–83.
- Espino, M. (2016). "Get an education in case he leaves you": Consejos for Mexican American women PhDs. *Harvard Educational Review*, 86(2), p. 183-205.
- European Commission. (2013). *Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions*. Brussels: Author. Retrieved from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX:52013DC0659>
- Eyre Peninsula Local Government Association. [EPLGA]. (2016). *Corporate plan 2016-19*. Port Lincoln: Author. Retrieved from <http://eplga.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/EPLGA-Corporate-Plan-2016-2019.pdf>
- Eyre Peninsula Natural Resources Management Board. [EPNRM]. (2017). *Strategic plan for the Eyre Peninsula Natural Resources Management Region 2017-2027*. Port Lincoln: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.naturalresources.sa.gov.au/eyrepeninsula/about-us/nrm-plan>
- Fairhead, J., Leach, M. & Scoones, I. (2012). Green grabbing: A new appropriation of nature? *Journal of Peasant Studies*, 39(2), p. 237–261.
- Farkas, S., Johnson, J., Duffett, A., Foleno, T. & Foley, P. (2001). *Trying to stay ahead of the game. Superintendents and principals talk about school leadership*. New York: Wallace.
- Farmer, T., Leung, M., Banks, J., Schaefer, V., Andrews, B. & Murray, R. (2006). Adequate yearly progress in small rural schools and rural low-income schools. *The Rural Educator*, 27(3), p. 1–7.
- Farquharson, L. M., Romanovsky, V. E., Cable, W. L., Walker, D. A., Kokelj, S. V. & Nicolsky, D. (2019). Climate change drives widespread and rapid thermokarst development in very cold permafrost in the Canadian High Arctic. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 46, p. 6681–6689. DOI: 10.1029/2019GL082187
- Farrugia, D. (2014). Towards a spatialised youth sociology: The rural and the urban in times of change. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 17(3), p. 293–307.
- Fernandes, B. M. (2008). Questão agrária: Conflitualidade e desenvolvimento territorial [Agrarian question: Conflicts and territorial development]. In A. M. Buainain (Ed.), *Luta pela terra, reforma agrária e gestão de conflitos no Brasil* [Land struggle, agrarian reform and conflict administration in Brazil] (p. 173–224). Campinas: Editora da Unicamp. Translation by Fernandes, B. & Welch, C. (2019).
- Fernandes, B. & Welch, C. (2019). Contested landscapes: Territorial conflicts and the production of different ruralities in Brazil. *Landscape Research*, 44(7), p. 892-907. DOI: 10.1080/01426397.2019.1595549
- Finewood, M. & Stroup, L. (2012). Fracking and the neoliberalization of the hydrosocial cycle in Pennsylvania's Marcellus Shale. *Journal of Contemporary Water Research and Education*, 147, p. 72–79.

- Fisher, A., Mendoza-Denton, R., Patt, C., Young, I., Eppig, A., Garrell RL., et al. (2019). Structure and belonging: Pathways to success for underrepresented minority and women PhD students in STEM fields. *PLoS ONE* 14(1): e0209279. DOI: [10.1371/journal.pone.0209279](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0209279)
- Fitzpatrick, S. (2000). *Young homeless people*. Basingstoke: MacMillan.
- Flachs, A. & Abel, M. (2019). An emerging geography of the agrarian question: Spatial analysis as a tool for identifying the new American agrarianism. *Rural Sociology* 84(2), p. 191-225.
- Flagg, C. & Painter, M. (2019). White ethnic diversity in small town Iowa: A multilevel analysis of community attachment. *Rural Sociology*, 84(2), p. 226-256. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12225
- Fleisch, B. & Christie, P. (2004). Structural change, leadership and school effectiveness/improvement: Perspectives from South Africa. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 25(1), p. 95–112.
- Flinders University. (2019). *The Write Bunch – HDR writing group*. Retrieved from <https://www.flinders.edu.au/graduate-research/progressing-through-your-hdr/rhd-programs-and-courses/the-write-bunch---rhd-writing-group.cfm>
- Fontanella, C., Hiance-Steelesmith, D., Phillips, G., Bridge, J., Lester, N., Sweeney, H. & Campo, J. (2015). Widening rural-urban disparities in youth suicides, United States, 1996–2010. *JAMA Pediatrics*, 169(5), p. 466–473.
- Food and Agricultural Organization. [FAO]. (2010). *A review of experiences of establishing emerging farmers in South Africa: Case lessons and implications for farmer support within land reform programmes*. Rome: FAO.
- FAO. (2011). *The state of food insecurity in the world 2011*. Rome: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/3/i2330e/i2330e00.htm>
- FAO. (2014). *Decent rural employment toolbox: Applied definition of decent rural employment*. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/3/a-av092e.pdf>
- FAO. (2016). *The state of world fisheries and aquaculture 2016: Contributing to food security and nutrition for all*. Rome: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i5555e.pdf>
- FAO. (2018). *The state of food insecurity in the world 2018. Building climate resilience for food security and nutrition*. Rome: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/policy-support/resources/resources-details/zh/c/1152267/>
- Foster, J. & Magdoff, F. (2009). *The great financial crisis: Causes and consequences*. New York: Monthly Review Press.
- Freire, P. (1986). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (11th ed.). Middlesex, UK: Penguin Books.
- Friesen, J. & Krauth, B. (2012). *Key policy issues in Aboriginal education: An evidence-based approach*. Toronto: Council of Ministers of Education.
- Fullan, M. (2002). The change Leader. *Educational Leadership*, 59, p. 16-20.
- Fuller, K. & Stevenson, H. (2019). Global education reform: Understanding the movement. *Educational Review*, 71(1), p. 1-4. DOI: 10.1080/00131911.2019.1532718

- Gallent, N. & Scott, M. (2017). Introduction. In N. Gallent and M. Scott (Eds.), *Rural planning and development* (p. 1-28). London: Routledge.
- Gamito, T. & Madureira, L. (2019). Shedding light on rural innovation: Introducing and applying a comprehensive indicator system. *Regional Science Policy and Practice*, 11, p. 251-277. DOI: 10.1111/rsp3.12167
- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. New York: Teachers' College Press.
- Geisler, C. & Makki, F. (2014). People, power, and land: New enclosures on a global scale. *Rural Sociology*, 79(1), p. 28–33.
- Gergen, K. (2009). *Relational being: Beyond self and community*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Germeten, S. (2011). The new national curriculum in Norway: A change in the role of the Principals? *Australian Journal of Education*, 55(1), p. 14-23.
- Ghose, R. (2004). Big sky or big sprawl? Rural gentrification and the changing cultural landscape of Missoula, Montana. *Urban Geography*, 25(6), p. 528–549.
- Giannakos, M. & Vlamos, P. (2012). Using education webcasts in small multigrade schools of isolated islands. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology*, 8(2), p. 131-141.
- Gibson, K., Rose, D. & Fincher, R. (2015). *Manifesto for living in the anthropocene*. Brooklyn: Punctum Books.
- Gieling, J. & Haartsen, T. (2017). Liveable villages: The relationship between volunteering and liveability in the perceptions of rural residents. *Sociologia Ruralis* 57(S1), p. 576–597.
- Gieling, J., Haartsen, T. & Vermeij, L. (2019). Village facilities and social place attachment in the rural Netherlands. *Rural Sociology* 84(1), p. 66-92. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12213
- Giles, D. & Smith, R. (2012). Negotiating and constructing an educationally relevant leadership programme. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 50(2), p. 231-242. DOI: 10.1108/09578231211210567
- Glendinning, A., Nuttall, M., Hendry, L., Kloep, M. & Wood, S. (2003). Rural communities and well-being: A good place to grow up? *The Sociological Review* 51(1), p. 129-156.
- Gomez, M., Perdiguero, J. & Sanz, A. (2019). Socioeconomic factors affecting water access in rural areas of low- and middle-income countries. *Water*, 11, p. 1-22.
- González, P. (2017). Heritage and rural gentrification in Spain: The case of Santiago Millas. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 23(2), p. 125–140.
- Goodman, A. (2019, November 4). Emboldened by Bolsonaro, illegal loggers in Amazon kill Indigenous leader Paulo Paulino Guajajara. *Democracy Now*. Retrieved from https://www.democracynow.org/2019/11/4/paulo_paulino_guajajara_amazon_indigenous_killings
- Google Scholar. (2019). *Systematic review rural school principal*. Retrieved from https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=1%2C5&as_ylo=2019&as_vis=1&q=systematic+review+rural+school+principals&btnG=

Google Scholar. (2020a). *Rural women PhD*. Retrieved from https://scholar.google.com.au/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=1%2C5&as_ylo=2019&as_vis=1&q=rural+women+PhD&btnG=

Google Scholar. (2020b). *Women and PhD*. Retrieved from https://scholar.google.com.au/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=1%2C5&as_ylo=2019&as_vis=1&q=women+and+PhD&btnG=

Goulson, D. (2019). Essay. The insect apocalypse, and why it matters. *Current Biology*, 29(19), p. R942-R995.

Government of South Australia. Department for Education. (NDa). *List of South Australian government schools and preschools by local partnership*. Retrieved from https://www.education.sa.gov.au/sites/g/files/net691/f/list_of_sa_government_schools_and_preschools_by_local_partnership.pdf

Government of South Australia. Department for Education. (NDb). *Open Access College. School of the air Port Augusta*. Retrieved from <https://www.openaccess.edu.au/sota>

Government of South Australia. Department for Education. (2017a). *Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander Students*. Retrieved from <https://www.education.sa.gov.au/sites/g/files/net691/f/atsi-apparent-retention-rates-2017.pdf>

Government of South Australia. Department for Education. (2017b). *2017 Annual report for the Department for Education and Child Development*. Adelaide: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.education.sa.gov.au/sites/g/files/net691/f/decd-annual-report-2017.pdf?v=1525762009>

Government of South Australia. Department for Education. (2017c). *Index of educational disadvantage by school*. Retrieved from https://www.education.sa.gov.au/sites/default/files/index-of-educational-disadvantage-by-school-2017.pdf?acsf_files_redirect

Government of South Australia. (2017d). *State budget 2017-2018*. Adelaide: Author. Retrieved from https://service.sa.gov.au/cdn/statebudget/budget201718/pdfs/budget/2017-18_budget_overview.pdf

Government of South Australia. Department for Education. (2018). *Job and person specification*. Retrieved from <https://jobs.decd.sa.gov.au/page.php?pageID=160&windowUID=0&AdvertID=12337>

Government of South Australia. Department for Education. (2020). *Behaviour management and discipline*. Retrieved from <https://www.sa.gov.au/topics/education-and-learning/schools/school-life/behaviour-management-and-discipline>

Graeber, D. (2015). *The utopia of rules: On technology, stupidity, and the secret joys of bureaucracy*. Brooklyn, NY: Melville House.

Grafton, R. (2019). Policy review of water reform in the Murray-Darling Basin, Australia: The “do’s” and “do’nots”. *The Australian Journal of Agricultural and Resources Economics*, 63, p. 116-141.

Graham, L. & Miller, J. (Eds.). (2015). *Bush tracks. The opportunities and challenges of rural teaching and leadership*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Graham, J., Price, L., Evans, S., Graczyk, T. & Silbergeld, E. (2009). Antibiotic resistant enterococci and staphylococci isolated from flies collected near confined poultry feeding operations. *Science of the Total Environment*, 407(8), p. 2701–2710.

- Grant, C. (2005). Teacher leadership: Gendered responses and interpretations. *Agenda*, 19(65), p. 44–57.
- Grant, C. (2008). We did not put our pieces together: Exploring a professional development initiative through a distributed leadership lens. *Journal of Education*, 44, p. 85–107.
- Graziano Da Silva, J. (1997). O novo rural brasileiro [The new Brazilian rural]. *Nova Economia*, 7(1), p. 43–81. Translation by Fernandes & Welch (2019).
- Greyling, S. & Steyn, G. (2015). The challenges facing women aspiring for school leadership positions in South African primary schools. *Gender and Behaviour*, 13(1), p. 6607-6620.
- Grobler, B. & Conley, L. (2013). The relationship between emotional competence and instructional leadership and their association with learner achievement. *Education as Change*, 17(sup1), S201–S223. DOI: 10.1080/16823206.2013.866003
- Grobler, B., Moloi, K. & Fhatuwani, J. (2013). Principals' perceptions of the influence of mandates on the work performance of teachers. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(13), p. 87–96.
- Grobler, B., Moloi, C. & Thakhordas, S. (2017). Teachers' perceptions of the utilisation of emotional intelligence by their school principals to manage mandated curriculum change processes. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 45(2), p. 336–355.
- Gronn, P. (2000). Distributed properties. A new architecture for leadership. *Educational Management and Administration*, 28, p. 317–338.
- Grossman, P., Wineburg, S. & Woolworth, S. (2001). Toward a theory of teacher community. *Teachers' College Record*, 103(6), p. 942–1012.
- Guarino, C., Santibanez, L. & Daley, G. (2006). Teacher recruitment and retention: A review of the recent empirical literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 76(2), p. 173-208.
- Gunnoe, A. (2014). The political economy of institutional landownership: Neorentier society and the financialization of land. *Rural Sociology*, 79(4), p. 478–504.
- Gunnoe, A., Bailey, C. & Ameyaw, L. (2018). Millions of acres, billions of trees: Socioecological impacts of shifting timberland ownership. *Rural Sociology*, 83(4), p. 799-822. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12210
- Hadfield, M. & Jopling, M. (2012). How might better network theories support school leadership research? *School Leadership & Management*, 32(2), p. 109–121. DOI: 10.1080/13632434.2012.670115
- Haignon, D. (Ed.) (2017). *The English countryside: Representations, identities, mutations*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hale, E. & Moorman, H. (2003). *Preparing school principals: A national perspective on policy and program innovations*. Washington: Institute for Educational Leadership. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED504276.pdf>
- Hall, A. (2007). *Outer Hebrides migration study final report*. Glasgow: Hall Aitken. Retrieved from <http://www.cne-siar.gov.uk/factfile/population/documents/OHMSStudy.pdf>
- Hall, R. (2010). *The politics of land reform in post-apartheid South Africa, 1990 to 2004: A shifting terrain of power, actors and discourses*. (Doctoral thesis, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom).

