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The importance of school leadership for improved educational outcomes has gained recognition in developing countries as their societies move into the 21st century (Adams, Raman Kutty & Mohd Zabidi 2017; Bush 2011, Walker & Hallinger 2015; Harris & Jones 2015; Hallinger 2016, 2017). The corpus of international empirical evidence shows that effective school leadership contributes to better student and school performance (Hallinger 2013; Leithwood & Sun 2012; Leithwood et al. 2006; Day et al 2008).

Over the years, scholars have paid attention to the type or form of leadership associated with organisational transformation and improvement (Hallinger & Lee 2013; Day et al 2011; Robinson et al. 2008) and that contributes to improved system performance (Harris 2014; Fullan 2007). In addition, there is increasing focus on the characteristics or features of successful school leaders (Hallinger & Lee 2013; Robinson et al. 2008).

It is clear from the extensive knowledge base on educational leadership that it is shaped by institutional, political and cultural norms of the society (Hallinger & Bryant 2013, Belchetz & Leithwood 2007, Walker & Dimmock 2002, Bajunid 1996, Day & Leithwood 2007). School leadership is becoming more complex and schools are expected to do more than what they achieved previously. The complex school system with its amalgamated challenges has led to the view that a single leader can no longer fulfil the school’s day-to-day management responsibility. The demands of 21st century education require great leadership capability and capacity across school boundaries.

Jensen, Hunter, Sonneman, and Burns (2012) suggest that an essential component of a school leader’s role is the ability to create effective collaborative working conditions. Others have suggested a broader set of responsibilities for school leaders, including creating professional learning communities. Also important is a support environment for teachers to collaborate to improve teaching practices and to enhance student learning.
outcomes (Jones & Harris 2014; Louis, Dretzke, & Wahlstrom 2010). However, evidence from many education systems indicates that principals are still viewed as being solely responsible for school performance and outcomes (Bush 2011). Hallinger and Bryant (2013) note:

The vision of building a new corpus of regionally focused knowledge in educational leadership and management [in East Asia] has yet to be fulfilled. The pattern of results reported in this study suggests that the corpus of knowledge on educational leadership and management in East Asia is still in a very early stage of development. As such it cannot meet the needs of policymakers and practitioners (pp. 632-633).

There are limited resources on theoretical foundations of good leadership and management practices; as such, the aim of this book is to provide theories to guide educational leaders, managers and scholars who have a keen interest in educational leadership and management. This volume is a compilation of views from a range of scholars on educational leadership. The main objective of the book is to present contemporary theories and models in educational leadership and management in clear, simplistic terms backed by references to literature by leading scholars in the field. The questions posed at the end of chapters are intended to stimulate discussion and critical thinking on pertinent issues among scholars with an interest in the field.

Chapter 1 defines leadership and management in education and the central role of leaders and managers in moving the system towards achieving organisational goals. The role of leadership and its influence on education is emphasised and differentiated from the role of and influence of management. While the differences between the role and influence of educational leaders and managers are debatable, there is an interlocking relationship between management and leadership.

Chapter 2 examines how educational leadership and management have distinct sets of ideologies with some overlapping components. It describes how the traditional conception of administration branched out to more specific definitive aspects of management technicalities and leadership influences. Although crucial in education systems, leadership and management are at two opposite ends. For education to move forward, these two worlds need to merge and be harmoniously juggled by education leaders.

Chapter 3 discusses the earliest studies of leadership known to academia, the Great Man and Trait Theories of Leadership. Early approaches to leadership were leader-centric and focused on leadership traits. The Great Man Theory approached leadership as a genetic quality, passed down through generations. The early 1900s brought a new approach to leadership,
one focused on inherent traits. These theories have contributed to politics, businesses, and other fields of professions in terms of how leadership can be understood and even developed.

Chapter 4 presents the Situational Leadership theory in the context of academic leadership. The model of situational leadership has been developed as a result of extensive research to enable leaders to identify situations in order to adopt the appropriate leadership style. The practice of situational leadership in an educational setting is discussed, as well as the teacher’s role as leaders and how the concept can be applied to classroom situations.