- Hall, K., Dalton, V. & Johnson, T. (2014). Social disparities in women's health service use in the United States: A population-based analysis. *Annals of Epidemiology*, 24(2), p. 135-143.
- Hall, G. & Patrinos, H. (2014). *Indigenous people, poverty and development*. Cambridge, UK, Cambridge University Press.
- Hallinger, P. (2018a). Bringing context out of the shadows of leadership. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 46(1), p. 5–24.
- Hallinger, P. (2018b). Surfacing a hidden literature: A systematic review of research on educational leadership and management in Africa. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 46(3), p. 362–384.
- Hallinger, P. (2019). A systematic review of research on educational leadership and management in South Africa: Mapping knowledge production in a developing society. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 22(3), p. 315-333. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2018.1463460
- Hallinger, P. & Bryant, D. (2013). Review of research publications on educational leadership and management in Asia: A comparative analysis of three regions. *Oxford Review of Education*, 39(3), p. 307–328.
- Hallinger, P. & Hammad, W. (2019). Knowledge production on educational leadership and management in Arab societies: A systematic review of research. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 47(1), p. 20-36. DOI: 10.1177/1741143217717280.
- Hallinger, P. & Heck, R. (1996). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980-1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), p. 5-44. DOI: 10.1177/0013161X96032001002
- Hallinger, P. & Heck, R. (2011) Exploring the journey of school improvement: Classifying and analyzing patterns of change in school improvement processes and learning outcomes. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 22(1), p. 1–27.
- Hallinger, P., Walker, A. & Gian, T. (2015). Making sense of images of fact and fiction: A critical review of research on educational leadership and management in Vietnam. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 53(4), p. 445–466.
- Halsey, J. (2011). Small schools, big future. *Australian Journal of Education*, 55(1), p. 5-13.
- Halsey, R. J. & Drummond, A. (2014). Reasons and motivations of school leaders who apply for rural, regional and remote locations in Australia. *Australian & International Journal of Rural Education*, 24(1), 69–77.
- Hamilton-Smith, L. (2019, January 9). Cotton farm execs accused of \$20m fraud over Murray-Darling water funding. *ABC News*. Retrieved from <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2018-08-28/cotton-executives-20-million-fraud-allegation-norman-farming/10172736>
- Hamnett, C. (1991). The blind men and the elephant: The explanation of gentrification. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 16(2), p. 173–189.
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2017, July). Home. In *Twitter* [Profile page]. Retrieved from @KHardwickFranco

- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2017, November). Kathryn Hardwick-Franco. In *academia.edu* [Profile page]. Retrieved from <https://flinders.academia.edu/KHardwickFranco>
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018, January 18). *Integrating real world impacts to enact meta-real world impact*. [Online blog publication]. Retrieved from <https://www.emeraldpublishing.com/news-and-blogs/integrating-real-world-impacts-to-enact-meta-real-world-impact/>
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018, October 25). *Cultural educational leadership*. [YouTube Video.] Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DMxoydRJ7vs>
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018a). Flexible education in Australia: A reflection from the perspective of the UN'S sustainability development goals. *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning*, 8(3), p. 259-273. DOI: 10.1108/HESWBL-02-2018-0019
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018b). *Home*. [Website]. Retrieved from <https://kathrynhardwickfra.wixsite.com/mysite>
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018c). *Home* [YouTube Video Channel]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCp87giol8T6doBydK-WaT-g>
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018d). Music education in remote rural South Australian schools: Does a partnership with a non-government organisation work? *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education*, 28(1), p. 104-120.
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2018e). Rural school principals: Professional development and getting the 3Rs correct [online]. *AQ - Australian Quarterly*, 89(3), p. 21-27. Retrieved from jstor.org/stable/26529668
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2019a). Educational leadership is different in the country; what support does the rural school principal need? *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 22(3), p. 301-314. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2018.1450997.
- Hardwick-Franco, K. (2019b). Preferencing principals' views to inform educational reform in rural contexts: A study in discourse analysis. *ACEL Leading and Managing*, 25(2), p. 14-32.
- Harris, A. (2012). Distributed leadership: Implications for the role of the principal. *The Journal of Management Development*, 31(1), p. 7-17.
- Hartman, Y. & Darab, S. (2017). The housing pathways of single older non-home owning women in a rural region of Australia. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 54, p. 234-243.
- Harvey, D. (2007). Neoliberalism as creative destruction. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 610(1), p. 21-44.
- Hashweh, M. (2003). Teacher accommodative change. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19, p. 421-434.
- Haslam McKenzie, F. (2013). Delivering enduring benefits from a gas development: Governance and planning challenges in remote Western Australia. *Australian Geographer: Geographical Political Economy and Resource Development*, 44(3), p. 341-358.
- Hattie, J. (2012). *Visible learning for teachers. Maximizing impact on achievement*. Oxford: Routledge.
- Hattie, J. (2015). *What works best in education: The politics of collaborative expertise*. London: Pearson.

- Haub, C. & Kaneda, T. (2014). *2014 World population data sheet*. Washington, DC: Population Reference Bureau.
- Headwaters Economics. (2011). *Fossil fuel extraction and western economies*. Bozeman, MT: Headwaters Economics.
- Headwaters Economics. (2012). *Oil and natural gas fiscal best practices: Lessons for state and local governments*. Bozeman, MT: Headwaters Economics.
- Heck, R. & Hallinger, P. (2009). Assessing the contribution of distributed leadership to school improvement and growth in math achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 46, p. 659-689.
- Heo, N. & Poston, D. (2018). Natural decrease in the context of lowest low fertility: South Korea, 2005–2014. In D. L. Poston (Eds.), *Low fertility regimes and demographic and societal change* (p. 37-48). Cham, Switzerland: Springer. Retrieved from DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-64061-7_3
- Herman, R., Gates, S. M., Arifkhanova, A., Bega, A., Chavez-Herrerias, E. R., Han, E. & Wrabel, S. L. (2017). *School leadership interventions under the every student succeeds act: Evidence review*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.
- Hernandez, F. & Marshall, J. (2017). Auditing inequity: Teaching aspiring administrators to be social justice leaders. *Education and Urban Society*, 49(2), p. 203-228.
- Herrera, V. (2019). Reconciling global aspirations and local realities: Challenges facing the sustainable development goals for water and sanitation. *World Development*, 118, p. 106-117. DOI: 10.1016/j.worlddev.2019.02.009
- Heystek, J. (2011). School governing bodies in South African schools: Under pressure to enhance democratization and improve quality. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 39(4), p. 455–468.
- Hiebert, B., Leipert, B., Regan, S. & Burkell, J. (2016). Rural men’s health, health information seeking, and gender identities: A conceptual theoretical review of the literature. *American Journal of Men’s Health* 12(4), p. 863-876. DOI: 10.1177/1557988316649177
- Hinshaw, R., Burden, R. & Shriner, M. (2012). Supporting post-graduates’ skill acquisition using components of constructivism and social learning theory. *Scientific Research*, 3, p. 874 – 877.
- Hoadley, U., Christie, P. & Ward, C. (2009). Managing to learn: Instructional leadership in South African secondary schools. *School Leadership & Management*, 29(4), p. 373-389.
- Holleman, H. (2012). Energy policy and environmental possibilities: Biofuels and key protagonists of ecological change. *Rural Sociology*, 77(2), p. 280–307.
- Hong, J. (2010). Pre-service and beginning teachers’ professional identity and its relation to dropping out of the profession. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, p. 1530-1543.
- Hoolachan, J., McKee, K. & Moore, T. (2016). *Housing young people in rural areas. Centre for housing research briefings No. 4*. St. Andrews: University of St. Andrews. Retrieved from https://research-repository.standrews.ac.uk/bitstream/handle/10023/8395/CHR_Briefing_Paper_4.pdf?sequence=3

Howley, A. & Howley, C. (2005). High-quality teaching: Providing for rural teachers' professional development. *The Rural Educator*, 26(2), p. 1-5.

Howley, A., Pendarvis, E. & Woodrum, A. (2005). *The rural school principalship: Promises and challenges*. Charleston, WV: AEL.

Hubbard, C. & Atterton, J. (2014). Unlocking rural innovation in the north east of England: the role of innovation connectors. In *Innovation and Modernising the Rural Economy*, p. 95-112. Paris: OECD Rural Policy Reviews.

Hughes, A. & Laura, R. (2018). The contribution of Aboriginal epistemologies to mathematics education in Australia: Exploring the silences. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 50(4), p. 338-348. DOI: 10.1080/00131857.2017.1359782

Human Rights Watch. (2007, January). *Country summary; South Africa*. Retrieved from <https://www.hrw.org/legacy/wr2k7/>

Hunter, J., Peacock, P., Wightman, A. & Foxley, M. (2014). *Towards a comprehensive land reform agenda for Scotland*. A briefing paper for the House of Commons Scottish Affairs Committee. Available from: <https://www.parliament.uk/documents/commons-committees/scottish-affairs/432-LandReform-Paper.pdf>

Hynds, A., Averill, R., Penetito, W., Meyer, L., Hindle, R. & Faircloth, S. (2016). Examining the impediments to Indigenous strategy and approaches in mainstream secondary schools. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 19(5), p. 534–556. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2015.1051130

Institute for Educational Leadership. (2005). *Preparing leaders for rural schools: Practice and policy considerations*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED493458>

Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística. [IBGE]. (2017). Classificação e caracterização dos espaços rurais e urbanos do Brasil: Uma primeira aproximação [Classifying and characterizing rural and urban spaces in Brazil: A preliminary attempt]. Rio de Janeiro: IBGE.

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. [ipcc]. (ND). *Special report. Global warming of 1.5°C*. Retrieved from <https://www.ipcc.ch/sr15/>

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre. [IDMC]. (2018). *Global internal displacement database*. Retrieved from <http://www.internal-displacement.org/database/displacement-data>

International Fund for Agricultural Development [IFAD]. (2012). *Enabling poor people to overcome poverty in Ethiopia*. Retrieved from <https://www.ifad.org/en/>

IFAD. (2017). *Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia*. Rome: Author. Retrieved from https://www.ifad.org/documents/38714170/39150184/ASAP_factsheet_Ethiopia.pdf/ee8dccc-b-c240-4793-9930-0fc2c8a59e9e

International Labour Office. [ILO]. (2018). *Report III: Report of the conference, 20th International Conference of Labour Statisticians* (Geneva, 10–19 October 2018). Geneva: International Labour Office, Department of Statistics. Retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---stat/documents/publication/wcms_651209.pdf

ILO. (2019). *Decent and productive work in agriculture*. Retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---sector/documents/publication/wcms_437173.pdf.

International Water and Sanitation Centre. [IRC]. (2011). *Good Governance in the WASH Sector. Module Three Training Material*. Retrieved from <https://www.slideshare.net/ircuser/module-3-wash-governance-presentation>

Irwin, M., Tolbert, C. & Lyson, T. (1999). There's no place like home: Nonmigration and civic engagement. *Environment and Planning A*, 31(12), p. 2223–2238.

Jaarsveld, L. (2019). Help, ek is 'n skoolhoof in 'n agfeleë gemeenskap! Uitdagings tot die skoolhoof se leierskap- en bestuurstyl. *LitNet Akademies* 16(3), p. 658-677.

Jackson, T. (2004). *Management and change in Africa*. London: Routledge.

Jacobson, S. & Cypres, A. (2012). Important shifts in curriculum of educational leadership preparation. *Journal of Research in Leadership Education*, 7, p. 217-236.

Jarzabkowski, L. (2003). Teacher collegiality in a remote Australian school. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 18(3), p. 139–144.

Jenner, L. (2019, August 17). Huge wildfires in Russia's Siberian province continue. *National Aeronautics and Space Administration*. Retrieved from <https://www.nasa.gov/image-feature/goddard/2019/huge-wildfires-in-russias-siberian-province-continue>

Jensen, L. (2018). Understanding rural social class in an era of global challenge. *Rural Sociology*, 83(2), p. 227-243.

Jha, A. K. (2012). Epistemological and pedagogical concerns of constructionism: Relating to the educational practices. *Creative Education*, 3(2), p. 171-178.

Johnson, K. & Lichter, D. (2019). Rural depopulation: Growth and decline processes over the past century. *Rural Sociology*, 84(1), p. 3-27. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12266

Johnson, K. & Winkler, R. (2015). Migration signatures across the decades: Net migration by age in U.S. counties, 1950–2010. *Demographic Research*, 22(38), p. 1065–1080.

Johnston, W. R., Kaufman, J. H. & Thomson, L. E. (2016). *Supervision, mentoring, and professional development for U.S. school leaders: Findings from the American school leader panel*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Jones, K., Ransom, H. & Chambers, C. (2020). Teaching ethics in educational leadership using the values-issues-action (VIA) model. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, 15(2), p. 150-163.

Kaimal, G., Barber, M., Schulman, M. & Reed, P. (2012). Preparation of urban high school leaders in Philadelphia through multiorganizational partnerships. *Journal of School Leadership*, 22(5), p. 902-921.

Kalugina, Z. (2000). Paradoksy agrarnoy reform v Rossii: sociologicheskiiy analiz transformacionnykh processov. Novosibirsk, Russia: IEIOPP CO RAN.

Kamau, M., Chasek, P. & O'Connor, D. (2018). *Transforming multilateral diplomacy. The inside story of the Sustainable Development Goals*. London: Routledge.

Kamper, G. (2008). A profile of effective leadership in some South African high-poverty schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 28(1), p. 1–18.

- Kan, A., Inkir, S., Olgun, D., Eryilmaz, A. & Cemaloglu, N. (2013, September). A statistical model for teacher competency: Validation of national teacher competencies. Paper presented to the *European Conference on Education Research*, Istanbul, Turkey.
- Karlberg-Granlund, G. (2011). Coping with the threat of closure in a small Finnish village school. *Australian Journal of Education*, 55(1), p. 62-72.
- Kashnitsky, I., Mkrtchyan, N. & Leshokov, O. (2016). Interregional migration of youths in Russia: A comprehensive analysis of demographic statistics. *Educational Studies Moscow* 12(3), p. 169–203.
- Kassam, K., Avery, L. & Ruelle, M. (2017). The cognitive relevance of Indigenous and rural: Why is it critical to survival? *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 12, p. 97-118.
- Kelly, J. (2019, October 11). For the first time in history, U.S. billionaires paid a lower tax rate than the working class: what should we do about it? *Forbes*. Retrieved from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/jackkelly/2019/10/11/for-the-first-time-in-history-us-billionaires-paid-a-lower-tax-rates-than-the-working-class-what-we-should-do-about-it/#72cfac21fcec>
- Key, W. (2013). Ageing in rural communities: from idyll to exclusion? In G. Bosworth and P. Somerville (Eds.), *Interpreting rurality: Multidisciplinary approaches* (p. 251-266). London: Routledge.
- Kgaile, A. & Morrison, K. (2006). Measuring and targeting internal conditions for school effectiveness in the free state of South Africa. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 34(1), p. 47–68.
- Kimiko, T. & Iwasawa, M. (2010). Aging in rural Japan—Limitations in the current social care policy. *Journal of Aging & Social Policy*, 22(4), p. 394-406. DOI: 10.1080/08959420.2010.507651
- Klar, H., Huggins, K., Andreoli, P. & Buskey, F. (2019) Developing rural school leaders through leadership coaching: A transformative approach. *Leadership and policy in schools*. DOI: 10.1080/15700763.2019.1585553
- Klocko, B. & Justis, R. (2019). Leadership challenges of the rural school principal. *The Rural Educator* 40(3), p. 23-34.
- Kloep, M., Hendry, L., Glendinning, A., Ingebrigtsen, J-E. & Espnes, G. (2003). Peripheral visions? A cross-cultural study of rural youths' views on migration. *Children's Geographies* 1(1), p. 91-109.
- Kocolowski, M. (2010). Shared leadership: Is it time for a change? *Emerging Leadership Journeys*, 3(1), p. 22-32.
- Kohl, B. & Farthing, L. (2013). Navigating narrative: The antinomies of 'mediated' testimonios. *Journal of Latin American and Caribbean Anthropology*, 18(1), p. 90 –107.
- Kowalewski, A., Mordasiewicz, J., Osiatyński, J., Regulski, J., Stępień, J. & Śleszyński, P. (2013). *Raport o ekonomicznych stratach i społecznych kosztach niekontrolowanej urbanizacji w Polsce (Report on economic loss and social costs of uncontrolled urbanization in Poland)*. Warszawa: Fundacja Rozwoju Demokracji Lokalnej, IGPiPZ PAN, p. 35.
- Kownacki, A., Barker, D. & Arghode, V. (2020). A grounded theory approach for exploring shared leadership: evidence from urban primary schools in Pennsylvania, *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2020.1804622

- Kreutzwiser, R., de Loe, R., Imgrund, K., Conboy, M., Simpson, H. & Plummer, R. (2011). Understanding stewardship behavior: Factors facilitating and constraining private water well stewardship. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 92, p. 1104–1114.
- Kruger, A. (2003). Instructional leadership: The impact on the culture of teaching and learning in two effective secondary schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 23(3), p. 206–211.
- Kruse, R. & Krumm, B. (2016). Becoming a principal: Access factors for females. *The Rural Educator*, 37(2), p. 28-38.
- Kuhmonen, T., Kuhmonen, I. & Luoto, L. (2016). How do rural areas profile in the futures dreams by the Finnish youth? *Journal of Rural Studies*, 44, p. 89-100. DOI: 10.1016/j.jrurstud.2016.01.010
- Kutney, G. (2020, April 22). Climate change denial is a lost cause. In *Twitter* [@GeraldKutney]. Retrieved 22nd April 2020.
- Lake, D. (2008). Science education: Innovation in rural and remote Queensland Schools. *Education Research for Policy and Practice*, 7(2), p. 123-136.
- Lamb, S., Jackson, J., Walstab, A. & Huo, S. (2015). *Educational opportunity in Australia 2015: Who succeeds and who misses out*. Melbourne: Centre for International Research on Educational Systems for the Mitchell Institute.
- Lanker, S., Holst, C., Dittrich, A., Hoyer, C. & Pe'er, G. (2019). Impacts of the EU's common agricultural policy on biodiversity and ecosystem services. *Atlas of Ecosystem Services*. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-96229-0_58.
- Laoire, C. (2005). 'You're not a man at all': Masculinity, responsibility and staying on the land in contemporary Ireland. *Irish Journal of Sociology*, 14(2), p. 94–114.
- Lasanta, T., Arnáez, J., Pascual, N., Ruiz-Flaño, P., Errea, M.P. & Lana-Renault, N. (2017). Space–time process and drivers of land abandonment in Europe. *Catena*, 149, p. 810–823. DOI: 10.1016/j.catena.2016.02.024
- Lashway, L. (2000). *Leading with vision*. Washington: ERIC Publications.
- Laurent, É. (2013, June 18). *Territorial justice: Some theoretical and empirical considerations on the French case*. Presentation to the OECD Working Party on Territorial Indicators. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/cfe/regional-policy/PPT-Laurent.pdf>
- Lawrence, A., Houghton, J., Thomas, J. & Weldon, P. (2014). *Where is the evidence: realising the value of grey literature for public policy and practice?* Melbourne: Swinburne Institute for Social Research.
- Lawrence, D., Johnson, S., Hafekost, J., Boterhoven De Haan, K., Sawyer, M., Ainley, J. & Zubrick, S. (2015). *The mental health of children and adolescents. Report on the second Australian child and adolescent survey of mental health and wellbeing*. Canberra: Department of Health.
- Lazdinis, M., Angelstam, P. & Pülzl, H. (2019). Towards sustainable forest management in European Union through polycentric forest governance and an integrated landscape approach. *Landscape Ecology*, 34(7).
- Lebens, T. & Radigan, M. (2007). Teaching in China: An outside look in. *The Rural Educator*, 28(2), p. 13–18.
- Ledger, S. & Downey, J. (2018). Editorial: Aligning AIJRE research with the independent review into regional, rural and remote education. *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education*, 28(1), p. i–vi.

- Lee, M. & Berthelot, E. (2010). Community covariates of malnutrition based mortality among older adults. *Annals of Epidemiology*, 20, p. 371–379.
- Lee, V., Smerdon, B., Alfeld-Liro, C. & Brown, S. (2000). Inside large and small high schools: Curriculum and social relations. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 22(2), p. 147-171.
- Lee, M. & Thomas, S. (2010). Civic community, population change, and violent crime in rural communities. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 47, p. 118–147.
- Leek, J. (2019). Teachers' perceptions about supporting youth participation in schools: Experiences from schools in England, Italy and Lithuania. *Improving School*, 22(2), p. 173-190. DOI: 10.1177/1365480219840507
- Leithwood K. & Jantzi, D. (2006). Transformational school leadership for large-scale reform: Effects on students, teachers, and their classroom practices. School effectiveness and school improvement. *International Journal of Research, Policy and Practice*, 17, p. 201-227.
- Leithwood, K., Louis, K. S., Anderson, S. & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). *Review of research how leadership influences student learning*. Toronto: The Wallace Foundation.
Retrieved from <http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/key-research/Documents/How-Leadership-influences-Student-Learning.pdf>
- Leithwood, K. & Sun, J. (2012). The nature and effects of transformational school leadership: A meta-analytic review of unpublished research. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 48(3), p. 387-423.
- Lessote, L. (1992). "Principal" insights from effective schools. *Education Digest*, 58(3), p. 14- 17.
- Lester, K., Minutjukur, M., Osborne, S. & Tjitayi, K. (2013). *Red dirt curriculum: Re-imagining remote education*. Sidney Myer Rural Lecture 3. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/271769490_Red_Dirt_Curriculum_Reimagining_remote_education
- Lewis, P. & Murphy, R. (2008). New direction in school leadership. *School leadership & Management*, 28, p. 127–146.
- Lewthwaite, B., Owen, T., Doiron, A., Renaud, R. & McMillan, B. (2014). Culturally responsive teaching in Yukon First Nations settings: What does it look like and what is its influence? *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, 155, p. 1-34.
- Lezotte, L. (1991). *Correlates of effective schools: The first and second generation*. Okemos: Effective Schools Products.
- Lichter, D. & Ziliak, J. (2017). The rural-urban interface: New patterns of spatial interdependence and inequality in America. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 672, p.6–25.
- Lindle, J. C. (2016). Posing questions for leadership development and practice: A coaching strategy for veteran school leaders. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 19(4), p. 438–463. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2015.1041555
- Lipka, J. & Adams, B. (2004). *Culturally based math education as a way to improve Alaska native students' math performance*. Athens, OH: Appalachian Collaborative Center for Learning, Assessment, and Instruction in Mathematics.

- Little, J. & Austin, P. (1996). Women and the rural idyll. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 12(2), p. 101–111.
- Lloyd, K., Wright, S., Suchet-Pearson, S., Burarrwanga, L. & Bawaka Country. (2012). Reframing development through collaboration: Towards a relational ontology of connection in Bawaka, North East Arnhem Land. *Third World Quarterly*, 33(6), p. 1075-1094. DOI: 10.1080/01436597.2012.681496
- Lock, G., Budgen, F., Oakley, G. & Lunay, R. (2012). The loneliness of the long-distance principal: Tales from remote Western Australia. *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education*, 22(2), p. 65–77.
- Lockyer, J. & Benson, P. (2011). ‘We try to create the world that we want’: Intentional communities forging liveable lives in St. Louis. *Center for Social Development Working Paper Series*, 11(2), p. 1–23.
- Logan, K., Brunsell, N., Jones, A. & Feddema, J. (2010). Assessing spatiotemporal variability of drought in the US central plains. *Journal of Arid Environments*, 74(2), p. 247–255.
- Loizidou, P. & Fokaidou, M. (2020). Experiencing transformation of professional identity: From teaching to leadership in a small rural primary school in Cyprus. *Journal of Education and Culture Studies* 4(20), p. 158-181. DOI: 10.22158/jecs.v4n2p158
- Lonergan, S. & Brooks, D. (1994). *Watershed: The role of fresh water in the Israeli-Palestinian conflict*. Ottawa, Canada: International Development Research Council.
- Looker, E. & Naylor, T. (2009). ‘At risk’ of being rural? The experience of rural youth in a risk society. *Journal of Rural and Community Development*, 4(2), p. 39–64.
- Louis, K. S., Leithwood, K., Wahlstrom, K. L. & Anderson, S. E. (2010). *Learning from leadership: Investigating the links to improved student learning*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement. Retrieved from <http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/key-research/Documents/Investigating-the-Links-to-Improved-Student-Learning.pdf>
- Louw, D. J. (2001). Ubuntu and the challenges of multiculturalism in post-apartheid South Africa. *Quest*, XV(1-2), p. 15-36. Retrieved from http://quest-journal.net/Quest_2001_PDF/louw.pdf
- Lu, Y. (2018). Rural and urban differences in gender-sentencing patterns of Pennsylvania. *Rural Sociologic*, 83(2), p. 402-430. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12204
- Lumby, J. (2013). Valuing knowledge over action: The example of gender in educational leadership. *Gender and Education*, 25(4), p. 432–443.
- Lumby, J. & Azaola, C. (2011). Women principals in small schools in South Africa. *Australian Journal of Education*, 55(1), p. 73–85.
- Lumby, J. & Azaola, C. (2014). Women principals in South Africa: Gender, mothering and leadership. *British Educational Research Journal*, 40(1), p. 30–44.
- Lynch, K., Logan, T. & Jackson, D. (2018). “People will bury their guns before they surrender them”: implementing domestic violence gun control in rural, Appalachian versus urban communities. *Rural Sociology*, 83(2), p. 315-346. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12206
- MacBeth, J. & Dempster, N. (Eds.). (2009). *Connecting leadership and learning. Principles for practice*. London: Routledge.