Chapter 5 focuses on Transactional Leadership, a theory introduced by prominent political scientist James McGregor Burns, which signalled a shift from a leader-centric view of leadership to a ‘process-oriented approach’. Burns pointed out the importance of ethics and the relationship between people in leadership positions, with transactional leadership being a quid pro quo model more akin to management. Transactional leadership tends to be utilised by most school leaders to meet the demand for accountability in their establishments.

Chapter 6 introduces Transformational Leadership, which is the first step away from the old instructional leadership model that operated under a clear hierarchy with administrators at the top and students below. Some models of leadership are considered, such as those by James MacGregor Burns, Bernard M. Bass, and Leithwood, as well as Bass and Avolio’s Full Range Leadership Theory, and Kouzes and Posner’s Model of Transformational Leadership. Transformational leadership has emerged as one of the most important approaches for understanding and influencing employee effectiveness by inspiring employees to greater levels of motivation and performance.

Chapter 7 explains Instructional Leadership, which has demonstrated the “strongest empirically-verified impact” on student learning outcomes and long staying power. The chapter traces the evolution of instructional leadership in theory and practice since the mid-20th century, through a discussion of the various models introduced by Hallinger and Murphy, Murphy’s Instructional Leadership Framework, Weber, and synthesised model of instructional leadership by Alig-Mielcarek and Hoy, to its integration with other leadership models. It also considers instructional leadership in the era of “effective schools” and the characteristics of effective instructional leaders. Schools where learning is not happening need a top-down approach and therefore a more directive instructional leadership.

Chapter 8 discusses Distributed Leadership in schools. School leadership is undergoing a transition from the responsibility of leading an organisation placed on one individual to a leadership that is distributed...
among formal leaders and members of the organisation based on the situations encountered. The chapter traces the evolution of distributed leadership over the years through a discussion of the various models – by Gronn in 2000, Elmore in 2005, and Spillane’s distributed leadership model in 2008. It also highlights the role of school leaders in distributed leadership and teacher leadership, as well as the significance of distributed leadership in schools and factors that may inhibit its implementation.

The next three chapters compare leadership theories. In Chapter 9 transactional and transformational leadership theories, commonly perceived to be polar opposites, are compared. Although they differ greatly from each other, each has its merits in the educational context. The chapter also provides an additional resource in the form of a multimedia presentation on the comparative nature of transactional and transformational leadership.

Chapter 10 compares instructional leadership and distributed leadership, two approaches to improve learning in schools. Distributed leadership is evident in the requirement for shared leadership and a constant dialogue about learning that creates an environment in which learning can thrive, while instructional leadership emerges out of the need to establish a culture of accountability. The two approaches offer different routes to the realisation of the aim of effective leadership for learning. The chapter reaches a conclusion on which, if either, is the most promising way for schools to effectively meet all of the conditions of leadership for learning, and continue to improve.

Chapter 11 compares the theories of transformational and distributed leadership. Transformational leadership is a contemporary model of leadership that emphasises raising the capacity and commitments of the organisation’s members. Distributed leadership presents new insight into leadership as a practice that dominates traditional concepts about the relationship between official leadership and structural acts. Both transformational and distributed leadership models have succeeded in overcoming many of the shortcomings of traditional leadership theories. The chapter also provides an additional resource in the form of a multimedia presentation on the comparative nature of transformational and distributed leadership.

Chapter 12 examines teacher leadership and its effect on positive change in classrooms and schools. Teachers need to engage in leadership action. Teacher leadership involves the interaction of all participants working towards a shared goal focused on improving the quality of student learning. The chapter looks at the definition of teacher leadership, its concept development, and its potential benefits. Various models of teacher leadership by Katzenmeyer and Moller, Fairman and Mackenzie, and Grant
are considered. The role of teacher leadership, and factors that facilitate and inhibit its development are also examined.