- Makki, F. (2014). Development by dispossession: Terra nullius and the social-ecology of new enclosures in Ethiopia. *Rural Sociology*, 79(1), p. 79–103.
- Mamonova, N. & Sutherland, L. (2015). Rural gentrification in Russia: Renegotiating identity, alternative food production and social tensions in the countryside. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 42, p. 154–165.
- Mamun, A., Martin, W. & Tokgoz, S. (2019). Reforming agricultural subsidies for improved environmental outcomes. *International Food Policy Research Institute*. Retrieved from https://www.foodandlandusecoalition.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Reforming-Agricultural-Subsidies-for-Improved-Environmental-Outcomes-2019_09_06-.pdf
- Mansfield, C., Beltman, S., Price, A. & McConney, A. (2012). Don't sweat the small stuff: Understanding teacher resilience at the chalkface. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, p. 357–367.
- Margulis, M., Mckean, N. & Borrás, S. (2013). Land grabbing and global governance: Critical perspectives. *Globalizations*, 10(1), p. 1–23.
- Markey, S. & Heisler, K. (2010). Getting a fair share: Regional development in a rapid boombust rural setting. *The Canadian Journal of Regional Science*, 33(3), p. 49–62.
- Marshman, J., Blay-Palmer, A. & Landman, K. (2019). Anthropocene crisis: Climate change, pollinators, and food security. *Environments*, 6(2), p. 1-16. DOI: 10.3390/environments6020022
- Marzano, R., Waters, J. & McNulty, B. (2004). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Masci, C., De Witte, K. & Agasisti, T. (2018). The influence of school size, principal characteristics and school management practices on educational performance: An efficiency analysis of Italian students attending middle schools. *Socio-economic Planning Sciences*, 61, p. 52-69. DOI: 10.1016/j.seps.2016.09.009
- Massey, D. (1994). *Space, place and gender*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Mathibe, I. (2007). The professional development of school principals. *South African Journal of Education*, 27(3), p. 523–540.
- Matthews, B. & Ross, L. (2010). *Research methods: A practical guide for the social sciences*. London: Pearson.
- Matthews, H., Taylor, M., Sherwood, K., Tucker, F. & Limb, M. (2000). Growing up in the countryside: Children and the rural idyll. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 16 (2), p. 141–153.
- May, S., Flockton, J. & Kirkham, S. (2016). *PISA 2015. New Zealand summary report*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from https://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/_data/assets/pdf_file/0019/180613/PISA-2015-Summary-report_v2.pdf
- Mayer, A., Olson-Hazboun, S. & Malin, S. (2018). Fracking fortunes: Economic well-being and oil and gas development along the urban-rural continuum. *Rural Sociology*, 83(3), p. 532-567. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12198.

- Mazdiyasi, O. & Kouchak, A. (2015). Substantial increase in concurrent droughts and heatwaves in the United States. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(37), p. 11484–11489. DOI: 10.1073/pnas.1422945112
- McCallum, F. (2008). Beginning teacher perspectives on wellbeing: The transition to teaching. *Education Connect*, 11, p. 6–9.
- McCright, A., Dunlap, R. & Xiao, C. (2013). Perceived scientific agreement and support for government action on climate change in the USA. *Climatic Change*, 119, p. 511-518.
- McDonald, C. (2014). Developing information to support the implementation of place-based economic development strategies: A case study of regional and rural development policy in the State of Victoria, Australia. *Local Economy: The Journal of the Local Economy Policy Unit*, 29(4-5), p. 309-322.
- McGrath, B. (2001). “A problem of resources”: Defining rural youth encounters in education, work & housing. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 17, p. 481–495.
- McKee, K., Hoolachan, J. & Moore, T. (2017). The precarity of young people’s housing experiences in a rural context. *Scottish Geographical Journal*, 133(2), p. 115-129.
- McKenna, K. (2013). Scotland has the highest most inequitable land ownership in the west. Why? *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2013/aug/10/scotland-land-rights>
- McMichael, P. (2014). Rethinking land grab ontology. *Rural Sociology*, 79(1), p. 34–55.
- McNeff, M. (2014). *Preparing administrators for leadership in the rural context*. (Doctoral thesis, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, USA).
- McOrmond, T. (2004). *Changes in working trends over the past decade, national statistics feature*. London: Office for National Statistics.
- Mehta, L., Veldwisch, G. & Franco, J. (2012). Introduction to the special issue: Water grabbing? Focus on the (re)appropriation of finite water resources. *Water Alternatives*, 5(2), p. 193–207.
- Mencken, F. & Tolbert, C. (2018). Community banks and loans for nonmetropolitan businesses: A multilevel analysis from the 2007 survey of business owners. *Rural Sociology* 83(2), p. 376-401. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12182
- Merchant, J., Naleway, A., Svendsen, E., Kelly, K., Burmeister, L., Stromquist, A., Taylor, C., Thorne, P., Reynolds, S., Sanderson, W. & Chrischilles, E. (2005). Asthma and farm exposures in a cohort of rural Iowa children. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 113(3), p. 350–356.
- Merriam, S. & Mohaman, M. (2000). How cultural values shape learning in older adulthood: The case of Malaysia. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 51(1), p. 45-63.
- Mestry, R. & Hlongwane, S. (2009). Perspectives on the training of school governing bodies: Towards an effective and efficient financial management system. *Africa Education Review*, 6(2), p. 324-342.
- Mestry, R. & Khumalo, J. (2012). Governing bodies and learner discipline: Managing rural schools in South Africa through a code of conduct. *South African Journal of Education*, 32(1), p. 97–110.

- Mestry, R., Moonsammy-Koopasammy, I. & Schmidt, M. (2013). The instructional leadership role of primary school principals. *Education as Change*, 17(sup1), S49–S64.
- Mestry, R. & Naidoo, G. (2009). Budget monitoring and control in South African township schools: Democratic governance at risk. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 37(1), p. 107–125.
- Mestry, R. & Schmidt, M. (2010). Portfolio assessment as a tool for promoting professional development of school principals: A South African perspective. *Education and Urban Society*, 42(3), p. 352–373.
- Mestry, R. & Schmidt, M. (2012). A feminist postcolonial examination of female principals' experiences in South African secondary schools. *Gender and Education*, 24(5), p. 535–551.
- Miao, S., Heijman, W., Zhu, X., Qiao, D. & Lu, Q. (2018). Income groups, social capital, and collective action on small-scale irrigation facilities: A multigroup analysis based on a structural equation model. *Rural Sociology*, 83(4), p. 882–911. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12214
- Millar, G. (2015). 'We have no voice for that': Land rights, power, and gender in rural Sierra Leone. *Journal of Human Rights*, 14(4), p. 445–462.
- Millar, G. (2016). Local experiences of liberal peace: Marketization and emerging conflict dynamics in Sierra Leone. *Journal of Peace Research*, 53(4), p. 569–581. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12203
- Miller, J., Graham, L. & Al-Awiwe, A. (2015). Late-career women leaders in rural schools. In L. Graham and J. Miller (Eds.), *Bush tracks. The opportunities and challenges of rural teaching and leadership* (p. 105–118). Rotterdam: Sense Publications.
- Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs. [MCEETYA]. (2008). *Melbourne declaration on educational goals for young Australians*. Melbourne: Author. Retrieved from http://www.curriculum.edu.au/verve/_resources/National_Declaration_on_the_Educational_Goals_for_Young_Australians.pdf
- Ministry of Education. Te Tāhuhu o Te Mātauranga. (2020). *Educational leaders. Professional standards for primary school principals*. Retrieved from <http://www.educationleaders.govt.nz/Leadership-development/Professional-information/Professional-standards-primary-school-principals>
- Mkodzongi, G. & Lawrence, P. (2019). The fast-track land reform and agrarian change in Zimbabwe. *Review of African Political Economy*, 46(159), p. 1–13. DOI: 10.1080/03056244.2019.1622210
- Mncube, V. (2009). The perceptions of parents of their role in the democratic governance of schools in South Africa: Are they on board? *South African Journal of Education*, 29(1), p. 83–103.
- Mncube, V. & Du Plessis, P. (2011). Effective school governing bodies: Parental involvement. *Acta Academica*, 43(3), p. 210–242.
- Moir, S., Hattie, J. & Jansen, C. (2014). Teacher perspectives of 'effective' leadership in schools [online]. *Australian Educational Leader*, 36(4), p. 36–40.
- Mol, A. (2007). Boundless biofuels? Between environmental sustainability and vulnerability. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 47(4), p. 297–315.
- Monet, J. (2019, September 26). Indigenous representative joins UN climate summit: 'They need us'. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2019/sep/26/tuntiak-katan-indigenous-representative-un-climate-summit>

- Monnat, S. & Brown, D. (2017). More than a rural revolt: Landscapes of despair and the 2016 presidential election. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 55, p. 227–236.
- Moorosi, P. (2010). South African female principals' career paths: Understanding the gender gap in secondary school management. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 38(5), p. 547–562.
- Moorosi, P. & Bush, T. (2011). School leadership development in Commonwealth countries: Learning across the boundaries. *International Studies in Educational Administration*, 39(3), p. 59–76.
- Morton, L. & Rudel, T. (2015). Impacts of climate change on people and communities of rural America. In C. Bailey, L. Jensen and E. Ransom (Eds.), *Rural America in a globalizing world* (p. 172-189). Morgantown: West Virginia University Press.
- Moyo, S. (2011). Changing agrarian relations after redistributive land reform in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Peasant Studies*, 38(5), p. 939–966.
- Msila, V. (2008). Ubuntu and school leadership. *Journal of Education*, (44), p. 67–84.
- Msila, V. (2010). Rural school principals' quest for effectiveness: Lessons from the field. *Journal of Education*, 48(1), p. 169–189.
- Msila, V. (2013). Instructional leadership: Empowering teachers through critical reflection and journal writing. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 35(2), p. 81–88.
- Mukeredzi, T. (2013). The journey to becoming teaching professionals in rural South Africa and Zimbabwe. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(10), p. 23. DOI: 10.14221/ajte.2013v38n10.6
- Mulford, B. (2004). Congruence between the democratic purposes of schools and school principal training in Australia. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42(6), p. 625-639.
- Münz, R. (2006). *Europe: Population and migration in 2005. Migration information source*. Brussels, Belgium: Migration Policy Institute. Retrieved from <http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/europepopulation-and-migration-2005>
- Myers, J. (2019, August 16). This farmer is saving the jungle by growing food in it. *World Economic Forum*. Retrieved from <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/08/farming-costa-rica-agroforestry/>
- Myers, N. & Kent, J. (1995). *Environmental exodus. An emergent crisis in the global arena*. Washington, D.C.: Climate Institute.
- Naicker, I. (2015). School principals enacting the values of Ubuntu in school leadership: The voices of teachers. *Studies of Tribes and Tribals*, 13(1), p. 1–9.
- Naicker, S. & Mestry, R. (2013). Teachers' reflections on distributive leadership in public primary schools in Soweto. *South African Journal of Education*, 33(2), p. 1–15.
- Naidoo, B. & Perumal, J. (2014). Female principals leading at disadvantaged schools in Johannesburg, South Africa. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42(6), p. 808–824.
- National Conference of State Legislatures. [NCSL]. (2020). *Federal and state recognized Tribes*. Retrieved from <https://www.ncsl.org/research/state-tribal-institute/list-of-federal-and-state-recognized-tribes.aspx>

- Naumov, V., Manton, M., Elbakidze, M., Rendenieks, Z., Priedniek, J., Uglyanets, S., Zhivotov, A. & Angelstam, P. (2018). How to reconcile wood production and biodiversity conservation? The Pan-European boreal forest history gradient as an “experiment”. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 218, p. 1–13.
- Neilson, D. & Peters, M. (2020). Capitalism’s slavery. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 52(5), p. 475-484. DOI: 10.1080/00131857.2019.1595323
- Nelson, T. (2019). Exploring leadership-as-practice in the study of rural school leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2019.1657591
- Nelson-Nuñez, J. & Pizzi, E. (2018). Governance and water progress for the rural poor. *Global Governance*, 24(4), p. 575-593.
- Netshitangani, T. & Msila, V. T. (2014). When the headmaster is female: Women’s access to education management positions in a rural setting. *Pensee*, 76(10), p. 259–266.
- Newbold, B. & Brown, W. (2015). The urban-rural gap in university attendance: Determinants of university participation among Canadian youth. *Journal of Regional Science*, 55(4), p. 585–608.
- Newell, R. & Raimi, D. (2015a). *Oil and gas revenue allocation to local governments in eight states* (No. w21615). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Newell, R. & Raimi, D. (2015b). *Shale public finance: Local government revenues and costs associated with oil and gas Development* (No. w21542). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- New Zealand Government. (ND). *Stats NZ*. Retrieved from <https://www.stats.govt.nz/>
- Ng, D., Nguyen, D., Wong, B. & Choy, W. (2015). A review of Singapore principals’ leadership qualities, styles, and roles. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 53(4), p. 512–533.
- Ngai, C., Raimonde, O. & Longley, A. (2020, April 20). Oil plunges below zero for the first time in unprecedented wipeout. *Bloomberg*. Retrieved from <https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2020-04-19/oil-drops-to-18-year-low-on-global-demand-crunch-storage-woes>
- Ngcobo, T. & Tikly, L. P. (2010). Key dimensions of effective leadership for change: A focus on township and rural schools in South Africa. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 38(2), p. 202–228.
- Ngidi, S. (2019). *Identities of principals leading successful schools in deprived contexts: A narrative inquiry*. (Master of Education thesis, University of KwaZulu-Nata, South Africa). Retrieved from <http://ukzn-dspace.ukzn.ac.za/handle/10413/17489>
- Ng’ombe, A., Keivani, R., Stubbs, M. & Mattingly, M. (2012). Participatory approaches to land policy reform in Zambia: Potentials and challenges. *Environment and Planning, A* 44(8), p. 1785–1800.
- Nickerson, C., Morehart, M., Kuethe, T., Beckman, J., Ifft, J. & Williams, R. (2012). *Trends in U.S. farmland values and ownership*. Economic Research Service: EIB-92. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from <https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaarsfacpub/1598>
- Niemann, R. & Kotzé, T. (2006). The relationship between leadership practices and organisational culture: An education management perspective. *South African Journal of Education*, 26(4), p. 609–624.
- Nightly News 7 Spencer Gulf. (2019). *Monday 16th September 2019*. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=73LQvsYOfel>

- Nikitina, S. (2000, October 16-18). Population decline and population ageing in the Russian Federation. Presented to the *Expert Group Meeting on Policy Responses to Population Ageing and Population Decline*, Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, U.N. Secretariat, New York, USA.
- Noriega, J., Hortal, J., Azcárate, F., Berg, M., Bonada, N., Briones, M., Del Toro, I., Goulson D., Ibañez, S. & Landis, D., et al. (2018). Research trends in ecosystem services provided by insects. *Basic and Applied Ecology*, 26, p. 8–23.
- Norqvist, L. & Isling, P. (2020). Skolledarskap i Sverige: en forskningsöversikt 2014–2018. *Nordic Studies in Education*, 40(2), p. 167–187. DOI: 10.23865/nse.v40.2230
- Nygreen, K., Lazdowski, K. & Bialostok, S. (2017). Educational anthropologists respond to the 2016 U.S. presidential election: Rupture, continuity, and resistance. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 48(4), p. 339-348. DOI: 10.1111/aeq.12225.
- O'Connor, M., Cloney, D., Kvalsvig, A. & Goldfeld, S. (2019). Positive mental health and academic achievement in elementary school: New evidence from a matching analysis. *Educational Researcher*, 48(4), p. 205–216. DOI: 10.3102/0013189X19848724
- Öhrn, E. (2012). Urban education and segregation: The responses from young people. *European Educational Research Journal*, 11(1), p. 45–57.
- Öhrn, E. & Weiner, G. (2017). Urban education in the Nordic countries: Section editors' introduction. In W. Pink and G. Noblit (Eds.), *Second international hand thesis of urban education* (p. 649-669). Switzerland: Springer.
- Ollerton, J., Winfree, R. & Tarrant, S. (2011). How many flowering plants are pollinated by animals? *Oikos*, 120, p. 321–326.
- Oplatka, I. & Arrar, K. (2017). The research on educational leadership and management in the Arab world since the 1990s: A systematic review. *Review of Education*, 5(3), p. 267–307.
- O'Reilly, K. & Dhanju, R. (2012). Hybrid drinking water governance: Community participation and ongoing neoliberal reforms in rural Rajasthan. India. *Geoforum*, 43(3), p. 623–633.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. [OECD]. (2005). *Teachers matter: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. Paris: OECD Publishing. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/attractingdevelopingandRetainingEffectiveteachers-finalreportteachersmatter.htm>
- OECD. (2006a). *The new rural paradigm: Policies and Governance*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2006b). *Reinventing rural policy*. Policy Brief. Paris: OECD Publishing. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/cfe/regional-policy/37556607.pdf>
- OECD. (2014). *Innovation and modernising the rural economy*. Paris: OECD Publishing. DOI: 10.1787/9789264205390-en
- OECD. (2016a). "PISA 2015 results in focus", *PISA in Focus*, No. 67. Paris: OECD Publishing. DOI: 10.1787/aa9237e6-en

- OECD. (2016b). *Zimbabwe unitary country Africa*. No place: OECD. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/regional/regional-policy/profile-Zimbabwe.pdf>
- OECD. (2017a). *New rural policy: Linking up for growth*. Background document prepared for the National Prosperity Through Modern Rural Policy Conference. Paris: OECD Publishing. Retrieved from <https://www.slideshare.net/OECD-GOV/final-low-resoecdrural-policy-brochure>
- OECD. (2017b). *Rural policy 3.0*. Paris: OECD Publishing. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/cfe/regional-policy/rural-policy-3.0.pdf>
- OECD. (2018a). *Agricultural policy monitoring and evaluation 2018*. Paris: OECD Publishing. DOI: 10.1787/agr_pol-2018-en.
- OECD. (2018b). *National area distribution (indicator)*. Paris: OECD Publishing. Retrieved from https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/urban-rural-and-regional-development/national-population-distribution/indicator/english_7314f74f-en
- OECD. (2019a). *Where: Global reach*. No Place: OECD Publishing. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/about/members-and-partners/>
- OECD. (2019b). *National population distribution (indicator)*. Paris: OECD Publishing. DOI: 10.1787/7314f74f-en
- Orr, M. (2006). Mapping innovation in leadership preparation in our nation's schools of education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 87, p. 492-499.
- Owusu, F., Kalipeni, E., Awortwi, N. & Kiiru, J. (2017). Building research capacity for African institutions: Confronting the research leadership gap and lessons from African research leaders. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 20(2), p. 220-245. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2015.1046497
- Pan, H., Nyeu, F. & Chen, J. (2015). Principal instructional leadership in Taiwan: Lessons from two decades of research. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 53(4), p. 492-511.
- Papadopoulos, A. (2019). Rural planning and the financial crisis. In M. Scott, N. Gallent and M. Gkartzios (Eds.), *The Routledge companion to rural planning* (p. 183-191). London: Routledge.
- Parra, A. & Trinick, T. (2018). Multilingualism in indigenous mathematics education: An epistemic matter. *Mathematics Education Research Journal*, 30(3), p. 233-253.
- Parsley, D. & Barton, R. (2015). The myth of the little red schoolhouse: Challenges and opportunities for rural school improvement. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 90, p. 191-193. DOI: 10.1080/0161956X.2015.1022108
- Parson, L. & Hunter, C. (2019). Exploring differences in principal experiences according to rurality: A mixed-method study. *Planning and Changing*, 49(1/2), p. 37-61.
- Peeren, E. & Souch, I. (2019). Romance in the cowshed: Challenging and reaffirming the rural idyll in the Dutch reality TV show *Famer Wants a Wife*. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 67, p. 37-45. DOI: 10.1016/j.jrurstud.2019.02.001.
- Peikoff, L. (1993). *Objectivism: The philosophy of Ayn Rand*. New York: Penguin Books.

- Pendola, A. & Fuller, E. (2018). Principal stability and the rural divide. In E. McHenrySorber and D. Hall (Eds.), The diversity of rural educational leadership [Special issue]. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 34(1), p. 1-20.
- Perry, S. (2012). Development, land use, and collective trauma: The Marcellus shale gas boom in Rural Pennsylvania. *Culture, Agriculture, Food and Environment*, 34(1), p. 81–92.
- Philippou, G. & Charalambous, C. (2005). *Disentangling mentors' role in the development of prospective teachers' efficacy beliefs in teaching mathematics*. Melbourne: International Group for the Psychology of Mathematics Education.
- Philips, M. (1993). Rural gentrification and the processes of class colonisation. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 9(2), p. 123–140.
- Philips, M. (2005). Differential productions of rural gentrification: Illustrations from North and South Norfolk. *Geoforum*, 36(4), p. 477–494.
- Phillipson, J., Gorton, M., Maioli, S., Newberry, R., Tiwasing, P. & Turner, R. (2017). *Small rural firms in English regions: Analysis and key findings from the UK longitudinal small business survey, 2015*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Centre for Rural Economy and Newcastle University Business School.
- Pijanowski, J. C., Hewitt, P. M. & Brady, K. P. (2009). Superintendents' perceptions of the principal shortage. *NASSP Bulletin*, 93(2), p. 85–95. DOI: 10.1177/0192636509343963
- Pisa. (2014). *Declaration on policy development for grey literature resources*. Retrieved from http://www.greynet.org/images/Pisa_Declaration_May_2014.pdf
- Plummer, P., Tonts, M. & Argent, N. (2017). Sustainable rural economies, evolutionary dynamics and regional policy. *Applied Geography*, 90, p. 308–320. DOI: 10.1016/j.apgeog.2017.01.005
- Plunkett, M. & Dyson, M. (2011). Becoming a teacher and staying one: Examining the complex ecologies associated with educating and retaining new teachers in rural Australia? *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(1), p. 31-47. DOI: 10.14221/ajte.2011v36n1.3
- Port Lincoln Times*. (2019, August 12). Climate worth striking for. *Port Lincoln Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6324444/climate-worth-striking-for/>
- Port Lincoln Times*. (2019, August 19). Strike for climate a misguided protest. *Port Lincoln Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6337547/strike-for-climate-a-misguided-protest/>
- Port Lincoln Times*. (2019, August 22). Climate research. *Port Lincoln Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6342707/yellow-brick-road-to-pure-joy-in-cummins/>
- Port Lincoln Times*. (2019, September 2). A role to play in climate change. Retrieved from <https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6362455/a-role-to-play-in-climate-change/>
- Port Lincoln Times*. (2019, September 11). Sea level rise. Retrieved from <https://www.portlincolntimes.com.au/story/6378888/railway-roundhouse-memories-cherished/>
- Powell, D. (2011). Groundwater dropping globally: Satellites find supply falling mostly due to agriculture. *Science News*, 188(1), p. 5.

- Powney, G., Carvell, C., Edwards, M., Morris, R., Roy, H., Woodcock, B. & Isaac, N. (2019). Widespread losses of pollinating insects in Britain. *Nature Communications*, 10, p. 1-6. DOI: 10.1038/s41467-019-08974-9
- Pratt, E. & Warner, M. (2019). Imagining the good place: Public services and family strategies in rural Ecuador. *Rural Sociology*, 84(2), p. 284-314. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12231
- Preston, J. & Barnes, K. (2017). Successful leadership in rural schools: Cultivating collaboration. *The Rural Educator*, 38(1), p. 6-15.
- Preston, J. P., Jakubiec, B. A. & Kooymans, R. (2013). Common challenges faced by rural principals: A review of the literature. *Rural Educator*, 35(1), p. 1-12. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1022612.pdf>
- Prew, M. (2009). Community involvement in school development: Modifying school improvement concepts to the needs of South African township schools. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 37(6), p. 824–846.
- Primdahl, J., Kristensen, L., Arler, F., Angelstam, P., Aagaard, C. & Elbakidze, M. (2018). Rural landscape governance and expertise—on landscape agents and democracy. In S. Egoz, K. Jorgensen and D. Ruggeri (Eds.), *Defining landscape democracy: a path to spatial justice* (p. 153-164). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Principal Health and Wellbeing. [PHAW]. (NDa). *Principal health & wellbeing. Ireland*. Retrieved from <https://www.principalhealth.org/ie/>
- PHAW. (NDb). *Principal health & wellbeing. New Zealand*. Retrieved from <https://www.principalhealth.org/nz/>
- Province of Alberta. (2006). *Investing in our future: Responding to the rapid growth of oil sands Development. Final Report*. Alberta: Author.
- Prozesky, M. (2016). Ethical leadership resources in southern Africa’s Sesotho-speaking culture and in King Moshoeshoe. *Journal of Global Ethics*, 12(1), p. 6–16.
- Prud’Homme, A. (2011). *The ripple effect: The fate of freshwater in the twenty-first century*. New York: Scribner.
- Qian, J., He, S. & Liu, L. (2013). Aestheticisation, rent-seeking, and rural gentrification amidst China’s rapid urbanization: The case of Xiaozhou village, Guangzhou. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 32, p. 331–345.
- Racial Discrimination Act 1975 (Cth) s.3 (1). Retrieved from <https://www.legislation.gov.au/Details/C2016C00089>
- Raddon, A. (2010). Early stage research training: Epistemology & ontology in social science. Leicester: University of Leicester. Retrieved from <https://www2.le.ac.uk/colleges/ssah/documents/research-training-presentations/EpistFeb10.pdf>
- Rahdiyanta, D., Nurhadiyanto, D. & Munadi, S. (2019). The effects of situational factors in the implementation of work-based learning model on vocational education in Indonesia. *International Journal of Instruction*, 12(3), p. 307-324. DOI: 10.29333/iji.2019.12319a