Chapter 13 describes student leadership development and effectiveness, and looks at various models such as Astin’s college impact model, the social change model of leadership development, Astin and Astin’s transformative leadership model, Kouzes and Posner’s student leadership challenge model, student leadership competencies model, Amirianzadeh’s hexagon theory of student leadership, and finally Bolman and Deal’s Four Frame Model, a relatively unexplored model in the area of student leadership. The chapter considers what contributes to effective student leadership and the challenges that come with it.

Chapter 14 focuses on technology leadership in teaching and management. The application of technology has brought significant changes to education in all aspects of the curriculum: teaching, management and culture of the school. Thus, a knowledge of technology leadership should be included in the management systems of schools and in the teaching and learning process. Technology contributes to student learning and increases the quality of pedagogy in the classroom. The chapter discusses the concept of technology leadership, models of technology leadership, role of school leaders and teachers, and the importance and implications of technology leadership as well as barriers.

Chapter 15 takes up the issue of curriculum leadership and management. The literature on educational administration tends to differentiate between leadership and management. The author of the chapter argues that successful development and implementation of a curriculum requires the efforts of both leaders and managers. The chapter provides some understanding of the notion of curriculum, curricular distinctions, types, leadership, and management processes.

Chapter 16 examines ethical leadership, which has attracted interest and research over the last few years due to an increase in ethical violations by leaders of organisations. As a result, the study of ethical leadership has spiralled, emphasising the importance of understanding its origins and effects. Emphasis is placed on the need for leaders to be ethical and criteria for judging ethical and unethical leadership, as well as the practice of ethical leadership in education, shedding light on emerging issues and future research directions in this field.

The last chapter makes a case for professional learning communities (PLC) in improving teaching quality and professionalism of teachers. Teacher learning is an important aspect in the improvement of teacher professionalism. PLC is a collaborative effort in the context of teacher learning, and various models by DuFour and Eaker, Murphy and Lick, Hord, and Hipp and Huffman are discussed. Similarities and differences
between these models, and how effective PLCs could be sustained are also deliberated.

I am thankful to the many scholars from Universiti Sains Malaysia, University Utara Malaysia, University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus, and UCSI University, Malaysia who have contributed to the development of this book. I am grateful to Professor Philip Hallinger, Professor Dr Alma Harris, Dr Michelle Suzette Jones and all my academic colleagues, who have influenced my work in many ways. Finally, I am thankful for the support of all those close to me, especially my Mother, Mary Magdalen Anthony and Elly Chin Yen Chuin.

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REFERENCES


Leadership and management are important in any organisation. Although they are separate and perform different functions, they are both crucial for the advancement of the system and the achievement of organisational goals (Hallinger et al. 2018; Harris et al. 2015; Harris et al. 2014).

The dynamics of the education system is no different from any organisation that requires leaders and managers to drive the institution forward. In Figure 1.1, Fullan (2009a) divides the system into three interconnected levels: state, district, and school community. In this tri-level context, “instead of leading with accountability, capacity building is at the heart of the strategy” to develop the education system (Fullan 2009a, p. 7).

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**Figure 1.1: Tri-level Model of Education System**
LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

Leadership can best be defined by its role and functions within the framework of the notion of what a leader should be in the organisation and its environment. Leadership can be generalised in simple words such as “act”, “role”, or even “idea”. An act of leadership starts with the initiative to take on the role. (Adams, Kutty & Zabidi 2017).

The idea of leadership has in the 21st century, moved from the person leading to the concept of organisational development. To use the word “lead” to illustrate leadership is an oversimplification. There is no single idea of how to lead just as there are no two similar leaders or organisations. On the other hand, development without leadership is debatable (Perera, Adams, & Muniandy 2015). Naturalists would argue on the innate tendency of people to take on responsibility and drive progress; however, the act of taking responsibility forms the core of leadership (Eacott 2011; Musgrave 2013; Posner & Kouzes 2012; Thrupp & Willmott 2003).