- Reese, K. L., Lindle, J. C., Della Sala, M. R., Knoeppel, R. C. & Klar, H. W. (2015). Mapping the emotions of leadership: Coaching and mentoring leaders in practice. In L. J. Searby and S. K. Brondyk (Eds.), *Volume 5: Perspectives in mentoring series: Best practices in mentoring for teacher and leader development* (p. 279-312). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Reeves, D. B. (2010). *Professional development into student results*. Virginia: ASCD.
- Reimer, B. & Bollman, R. (2010). Understanding rural Canada: Implications for rural development policy and rural planning policy. In D. Douglas (Ed.), *Rural planning and development in Canada* (p. 10-52). Toronto: Nelson Education Ltd. Retrieved from <http://2018.icrps.org/wp-content/uploads/sites/4/2018/06/Reimer-Bollman-2010-Understanding-Rural-Canada.pdf>
- Rembang, M. & Purwastuti, d. (2019). Management of industrial work practice program in vocational high school. *Advances in social science, education and humanities research 397, 3rd International Conference on Learning Innovation and Quality Education*, p. 180-190.
- Rennie, F. & Billing, S-L. (2015). Changing community perceptions of sustainable rural development in Scotland. *The Journal of Rural and Community Development*, 10(2), p. 35-46.
- Rennie, F. & Billing, S-L. (2016). Community land ownership and rural resilience: A case study from the Highlands and Islands of Scotland. In U. Grabski-Kieron, I. Mose, A. Reichert-Schnick and A. Steinführer (Eds.), *European rural peripheries revalued: Governance, actors, impacts* (p. 30-46). Munich: Lit Verlag.
- Rennie, F. (2018, March). Celtic lands and identities: Global and local implications. In *The 2018 John F. Roach global lecture on social policy and practice*. The Arizona State University, Phoenix, USA.
- Renwick, A., Jansson, T., Verburg, P.H., Revoredo-Giha, C., Brtíz, W., Gocht, A. & McCracken, D. (2013). Policy reform and agricultural land abandonment in the EU. *Land Use Policy*, 30(1), p. 446-457.
- Reynolds, G. & Warfield, W. (2010). Discerning the differences between managers and leaders. *The Education Digest*, 71(1), p. 61-64.
- Rhodes, C. (2012). Mentoring and coaching for leadership development in schools. In S. J. Fletcher and C. A. Mullen (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of mentoring and coaching in education* (p. 243-256). Washington, DC: SAGE.
- Riley, P. (2013). *The Australian principal health and wellbeing survey 2011 data final report*. Clayton, Victoria: Monash University.
- Riley, P. (2014). *Australian principal occupational health, safety & wellbeing survey 2011 – 2014 data*. Fitzroy, Victoria: Australian Catholic University.
- Riley, P. (2015). *The Australian principal occupational health, safety & wellbeing survey 2015*. Fitzroy, Victoria: Australian Catholic University.
- Riley, P. (2017). *The Australian principal occupational health, safety & wellbeing survey 2016 data*. Fitzroy, Victoria: Australian Catholic University.
- Riley, P. (2018). *The Australian principal occupational health, safety and wellbeing survey 2017 data*. Fitzroy, Victoria: Australian Catholic University.
- Riley, P. (2019). *The Australian principal occupational health, safety & wellbeing survey 2018 data*. Fitzroy, Victoria: Australian Catholic University.

- Rixey, C. (2020). Oil and sustainability in the Arctic Circle. *Denver Journal of International Law and Policy*, 44(4), p. 441-452.
- Robbins, P. & Luginbuhl, A. (2007). The last enclosure: Resisting privatization of wildlife in the western United States. In N. Heynen, J. McCarthy, S. Prudham and P. Robbins (Eds.), *Neoliberal environments: False promises and unnatural consequences* (p. 25-38). New York: Routledge.
- Roberts, P. (2004). *Staffing an empty schoolhouse: Attracting and retaining teachers in rural, remote and isolated communities*. Sydney: New South Wales Teachers' Federation.
- Roberts, P. & Downes, N. (2019). The rural difference trope: Leader perceptions on regional, rural and remote schooling difference. *ACEL Leading and Managing*, 25(2), p.51-65.
- Roberts, P., Shyam, K. & Rastogi, C. (2006). *Rural access index: A key development indicator*. Transport Papers TP-10. Washington, DC: The World Bank Group.
- Robinson, V. (2010). From instructional leadership to leadership capabilities: Empirical findings and methodological challenges. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 9(1), p. 1–26. DOI: 10.1080/15700760903026748
- Robinson, V., Hohepa, M. & Lloyd, C. (2009). *School leadership and students' outcomes: Identifying what works and why: Best evidence synthesis Iteration [BES]*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
- Robinson, V., Lloyd, C. & Rowe, K. (2008). The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(5), p. 635–674. DOI: 10.1177/0013161X08321509
- Rosvall, P., Rönnlund, M. & Johansson, M. (2018). Young people's career choices in Swedish rural contexts: Schools' social codes, migration and resources. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 60, p. 43-51.
- Rubinsztein-Dunlop, S., Fallon, M., Carter, L. & Slezak, M. (2019, July 8). How taxpayers are funding a huge corporate expansion in the Murray-Darling Basin. *ABC News*. Retrieved from <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2019-07-08/taxpayers-helping-fund-murray-darling-basin-expansion/11279468>
- Ryan, C. (2017). Large-scale land deals in Sierra Leone at the intersection of gender and lineage. *Third World Quarterly*, 39(1), p.189-206. DOI: 10.1080/01436597.2017.1350099
- Rye, J. (2011). Youth migration, rurality and class: A Bourdieusian approach. *European Urban and Regional Studies*, 18(2), p. 170–183.
- Ryser, L., Halseth, G., Markey, S., Gunton, C. & Argent, N. (2019). Path dependency or investing in place: Understanding the changing conditions for rural resource regions. *The Extractive Industries and Society*, 6, p. 29-40. DOI: 10.1016/j.exis.2018.10.009
- Sage, C. (2013). The interconnected challenges for food security from a food regimes perspective: Energy, climate and malconsumption. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 29, p. 71–80.
- Satsangi, M. & Dunmore, K. (2003). The planning system and the provision of affordable housing in rural Britain: A comparison of the Scottish and English experience. *Housing Studies*, 18(2), p. 201-217. DOI: [10.1080/0267303032000087720](https://doi.org/10.1080/0267303032000087720)

- Schafft, K. & Jackson, A. (2011). *Rural education for the twenty-first century: Identity, place, and community in a globalizing world*. University Park, PA: Penn State University Press.
- Schafft, K., McHenry-Sorber, E., Hall, D. & Burfoot-Rochford, I. (2018). Busted amidst the boom: The creation of new insecurities and inequalities within Pennsylvania's shale gas. *Rural Sociology*, 83(3), p. 503-531. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12196
- Schechter, C. & Firuz, F. (2015). How mentor principals interpret the mentoring process using metaphors. *School Leadership & Management*, 35(4), p. 365-387. DOI: 10.1080/13632434.2015.1010500
- Scheil-Adlung, X. (Ed.). (2015). *Global evidence on inequities in rural health protection. New data on rural deficits in health coverage for 174 countries*. Geneva: International Labour Office, Social Protection Department. (Extension of Social Security series No 47).
- Schwandt, T. (2001). *Dictionary of qualitative inquiry* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Scoones, I. (2006). *Science, agriculture and the politics of policy: The case of biotechnology in India*. Hyderabad: Orient Blackswan.
- Scott, M., Gallent, N. & Gkartzios, M. (Eds.). (2019). *The Routledge companion to rural planning*. London: Routledge.
- Scottish Government. (2014). *Scottish government urban/rural classification 2013-2014*. Edinburgh: Scottish Government. Retrieved from <http://www.gov.scot/Resource/0046/00464780.pdf>
- Scutt, D. (2019, March 13). There's now far fewer workers to fill jobs in Australia. *Business Insider Australia*. Retrieved from <https://www.businessinsider.com.au/jobs-australia-unemployment-wage-growth-2019-3>
- Secombe, M. (2019, September 28 – October 4). NSW farmers' class action on water. *The Saturday Paper*. Retrieved from <https://www.thesaturdaypaper.com.au/news/politics/2019/09/28/nsw-farmers-class-action-water/15695928008846>
- Sharplin, E. (2002). Rural retreat or outback hell: Expectations of rural and remote teaching. *Issues in Educational Research*, 12(1), p. 49–63.
- Shields, C. (2010). Transformative leadership: Working for equity in diverse contexts. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 46(4), p. 558-589.
- Shin, H., Lees, L. & López-Morales, E. (2016). Introduction: Locating gentrification in the global east. *Urban Studies*, 53(3), p. 455–470.
- Shiva, V. (2008). *Toxic genes and toxic papers: IFPRI covering up the link between Bt. cotton and farmers suicides*. Retrieved from <http://276.hostserv.eu/b/shiva1.pdf>
- Shorrocks, A., Davies, J. & Lluberas, R. (2018). *Global wealth 2018: The year in review*. Zurich: Credit Suisse, Research Institute. Retrieved from <https://www.credit-suisse.com/about-us/en/reports-research/global-wealth-report.html>
- Short, B. (2006). Idyllic ruralities. In P. Cloke, T. Marsden and P. Mooney (Eds.), *The hand thesis of rural studies* (p. 133-148). London: SAGE.

- Showalter, D., Klein, R., Johnson, J. & Hartman, S. L. (2017). *Why rural matters 2015-2016: Understanding the changing landscape*. Washington, DC: Rural School and Community Trust. Retrieved from <http://www.ruraledu>
- Shucksmith, M. (2004). Young people and social exclusion in rural areas. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 44(1), p. 43-59.
- Shucksmith, M. (2018). Re-imagining the rural: From rural idyll to good countryside. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 59, p. 163-172.
- Shucksmith, M. & Brown, D. (2016) Conclusion: Rural studies: The challenges ahead. In M. Shucksmith and D. Brown (Eds.), *Routledge international handbook of rural studies* (p. 663-675). London: Routledge.
- Sibbet, D. (2013). *Visual leaders: New tools for visioning, management and organisation change*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Silverman, D. (2014). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analysing talk, text and interaction* (5th ed.). London: SAGE.
- Singh, G. & Siahpush, M. (2014). Widening rural–urban disparities in all-cause mortality and mortality from major causes of death in the USA, 1969–2009. *Journal of Urban Health*, 91(2), p. 272–292.
- Slattery, M., Campbell, R. & Quicke, A. (2019). *Dam shame. The hidden new dams in Australia*. Canberra: The Australian Institute Research. Retrieved from <https://www.tai.org.au/sites/default/files/P796%20Dam%20shame%20%5BWeb%5D.pdf>
- Slee, B. & Miller, D. (2015). School closures as a driver of rural decline in Scotland: A problem in pursuit of some evidence? *Scottish Geographical Journal*, 131(2), p. 78-97. DOI: 10.1080/14702541.2014.988288
- Smit, B. (2013). Female leadership in a rural school: A feminist perspective. *Studies of Tribes and Tribals*, 11(1), p. 89–96.
- Smith, G. (2003, December). Kaupapa Maori theory: Theorizing indigenous transformation of education and schooling. Paper presented to the joint AARE/NZARE Conference. Auckland, New Zealand. Retrieved from <https://www.aare.edu.au/data/publications/2003/pih03342.pdf>
- Smith, L. (2017). Chapter VI Indigenous peoples and education in the Pacific region. In B. Feiring, M. Brodsky and S. Vuinovich (Eds.), *State of the world's indigenous people. Education. Third volume* (p. 163-184). New York: United Nations.
- Smith, D. & Holt, L. (2007). Studentification and 'apprentice' gentrifiers within Britain's provincial towns and cities: Extending the meaning of gentrification. *Environment and Planning A*, 39(1), p. 142–161.
- Smyth, J., Swendener, A. & Kazyak, E. (2019). Women's work? The relationship between farmwork and gender self-perception. *Rural Sociology* 83(3), p. 654-676. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12207
- Solana-Solana, M. (2010). Rural gentrification in Catalonia, Spain: A case study of migration, social change and conflicts in the Empordanet area. *Geoforum*, 41(3), p. 508–517.
- Solstad, K. (2009). The impact of globalization on small communities and small schools in Europe. In T. Lyons, J. Choi and G. McPhan (Eds.), *Innovation for equity in rural Education. Symposium proceedings* (p. 45-57). Armidale: University of New England.

- Somerville, P., Smith, R. & McElwee, G. (2015). The dark side of the rural idyll: Stories of illegal/illicit economic activity in the UK countryside. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 39, p. 219–228.
- Sørensen, J. (2018). The importance of place-based, internal resources for the population development in small rural communities. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 59, p. 78–87.
- South Australian Certificate of Education [SACE]. (ND). *Home*. Adelaide: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.sace.sa.edu.au/>
- Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality. [SACMEQ]. (2010.) *SACMEQ III Project Results: Pupil achievement levels in reading and mathematics*. Retrieved from https://nicspaull.files.wordpress.com/2011/04/wd01_sacmeq_iii_results_pupil_achievement.pdf
- Spiess, K. & Wrohlich, K. (2010). Does distance determine who attends a university in Germany? *Economics of Education Review*, 29(3), p. 470–479.
- Standing, G. (2013). *The precariat: The new dangerous class*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Starr, K. & White, S. (2008). The small rural school principalship: Key challenges and cross school responses. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 23(5), p. 1-12
- Statistics Canada. (2020). *Statistics Canada census program*. Retrieved from <https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/index-eng.cfm>
- Stenbacka, S. (2012). The rural intervening in the lives of internal and international migrants: Migrants, biographies and translocal practices. In C. Hedberg and R. M do Carmo (Eds.), *Translocal ruralism: Mobility and connectivity in European rural spaces* (p. 55-72). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Steward, D., Bruss, P., Yang, X., Staggenborg, S., Welch, S. & Apley, M. (2013). Tapping unsustainable groundwater stores for agricultural production in the high plains aquifer of Kansas, projections to 2110. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 110(37), p. E3477-E3486.
- Stewart, G. & Dale, H. (2018). Reading the 'ghost book': Maori talk about *Washdat at the Pā*, by Ans Westra. *Video Journal of Education and Pedagogy*, (23)2, p. 1-11. DOI: 10.1186/s40990-018-0014-2
- Stewart, C. & Matthews, J. (2015). The lone ranger in rural education: The small rural school principal and professional development. *The Rural Educator*, 36(3), p. 49-60.
- Steyn, G. (2008). The influence of school leadership preparation programmes: Identification of possible focus areas. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 22(4), p. 889–905.
- Stiglitz, J., Sen, A. & Fitoussi, J. (2010). *Mismeasuring our lives: Why GDP doesn't add up*. New York: New Press.
- Stock, P., Forney, J., Emery, S. & Wittman, H. (2014). Neoliberal natures on the farm: Farmer autonomy and cooperation in comparative perspectives. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 36, p. 411–422.
- Stockdale, A. (2002). Out-migration from rural Scotland: The importance of family and social networks. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 42(1), p. 41-64.
- Stockdale, A. (2010). The diverse geographies of rural gentrification in Scotland. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 26(1), p. 31–40.

- Stoll, L. (2009). Capacity building for school improvement or creating capacity for learning? A changing landscape. *Journal of Educational Change*, 10, p. 115–127.
- Stone, G. D. (2011). Field versus farm in Warangal: Bt cotton, higher yields, and larger questions. *World Development*, 39, p. 387–398. DOI: 10.1016/j.worlddev.2010.09.008
- Streletskiy, D., Suter, L., Shiklomanov, N., Porfiriev, B. & Eliseev, D. (2019). Assessment of climate change impacts on buildings, structures and infrastructure in the Russian regions on permafrost. *Environmental Research Letters*, 14(2), p. 1-15. DOI: 10.1088/1748-9326/aaf5e6
- Sullivan, K. (2019, July 13). Water trading's 'unintended' consequences across Australia's southern Murray-Darling Basin. *ABC News*. Retrieved from <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2019-07-13/water-trade-in-murray-darling-basin-has-unintended-consequences/11291450>
- Sullivan, K., McConney, A. & Perry, L. (2018). A comparison of rural educational disadvantage in Australia, Canada and New Zealand using OECD's PISA. *SAGE Open*, p. 1-12. DOI: 10.1177/2158244018805791
- Swinburn, B., Kraak, V. & Allender, S., (2019). The global syndemic of obesity, undernutrition, and climate change: The Lancet Commission report. *The Lancet Commissions* 393(10173), p.791-846. Retrieved from [https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736\(18\)32822-8/fulltext](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(18)32822-8/fulltext)
- Taylor, B., Chazdon, R. & Menge, D. (2019). Successional dynamics of nitrogen fixation and forest growth in regenerating Costa Rican rainforests. *Ecology*, 100(4), e02637. DOI: 10.1002/ecy.2637
- te Riele, K., Wilson, K., Wallace, V., McGinty, S. & Lewthwaite, B. (2017). Outcomes from flexible learning options for disenfranchised youth: What counts? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 21(2), p. 117-130. DOI: 10.1080/13603116.2016.1168878
- Ternes, B. (2018). Groundwater citizenship and water supply awareness: Investigating water-related infrastructure and well ownership. *Rural Sociology*, 83(2), p. 347-375. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12179
- The Department for Basic Education. (2014). *South African standard for principalship*. Retrieved from <https://www.sahisa.org/south-african-standard-for-principalship/>
- The Department for Basic Education. (2015). *Policy on the South African standard for principalship*. Retrieved from <https://sapanational.com/files/POLICY-ON-THE-SASP--2-.pdf>
- The Food and Land Use Coalition [FOLU]. (2019). *Growing better: Ten critical transitions to transform food and land use*. No Place: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.foodandlandusecoalition.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/FOLU-GrowingBetter-GlobalReport.pdf>
- The General Teaching Council for Scotland. [GTC]. (2012). *The standards for leadership and management: supporting leadership and management development*. Retrieved from <http://www.gtcs.org.uk/web/files/the-standards/standards-for-leadership-and-management-1212.pdf>
- Theobald, P. & Wood, K. (2010). Learning to be rural: Identity lessons from history, schooling, and the US corporate media. In K. A. Schafft and A. Y. Jackson (Eds.), *Rural education for the twenty-first century: Identity, place, and community in a globalizing world* (p. 17-22). University Park, PA: Pennsylvania State University Press.
- Theodori, G. & Luloff, A. (2000). Urbanization and community attachment in rural areas. *Society and Natural Resources*, 13(5), p. 399–420.

- Theodori, G. & Willits, F. (2019). Rural and small-town residents and the rural mystique: Data from Texas. *Rural Sociology*, 84(1), p. 168-181. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12227
- Thessin, R. (2019). Establishing productive principal/principal supervisor partnerships for instructional leadership. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 57(5), p. 463-483. DOI: 10.1108/JEA-09-2018-0184
- Thissen, F., Fortuijn, J.D., Strijker, D. & Haartsen, T. (2010). Migration intentions of rural youth in the Westhoek, Flanders, Belgium and the Veenkoloniën, The Netherlands. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 26, p. 428-436.
- Thomson, S., De Bortoli, L. & Underwood, C. (2016). *Programme for international student assessment (PISA). PISA 2015: A first look at Australia's results*. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Thoonen, E., Slegers, P., Oort, F. & Peetsma, T. (2012). Building school-wide capacity for improvement: The role of leadership, school organizational condition, and teacher factors. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement: School leadership that makes a difference: international perspectives*, 23(4), p. 441-460.
- Thornton, K. (2019). *Early childhood education trainers' knowledge and use of andragogical principles*. (Doctor of Education thesis, Walden University, USA). Retrieved from <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/6690/>
- Ting, S. & Yeh, L. (2014). Teacher loyalty of elementary schools in Taiwan: The contribution of gratitude and relationship quality. *School Leadership & Management*, 34(1), p. 85-101.
- Tomaney, J., Krawchenko, Y. & McDonald, C. (2019). Regional planning and rural development: Evidence from the OECD. In M. Scott, N. Gallent and M. Gkartziou (Eds.), *The Routledge companion to rural planning* (p. 170-182). London: Routledge.
- Tomlins-Jahnke, H. (2012). Beyond legitimation: A tribal response to Māori education in Aotearoa New Zealand. *The Australian Journal of Indigenous Education*, 41(2), p. 146-155. DOI: 10.1017/jie.2012.28
- Tonts, M. (2010). Labour market dynamics in resource dependent regions: An examination of the Western Australian goldfields. *Geographical Research*, 48(2), p. 148-165.
- Tracy, G. & Weaver, C. (2000). Aspiring leaders' academy: Responding to the principal shortage. *National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin*, 84(618), p. 75-83.
- Transport & ICT. (2016). *Measuring rural access: Using new technologies*. Washington DC: World Bank. Retrieved from <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/367391472117815229/pdf/107996-REVISED-PUBLIC-MeasuringRuralAccessweb.pdf>
- Trinidad, S., Sharplin, E., Lock, G., Ledge, S., Boyd, D. & Terry, E. (2011). Developing strategies at the pre-service level to address critical teacher attraction and retention issues in Australian rural, regional and remote schools. *Education in Rural Australia*, 21(1), p. 111-120.
- Tse, J. & Waters, J. (2013). Transnational youth transitions: becoming adults between Vancouver and Hong Kong. *Global Network*, 13, p. 535-550.
- Tucker, P.D., Young, M.D. & Koschoreck, J.W. (2012). Leading research-based change in educational leadership preparation: An introduction. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, 7, p. 155-171.

- Tytler, R., Symington, D., Darby, L., Malcolm, C. & Kirkwood, V. (2011). Discourse communities: A framework from which to consider professional development for rural teachers of science and mathematics. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, p. 871-879.
- Unay-Gailhard, I., Bavorová, M., Bednaříková, Z. & Ponkina, E. (2019). "I don't want to work in agriculture!" The transition from agricultural education to the labor market in rural Russia. *Rural Sociology*, 84(2), p. 315-349. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12245
- United Nations. [UN]. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (ND). *Population dynamics. World urbanization prospects 2018*. Retrieved from <https://population.un.org/wup/DataQuery/>
- UN. (2016). *In safety and dignity: Addressing large movements of refugees and migrants*. New York: Author. Retrieved from https://refugeesmigrants.un.org/sites/default/files/in_safety_and_dignity_-_addressing_large_movements_of_refugees_and_migrants.pdf
- UN. (2017). *Population density and urbanization*. Retrieved from <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/sconcerns/densurb/densurbmethods.htm>
- UN. (2018a). *Department of economic and social affairs. Population dynamics. World urbanization prospects 2028*. Retrieved from <https://population.un.org/wup/DataQuery/>
- UN. (2018b). *Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. Part II global compact on refugees*. New York: Author. Retrieved from https://www.unhcr.org/gcr/GCR_English.pdf
- UN. (2018c). *Sustainable development goal 6: Synthesis report 2018 on water and sanitation*. Retrieved from <https://www.unwater.org/publications/highlights-sdg-6-synthesis-report-2018-on-water-and-sanitation-2/>
- UN. (2019a). *About the UN*. Retrieved from <https://www.un.org/en/about-un/>
- UN. (2019b). *United Nations expert group meeting on eradication rural poverty to implement the 2030 agenda for sustainable development in 2019*. Retrieved from <https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/wp-content/uploads/sites/22/2019/04/DraftReport-EGM-Rural-Poverty2019.pdf>
- UN. (2019, June 4). @antonioguterres talks #ClimateAction with @GretaThunberg. In *Instagram*. Retrieved from <https://www.instagram.com/p/BySck2fligB/>
- United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF]. (2004). *Building child friendly cities. A framework for action*. Florence: Innocenti Research Centre. Retrieved from <https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/cfc-framework-eng.pdf>
- UNICEF/WHO. (2015). *Progress on sanitation and drinking water: 2015 update and MDG Assessment*. UNICEF and World Health Organization.
- United Nations Development Program. [UNDP]. (2013). *Human development report 2013. The rise of the south, human progress in a diverse world*. New York: Author. DOI: 10.3917/afco.246.0164
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. [UNESCO]. (NDa). *Less than 4 years of schooling*. Retrieved from https://www.inequalities.org/indicators/edu4#?sort=mean&dimension=community&group=|Rural&age_group=edu4_2024&countries=all