In the field of education, leadership is commonly attributed to the reformation of the system itself (Jones et al. 2015; Bush 2016; Fullan 2009a; Kugelmass & Ainscow 2004). Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins (2008) highlight the need for successful school leadership in driving educational institutions to meet their goals, although they also note that leadership is secondary to pedagogical practices in terms of pushing positive learning outcomes. How school leaders affect the dynamics of the education system depends on concepts aligned with the individual school goals and its social environment (Fullan 2009b).

To meet these goals, leadership models are continuously being developed to suit specific contexts and environments (Harris, Jones & Adams 2016). These models come with idealised definitions of leadership that suit the demands of the education system. Although studies in this field initially flourished in the United States due to the implementation of school improvement policies in the 1980s, current research in the United Kingdom, South Africa, and the Asia Pacific region has produced different perspectives of school leadership (Hallinger 2009).

ROLE AND INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

Leadership has been conceptualised in varying forms that define the role of school leaders in their communities (Harris, Jones & Adams 2016). In school improvement, particularly, clearly communicated educational vision is translated into values that serve as a reform guide for the community (Bush 2007; Fullan 2009a).
Leadership may be understood as ‘influence’ but this notion is neutral in that it does not explain or recommend what goals or actions should be sought. However, certain alternative constructs of leadership focus on the need for leadership to be grounded in firm personal and professional values. (Bush 2003, p. 5)

Based on this assumption, the role of educational leaders can be characterised by three elements: influence, values, and vision (Bush 2003). However, these parameters are still insufficient in qualifying the extent of leadership. To reflect the aims of the education system and school communities, Hallinger (2009) attributes this role to the principal or headmaster in turning around their schools using experimental approaches to teaching and learning, especially in the U.S. in the 1980s. This role (Hallinger 2003, p. 343) is defined as:
1. Creating a shared sense of purpose in school;
2. Focusing on developing a climate of high expectations;
3. Shaping the reward structure of the school;
4. Organising and providing a wide range of activities; and
5. Being a visible presence in the school, and exemplifying the values that are fostered in the school.

Furthermore, school aims have narrowed down to specific expectations related to student outcomes (Gumus, Bellibas, Esen, & Gumus 2016; Hallinger & Bryant 2013; Robinson 2007). The move to improve results in the 21st century leads to correlations between organisational structure, leadership, and learning outcomes (Ainscow, Muijs, & West 2006; Baldy, Green, Raiford, Tsemunhu, & Lyons 2014).

In a school setting, Bush (2016) suggested that improvement in learning outcomes is brought about by providing opportunities for teacher development. Hence, leaders who focus on the quality of teaching and learning by clearly communicating goals and managing the curriculum have significant impact not only on the performance of the students but also on the overall learning environment (Hallinger 2009; Robinson 2007).

Another element of leadership is its impact on organisational outcomes (Jones et al. 2015). According to Leithwood and Sun (2012, p. 412) the “influence of different leadership practices travels different routes to improve student outcomes”. This influence stems from an operational aspect of leadership that seeks to build capacity of the organisation by creating meaningful changes in existing pedagogical practices (Hallinger 2003; Leithwood et al. 2008).

From a transformational perspective, an idealised vision is channelled through specific leadership roles such as providing intellectual stimulation to achieve the desired impact, particularly on the learners and even the
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The field of Educational Leadership and Management originated and grew to maturity in the Western societies of the USA, UK and Australia. However, since the mid-1990s, scholars in east Asia have asserted the need to ground leadership theories and practices in the ‘local contexts’ in which school leaders practice. Mastering Theories of Educational Leadership and Management is one of the first volumes published which seeks to do this. The edited chapters illustrate and elaborate how perspectives on key concepts and theories of educational leadership are being interpreted and enacted in East Asian societies. By doing so the book makes a valuable contribution which will hopefully reduce the gap between theories as explained by Western scholars and practices as enacted in East Asian societies.

~ Professor Dr. Philip Hallinger