- UNESCO. (NDb). *Never been to school*. Retrieved from https://www.education-inequalities.org/indicators/edu0_prim#?sort=mean&dimension=community&group=all&age_group=edu0_prim&countries=all
- UNESCO. (Ndc). *Youth literacy rate*. Retrieved from https://www.education-inequalities.org/indicators/literacy_1524#?sort=sex%3AFemale&dimension=community&group=Rural&age_group=literacy_1524&countries=all
- UNESCO. (2019). *Migration and inclusive societies*. Paris: UNESCO. Retrieved from <https://en.unesco.org/themes/fostering-rights-inclusion/migration>
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. [UNHCR]. (NDa). *How are climate change and displacement connected?* Australia: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.unrefugees.org.au/about-us/news/how-are-climate-change-and-displacement-connected/>
- UNHCR. (NDb). *Stepping up. Refugee education in crisis*. Geneva: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.unhcr.org/steppingup/wp-content/uploads/sites/76/2019/08/Education-Report-2019-Final-web-3.pdf>
- UNHCR. (2019). *Global trends. Forced displacement in 2018*. Geneva: Author. Retrieved from www.unhcr.org/5d087ee7.pdf, p. 5.
- United States of American. Department of Agriculture. [USDA]. Economic Research Service. [ERS]. (2012). *Mapping frontier and remote areas in the U.S*. Retrieved from <https://www.ers.usda.gov/amber-waves/2012/december/data-feature-mapping-frontier-and-remote-areas-in-the-us/>
- USDA. National Agricultural Statistics Service [NASS]. (2016). *Charts and maps by commodity*. Retrieved from https://www.nass.usda.gov/Charts_and_Maps/
- United States Census Bureau. (2012). *The American Indian and Alaska Native population: 2010. 2010 Census Briefs*. Retrieved from <https://www.census.gov/prod/cen2010/briefs/c2010br-10.pdf>
- Vallerand, R. (2015). *The psychology of passion: A dualistic model*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Van der Berg, S. (2008). How effective are poor schools? Poverty and educational outcomes in South Africa. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 34(3), p. 145–154.
- Van der Ploeg, J., Jingzhong, Y. & Schneider, S. (2012). Rural development through the construction of new, nested markets: Comparative perspectives from China, Brazil and the European Union. *Journal of Peasant Studies*, 39(1), p. 133–73. DOI: 10.1080/03066150.2011.652619
- Van der Vyver, C., Van der Westhuizen, P. & Meyer, L. W. (2014). Caring school leadership. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42(1), p. 61–74.
- Van der Westhuizen, P., Mosoge, M., Swanepoel, L. & Coetsee, L. (2005). Organizational culture and academic achievement in secondary schools. *Education and Urban Society*, 38(1), p. 89–109.
- Van Niekerk, E. & van Niekerk, P. (2006). Strategic management in South African education: The leadership dimension. *Africa Education Review*, 3(1–2), p. 84–99.
- Van Wyk, N. (2004). School governing bodies: The experiences of South African educators. *South African Journal of Education*, 24(1), p. 49–54.

- Vávra, J., Megyesi, B., Duží, B., Craig, T., Klufová, R., Lapka, M. & Cudlínová, E. (2018). Food self-provisioning in Europe: An exploration of sociodemographic factors in five regions. *Rural Sociology*, 83(2), p. 431-461.
- Verma, R. (2014). Land grabs, power, and gender in east and southern Africa: So, what's new? *Feminist Economics*, 20(1), p. 52–75.
- Villiers, E. & Pretorius, S. (2011). Democracy in schools: Are educators ready for teacher leadership? *South African Journal of Education*, 31(4), p. 574–589.
- Vinson, T. & Rawsthorne, M. (2015). *Dropping off the edge 2015*. Melbourne: Jesuit Social Services.
- Vukovic, R. (2016, July 13). South Australian principals get strategic about leadership. *Education HQ*. Retrieved from <http://au.educationhq.com/news/35321/south-australian-Principals-get-strategic-about-leadership/#>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Walker, A. & Dimmock, C. (2000). Developing educational administration: The impact of societal culture on theory and practice. In C. Dimmock and A. Walker (Eds.), *Future school administration: Western and Asian perspectives* (p. 3-24). Hong Kong: Chinese University Press.
- Walker, A. & Hallinger, P. (2015). A synthesis of reviews of research on principal leadership in East Asia. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 53(4), p. 554–570.
- Walker, A., Hu, R. & Qian, H. (2012). Principal leadership in China: An initial review. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 23(4), p. 369–399.
- Wall, T. & Hindley, A. (2018). Work-based and vocational education as catalysts for sustainable development? *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning*, 8(3), p. 226-232. DOI 10.1108/HESWBL-08-2018-103
- Wang, S.-Y., Santanello, S., Wang, H., Barandiaran, D., Pinker, R., Schubert, S., Gillies, R., Oglesby, R., Hilburn, K., Kilic, A. & Houser, P. (2015). An intensified seasonal transition in the Central U.S. that enhances summer drought. *Journal of Geophysical Research—Atmospheres*, 120(17), p. 8804216.
- Water Systems Council. [WSC]. (2012). *"Kansas fact sheet." Wellcare report*. Washington, DC: Water Systems Council.
- Watkins, F. & Jacoby, A. (2007). Is the rural idyll bad for your health? Stigma and exclusion in the English countryside. *Health Place*, 13(4), p. 851-864.
- Webber, C., Mentz, K., Scott, S., Mola Okoko, J. & Scott, D. (2014). Principal preparation in Kenya, South Africa, and Canada. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 27(3), p. 499–519.
- Weiss, B. (2016). *Real pigs: Shifting values in the field of local pork*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.
- Whatman, S. (2002). Teacher preparation in a remote indigenous school: A human rights issue? *Journal of Australian Indigenous Issues*, 4(2), p. 16–24.
- White, S. (2006). Preparing pre-service teachers for rural teaching: A new approach. *International Journal of Practical Experiences in Professional Education*, 9(1), p. 14-19.

- White, B., Borrás, S., Hall, R., Scoones, I. & Wolford, W. (2012). The new enclosures: Critical perspectives on corporate land deals. *Journal of Peasant Studies*, 39(3–4), p. 619–647.
- Whitehead, I., Lobley, M. & Baker, J. (2012). From generation to generation: Drawing the threads together. In M. Lobley, J. Baker and I. Whitehead (Eds.), *Keeping it in the family: International perspectives on succession and retirement on family farms* (p.213-240). Oxford, England: Routledge.
- Williams, D. (2010). *The rural solution: How community schools can reinvigorate rural education*. Washington, DC: Center for American Progress.
- Williams, S. T. & Aboriginal Affairs (New South Wales). (2011). *The importance of teaching and learning Aboriginal languages and cultures: A mid-study impression paper*. Surry Hills: NSW Government, Office of Communities, Aboriginal Affairs. Retrieved from <https://pandora.nla.gov.au/pan/138444/20130125-1417/www.daa.nsw.gov.au/publications/AA%20NSW%20Research%20paper%20low.pdf>
- Williams, T. (2013, April 13). Quietly, Indians reshape cities and reservations. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/2013/04/14/us/as-american-indians-move-to-cities-old-and-new-challenges-follow.html>
- Winn, P., Erwin, S., Gentry, J. & Cauble, M. (2009a, April). Rural principal leadership skill proficiency and student achievement. Paper presented to the American Education Research Association (AERA), Annual Meeting. SIG: Learning and Teaching in Educational Leadership, San Diego, CA, USA.
- Winn, P., Erwin, S., Gentry, J. & Cauble, M. (2009b, April). Urban principal leadership skill proficiency and student achievement. Paper presented to the American Education Research Association (AERA), Annual Meeting. SIG: Leadership for School Improvement, San Diego, CA, USA.
- Wolford, W., Borrás, S., Hall, R., Scoones, I. & White, B. (2013). Governing global land deals: The role of the state in the rush for land. *Development and Change*, 44(2), p. 189–210.
- Wood, J. (2019a, June 13). Costa Rica has doubled its tropical rainforests in just a few decades. Here's how. *World Economic Forum*. Retrieved from <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/06/costa-rica-has-doubled-its-tropical-rainforests-in-just-a-few-decades-here-s-how>
- Wood, J. (2019b, June 20). 5 facts you should know about the world's refugees. *World Economic Forum*. Retrieved from <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/06/5-facts-you-should-know-about-the-world-s-refugees/>
- Wood, J. (2019c, August 13). Climate change is exacerbating hunger in some of the world's poorest countries. And those most at risk are the least to blame. *World Economic Forum*. Retrieved from <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/08/climate-change-is-causing-hunger-in-some-of-the-worlds-poorest-countries-and-those-most-at-risk-are-the-least-to-blame/>
- Woodhouse, P. & Ganho, A. (2011, April 8). Is water the hidden agenda of agricultural land acquisition in sub-saharan Africa? Presented at the *International Conference on Global Land Grabbing*. Sussex: England. Retrieved from http://www.iss.nl/fileadmin/ASSETS/iss/Documents/Conference_papers/LDPI/12_P_Woodhouse_and_A_S_Ganho.pdf
- Woodrum, A. (2005). The rural principalship. In A. Howley, E. Pendarvis and A. Woodrum (Eds.), *The rural school principalship: Promises and challenges* (p. 1-24). Charleston, WV: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- Woods, M. (2011). *Rural*. London, England: Routledge.

- World Bank. (2009a). *World development report 2009: Reshaping economic geography*. Washington, DC: World Bank Group.
- World Bank. (2009b). *West Bank and Gaza: Assessment of restrictions on Palestinian water sector development sector note April 2009. Middle East and North Africa Region - Sustainable development* (Report No. 47657-GZ). Washington: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.
- World Bank. (2014). *Agriculture, forestry, and fishing, value added (% of GDP)*. Retrieved from <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator>
- World Bank. (2016). *Measuring rural access using new technologies*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank. Retrieved from <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/367391472117815229/pdf/107996-REVISED-PUBLIC-MeasuringRuralAccessweb.pdf>
- World Bank. (2018a). *New country classifications by income level: 2018-2019*. Retrieved from <https://blogs.worldbank.org/opendata/new-country-classifications-income-level-2018-2019>
- World Bank. (2018b). *Poverty and shared prosperity 2018: Piecing together the poverty puzzle*. Washington, DC: World Bank. License: Creative Commons Attribution CC BY 3.0 IGO. Retrieved from <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/30418/9781464813306.pdf>
- World Bank. (2019). *World bank members*. Retrieved from <https://www.worldbank.org/en/about/leadership/members>
- World Bank. (2020). *Indigenous peoples*. Retrieved from <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/indigenouspeoples>
- World Health Organisation [WHO]. (2018). *Drinking water fact sheet*. Retrieved from <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/drinking-water>
- WHO. (2019). *World health statistics 2019: Monitoring health for the SDGs, sustainable development goals*. Geneva: Author. Retrieved from <https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/324835/9789241565707-eng.pdf>
- WHO & UNICEF. (2017). *Progress on drinking water, sanitation and hygiene: 2017 update and SDG baselines*. Geneva: World Health Organization. Retrieved from https://www.unicef.org/publications/index_96611.html
- Wright, L. (2012). Rural teachers, reading, and the social imagination. In L. Wright (Ed.), *South Africa's education crisis. Views from the Eastern Cape* (p. 72-85). Grahamstown, SA: National Inquiry Services Centre (NISC).
- Wright, N. (2001). Leadership, 'bastard leadership' and managerialism. *Educational Management and Administration*, 29(3), p. 275–290.
- Wright, S., Lloyd, K., Suchet-Pearson, S., Burarrwanga, L., Tofa, M. & Bawaka Country. (2012). Telling stories in, through and with Country: Engaging with Indigenous and more-than-human methodologies at Bawaka, NE Australia. *Journal of Cultural Geography*, 29(1), p. 39-60. DOI: 10.1080/08873631.2012.646890
- Wuthnow, R. (2018). *The left behind: Decline and rage in rural America*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

- Yakavets, N., Frost, D. & Khoroshash, A. (2017). School leadership and capacity building in Kazakhstan. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 20(3), p. 345-370. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2015.1066869
- Yami, M., Asten, P., Hauser, M., Schut, M. & Pali, P. (2019). Participation without negotiating: Influence of stakeholder power imbalances and engagement models on agricultural policy development in Uganda. *Rural Sociology*, 84(2), p. 390-415.
- Yesil, H. & Tugtas, A. (2019). Removal of heavy metals from leaching effluents of sewage sludge via supported liquid membranes. *Science of the Total Environment*, 693. DOI: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.133608
- Yoon, K., Duncan, T., Lee, S., Scarloss, B. & Shapley, K. (2007). *Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development effects student achievement* (Issues & Answers Report, REL 2007–No. 033). Washington: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory Southwest. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs>
- Zarifa, D., Hango, D. & Milian, R. (2018). Proximity, prosperity, and participation: Examining access to postsecondary education among youth in Canada's provincial north. *Rural Sociology*, 83(2), p. 270-314. DOI: 10.1111/ruso.12183
- Zeitoun, M., Mirumachi, N., Warner, J., Kirkegaard, M. & Cascão, A. (2019). Analysis for water conflict transformation. *Water International*. DOI: 10.1080/02508060.2019.1607479
- Zhao, Y. (2019). When guesthouse meets home: The time-space of rural gentrification in southwest China. *Geoforum*, 100, p. 60-67. DOI: 10.1016/j.geoforum.2019.01.020
- Zhu, C., Kobayashi, K., Loladze, I., Zhu, J., Jiang, Q., Xu, X., Liu, G., Seneweera, S., Ebi, K., Drewnowski, A., Fukagawa, N. & Ziska, L. (2018). Carbon dioxide levels this century will alter the protein, micronutrients, and vitamin content of rice grains with potential health consequences for the poorest rice-dependent countries. *Science Advances*, 4(5), p. 1-8. DOI: 10.1126/sciadv.aaq1012
- 350.org. (2019). *Global climate strike*. Retrieved from <https://globalclimatestrike.net/>